I’m Leaving the IT Field: How does hospitality and tourism IT professionals’ satisfaction with the organization’s COVID-19 measure affect job insecurity? A Field Study on The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

The COVID-19 epidemic sparked a global disaster that had a lasting effect on nearly every element of people's lives. The purpose of the current research was to investigate how businesses may be affected by the many COVID-19 consequences, such as job instability, health concerns from isolated workers, risk-taking behavior at work, and organizational changes. The convenience sampling strategy is used in this study. Depending on information gathered from 395 hotels and travel companies by IT professionals from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The findings showed a strong positive correlation between work stability and the perceived COVID-19 health risk. Moreover, the findings showed a significant positive correlation between the perception of the organization’s COVID-19 measures (POCV19M) and job insecurity. organization's ability to deal with COVID-19 and associated issues increases with the amount of help it offers. Furthermore, employees may be convinced to trust management and concentrate on their task because of the management's effective responses to COVID-19.

Keywords: Information technology; IT Professionals; hospitality industry, tourism, job insecurity, Covid-19.
1. Introduction:
The COVID-19 pandemic recently had one of the worst effects on the tourist industry, affecting both demand as well as supply for travel. The World Travel and Tourism Council has cautioned that fifty million employment opportunities in the travel and tourism industry worldwide might be in danger as an immediate consequence of COVID-19.

Travel restrictions on a worldwide, regional, and local level had a rapid effect on national economies, involving the industry of tourism. This included travel to and from abroad, local tourism, day trips, and a variety of travel-related activities like air travel, cruises, public transportation, lodging, restaurants, and cafés; it also included conventions, events, conferences, or sporting events (Gössling, Scott, Hall, 2020).

Since its discovery in Wuhan, China in December 2019, COVID-19 has reached to about 210 countries worldwide (Hui et al., 2020). Unthinkable in its impact, COVID-19 is causing global unrest. The tourism industry has suffered greatly since the emergence of this epidemic. Governments have implemented lockdown measures to reduce the spread of the virus, which has made life uninspiring and prevented people from traveling to any place. The global economy has been impacted by the notable fact that COVID-19 has forced individuals to stay in isolation. The tourism and hospitality industry has a major effect on the world economy (Sundaram, 2019). Before the pandemic, it was predicted that tourism would account for 10% of the world's GDP and employ more than 400 million people, making it one of the most significant economic sectors worldwide. We're facing the first major pandemic brought on by globalization, and millions of workers might be lost as a result (UNWTO, 2020). Reducing travel inside and between countries has been the primary method of combating the virus. The travel and accommodation industries, as well as the food service industry, have all had significant impacts. According to Lee and Hallak (2020), COVID-19 is the worst global disaster since international War II and has had a disastrous impact on public health, the international economy, and the job market. Thus, to maintain competitiveness.

Due to the pandemic, organization management has used various techniques to address financial problems as the state of the present economy deteriorates (Dube et al., 2020). Anxiety, worry, and depression have been brought on by downsizing tactics such as terminating employee contracts, cutting staff pay, and laying off all part-timers (Kaushal and Srivastava, 2021). The hospitality and tourism industries are vulnerable to a variety of threats, such as pandemics and disasters caused by nature (Jung et al., 2021). Workers also experience a high level of unpredictability because of the structural features (Robinson et al., 2019). The tourist sector is a source of income for certain individuals (Baum et al., 2020). Research on workers' employment insecurity during COVID-19 is scarcer (Jung et al., 2021). Studying the relationships between workplace pressures, violence, withdrawing actions, the significance of COVID-19 concerns, and cyberloafing is necessary in this area. Current research will help to close a research gap in the hospitality and tourism IT professionals that authors are uniquely
prepared to lead (Novelli et al., 2018). So, the current research aims to investigate the impact of employees’ satisfaction with the organization’s COVID-19 measure on job insecurity (JIS) in the Saudi hospitality industry.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Tourism and hospitality industry and Covid 19 Pandemic

One of the most vulnerable industries to outside shocks like natural catastrophes and pandemic illnesses is the hotel sector (Gössling, 2020). One of the main sources of income, investment, and jobs is tourism. According to the World Trade Organization, tourism could encourage economic growth and development while opening new avenues for self-governance and the reduction of poverty. Considered to be a highly labor-intensive industry, tourism is a major source of employment, particularly in underdeveloped nations with few choices for subsistence (World Tourism Organization, 2020). Since they are often the first to hear from visitors, workers in the tourism and hotel sectors are compelled to interact directly with clients from a variety of international backgrounds (Yu et al., 2021). Workers are particularly vulnerable to contracting COVID-19 since they operate in high-contact environments (Vo-Thanh et al., 2021; Ahmed et al., 2023). In one industry, workers’ mental health is severely impacted by their elevated risk of contracting a communicable disease because of their place of employment (Khalid et al., 2016) so, the elevated risk of infection among hotel staff members might have detrimental psychological effects on them (Yu et al., 2021). Due to the COVID-19 epidemic, dining establishments, bars, vacation villages, and amusement parks were closed; international flights were halted; and interstate travel was prohibited.

"Covid-19" is a new global disease that has been rapidly spreading through human-to-human transmission since it was first discovered in China in December 2019. Travel restrictions enforced by the majority of governments worldwide have become more of a problem for the tourist business globally because of the COVID-19 epidemic. According to Taylor and Toohey (2007), visitors' choices and inclinations about locales are influenced by their perceptions of safety and security, which are shaped by how different areas are portrayed in the media (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007). When negative media coverage of health-related issues such as COVID-19 occurs, it becomes more challenging to manage the hospitality and tourist industries (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2014).

The United Nations reports that the hotel and tourist industries have taken a serious hit. The Covid-19 outbreak has the potential to have a detrimental effect on foreign travelers' mental health, and the problem has gotten worse globally. The COVID-19 epidemic has significantly changed how travelers see risk and how to control it when they travel overseas. The COVID-19 pandemic has had a detrimental impact on travel demand as well as supply. As a result, compared to 2019, the sales of aircraft companies have decreased by around 60% (International Air Travel and Tourism Council, 2020). If the pandemic continues for a long time, projections indicate that 75 million jobs and $2.1
trillion in global GDP might be lost (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020). Travelers' views of their own physical and emotional security impact their choices in terms of destinations (Taylor and Toohey, 2007), which are frequently stimulated by travel-related media images (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007). The tourist industry finds it especially difficult to handle health-related emergencies, such as epidemics, because they frequently result in unfavorable media coverage and gory visuals (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2014).

Compared to the same time in 2019, the number of foreign tourists decreased by 70% between January and October 2020. 217 countries have imposed travel restrictions as of March 2020. Furthermore, the extensive usage of travel discounts has hurt hotels (STR, 2020). Throughout the nation, the number of hotel guests fell precipitously in March and April of 2020. A rolling seven-day average shows that just 14% of hotel rooms in Europe are occupied. The greatest occupancy rate is found in the Middle East (58.9%), followed by China (49.8%) and the United States (40.1%).

Restrictions on international travel and domestic tourism in addition to restrictions on air travel and cruises and restrictions on the use of the public transit system as well as hotels and restaurants affected the economy of all nations (Gössling, Scott, Hall, 2020; Agina (b) et al., 2023). One in every four new employment was produced internationally during the previous five years because of the tourist sector (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020). In 2020, the overall number of jobs lost because of the pandemic decreased by 40%. It is widely acknowledged that there is worldwide employment instability because of the sanitary catastrophe (Fernandes, 2020; Wilson et al., 2020). This worry is founded on these two factors: the lack of knowledge about COVID-19 therapies and recovery rates; and the connection between COVID-19 and employment insecurity (Gasparro et al., 2020). As such, a recent study found a high relationship between work insecurity and fluctuations in employment (Wilson et al., 2020; Sasaki et al., 2020).
Figure 1. Accommodation occupancy rate change for the week of 21 March (year over year). Data source: STR (2020)

Figure 1 shows the crisis's effects on the lodging industry for the week of March 21 compared to the same week in 2019. The number of visitors has decreased dramatically—by at least 50%—in every country. The most afflicted were the nations that were most directly affected by the crisis, such as Italy, where high case numbers generated dramatic press headlines, and Greece and Germany, which implemented harsh measures to limit population mobility. The Seychelles, Sweden, and New Zealand—countries that seem to have fared better—may have had a high number of visitors in March as travelers chose to wait out the crisis in nations they thought to be safer. Nevertheless, several nations are requesting that visitors go back home, even under those circumstances.

According to UNWTO (2020), this is by far the greatest crisis that the tourism industry worldwide has ever encountered. The effect of the decline in demand for worldwide travel translated into the loss of 850 million to 1.1 billion foreign tourists, a loss of US$910 billion to US$1.2 trillion in tourism-related revenue from exports, and 100 to 120 million direct employment opportunities in tourism at risk.

According to research by consultants like McKinsey and Company (2020), over 20% of all vulnerable occupations in the US are in the hotel and catering industry. These jobs include those that are susceptible to furloughs, layoffs, or being unable to work due to social alienation. Worldwide airlines are attempting to position themselves as parts of essential transportation networks to qualify for government packages and bailouts. Australia's Qantas Airlines is one instance that has come under fire for making drastic worker reductions while requesting government assistance despite previous years' record earnings (Butler, 2020).
2- COVID-19 and Job insecurity among IT professionals in the tourism industry

According to Erdoğan et al. (2020), job insecurity is the perception of a danger to an IT worker's existing position. Job insecurity may also refer to IT worker's desire to work through a crisis or their perspective on being jobless, as well as their ongoing worry of quitting their job (Reisel et al., 2010; Aliane et al., 2023). IT workers who experience job instability worry about potential risks to their work status in addition to the dread of losing their positions (Ali et al., 2021). Therefore, the study's definition of job insecurity is the unease that IT workers in the tourism industry experience about their jobs and the fear that they may lose their jobs because of the epidemic.

Job insecurity was shown to be one of the most depressing aspects of one's professional life (Reisel et al., 2010). Job insecurity is defined as workers' subjective assessments of the chance of losing their employment (De Witte et al., 2015). According to Maertz et al. (2010), downsizing can be defined as the process of eliminating positions inside an organization. As the COVID-19 outbreak is expected to continue for years, several hospitality businesses have been forced to reduce their workforce or lay off employees (Filimonau et al., 2020; Alqarni et al., 2023). Uncertainty about one's work status is seen as a stressor and a cause of worry by many people (Debus et al., 2019; Yeves et al., 2020). Low performance is worsened by the negative consequences of job insecurity on work results and attitudes, including job satisfaction (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Agina et al., 2017; Agina, 2020). The correlation between increased employment instability and various adverse effects on people, businesses, and communities, both in the immediate and long-term, makes it a concerning trend (Shoss, 2019; Abou Kamar et al., 2023). So, according to Dekker & Schaufeli (1995), IT workers who experience JIS because of reduction are likely to experience unfavorable responses such as "sickness" or "survivors. According to Mishra and Spreitzer (1998), survivors' negative reactions include hopelessness, anxiety, mistrust, rage, helplessness, loss of drive, and discouragement. Sverke et al. (2002) contended that JIS hurts several elements, including attitude toward work, satisfaction with work performance, and intention to quit. Furthermore, JIS was shown to be more strongly correlated with both performance and turnover intention (Agina & Abdelhakim, 2021; Ashford et al. 1989).

Providing a feeling of security in the workplace might improve one's level of job satisfaction (Matei & Abrudan, 2016; Wilczyska, 2016; Alsetoohy et al., 2022), there is a direct correlation between job happiness and a lack of stability and a lack of security in one's career (Byrne, 2006; Reisel et al., 2010; Sloan et al., 2020). Previous research suggests that IT workers' attitudes and behaviors at work may be altered by perceived job insecurity; when individuals feel anxious about their employment, they decide to move away psychologically and behaviorally (Karatepe et al., 2020; Agina & Abuelnasr, 2021). The insecurity varies depending on demographic factors, including gender, age, level of education, and professional stage (Metin Camgoz et al., 2016; Erdogan et al., 2020; Khairy(a) et al., 2023; Salas-Nicás et al., 2020); the sphere of operation, position within the situation of the company, as well as the size and competitiveness of the company (Petitta & Jiang, 2020). Job security is also influenced by cultural, financial, budgetary, and hygienic difficulties (Gasparro et al., 2020; Wilson et al., 2020).
2.3 Job insecurity and Perceived health risk associated with COVID-19 (PHRCV19)
Uncertainty and unfavorable outcomes define perceived risk (Ritchie & Jiang, 2019). The purchasing habits of consumers have several psychological and physical repercussions. Hall et al. (2020) noted that these effects included those related to time, money, security, and health. The concept of perceived risk has been used to study consumer behavior in the hotel and tourist industries in detail (Hwang & Choe, 2020). Since World War II, significant travel restrictions and stay-at-home orders have been implemented worldwide because of COVID-19 (Gossling et al., 2021; Agina(a) et al., 2023). This has had far-reaching effects on people's lives as well as society and the economy globally. One important aspect of this global pandemic is its asymptomatic spread (Li et al., 2020). Although the literature has extensively addressed the financial and operational consequences of global epidemics for firms, it has not examined the impact on the health of employees. Thus, from a theoretical standpoint, it is imperative to focus on the perceived health risks associated with COVID-19 (Xie et al., 2020).

2.4. Hypotheses development and conceptual framework

Downsizing has been a typical cure since COVID-19 has turned into an economic disaster that affects both manufacturing and consumption. Frone (2018) and Niesen and al. (2018) claim that reorganization and downsizing can raise people's JIS while endangering the employment and housing conditions of workers. As a result, the following hypothesis, H1 was developed: PHRCV19 positively affects JIS.

Every business should have a solid emergency plan in place if it wants to succeed and keep its workforce during COVID-19. According to Kim and Niederdeppe (2013), during an epidemic, an organization may serve as a hub for the spread of viruses, leaving workers feeling vulnerable, scared, and anxious. Employees may return to work and focus on the objectives of the firm because of the companies' proactive efforts, which give them confidence in the company (Watkins et al., 2015; Khairy(b) et al., 2023). As a result, managers must start building employees' trust right away. So, the following hypothesis was developed H2: POCV19M positively affects JIS.

3. Materials and Methods
3.1 Measures and Instrument Development
Survey methodologies were used in this investigation. There were two components of the survey that were utilized. One of the items dealt with latent variables, while the other included questions about the gender, age, education level, work experience, employment status, and job level of the research sample. Job insecurity was measured by a 7-item scale (Codes: JI.1: JI.8) adapted from Karraytepe et al.,(2020). For example, “I do not feel secure about the potential scope of my job” and “I do not feel secure about my prospects for advancement in my job”. PHRCV19 was measured by five elements selected from Lau et al. (2007). POCV19M was assessed using three elements extracted from Watkins et al. (2015). To ensure that matching took place, the survey was first translated into Arabic and then back into English. In this investigation, the Arabic version was verified and employed. Every characteristic under investigation was assessed using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 denoting strongly disagree and 5 denoting strongly agree.

3.2 Sampling and Data Collection
Saudi hotels are scattered around the nation in various remote regions. Thus, the convenience sampling strategy is used in this study. In cases like this one, when randomization is challenging because of the big population and the researchers' limited resources, this sampling technique is also frequently used. Full-time workers of Saudi Arabia's hotels and travel agencies provided the data. First, these businesses were notified that the questionnaire will be fully secret and anonymous, and that the information will be handled in an aggregated fashion. 500 surveys were sent out, however only 395 legitimate answers were received back, translating to a 79% response rate.

3.3. Validity and Reliability
After computing the Cronbach Alpha dependability, the scales were found to be reliable: 705 POCV19M, .631 for PHRCV19, and .609 for JIS. Salkind and Frey (2021) determined the greatest degree of validity by taking the square root of the reliability coefficient, which indicates the validity of the JIS, PHRCV19, and SOCV19M scales at .768, .789, and .80, respectively.

4. Results
Table (1): Participant’s characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>66.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>33.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 30 years</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30:40 years</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's or PhD degree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5 year</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5 to 10 years</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 10 years</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>56.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractual</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Wagers</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operative workers</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>395</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (1) revealed that out of 395 participants, a majority 66.6% (n = 263) were male and 33.4% (n= 132) were female; about 43.3% (n = 171) belong to a manager’s job class, and 34.7% (n=137) were from 30 to 40 years old; about two-thirds of respondents 60.7% (n= 240) had bachelor’s degrees and a minority 5.00% (n=20) had master degree; about 43.3% (n= 171) belong to a managers’ job class, and 224 (56.7 %) belong to operative workers. Regarding years of experience, the majority 51.7%(n=204) were between 5 to 10 years, 26.5%(n=105) had less than 5 years and 86 (21.8%) were more than 10 years of experience.

Table (2) Perceived job insecurity
I’m Leaving the IT Field: How does hospitality and tourism IT professionals’ satisfaction with the organization’s COVID-19 measure affect job insecurity? A Field Study on The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job insecurity (JI)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am scared about the potential of being fired before I want to.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The development of my company and my new career both worry me.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>1.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is insecure.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My employment might change in the future.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think the company won’t be able to offer me desirable employment opportunities in the future.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wages, Incentives, and other rewards will decrease in the near future.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I fear that my work responsibilities may become less stimulating soon.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.964</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in table (2) The perceived job insecurity score was measured using seven questions, namely the statements ‘I am worried about my career change and organization development’ scored the highest mean of 3.76 compared to other statements; the statement ‘I am worried about the possibility of being fired before I want to’ scored the second mean score of 3.69; the statement ‘My job is insecure’ scored the third mean score, being 3.55; the statement ‘My job is likely to change in the future’ scored the fourth mean score, 3.34 among other statements; the statement ‘I worry about having less exciting job duties in near future’ scored the fifth mean score, 3.26, among other statements; the statement ‘In the future, my salary, rewards, and other advantages will be decreased’ scored the sixth mean score, 3.22; Lastly, the statement ‘In the future, my salary, rewards, and other advantages will be decreased’ scored the lowest mean score, 3.00 compared to other statements. The overall mean score for the perceived job insecurity factor was (M = 3.40).

Table (3) Perceived health risk of COVID-19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived health risks of COVID-19</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am aware that the COVID-19 pandemic is extremely dangerous.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The COVID-19 treatment procedures are ineffective.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fatality rate of the COVID-19 pandemic is substantial.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am concerned that COVID-19 could reach us all.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.399</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The COVID-19 pandemic poses a serious threat to anyone.

According to Table (3) Perceived health risk of COVID-19 was measured using five questions, namely 'The COVID-19 treatment procedures are ineffective' scored the highest mean of 3.54 compared to other statements; the statement 'I am aware that the COVID-19 pandemic is extremely dangerous.' scored the second mean score, 3.33; the statement 'The pandemic of COVID-19 poses a serious threat to anyone., being 3.13; the statement 'The fatality rate of the COVID-19 pandemic is substantial.' scored the fourth mean score, 3.00, among other statements; Lastly, the statement 'I'm worried that COVID-19 could reach us all. scored the lowest mean score, 2.69 compared to other statements. The overall mean score for the perceived health risk of COVID-19 factor was (M= 3.13).

Table (4) Perception of the Organization’s COVID-19 Measures (POCV19M)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived of Organization’s COVID-19 Measures (POCV19M)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Management interest in the employees’ desires and problems resulting from COVID-19.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management response to COVID-19 was satisfactory to me.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>1.343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In reaction to COVID-19, management did all within its ability.</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.352</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table(4) revealed that the perception of the Organization’s COVID-19 Measures(POCV19M) factor score was measured using three questions, namely ‘In reaction to COVID-19, Management was within its ability’ scored the highest mean of 3.03 compared to other statements; the statement ‘Management response to COVID-19 was satisfactory to me.’ scored the second mean score, 2.34; Lastly, the statement ‘Management took care of its employees’ desires resulting from COVID-19’ scored the lowest mean score, 2.15 compared to other statements. The overall mean score for the perception of the Organization’s COVID-19 measures of the organization (POCV19M) factor was (M= 2.50).

Table (5) Pearson product-moment correlations between research variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>PHRCV19</th>
<th>POCV19M</th>
<th>JIS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHRCV19</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POCV19M</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is statistically significant with p<0.01.**
The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to analyze the reported relationships between the research variables. PHRCV19 and JIS were shown to be positively and statistically significantly associated \((r = .477, p < .01)\). Furthermore, a significant positive correlation \((r = .468, p < .01)\) was seen between POCV19M and JIS.

### Table (6) Hypotheses Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Hypothesized Relationship</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>PHRCV19 \rightarrow JIS</td>
<td>3.819</td>
<td>.477</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>POCV19M \rightarrow JIS</td>
<td>4.856</td>
<td>.468</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (6)'s results, with a P-value of .477, indicated a significant positive relationship between job insecurity and perceived health risk of COVID-19. However, the results showed a significant correlation \((P\text{-value of}.468)\) between job insecurity and perception of the organization’s COVID-19 measures \((POCV19M)\).

#### 4.6 Impact of perceived health risk associated with COVID-19(PHRCV19) on job insecurity.

The impact of the independent factor on the dependent variable was ascertained using regression. The analysis by entry method results for the independent variable on job insecurity are shown below.

### Table (7) Impact of perceived health risk associated with COVID-19 on job insecurity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHRCV19</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.330</td>
<td>5.606</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.465</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>8.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>.344</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A straightforward regression analysis was performed in table (7) to examine the impact of PHRCV19 on job insecurity. The findings showed that PHRCV19 can affect 23.3% of the variation in JIS \((R^2=.233)\). It was a decent regression model, according to the ANOVA result \((p=.004)\). Workers’ PHRCV19 was a good indicator of their JIS, according to the correlation coefficient data \((p=.004)\). The employee JIS is 4.330 + (.344 PHRCV19) in the outcome of the regression model.
4.7 Effect of Perception of the Organization’s COVID-19 Measures (POCV19M) on job insecurity.

Table (8): Perception of the Organization’s COVID-19 Measures (POCV19M) on job insecurity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>R2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POCV19M</td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.323</td>
<td>5.686</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.256</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>7.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JIS</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>6.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A straightforward regression analysis was performed in table (8) to examine the impact of POCV19 on job insecurity. The findings showed that POCV19M can affect 18.3% of the variation in JIS (R2=.183). It was a decent regression model, according to the ANOVA result (p=.001). Workers POCV19M is a great indicator to forecast their JIS, according to the coefficient data (p=.001). {worker JIS = 4.323 + (.355 POCV19M)} is the regression model.

Discussion and conclusion

The primary aim of this research was to examine the relationship between job insecurity and employees' perceptions of the organization's COVID-19 measures in the Saudi hospitality and tourism industry. current research that helps to close a research gap in the industry that authors are uniquely prepared to lead (Novelli et al., 2018). The findings showed a strong positive correlation between work instability and perceived COVID-19 health risk. At a greater POCV19M level, the relationship between PHRCV19 and JP becomes stronger. The impact of COVID-19 on global health, the economy, and society could threaten the jobs of some workers. These findings align with the findings of Hellgren and Chirumbolo (2003), and Vo-Thanh et al. (2021), which highlighted the influence of COVID-19 on job insecurity.

Nevertheless, the outcome conflicts with the findings of Pham et al. (2020) and Bluen & Edelstein (1993). There are a few plausible explanations for this outcome: union support is insufficient to provide financial stability, and people may become concerned about the financial consequences if the disease expands and worsens. However, the COVID-19 control strategy in Saudi, the travel restrictions, social distancing measures, and shutdown regulations used by most governments forced enterprises to close or cease operations.

Furthermore, the findings also showed a strong correlation between job insecurity and how the organization's COVID-19 measures (POCV19M) are perceived. These findings are in line with those of Watkins et al. (2015), who hypothesized that organizational
support may increase employees' contentment with how businesses respond to crises and give them a way to resolve problems.

On the other hand, Mao et al. (2020) also noted that an organization’s ability to deal with COVID-19 and associated issues increases with the amount of help it offers. Furthermore, employees may be convinced to trust management and concentrate on their tasks because of the management’s effective responses to COVID-19. This result validates earlier studies by showing how crucial an institution's appropriate response to a crisis is in motivating employees to advance work objectives (Mao et al., 2020). The present findings stand in contrast to other studies (Markovits et al., 2014; De Clercq et al., 2017) that examined the connection between risk perception and employment instability. This conflicting outcome might be explained by the possibility that, if they are satisfied with the company's COVID-19 responses, employees will protect their health, well-being, and ability to work. Workers react by promoting proper behaviors and attitudes to maintain their JIS.

**Practical and Theoretical Implications**

The current paper provides important practical implications for hospitality and tourism IT managers. Our results assume that IT employees’ welfare may be compromised by financial stress brought on by a sense of job instability. The results give IT managers insightful insight into how hotels and travel agencies should teach staff members and offer growth opportunities to help them manage their reactions throughout the COVID-19 pandemic. To support their staff throughout this difficult COVID-19 epidemic, hospitality and tourism IT managers should also consider consulting with psychiatric therapists (Korman and Mujtaba, 2020).

IT Employees are more inclined to act positively if they are pleased with how the organization handled the situation. The significance of health rewards is further highlighted by the present research to gain a better understanding of how perceived COVID-19 health risk and perceptions of the business's COVID-19 metrics affect perceived job insecurity. IT Employees strive to improve their existing level of performance to help their organizations better withstand disasters. Employee perceptions of the company's COVID-19 measures enhance employment instability, which may be impeded by the shortage of COVID-19 resources. The influence of cultural, cultural, and economic factors on the stress response system must be acknowledged (Hobfoll, 2001).

The findings showed that IT workers in the hotel and tourist industries consider an economic obstacle to be more significant than a health risk. Potentially, it is important to consider the elements and causes that lessen staff's sense of job insecurity while dealing with a health emergency like COVID-19. To combat the crisis, hospitality and tourism companies need to take the necessary precautions. These include using an emergency fund to safeguard worker income, creating a backup work schedule to ease staff members' concerns about quitting, changing their target market, responding promptly to employee needs, swiftly putting protective and security strategies into place, and putting in place suitable virus-prevention education initiatives. IT Employees who are pleased with how the firm handled a crisis have more trust in the organization, perceive themselves as more
confident in their job, and are more prepared to put in very long hours to help the organization recover from setbacks. Effective interaction is crucial for building resilience since it enables employees to comprehend corporate problems and take part in catastrophe response plans (Ortiz-De-Mandojana & Bansal, 2016; Bui & Wickens, 2021).

Businesses need to provide emotional support to their employees if reduction is necessary. Any policies about pay or incentives must be convincing and well-explained. The epidemic's hibernation phase presents an opportunity for hotels and other tourism-related enterprises to evaluate employees' potential for overcoming job insecurity and demonstrating great performance at work to create a human resources plan.

Limitations and Further Research

Despite the useful contributions of this study to policymakers, it does have certain limitations. This study investigated the impact of employees’ perception of the organization’s COVID-19 measures on job insecurity. Future research should look at how job insecurity impacts other organizational and personnel outcomes including sustainable performance, employee turnover intentions, organization commitment, and physical and mental health. The participants in this study were employees in Saudi hospitality and tourism IT professionals and the findings may not apply to other industries due to the nature of the hospitality and tourism businesses, which opens research opportunities for studies in other sectors. This study was carried out within the Saudi cultural framework, focusing on five-star hotels. To derive comprehensive comparative results, future research may compare other hotel and travel agency categories, as well as the hospitality and tourist industries such as airlines and various countries.

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I’m Leaving the IT Field: How does hospitality and tourism IT professionals’ satisfaction with the organization’s COVID-19 measure affect job insecurity? A Field Study on The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia


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