

**THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF
MASS DISMISSAL**

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Science,
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for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own work and is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Natal,, Pietermaritzburg.

It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Eric John Radford', is written over a horizontal line.

ERIC JOHN RADFORD

1 January 1993

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Jesus Christ, my Lord and Saviour.

A B S T R A C T

The study investigated the psychological effects of job loss as a consequence of mass dismissal.

A sample of 358 individuals, who were residents of the Natal township of Mpophomeni in South Africa, were interviewed between 1986 and 1992. A structured interview and the General Health Questionnaire (30 Item Version) were used to examine the degree to which the respondents, their families and the community were experiencing stress.

Mass dismissed individuals were found to experience greater stress than either other unemployed or employed persons. Only in the group of employed individuals was a significant increase in degree of stress (as measured by General Health Questionnaire) evident over time. The project also demonstrated that widespread job loss had a significant negative effect on the families and community.

A theoretical model of job loss, based on stress theory, was used to identify a number of variables which were predicted to moderate the relationship between job loss (the stressor) and stress. The majority of these variables were found to have no significant moderating effect on stress and one of the possible explanations for this result, was that the degree of stress in the community was so high that any potential moderating effect was nullified.

It became evident through this study that any investigation into the psychological effects of job loss or even unemployment in general, should not be restricted to the dismissed individuals, but should rather examine, or at least take into account, the effects on other family members and the community as a whole.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 ORIGINS OF THE STUDY

Unemployment is increasingly becoming a more significant part of the fabric of society both locally in South Africa and internationally (Feather, 1990). Research into the psychological effects of job loss has extended over the last sixty years, resulting in extensive literature on the subject. A number of reviews of this research have been published in recent years (e.g. O'Brien, 1986; Warr, 1987; Fryer, 1988; Feather, 1990). However, since the classic study conducted at Marienthal in the early 1930's, there has been no study which has involved the detailed examination of a specific community (Jahoda et al, 1933). In 1985, a unique research opportunity arose when the author was invited to conduct an independent, "scientific" study into the psychological effects of a mass dismissal in South Africa.

The opportunity was unique because, not only did it provide an opportunity to gain access to a black community in South Africa at a time when there was strong call for more socially responsive research amongst South African psychologists (Strümpfer, 1981; Lazarus, 1985), but the unique geographical layout of the community provided an opportunity to study more specifically the relationship

between the individual, the community and the work organisation. The geography of the situation is unique in that the business which dismissed its employees is a rubber factory in the small town of Howick, situated some twenty-seven kilometres from Pietermaritzburg, and consists of a limited business area with a small industrial sector. At the time of the mass dismissal, the Sarmcol factory was part of a multi-national company owned by British Tyre and Rubber (BTR) and had been one of the major producers of rubber based products in South Africa. In 1985, when the mass dismissal occurred Sarmcol was the major employer in the area, employing 1060 people. The next largest employer, employed less than one tenth of this number of individuals. The factory employed a significant number of its workers from the local black township of Mpophomeni which is situated twenty kilometres from the factory in the Natal Midlands. The township of Mpophomeni is also relatively small and consisted of approximately 1600 houses. Approximately one third of Sarmcol's weekly paid work force at the time of their dismissal resided in Mpophomeni. The dismissal of the workers meant that 21,8% of households in the township were directly affected. Mpophomeni is isolated both geographically and in terms of its labour market, and consequently this situation provides a unique opportunity to study the psychological effects of

job loss on the individual, family and the community.

1.2 MASS DISMISSAL IN SOUTH AFRICA

Although not the major focus of this study, it is important to examine mass dismissal as one of the outcomes of unsatisfactory labour management conflict resolution in South Africa. The South African Government's declaration of a state of emergency from 1985 to 1990 together with the Internal Security Act (no.74 of 1982) made the collection of reliable and valid statistics on industrial disputes difficult, if not impossible. Some information was obtained through the Institute for Industrial Relations and is summarised for the period 1981 to 1986 in Table 1.1

From Table 1.1 it is apparent that over the six year period analyzed, 24,1% of all the disputes reported were resolved by dismissing the workers involved. 1981 appeared to be the worst year with 39,4% of disputes being resolved by mass dismissal. This is tragic when compared with the fact that only 28,2% of the disputes that year were resolved by negotiated compromise. The proportion of mass dismissals was also high (37,5%) decreased in 1983, 1984 and 1986 but was up to 25,4% in 1985.

TABLE 1.1 : ANALYSIS OF REPORTED MODES OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN SOUTH AFRICA BETWEEN 1981 TO 1986 (Extracted from data furnished by Institute for Industrial Relations Annual Reports 1981-1986).

Mode of Dispute Resolution	1981		1982		1983		1984		1985		1986		% of Total Disputes Over Six Year Period	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Dismissal	56	39,4	48	37,5	30	16,3	58	21,9	33	25,4	53	17,3	278	24,1
Management's Demands Met	23	16,2	17	13,3	16	8,7	71	26,8	28	21,5	109	35,5	264	22,9
Union's Demands Met	17	12,0	9	4,8	14	7,6	8	3,0	8	6,2	19	6,2	75	6,5
Negotiated Compromise	40	28,2	51	39,8	119	64,7	124	46,8	59	45,4	124	40,4	517	44,9
Other	6	4,2	3	2,3	5	2,7	4	1,5	2	1,5	2	0,6	22	1,9
Total Number of Disputes Reported for each Year	142	100	128	100	184	100	265	100	130	100	307	100	1152	100

NOTE: 1. Figures are represented as a percentage of the total of the known number of disputes for each year.

2. The above figures do not include disputes whose mode of resolution was unknown. Over the period 1981-1986 disputes occurred whose mode of resolution were not accounted for. This represents % of the reported strikes during this period

Given these results the question was asked at the commencement of the study in 1986 as to how extensive the problem of mass dismissal in South Africa was. If one considers that in the period between 1981 and the commencement of the study, workers in 278 companies had been dismissed as a way of resolving a labour-management dispute, then it would appear that the problem was extensive, particularly in light of the fact that these figures should be treated as conservative. Unfortunately, there were no statistics available as to whether the workers were re-employed, on what basis, and after what period of time. However, despite this lack of follow up information, it is safe to conclude that almost a quarter of reported labour disputes during the five year period prior to the commencement of the study resulted in the dismissal of the majority of the work force.

The next question asked was; "How does this method of dispute resolution compare with international precedent?" A literature search, together with direct correspondence with the International Labour Organisation in Geneva, (I.L.O., 1987) revealed that mass dismissals as a method of industrial dispute resolution were virtually unheard of in the international industrial relations arena. Collective redundancy or plant lay-offs were in the majority of cases linked to plant closings and the lay-off of employees for economic reasons (Buss and Redburn, 1983; Fagin and Little, 1984; and Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985).

In contrast to the South African precedent on mass dismissals, a number of overseas countries even have legislation which protects the employee from collective redundancy. One such example is in Britain where such protection is provided in the form of the Employment Protection Act of 1975. Further, a directive from the Council of Ministers of the European Economic Community on the 17th February 1975 required prior consultation with worker representatives on collective redundancies (Official Journal of E.E.C, 1975, L48/29). The directive requires the employer to consult with worker representatives with a view to reaching agreement and to explore ways and means of avoiding collective redundancies. Therefore, it appears that in contrast to the South African situation where collective redundancies have been used as a method for "resolving" conflict between employer and employee, in overseas countries the trend is towards ways of avoiding such methods and resultant redundancies.

However, besides the significance of mass dismissals for labour relations in the country, of far greater importance is its effects on the individuals who have lost their jobs, their families, and the communities in which they live. In a country where the relationship between industry and the community in which it functions is often played down or even denied (Nzimande, 1984), it would

appear that a study of the effects of mass dismissal could be useful in highlighting the importance of this relationship.

At this point, it is appropriate to orientate the reader to the particular case of mass dismissal which formed the subject of this research.

1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY: THE BTR SARMCOL MASS DISMISSAL

The Sarmcol factory was established in the Natal Midlands town of Howick in 1919. As one of the country's major producers of rubber products, the local company had moved away from labour intensive jobbing work to processes with long production runs, mainly manufacturing conveyer belts and hoses.

Sarmcol has traditionally drawn its labour from the local African and Indian townships. Prior to 1950 African and Indian workers lived together in the shanty town of Hohabe. The town was broken up and destroyed in 1950 and the Indian people moved to Howick West together with some African people who remained there until the 1960's when they were "relocated" to the Zenzele township. The establishment of Mpophomeni in 1969 marked a stage in the long history of the forced re-location of African and Indian people working in the region for the convenience of

local industry, and in line with the then government's policy of separate development or "apartheid".

Mpophomeni is fairly typical of a formally constructed black South African township. The main roads are gravel with side streets consisting of sand. Most of the houses consist of four rooms (72,7%) but a significant number are made up of only two rooms (19,7%). Approximately 50% of the community have access to water through stand pipes which are available in the streets, and the majority of people (\pm 80%) use a bucket system for sewage removal. The township is not electrified, has no postal services and there are few public telephones. 39,5% of the Sarmcol work force at the time of dismissal resided in the township of Mpophomeni.

Conflict between the management of Sarmcol and the Metal and Allied Worker's Union (MAWU) had been brewing since 1974 when the union began organising the workers at the factory. From 1981 MAWU had attempted to obtain a recognition agreement with the company, and, after a number of unsuccessful attempts to resolve disagreements between the parties, in April 1985 the union balloted its members for a mandate to undertake a legal strike in support of their demands for recognition. The strike commenced on the 30th April 1985 and by 3rd May all the striking workers had been dismissed.

The recruitment of alternative labour ("scab labour") soon after the strike commenced, was interpreted by the union as a message from management that they were not going to negotiate with the union and that the struggle had the potential of becoming protracted. The recruitment of the replacement labour force also led to an increase in tension between the new labourers and the dismissed labourers resulting in a number of physical assaults in the immediate area of the factory and within local communities. A number of community boycotts were organised by the union and its members with the objective of placing pressure on Sarmcol to reinstate workers and recognise the union. The first such boycott was launched on the 6th May 1985 and involved a consumer boycott of all white businesses in Howick. Carrim (1985), in assessing the impact of the boycott concluded that it was successful, primarily due to the nature of the size of Howick and the relatively cohesive black community which existed in the area. The nearby Pietermaritzburg community was forced to take notice of the Sarmcol dispute, when during peak shopping hours on Saturday 29th June, a convoy of ten buses of striking workers brought traffic in the main street to a standstill. Pamphlets were distributed to explain the struggle and appeal for support. At this point, the conflict began to expand into the broader political arena when Inkatha (a national, traditional, black political party with its strongest support in Natal) encouraged its members not to support

the Sarmcol strikers in their boycott. The conflict between MAWU (a member of the COSATU federation of unions) and Inkatha continued when, on the 2nd July 1985, a two thousand strong mass meeting of union and community organisation representatives endorsed a proposal for a one day "stay away" of all workers in Pietermaritzburg if the local Pietermaritzburg Chamber of Commerce did not persuade the Sarmcol Management to negotiate with MAWU. A negotiation never took place and the "stay away" occurred on the 18th July. Carrim (1985) reports that some 92% of African workers and 70% of all workers including whites stayed away in what was the first boycott of its kind in South Africa. Township schools were also boycotted and 80% of all black businesses were closed. In Durban, some one hundred kilometres from Howick, more than a thousand workers from three major companies in the area took part in street demonstrations to show their sympathy with their Sarmcol colleagues. In Machadodorp, some seven hundred kilometres away, about 400 workers (all MAWU members) went on a strike over the company's refusal to send a telex to the Sarmcol management demanding a reinstatement of their fellow workers. These 400 workers were also dismissed. On the 15th August, a boycott of all white owned shops in Pietermaritzburg commenced following an unsuccessful meeting between MAWU and Sarmcol management. This boycott lasted until the 24th September and, although its impact was not as great as that of Howick, it did have a significant impact on commercial

enterprise in Pietermaritzburg (Carrim, 1985).

With the failure of the Inkatha leadership to back the boycott action, tension between Inkatha and United Democratic Front (affiliated to COSATU) members in Pietermaritzburg's black townships increased dramatically. Indications are that the Sarmcol mass dismissal, and its subsequent labour actions, were the trigger to the commencement of an unprecedented era of violence in Natal, which then spread in the late 1980's to the rest of South Africa. However, the various boycotts and community based demonstrations for support of the Sarmcol workers failed to have any measurable effect on the resolution of the dispute between MAWU and Sarmcol management and both parties prepared for a long and protracted legal dispute. The union made application to the Industrial Court for the unconditional reinstatement of its dismissed members on the basis that the management of Sarmcol's action was an unfair labour practice.

In August 1985, the University of Natal was approached by COSATU to conduct an independent, "scientific" study into the effects of the mass dismissal on the workers. This study formed the first sample of the research project and was conducted and presented to the Industrial Court in 1986 (Radford and Leeb, 1986). From 1986 the violence in the Mpophomeni township began to escalate and although a further sample was obtained in 1987 it was decided to

suspend the project because of the associated dangers to researchers as a consequence of the violence. By 1992 the Mpophomeni township although not entirely safe, had calmed down to a point where a continuation of the research was feasible and the study was resumed in mid-year 1992. At the time of the writing of this thesis, the legal dispute between management of Sarmcol and Metal and Allied Workers Union has still not been resolved and, after an initial finding by the Industrial Court in favour of management, the union took the case to appeal and in 1990 the case was judged a mistrial and will continue in 1993 under a new judge. At this point in time, it holds the South African record for the longest legal labour relations dispute in South African history.

1.4 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Given this background, the purpose of the study can be defined as follows:

- i) To examine the psychological effects of the Sarmcol mass dismissal on the individuals concerned, their families and the community of Mpophomeni over a period of time.
- ii) To explore conceptually the relationship between job loss as a potential stressor and stress experienced by the individual, the family and the community.

Because much of the research on the effects of job loss has not taken into account the context in which it occurred, it was decided not to limit the study to the individual, but to extend it to the effects of job loss on the family and community.

CHAPTER TWO

2. THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF JOB LOSS: A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 OVERVIEW

In examining the psychological effect of the mass dismissal, it was necessary to scan the vast literature on the effects of unemployment. It is however, acknowledged that "job loss" is a specific component of the broader literature on unemployment. For example the broader literature contains a massive literature on the psychological impact of unemployment on the young, many of whom have never had a job and, is therefore, outside the scope of this research (eg. Warr, 1987; Fryer, 1988; Feather, 1990).

The interest and research into unemployment and its consequences is now almost a century old, (Fryer and Payne, 1986) make reference to a "Bibliography of Unemployment and the Unemployed" (Taylor, 1909). It included over seven hundred publications that were prepared for a British Royal Commission into the relief of distress from unemployment and associated legislation. The popularity of the psychological research into unemployment has followed the macro trends of unemployment in the western world. Following the "Great Depression", the first research concerning the psychological effects of

unemployment was published (Jahoda et al, 1933; Bakke, 1933). Since then several hundred articles and a number of books have been published on the subject. There have been two areas in which the effects of unemployment have received major attention; the one being in the 1930's and 1940's following the "Great Depression", and then more recently from 1975 through to the present, when there has been a significant increase internationally in the number of unemployed people. O'Brien (1986), in reviewing some of the research in the area, separates quite specifically the 1930's and 1940's studies from the more recent studies in the 1970's and 1980's and he offers as one of the reasons for this division being some of the differences in methodology that have been currently used as compared to early studies. Kelvin and Jarrett (1985), after their review of the literature, conclude that it has been characteristically descriptive, diffuse and fragmentary. Kabanoff (1982) comments that much of the research has been theoretical with little attempt to develop explanations of the process of how unemployment affects individuals. With the predominance of descriptions about the unemployed and their situations, many of the studies did not consider the underlying processes involved. Although the literature is diffuse and fragmented, it does not necessarily imply that valuable information about the psychological aspects of unemployment cannot be found. Taking the above into account, it was decided to review the literature by categorising the studies into a number

of outcome variables which relate to the effects of the job loss. This is carried out with some critical analysis of these studies in this chapter.

In Chapter Three, a theoretical foundation for the research is developed based on the literature of psychological stress. The various theories/approaches to unemployment are then integrated into this model to form a basis for the research questions for this project.

In Chapter Two, the outcome effects will be examined at three levels; the individual, the family and the community. This chapter is then concluded with a short critique of the research referred to.

2.2 THE EFFECTS OF JOB LOSS ON THE INDIVIDUAL

2.2.1 IMPAIRMENT OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL BEING

A wide spread, early generic term which was used to describe the impairment of psychological well being was that of "demoralization". In a paper summarising the evidence from research carried out in Britain during the depression of the 1930's, Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld (1938) reviewed 112 studies and summarised the findings as follows: "there is a general lowering of morale with unemployment" (p.29).

In the 1970's and 1980's, a number of studies have focused on the impairment of the psychological well being of individuals that have lost their jobs. Warr (1978) has done a significant amount of work in this area. One of his first attempts to answer the above question was carried out in a follow-up of steel workers who had lost their jobs after a closure of a factory in 1976. He developed and applied a number of measures to examine positive and negative psychological well being, and showed that those who were still unemployed six months after the closure, exhibited significantly lower psychological well being than those who obtained new jobs. Other studies since have shown that the psychological health of individuals who have lost their jobs is significantly lower than those who are still employed (Stafford et al, 1980; Warr and Payne, 1982; and Warr, 1983). One of the difficulties of most of these studies is that they have utilised cross-sectional research designs and it is somewhat difficult to establish whether the individual was always generally poorer in psychological health or that the unemployment had had a direct effect. However, in a longitudinal study, Warr (1983) found that being without a job could be attributed to the decline of psychological well being, and a return to paid employment sharply increased the psychological well being of those individuals studied. Of interest was the study by Jackson and Warr (1983) of almost one thousand unemployed men where, although the majority reported a decline in psychological well being,

the study was interesting in that they found that 8% of their sample reported an improvement in psychological health. In almost all the cases, this was described as having come about because people were now freed from the stresses of their paid jobs. A small minority of people may thus, in certain respects, benefit as a consequence of becoming unemployed.

More serious indicators of diminished psychological well being have been reported by Hepworth (1980), Stafford et al (1980), and Melville et al (1985). Using the General Health Questionnaire, these researchers found a significantly greater potential for psychiatric illness amongst the unemployed. Liem and Rayman (1982) found that being without work was strongly associated at one and four months after job loss with high levels of psychiatric symptoms relative to a control group. It was further found that following a return to work, there was a drop in the number and degree of psychiatric symptoms exhibited by the group. This drop in symptoms was to a level below that of the control group. This longitudinal study was important because it served as a firm basis for a relatively strong inference that unemployment causes, rather than responds to, emotional strain. A similar result was reported by Finlay-Jones and Eckhardt (1981). Of course the relationship between job loss and psychological well being is not a simplistic one and can be moderated by a number of factors. These are discussed

in more detail in Chapter Three.

Impressive cross-sectional analysis has shown job loss to have a significant effect on another measure of psychological well being, defined as "present life satisfaction" (Campbell et al, 1976; Schlozman and Verba, 1978, Epworth, 1980, Gaskell and Smith, 1981, Miles, 1983).

2.2.2 STRESS/ANXIETY

Anxiety
The earlier studies indicated quite strongly that anxiety and stress were a major outcome of job loss. Beales and Lambert (1934,p.162) summarise their study as presenting on every page a "melancholy record of worry neurosis". Pilgrim Trust (1938, p.146) in describing their study, refer to the relationship between job loss and stress "when a man is out of work, anxiety is a part of a vicious circle, and the more he worries the more he unfits himself for work".

stress
Research in the last two decades has consistently found increased stress levels to be associated with job loss. (Estes and Wilensky, 1978; Pearlin and Lieberman, 1979; Cochrane and Stopes-Roe, 1980; Hepworth, 1980; Donovan and Oddy, 1982; Jackson et al, 1983; Miles, 1983; Levi et al, 1984; McKenna and Fryer, 1984; Winefield et al, 1991). Many of these studies used the General Health

Questionnaire as the index of stress and, in general, it was found that the mean scores of unemployed samples were reliably about double those of comparable employed samples (a larger score implying greater stress).

2.2.3 DEPRESSION

In the 1933 study of Marienthal, Jahoda et al (1933) conclude that depression and apathy were their overriding consequence of unemployment. Findlay-Jones and Eckhardt (1981) found that 43% of their sample of unemployed Australians demonstrated depressive symptoms which had only started after becoming unemployed and in the absence of any other precipitating cause. Modern studies, using better validated measures of depression, have consistently reported higher mean levels of depressive symptoms in unemployed compared with employed groups (Radloff, 1975; Cobb and Kasl, 1977; Tiggemann and Winefield, 1980; Feather, 1982; Feather and Bond, 1983; Payne and Hartley, 1984). More serious still, many studies have reported an increase in suicide rates amongst job losers. Cobb and Kasl (1977) for example, found the suicide rate amongst a group of workers who had lost their jobs to be thirty times higher than expected levels. Sathyavathi (1977), after studying suicide amongst unemployed individuals, concluded that the majority of the individuals who ended their lives, did so as a result of depression. Others committed suicide because of feelings of aggression towards a society which they saw was responsible for their

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miseries and they had, as a consequence, internalised this hostility. Rhine (1984) reported significantly higher suicide rates amongst employees displaced by plant closings.

2.2.4 HOPELESSNESS

Bakke (1933), in reference to his study of people who had lost their jobs, found that one of the most prominent effects of unemployment was that of hopelessness.

In more recent studies in the cognitive assessment of the effects of job loss, attention has been paid to future orientation and planning which are perhaps more modern measures of this concept of "hopelessness" (Fryer, 1984; Bolton and Oatley, 1985; Adams, 1986 and Fryer and McKenna, 1987). Initial work in this area indicates that those individuals who have little hope for the future tend to be more stressed.

2.2.5 SOCIAL ISOLATION

Without paid employment, the variety of social contacts within the individual's life is likely to be restricted. This is partly a function of being required to leave the home less frequently, and also that of reduced income (to socialise with others invariably costs money) (Bakke, 1940; Jahoda et al, 1972). Warr and Payne (1983) studied

Interview 1
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Interview 5

this reduced social variety and activity through reports of changes in daily activities after job loss. Not surprisingly, they found that unemployed men took on significantly more child care activities and meal preparation etc. In addition, significantly more inactivity was reported i.e merely sitting around, sleeping during the day and watching the television. Henwood and Miles (1987) in a study that measured social contact reported unemployed groups to be experiencing significantly less social contact than either employed or retired groups. McKenna and Payne (1985) showed that men, unemployed between six and eighteen months, experience greater social isolation compared with those men re-employed after similar period of unemployment. Warr (1984) found that a potentially negative feature of unemployment was to reduce decision making latitude. This appears to be because at one level the unemployed person had a great deal of freedom - he or she could decide whether to get up in the morning, whether to go out and what to do with their time etc. However, this freedom of choice was in most cases limited to small repetitive decisions about daily routine compared with the larger more important decisions to which they were accustomed, for example (financial and family issues). Thus the unemployed individuals' range of realistic decision making options available were found to be normally quite restricted.

However, several authors had reported an opposite trend in that, for some unemployed individuals they opted to spend more time with friends and neighbours because of the less demanding circumstances of their lives (Roberts et al, 1982; Warr and Payne, 1983). It seems likely that unemployed individuals may spend more time with a restricted range of other people so that the number of different contacts is reduced although the overall amount of contact is increased. An obvious important moderator of this relationship between unemployment and social contact and psychological consequences is the extent to which informal networks exist in the community through which individuals are able to maintain or increase their social contacts while unemployed. This is discussed in Section 2.4.

2.2.6 SELF ESTEEM

The public identity associated with work role contributes to the individual's self concept and self evaluation (Tiggemann and Winefield, 1984). The many social positions associated with paid employment can strongly influence self concept and the way in which a person is categorised and evaluated by others. On becoming unemployed, it has been found that a person loses a socially acceptable position with the roles and self perceptions that go with it, and as a consequence, in this newly acquired position begins to feel inferior (Warr,

1983). Unemployed people tend to feel that they have moved into a position of lower prestige and they sense a normative expectation that their aspirations ought to be reduced in keeping with this apparently subordinate position. On a descriptive level, there have been reports of loss of self esteem (Komarovsky, 1940; Tauss, 1976). Other research has reported damaged ego (Burke, 1984), loss of self worth (Harrison, 1976), loss of self respect (Bakke, 1933; Daniel, 1974), loss of self confidence (Wedderburn, 1964) or loss of personal identity (Hill, 1978). Winefield and Tiggemann (1985) reported that job loss created a feeling of worthlessness amongst the affected individuals. This resulted in negative feelings directed towards the organisation and then internalised, resulting in a feeling of worthlessness and loss of self esteem. These trends were also supported by Jackson and Warr (1984).

However, the results do not all clearly support the notion of the loss of self concept as a consequence of job loss. Cobb and Kasl (1977) used a self report measure of self esteem in a longitudinal study of the anticipation and experience of job loss amongst manual workers in two American factories. Their results failed to show consistent self esteem change. Gurney (1980) found no decrease in self esteem for those who were unemployed, a result that was supported by Tiggemann and Winefield (1984). These inconsistencies in the more general trend

that unemployment affects self esteem are difficult to define, as the studies tend to be methodologically loose and it is hard to pinpoint whether these effects are the consequence of moderating variables or were in fact real.

Kelvin and Jarrett (1985) point out that individuals are not normally aware of themselves but simply take "themselves" for granted. Self awareness is a normal part of human development, although those people who often engage in analysis of themselves tend to be regarded as mildly abnormal, but this kind of analysis can become psychologically crippling in acute cases. It has been found that one of the most basic psychological impacts of unemployment on the jobless individual has been to increase self awareness, sometimes to levels which become disabling (Hagen, 1983; Jackson and Warr, 1984).

For the normally employed person the self concept, as a schema, locates the individual in his/her social environment and serves to mould his/her interaction with it (Rosenberg, 1981). Kelvin and Jarrett (1985) observe that the situation of unemployment provides circumstances that would heighten the tendency for people to look at themselves as unusual social objects. One of the behavioural consequences of this, is that behaviour up to that point in time had become second nature and automatic; like travelling to work and arriving at one's work place at a certain time, is no longer appropriate. New

adaptations have to occur and the person becomes especially responsive to information about self that comes from self observation and from the responses of others. Kelvin and Jarrett (1985) found that individuals without work found themselves puzzled by, and uncertain about, how they are acting and reacting. A discrepancy between this self perception and the way in which they had previously seen themselves was found to be significant and served to further enhance their self-awareness.

This self-awareness has the potential to shift the individual's locus of control (Rotter, 1966) from an internal to an external base. The unemployed individual becomes exceptionally dependent on how he/she is seen and, therefore, relies on the external sources to define him/herself. Unemployment can be viewed as a condition which forces the individual into psychological and economic dependence. This forced condition makes the individual vulnerable to others.

"Unemployment is felt as humiliation, not only in many of its practical consequences but also in its basic nature. That is not, however, because of the loss of some mystical dignity of work. The feeling of humiliation is concomitant with the sense of being so very dependent on others, psychologically as well as materially, - for it is the condition of childhood, not of mature men. It deeply undermines the self concept established before becoming

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unemployed". (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985, p.50).

2.2.7 PHYSIOLOGICAL EFFECTS

A number of studies have examined the potential physiological deterioration amongst individuals who have experienced job loss. These studies report an increase in hospitalisation rates (Lajer, 1982), self reported disability (Hill et al, 1978), self reported health deterioration (Kasl et al, 1975; Payne et al, 1980).

Cardiovascular dysfunction may be a health risk for job losers; O'Brien and Kabanoff (1979) found more self reported heart trouble amongst terminated workers. Cook et al (1982) also found a greater frequency of hypertension and heart disease amongst the unemployed.

Other physiological changes have also been associated with unemployment; it has been found that job losers experience a higher incidence of ulcers (Cobb and Kasl, 1977); bronchial disorders and shortness of breath (O'Brien and Kabanoff, 1979); doctor diagnosed illnesses (Cook et al, 1982) and elevated serum cholesterol levels (Kasl and Cobb, 1970). Although not the major focus of this study, the physiological effects are important even for psychological stress because simply feeling physically unwell and rundown is in itself psychologically stressful.

2.2.8 SUBSTANCE ABUSE

Alcohol consumption may serve as a proxy measure of the level of stress experienced by a community. Alcohol has been found to be used as a means of coping with anxiety and escaping temporarily from despair and depression (Pearlin and Radabaugh, 1976 and Sadava et al, 1978). Weeks and Drencaz (1983) found that alcohol consumption increased when a rural community was affected by job loss. In a parallel study of driving behaviour, Hyman (1968) found in males of all ages arrested for driving while intoxicated, that the rate of unemployment was several times higher than that of the general population. A number of other studies have found that employees who experienced job loss drank significantly more alcohol NB beverage than the general population (Smart, 1979; Burke, 1984; Sandford and Mullen, 1985). However, one study did contradict the general trend mentioned above when Cook et al (1982) found that there was no increase in alcohol consumption amongst their sample of middle-aged men. Although they do not attempt to explain this result in relation to other studies on unemployment and alcohol consumption, it could be suggested that one of the possible variables associated is the cultural or community norm that exists vis-a-vis alcohol consumption. In one community, the consumption of alcohol might be socially sanctioned, while in another it is not and some other form of stress reductioned behaviour could be the norm.

2.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS ON THE FAMILY

Interview 4

In summarising the findings of the now classic field study of Marienthal, an Australian village stricken by mass unemployment in the 1930's, Jahoda et al (1933) reported that 77% of the people investigated were characterised by despair, depression, hopelessness and a feeling of futility of all effort. They concluded that there was a direct connection between the family's attitude and the employment or not of its bread winner. Although the study by Jahoda et al (1933) drew attention to the experience of families, it is curious to note that the literature has been sadly lacking in effective research on the psychological impact of job loss on the family (Feather, 1990). However, in the 1980's there has been a renewed interest in the wider impact of unemployment on both family and community (Fineman, 1987; Fryer and Ullah, 1987).

2.3.1 MARITAL RELATIONSHIPS

Interview 4

Liem and Rayman (1982) found that there were no differences in psychiatric symptoms reported by spouses of employed and unemployed men during the first few months of unemployment. However, this changed after seven months, when it was found that the families of unemployed became significantly more stressed as a consequence of conflict within the family system. Liem and Rayman (1982)

hypothesised that this pattern of effects among wives of the unemployed is because the stress of the husband's job loss for the wives, was mediated by the impact of unemployment on the family system. These wives did not initially experience the personal loss of a job and the consequent guilt and responsibility that the unemployed husband did. However, after a period of time they were exposed to a changing family environment affecting amongst other things, changes in mood and behaviour of family members, especially the husband. In further studies significant increases in emotional strains for both husbands and their wives following involuntary unemployment have been reported (McKee and Bell, 1986; Liem and Liem, 1988). Changes may also occur within the family unit with regard to such factors as the quality of the marital relationship, the role performance of the partners, the family division of labour, traditional versus egalitarian family laws, marital power, and overall family climate (Atkinson, Liem and Liem, 1986; Dew et al, 1987)

Liem and Liem (1988, p.100) indicate:

"The marital relationship both reacted to and moderated the emotional distress of workers. In cases displaying a very strong impact of unemployment on the marriage, however, there must surely be a point which it would make little sense to treat the marital relationship as a potential source of stress moderation, regardless of what might happen under

less stressful circumstances. The relevant concern then would be to identify the interpersonal resources of the couple that might serve to moderate a stress marital relationship rather than a stressed individual".

Studies of the wider impact of unemployment on units such as the family have obvious significant social relevance. One might expect financial hardship to play a central role in this process, not only by affecting the emotional climate in the home but also by determining structural changes. Friedemann (1986) reports that most families experiencing financial difficulties as a result of unemployment, also reported that their marital relationship had become more stressful; however, marital difficulties were not restricted to job loss. Consequently, economic stress was likely to act by aggravating pre-existing friction in the family (Jahoda et al, 1971).

Whilst poverty is often acknowledged in passing as an economic concomitant of unemployment, it has been little explored since the 1930's as a potential etiological factor in the mental health effects by psychologists. Social anthropologists (for example Bostyn and Wight, 1987), sociologists (eg. Cooke, 1987) and social commentators (Seabrook, 1982) have not been so myopic. McGhee and Fryer (1989) note that this lack of emphasis

placed by psychologists on economic difficulties of the unemployed is curious, particularly in the light that shortage of money was repeatedly reported in psychological studies by unemployed respondents themselves as their greatest source of personal and family difficulties (Warr, 1987). Unemployment is in fact associated with very substantial drops in income in most of the industrialised west (Warr and Jackson, 1984). Psychological morale is negatively associated with both objective and subjective indices of economic deprivation (Estes and Wilensky, 1978).

Perhaps one reason for a lack of further research on the relationship between economic deprivation and unemployment has even arisen from Jahoda's (1982) comments on the importance of economic deprivation, indicating that for most of the western world the social services provided by governments would ensure that economic deprivation is not a major variable. This certainly cannot be assumed for South Africa in the 1980's and 1990's. In the South African context the extent to which an individual can rely on the family for financial support is also dependent on the amount of surplus income available each month after the family has met its basic financial commitments i.e to supply food, clothing and the cost of shelter. Moller's (1990) study of the quality of life as a product of unemployment in South African black townships, showed that the majority of black households are subsisting at a level which borders on that of poverty. When the individual becomes unemployed the strategies available to the family

NB

NB

for economic survival are very limited without the state support systems provided in many western economies. The chances of the relationship between job loss and psychological effects being moderated by financial support within the South African community are potentially very slim.

2.3.2 THE EFFECTS ON CHILDREN

Children are affected by the social stigma of unemployment (Williams, 1933; Komarovsky, 1940). Unemployment has also been found to affect children's social relationships with their peers (Elder, 1974; Marsden and Duff, 1975; Fagin, 1981). Fagin (1981) recorded that younger children of longer term unemployed individuals quite often showed disturbances in feeding and sleep and had more accidents than children of employed parents. He also reported that the unemployed parents' children showed behaviour problems. However, one of the problems with this particular study is that there were inadequate controls in the experimental design. Literature addressing the adaptation process and emotional effects of unemployment on children is scarce. Elder (1974) found that children were the targets of the father's failure to find work and were expected to carry a heavier and abnormal load of family responsibility and to become independent earlier. Kasl and Cobb (1967) found the childhood of children, who

grew up with families of economic hardship, to be stressful due to lack of affection from parents. They concluded that children felt neglected and failed to identify strongly with their parents' poor self image, insecurity and sporadic authoritative outbursts. The underlying rationale for this conclusion was that the child whose caretaker is emotionally unavailable, is unable to meet his/her needs for security, love and respect. The child becomes insecure and dependent often resulting in inept social behaviour when the child enters school. Several studies have suggested that unemployment may contribute to child abuse (Young, 1964; Galdston, 1965; Gil, 1971). Justice and Justice (1982) found unemployment to be an antecedent of child abuse; however, it needs to be noted that in a previous study, Justice and Duncan (1976) found almost any life crisis to be correlated with the incidence of child abuse. Steinberg et al (1981) conducted a thirty month study of the relationship between child abuse and economic conditions in the community. They demonstrated an association between decline in the size of the work force and rise in reported child abuse. The precise mechanisms whereby unemployment might increase the risks of child abuse can only be speculated upon. O'Brien (1971) suggested that the father's loss of status may cause him to assert authority through violence. Gil (1971) concluded that unemployment may be the last straw in a family suffering a range of deprivations and the consequent frustration

anger
taken out
on the
vulnerable

leading to child abuse.

Linked to this whole question of child abuse as a result of unemployment, it is probably worthwhile considering some of the research which has looked at the way fathers have seen the situation vis-a-vis their children. Kelvin and Jarrett (1985) found that unemployed parents often had a sense that they had failed their children and had lost status and some authority in their children's eyes. This was most likely linked to their inability to show their affection through the provision of the material needs of their children. Consideration such as pocket money and gifts are, as a result of loss of income, out of the question for the unemployed parent.

2.3.3 ROLE MALADAPTATION

When an individual loses his/her job, he/she also loses an occupational role. This removal of an individual from a previously relatively stable system of relationships has the potential, if not handled appropriately, to result in the individual experiencing a stress reaction. Although the research in the area is very limited, Cohn (1978) found the availability of acceptable alternative roles after job loss to be very helpful in alleviating stress. In terms of role theory, it could be expected that the significant role senders in the individual's immediate social environment will be major determinants of the

impact or the extent to whether the unemployed individual is able to adapt to his/her changed role.

Unemployment has been found to have the effect of intensifying pre-existing relationships (Liem and Rayman, 1982). Most of the research on role maladaptation has been carried out within the context of family linked roles. Taus (1976) has suggested that, regardless of the economic status, the loss of a job on the part of a husband which necessitates the securing of a job by the wife, can mean trauma as the family begins its role adaptation. He found that often the husband experiences a sense of inadequacy/failure and a devaluation of his masculine role when faced with the inability to provide livelihood and support for his family. The wife simultaneously experiences the uncertainty of re-organising her schedule of activities to enable her to change work roles with her husband. The extent to which this role shift is achieved is largely influenced by the degree to which society is prepared to accept this change (Tanay, 1983). Liem and Rayman (1982) found by independent observations of both spouses, that only the husband's role performance and supportiveness in the family diminished during the first month of job loss. The wife's role performance and supportiveness deteriorated only after several more months of joblessness. Research by Madge (1983) found that many unemployed fathers lose potential authority in the home

when they are unable to adapt to the changed role as a consequence of job loss.

2.4 PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS ON THE COMMUNITY

Perhaps the most neglected area of research in respect of job loss, is the effect that job loss has on the community, or at least an understanding of the individual psychological effects within the context of the community. Researchers have consistently failed to take into account the context in which the job loss occurs; there are very few studies that even make mention of the community in which the individual is situated (De Frank and Ivancevich, 1986).

A few studies have considered some of the potential negative behaviours which might affect the community in which there are significant number of individuals who have lost their jobs. Steinmetz and Straus (1974) found that the frustration as a consequence of unemployment, resulted in an increase in violent activity within the community. This research was supported by Aiken et al (1968) and Tiffany et al (1970) when they found unemployment to be associated with a significant increase in the incidence of delinquent behaviour. However, Schwefel (1986) found, contrary to frequent allegations that young unemployed individuals tend towards criminal behaviour, no evidence at all of an increase in criminality as a consequence of

unemployment.

survivors
anticipation of job loss

In related studies which have examined the effects of unemployment on those individuals that still have jobs i.e. the job survivors; Greenhalgh (1985) found that the survivors had a marked increase in job anxiety and guilt and their job commitment was seriously affected. Cobb and Kasl (1977) found more stress was generated by the anticipation of job loss than the actual termination itself. It is worth noting that the literature treats job survivors as those employees left behind in the organisation and not necessarily those employees in the community who are left with jobs. I would suggest that where a significant number of the members of a community experienced job loss, similar feelings of anxiety and guilt may well be experienced by those individuals in the community who still have their jobs.

If a company draws most of its labour from one community and then for some reason lays off its work force (i.e the Sarmcol situation), it would be reasonable to anticipate that ripple effect of this job loss would be felt not only by the individuals concerned and their families, but also by other families and households in the community.

Besides the Jahoda et al (1933) study of the effect of closing on the community of Marienthal, the only other study that could be found which in any way relates to the

effect of job loss on a community, was done by Isralowitz (1984). In this study, it was found that a factory shutdown exacerbates peoples stress because:

- i) finding employment is more difficult due to the large numbers of similarly experienced skilled workers who are now seeking employment.
- ii) these factories serve as a major source of revenue to the area and after shut down the entire community structure of the area becomes unstable.
- iii) The social welfare support services in the community are overburdened and become financially unstable because of reduced level of tax revenues. Consequently many agencies are not able to address the extent and complexity of the problem.
- iv) The plant closing becomes a community crisis in that many of the members of depressant's usual support groups or social networks are similarly stressed and unable to help.

It is clear that the psychological effects of a mass dismissal cannot be truly understood unless the context of the individuals' experience in relation to the community is taken into account.

2.5 SUMMARY AND CRITIQUE

It is clear that from this review and from reviews carried out by Fryer and Payne (1986), O'Brien (1986), Warr

(1987), Fryer (1988), and Feather (1990) that job loss psychologically impacts on the unemployed, but that this impact varies considerably depending upon the people who are unemployed and the circumstances under which they live. In some cases negative effects on mental and physical health may be slight, but in other cases much more severe. A number of variables are beginning to be verified as moderating the relationship between job loss and psychological impact, but the way in which these variables are inter-related has received very little attention (Feather, 1990). In the next chapter, an analysis of these moderating variables within the context of a theoretical framework will be undertaken.

Referring to conclusions that emerge from these summaries, although varied, there is general acceptance that unemployment has negative effects on individuals. Fryer and Payne (1986) conclude that:

"for many unemployed people the economic social and psychological well-being deteriorates....., but among a large majority of those whose experiences generally worsen by job loss, there is still a wide range of reactions, partly because of wide variations in economic and social circumstances, but also because of wide individual differences and the ability to cope with economic social and psychological pressures" (p. 259).

Warr (1987) concludes similarly:...."the findings

IV B
Tend
Job case studies

presentedleave no doubt that unemployment has substantial harmful effects on many individuals and their families. Furthermore the consequences are likely in practice to be more serious than as revealed in many survey investigations"(p.207).

Feather (1990) is more cautious in his conclusion: "...the evidence that I have presented from our research programme and the results from other sources indicated that the experience of unemployment does have negative effects, though these effects vary across studies depending upon the population that is sampled.... and the ways in which the variables are assessed" (p. 241).

As emphasised in this review, comparison between groups labelled as employed or unemployed often do not take into account specific contextual features that are important at the individual level, such as family and community.

Referring to methodologies used, it was found that the studies in the 1970's and 1980's used a wider range of methods as compared with the 1930's research. Fryer (1988) divides the approaches into both qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative approaches include:

- Informal interviewing (eg. Marsden, 1982)
- Structured interviewing (eg. Fagin and Little, 1984)
- Indepth interview (eg. Fryer and Payne, 1984)
- Personal document analysis (eg. Beales and Lambert,

1934)

- Public document analysis (eg. Jahoda et al, 1972)
- Participant observation (eg. Jahoda, 1987)
- Time budget diaries (eg. Henwood and Miles, 1987)
- Self esteem (eg. Feather and Barber, 1983)
- General Health Questionnaire (Warr, 1987)
- Psychiatric diagnosis (Feather, 1988)
- Practice base physician (Beale and Nethercott, 1986)
- Physiological measurement technics (eg. Cobb and Kasl, 1977)
- Epidemiological methods (Dooley and Catalano, 1980)

Fryer (1988) suggests that it would be inaccurate to claim that the history of psychological research on the unemployed comprises a shift from less to more sophisticated and confidence inspiring methods. He claims that the Marienthal study (Jahoda et al, 1972) is still unrivalled in its exemplification of effective research triangulation (Fryer, 1988). However, a clear problem in the research is the lack of longitudinal designs in which samples of unemployed people are followed up over varied time periods. The current project is an attempt to address this problem and is discussed in more detail in Chapter Four.

CHAPTER THREE

3. THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR THE RESEARCH

3.1 OVERVIEW

As was noted in Chapter Two, the theoretical basis to research on the psychological effects of job loss is quite disintegrated and ad hoc. This chapter commences with a motivation for a stress model to theoretically underpin this study. After presenting and explaining the model, it is used to integrate the existing theory on the psychological effects of job loss. This chapter is the foundation for Chapter Four, where the research questions for the study are formulated more formally.

3.2 TOWARDS A STRESSED BASED MODEL FOR THE PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF JOB LOSS

There is now vast literature on how individuals cope with negative life events and their associated stress (Holmes and Rahe, 1967; Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend, 1974; Harrison, 1976; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978; Kobasa et al, 1982; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Fisher and Reason, 1988). In the early part of the century, stress was viewed as pathological with endogenous rather than exogenous origins (Cooper, 1983). Stress research focused on the conditions of stress under which functioning deteriorated and on

which individuals were most likely to be affected (Lazarus and Launier, 1978). In the 1950's, Selye (1956) carried out research to show stress as a reaction rather than as a stimulus, thereby challenging the stimulus-response linear approach. The linear approach assumed stress to be a condition of the environment, and the environment could be either physical or psychological (Fisher, 1986). Selye (1956) classified reactions to stress into three stages:

- Alarm Reaction

In which an initial shock phase of resistance is followed by a counter shock. In this stage the individual prepares to either fight or flight (withdraw); and the individual's defense mechanisms become active.

- Resistance

Normally in this phase the individual attempts to return to a state of equilibrium. These first two phases could be seen as normal and an important part of life whereby stress can increase concentration as a consequence of this state of arousal, resulting in appropriate behavioural responses.

- Exhaustion

The third stage is reached if the stress continues and the consequence is the continued arousal of the physiological and emotional reactions. This intense

and prolonged arousal can result in stress-related illnesses such as hypertension and ulcers.

These response based definitions of stress were somewhat limited in that they failed to take cognisance of the individual's ability to use various adaptive coping skills to interact with the environment, so stress tended to be viewed as a static phenomenon. From this point, the conceptualisation of stress has evolved through response-based definitions where stress is viewed as an individual's reaction to the characteristics of the environment which appear threatening (Fisher, 1986); to a current view where psychological stress is seen neither as an environmental demand or as a response, but rather in interactional terms. This influential, current perspective on stress largely arises from the work of Lazarus, but is not solely attributed to him (Lazarus, 1966, 1978 and 1984; LeGrath, 1974; Cox, 1978; Goldberg, 1983; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Cooper et al, 1988). In this approach, it is not the environment per se that is stressful, but rather the relationship between the person and the environment which may result in the experience of stress.

"Psychological stress is a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well being". (Lazarus

and Folkman, 1984, p.19).

This approach to stress can be applied to how people deal with the stress associated with job loss. One of the outcomes of the transactional approach to stress, is the increasing importance of cognitive appraisal and coping in determining stress. For an event to be seen as a stress stimulus, it must be phenomenologically interpreted as such by the individual (Lazarus, 1966).

Before proceeding with a closer examination of the psychological process of job loss related stress, it is appropriate to present a model adapted primarily from the work of Taylor (1986) and Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978). The model is contained in Figure 3.1. Reference will be made to the numbers in the model for the particular headings of the different stages in the process.

3.2.1 APPRAISAL

From Figure 3.1 in Stage 1, it can be seen that job loss is a potential stressor, but whether it becomes a stressor is dependent primarily on the appraisal of that particular situation (see Stage 2). In Stage 1, the assumption is made that mental states or structures determine the absence or presence of stress (Fisher 1986).

Figure 3.1 A MODEL OF JOB LOSS STRESS (Adapted from Taylor (1986); Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1978);

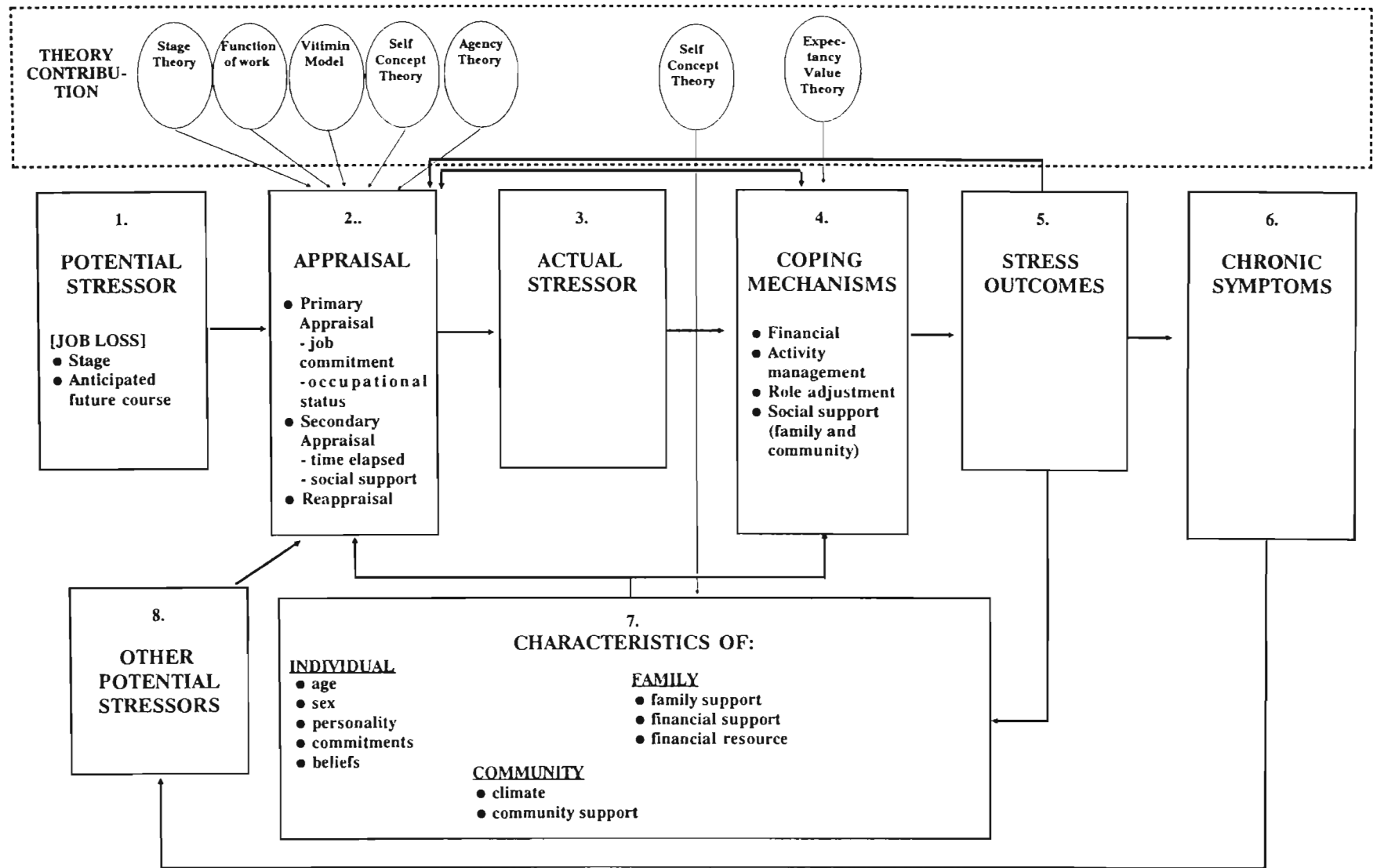


FIGURE 3.1 A MODEL OF JOB LOSS STRESS

It is the individual's appraisal of the stress stimulus, rather than the objective existence of the stimulus, which is important in stress (Lazarus, 1978, 1981 and 1984). This view of stress assumes that the person is an active agent in his/her environment who is actively appraising the importance of what is occurring to his/her psychological well being. This is important, as Feather (1990) notes that a lot of the research on the psychological effects of unemployment has assumed that the individual is passive rather than pro-active in relation to his/her environment. Referring specifically to Stage 2 in the model (Figure 3.1), cognitive appraisal (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) refers to how the individual evaluates a particular transaction or set of transactions between the person and the environment with respect to relevance for psychological well-being. Lazarus makes a distinction between three levels of appraisal:

Primary Appraisal

This is the cognitive process of evaluating the significance of a stimulus for the individual's well-being. The individual evaluates the stimulus as either irrelevant, benign, positive, or stressful. An encounter with the environment that has no implications for the individual's well-being would fall into the irrelevant category. If the

person construes the outcome of the encounter as positive or likely to be such, thereby preserving or enhancing well-being, then the appraisal is benign/positive. When the encounter involves threat or challenge, harm or loss, then it is appraised as stressful. In harm/ loss, some negative event has already occurred, whereas in threat there is a potential for such negative effect. The significance of primary appraisal lies in the interpretation of the information for the person in terms of his or her particular beliefs, values, commitments, experiences and resources (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Feather (1990) points out that such a cognitive appraisal following job loss, could involve one or more of the three types of appraisal mentioned above. If the individual has suffered an important loss in terms of social status or income because he or she no longer has a job, it is possible that the event will be interpreted as threatening, because there is a potential for future harm or loss. However, the same event may also be seen as a challenge if the unemployed person focuses on new opportunities that might occur and ought to be explored. Of importance for the psychological consequences of job loss, is that threat appraisal is characterised by negative emotions such as fear, anxiety and anger. A challenge appraisal is characterised by positive emotions such as eagerness

and excitement. This could well account for the way different individuals might feel differently after a job loss.

Secondary Appraisal

The individual evaluates his or her coping resources both personal and social to determine what could be done in a stressful encounter with the environment. Primary and secondary appraisals are seen as interdependent and fused; and would determine the degree of stress and the quality of the emotional reaction shaped. In the case of job loss, the individual's appraisal can be determined by the severity of its effects for the present and future and how well the individual and/or his/her family is equipped to cope with the situation.

Re-appraisal

This occurs as a result of feedback from the transaction and allows for changes in quality and intensity of emotion over time. These new appraisals could obviously be based on new information from the environment and from the individual's own reactions to the stressful event. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) note that appraisals are

influenced by both personal and situational factors. Amongst the personal factors are an individual's commitments, motive, goals, values and beliefs. Situation variables include appraisals concerning novelty, predictability, uncertainty, temporal characteristics, ambiguity and timing of stressful events.

With reference to the current study, it is believed that this appraisal component of the model is critical to the potential experience of stress as a consequence of the job loss. If one considers that one of the situational factors has been an ongoing, legal action in which the employees have made application for re-instatement to their original jobs and the fact that at the end of 1992, there is still not a legal outcome as to whether the individuals are to be re-instated or not; it is then predicted that this factor would most certainly influence the appraisal process.

Therefore, with reference to Figure 3.1, whether job loss as a potential stressor (Stage 1) becomes an actual stressor (Stage 3), depends upon the appraisal of the stressor by the individual in relation to his or her environment (Stage 2). Actual stressors are conceptualised as a subset of potential stressors, NOT what potential stressors

become. In other words, the actual stressors are still firmly located in the environment, but are perceived as different, in that they constitute a threat from the remainder of the set of potential occupational stressors.

3.2.2 COPING MECHANISMS

Lazarus (1981) demonstrates that a key determinant of the eventual adaptational outcome of an actual stressor, is our ability to cope (see Stage 4 in Figure 3.1). Coping refers to the behavioural and cognitive attempts to control, reduce or tolerate the interactional demands created by stressful transactions (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Coping is consequently conceived as a changing process that has two main functions:

Instrumental or Problem solving

Which attempts to change the situation for the better by either changing one's own action or by changing the threatening environment.

Palliative or Emotion focused

Where coping is directed towards regulating the emotional response to the problem by managing the subjective components of the stress-related reactions (eg. by relaxation). Individuals who are

effective at coping use both instrumental and palliative coping modes (Lazarus, 1978). It is acknowledged that coping resources would not be stable over time, but some resources may be more stable than others. It is also worth noting that because a coping resource is present, it does not necessarily mean that it will be used when needed. Lazarus (1978) proposes four modes of coping:

a) Information seeking

The individual scans the characteristics of a stressful encounter for knowledge to make a sound coping decision or to re-appraise a threat. This helps the individual feel better by rationalising a decision or reducing ambiguity.

b) Direct action

Action aimed at oneself or the environment, anger or in the case of job loss, collective action or job seeking behaviour.

c) Inhibition of action

This will be the holding back of action or impulses which could conflict with moral, social or physical constraints.

d) Intrapsychic modes

Covers what a person would say to him or herself and could include self-perceptive mechanisms or the isolation from the threat.

Of relevance to the psychological effect of job loss, is the work by Folkman et al (1981) who identify five categories of coping resources:

i) Health

Individuals who are healthy, energetic and have a positive morale are likely to cope more easily.

ii) Social networks and support

Close positive relationships can facilitate coping.

iii) Problem solving

The ability to search for information, to analyze the situation and make effective decisions.

iv) Utilitarian resources

Resources such as training, finance, community education etc. which can assist in positive, adaptational outcome.

v) General and specific beliefs

Individuals who have clear belief systems and believe they can master most demands, are less likely to feel threatened or helpless.

Referring to Stage 5 of the model (Figure 3.1) the stress outcome is a function of the way the individual has appraised and coped with the actual stressor. If the stress outcome is negative, this could over a period of time lead to chronic symptoms (Stage 6) such as physiological and psychological ill-health (Cooper, 1983). These chronic symptoms, if combined with other potential stressors (Stage 8), could lead to changes in the individual's appraisal phase of the stress process. For example, if after a period of time, the individual's experience has been negative and there are other potential stressors such as economic poverty, this could lead to the re-appraisal being predominantly negative and reinforcing the original potential stressor. The appraisal of potential stressors (Stage 2) and the extent to which the individual copes with actual stressors are moderated by a number of individual, family and community related variables (Stage 7). The variables are identified in the next section on Research Support for the Job Loss Stress Model.

RESEARCH SUPPORT FOR THE JOB LOSS STRESS MODEL.

An analysis of some of the existing studies on the psychological effect of job loss reveal some support for the model contained in Figure 3.1. Referring firstly to the appraisal process (Stage 2), Cohn (1978) found that the relationship between psychological impact and becoming unemployed was modified by whether an external source was perceived to be responsible for job loss. Feather and

Davenport (1981) supported Cohn's results when they found a positive relationship between the reported depressive effect of unemployment and external attribution concerning the causes of the unemployment condition. Further, they demonstrate that these attributions do not necessarily precede depressive symptoms, but follow or occur concurrently. Thus depression may be a cause of internal, stable and global attributions for negative effects rather than the reverse. Cross-sectional studies showed that the unemployed tend to blame the condition on external factors, while employed are more inclined to appeal to internal factors when accounting for unemployment (Feather and Davenport, 1981; Furnham, 1982; Feather and Barber, 1983). In a more recent study, Feather and O'Brien (1986) found that unemployed adolescents would be more likely to blame unemployment on external socio-economic factors, whereas those who obtained employment were more likely to explain this in terms of internal factors such as the lack of ability and effort.

The longer term effects of the appraisal process, and more specifically, the attribution of job loss to external sources, have been associated with the more long term factor of loss of control. Baum et al (1986) indicate that it is reasonable to assume that several aspects of job loss centre around the loss of control, ranging from symbolic reflections of what for them is an uncontrollable world, to specific, practical problems such as paying the rent and obtaining health benefits. Research in the area has found that having control or believing that one has

it, reduces stress while low perceptions of control are associated with more serious stress consequences (Glass and Singer, 1972; Cohen, 1980). Therefore, to the extent that losing one's job reduces one's perceptions of control over the environment, it should intensify stress related effects such as emotional distress and sympathetic arousal. Of significance to the community, and in particular to the black communities within South Africa, is the possible longer term link between unemployment or job loss and learned helplessness.

Learned helplessness is defined as a state of low motivation and depressed effect, conditioned by prolonged exposure to uncontrollable surroundings (Seligman, 1975). Of particular significance to the Sarmcol workers who experienced job loss as a result of mass dismissal, is how they manage the situation if they are not reinstated. Directly after dismissal they may become aroused and angry and direct their behaviour towards regaining their jobs. This could be seen as the Primary and Secondary Appraisal stages. However, as time passes an exposure to uncontrollable events continues, expectations of being able to regain control might wane. Referring to the work of Wortman and Brehm (1975) it could be suggested that these expectations will diminish to a point where perceived successful control over their situation seems highly unlikely. This sequential pattern of reactive and eventual helpless behaviour implies that the appraisal of

job loss by the individual may well mediate the response to the stressor. In the case of the Sarmcol workers dismissal, it is quite possible that their expectation of regaining control of the situation will persist for a period, until they know the outcome of the industrial court action.

Related to the process of appraisal is the length of time that elapses since the individual loses a job before he or she gains re-employment.

The relationship between the length of time of unemployment and psychological well-being has not been clearly demonstrated in cross-sectional studies to date (Goodchilds and Smith, 1963; Little, 1976; Feather and Davenport, 1981; Warr et al., 1982). However, in longitudinal studies Cook et al (1982) and Warr and Jackson (1984) discovered significant relationships between health change and the length of time since a job was lost. On three measures of health change, Warr and Jackson (1984) reported the greatest deterioration after six months of employment and found evidence of a levelling off in this trend after six months. Jackson and Warr (1984) reported that while there was no association between the length of unemployment and psychological ill health for those less than 20 years or more than 60 years of age, for those in the middle age group there was an association up to about six months. Sommer and Lasry (1984), while studying the effects of unemployment, found

that after the first six months the relationship between the measures of stress and mental health more than doubled. Almost one third of the variance of mental health scores were attributed to stress alone after six months of unemployment. They found that after this period of time, the traditional coping mechanisms of the unemployed were failing. It may also be that the subjects have given up hope of finding a job and that the financial and social implications of job loss had at that point become almost overwhelming in their re-appraisals. Brenner and Bartel (1983) found that the length of unemployment had a direct negative effect on psychological well-being, but this affect was moderated by its support systems and the meaning of work for the individuals involved.

Turning more specifically to studies that relate to coping mechanisms (Stage 4 of figure 3.1); a number of researchers have conducted research which has analyzed coping in relation to job loss stress (Kasl and Cobb, 1983; House, 1981 and Buss and Redburn, 1983) and British (Payne and Hartley, 1987; Fineman, 1983; Cullen et al, 1987). Payne and Hartley (1987) propose a model which suggests that stress is a function of the relative balance between the problems facing the unemployed and the degree of support and/or constraint under which these problems are faced. Payne and Hartley (1987), in applying their model to the affective experience of unemployed men, found

that the severity of the problems experienced by their sample predicted a significant level of psychological symptoms even when variables measuring degree of support and personal attributes were controlled.

As reported previously, the financial support in assisting the individual to cope with job loss has been found to moderate the effects of unemployment (Thomas et al, 1980; Payne and Hartley, 1987). Activity management, as a coping mechanism, has also been significantly associated with psychological health in job loss (Hepworth, 1980; Payne et al, 1983; Brenner and Bartell, 1983). Hepworth (1980) found that unemployed men who filled their time with meaningful activities had tended to have better mental health and a better perception of their well-being compared with those whose time was unoccupied. In all of these findings, it became progressively more difficult for the unemployed individuals to remain active as the period of unemployment lengthened.

In Chapter Two the importance of job role was discussed and one of the conclusions made was that job loss results in the individual losing his active occupational role and, therefore, no longer having access to very important and stable role set (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985). With the loss of this major role set, the individual has to make some fairly important and major role changes in order to be able to adapt to a changed environment in which the

individual finds him or herself.

One of the new roles in which the individual often engages, is that of job seeking and they suddenly find that they have to deal with a number of role descriptions which society might place on them. They are often treated as second class citizens and have to deal with fairly hostile official agencies (Warr, 1983). This new work role can be psychologically very threatening. In a typical situation of a plant closing Hurst and Sheppard (1986) found that employees who were characteristically loyal, co-operative, skilled and reliable; were suddenly placed in a situation where they had to initiate a job search. Most of these unemployed individuals described their acute fear of having to search for a job after years of comfortable job security. This role ambiguity and uncertainty resulted in feelings of personal anxiety and panic amongst the individuals. Failure to adapt to this changed work role can result in insecurity about the future, and eventually they begin to distrust their own competence (Payne et al, 1983).

Another sphere in which significant role adjustment needs to take place, is that in relation to the individual's immediate social environment. Often occupational roles have been linked to sex roles and to roles within the family and marriage social systems. In the situation where sex role is linked to role of provider or bread-

winner and suddenly this role is now removed, the individual is not only faced with having to adapt to the lack of the work role, but also faced with the feeling that they have failed in their more immediate social responsibilities (Fagin and Little, 1984). If the roles within the marriage and family system are very rigidly defined, this can result in conflict being experienced by the unemployed and would have an impact on any secondary appraisal or re-appraisal in the psychological stress process. It could be postulated that in the case of the BTR Sarmcol employees who lost their jobs, the amount of role shift required of them during the first two years of the study, was perhaps less than would have been required if they had not anticipated regaining their jobs as a result of litigation. In addition, some of the work role behaviour was substituted by their work roles linked to their involvement in their union and the concomitant struggle for re-instatement within the company. However, by the time the third sample had occurred, it was quite possible that this role shift could well have influenced their coping mechanisms and the re-appraisal process.

3.2.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF INDIVIDUAL, FAMILY, AND COMMUNITY WHICH IMPACT ON THE APPRAISAL PROCESS.

Referring to the stress outcomes, part of the stress process (Stage 5) and the potential for chronic symptoms (Stage 6), these have been dealt with in Chapter Two.

Stage 7 of the model is linked to characteristics of the individual family and community which could impact on either the appraisal process (2) or the coping mechanism (4). At the individual level, reference has already been made to the commitments and beliefs of the individuals as a moderator of both coping mechanisms and the appraisal process.

Age

Age has repeatedly been found in cross-sectional studies to be associated with level of psychological health after job loss (Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938; Daniel, 1974 and Lajer, 1982). However, generally it would seem that in male job loss, victim's age is curvilinearly associated with negative psychological effects. In other words, middle-aged, unemployed men suffer more than older or younger men. Estees and Wilensky (1978) have explained this relationship in terms of the state in which these men are at in their life cycle. They indicate that characteristically middle-aged men are particularly prone to "life cycle squeeze"; that is the point in their lives where they have greater family responsibilities and, therefore, commitment to the labour market. However, other research indicates that more elderly individuals who lose their jobs are vulnerable. Schwefel (1986) found that for the elderly, unemployment becomes the last stage

of their work career. Once they are dismissed, long term unemployment is typical and the chances of finding employment are not very great and they often resign themselves to the knowledge that they will never engage in formal work again. There is also evidence that employers discriminate against older workers (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985). From the literature it appears that the older worker is less vulnerable to losing his/her job than the younger worker; however, having lost it, he or she has much greater difficulty in finding another (Daniel, 1974). The older unemployed individual more than any other group, in order to obtain employment, must be prepared to accept lower wages, status and poorer working conditions.

Turning to the demographic variable of sex, it is worth noting that most of the research done to date, is based on the experience of men and very little is known about the effect of job loss on women. Traditional sex roles have also confounded this comparison (Jenkins, 1983). Although sex role differences in reactions to unemployment have been reported on a number of variables, those studies which have investigated women who are either single or the primary wage earners in the household, have found that the patterns of effects are the same as for men (Gurney, 1980; Feather, 1982; Winefield and Tiggemann, 1985).

Personal vulnerability is linked to the notion that some people are less able than others to withstand

environmental pressure. These individuals would be expected to show a greater negative change in response to a stressor. Jackson and Warr (1983) found that some people are more vulnerable in terms of the presence or absence of a chronic health impediment. Those people with chronic health problems revealed a greater association between longer duration of unemployment and a greater decline in health. De Frank and Ivancevich (1986) propose that these vulnerable persons have particular personality attributes which moderate the effect of job loss. Shelton (1985) sees vulnerability more in terms of the degree of social support available to the individual from his or her environment. He suggests that those individuals with adequate financial protection and positive perceptions of a future opportunity, may not find job loss to be as negative an experience as others in the community who do not have these characteristics.

It is appropriate to examine more closely the concept of social support (Figure 3.1 coping mechanisms 4) in terms of the characteristics of the family and community. Keefe (1984) defined social support as the feeling of belonging to, and being esteemed by, a group significant to the focal person. From the literature it is clear that the relationship between negative life events and psychological distress is significantly weakened for those individuals who can rely upon the support of others (Caplan, 1974; Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Brown and

Harris, 1978). Specific research on unemployed individuals has shown that social support moderates the effect of job loss (Cobb, 1974; Wallston et al, 1983). Gore (1978) has reported findings from a study of factory closures in which he made use of thirteen item scale covering a range of features: perceptions of supportive relationships, frequency of activities at home and perceived opportunity to engage in support of social activities. Among those unemployed one month after the closure of their factory, less supportive respondents were found to report a significantly larger number of illness symptoms than those more supported respondents. A distinction between "instrumental" and "emotional" forms of support have been found helpful (Thoits, 1982 and Turner, 1983). One aspect of instrumental support which may be important during unemployment is financial support, having someone from whom money could be borrowed when needed. Emotional support is evident with the availability of someone with whom problems can be shared and discussed. Madonia (1983) found that the victims of a lay-off desired receiving understanding and support from their spouses. When it was not available, the unemployed person felt more estranged from the family and blamed him or herself for the problems caused by the loss of income. This sense of estrangement had repercussions for the family interaction. Over one third of the respondents reported an increase in the frequency of arguments with spouses following unemployment. Emotional support is

paradoxical because, although it is helpful in coping with stress, the dependency it engenders can also become alarming. Many of the unemployed do not like to rely on others since this reminds them of the lack of control of their lives and, in terms of re-appraisal, this can lead to an increase in the experience of stress.

Not all the studies have supported this trend that social support moderates the relationship between job loss and psychological well being (Pinneer, 1975; Larocco and Jones, 1978). There are a number of possible reasons for this result. Firstly, many of the studies failed to define the quality of the social support received while unemployed (Keefe, 1984). O'Brien and Kabanoff (1979) previously had found that the helpers felt by the unemployed to be the most helpful are in order of importance: members of immediate family, friends, and social organisations. Professional helpers were only evaluated as moderately helpful. Secondly, people reporting high levels of distress had been found to be more inclined than others to under-estimate the amount of support available to them (Ullah et al, 1985). Thirdly, "reversed buffering" has been found wherein employees, highly stressed by job loss, are worse off than if they received social support (Larocco and Jones, 1978). Reverse buffering is highly unexpected, given the social norm that people should help each other in times of need. It is possible that the nature of social networks of the

unemployed person might determine whether reverse buffering occurs. If the social network contains persons that are associated with a reason for the job loss, then these persons might be perceived as being partly responsible for the unemployed individual's predicament. So these individuals, rather than being perceived as being supportive, are perceived as negative because they are associated with the loss of control over the unemployed's environment.

Turning to a more in depth examination of the impact of social networks within a community on psychological stress, it was found that informal, social networks were perceived to be more useful and more utilised by unemployed workers than the services of mental health and welfare agencies (Buss and Redburn, 1983). Job loss has a direct effect on the individual's social and community linked relationships and there is evidence to suggest that with plant shut down, the social networks begin to break down. Isralowitz (1984) found that a plant shut down directly affected a person's usual support groups or social networks because they were similarly stressed. The loss of a job could result in the fragmentation of the network association which developed through a person's attachment to the work system. The discontinuity of such associations contributes to the individual's negative social situation. Therefore, the extent to which these informal, social networks are affected by a mass

dismissal, will determine the extent to which this variable moderates the psychological effects of the associated job loss. Although not very well documented, there could be a number of organisations within a community which might moderate the psychological impact of job loss. Schlossberg and Leibowitz (1980) found an organisational support system to be effective in alleviating some of the trauma of job loss. The system of support allowed the participants to deal not only with job loss, but also with family and personal problems. On the basis of work done by Taber et al (1979) and Deitch (1984), two main forms of grass root community response to a major plant closing can be identified. Firstly, the efforts of the employees and community groups to keep the plant open and operating, and secondly, the efforts to modify the impact of job loss on those affected. The latter activities might include campaigns to extend unemployment compensation benefits, efforts to stop mortgage foreclosures, pressures on local doctors, clinics and pharmacies to provide low cost health care services, food banks run by unemployed, etc. One of the main aims of such community organisations is to spread the cost of job loss over as long a period of time and as wide a range of citizens as possible, rather than the most immediately affected workers bearing the total cost all at once.

Unemployed action groups spend a large amount of effort

increasing public awareness of the plight of unemployed and shaping public opinion so as to rally support. Many of these activities also serve to give the unemployed and others most immediately affected an opportunity to be involved in some goal directed activity, to express their anger and frustration, and to bolster their self esteem (Lieberman and Boreman, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Dean and Lin, 1977). These more symbolic and expressive activities are a significant aspect of the political mobilisation of communities and also serve to provide the unemployed with a means of addressing the sense of victimisation and impotency. After reviewing a number of communities responses to unemployment, Schwefel (1976) concluded that self help activities amongst unemployed adults were rare. He found that in most of the situations he studied, assistance was received from sources outside the community. Centres for the unemployed were created and serviced by social, religious or trade union related organisations from outside the immediate community. He suggests that one of the reasons for this is that unemployment leads to the avoidance of conflict rather than to confrontation and he found that the unemployed did not tend to politicise. In fact, there was a tendency towards adaptation, resignation, and apathy on the part of the individuals he studied. Deitch (1984) found that many community organisations experienced serious organisational problems. They were often almost overwhelmed by the demands of their client group and were

operating under severe financial constraints. They often had to face constant crises as many of their members had themselves lost their jobs and incomes, and were involved in organising to save their homes and secure food and health care. They were also likely to drop out of the community organisation at a point at which they were successful at finding a job. Lastly, an organisation of the unemployed could hardly rely on members' dues and contributions for the necessary funds to keep it operational!

Affiliation to union organisations was also found to be important in moderating the psychological consequence of job loss (Rayman and Bluestone, 1982). However, in this study the unemployed workers reported that they would prefer to return to their primary social groups rather than to community organisations or the unions who they had reported as being uniformly unresponsive to their needs. In the case of the mass dismissal of the BTR Sarmcol workers, it would appear that while they were still fighting for their reinstatement, the union organisation was probably going to be the single most significant organisation in terms of the community moderating effects. This is particularly the case in the Cosatu federation of unions in South Africa, who in 1985 made a decision to shift their support and recruitment campaigns from organisational to a community base, and in many communities organised at a street level. The Sarmcol

workers also engaged in two significant activities over the first three years after their unemployment. The one was the creation of a co-operative which manufactured T-Shirts for political groups that was called Sawco and a drama which portrayed their plight and toured both locally and internationally. These and other activities that were organised by at least a number of the unemployed workers, could have a significant moderating effect on the experience of psychological stress. Linked to community support is the broader society's attitude towards unemployment; where in a number of studies a stigma was found to be associated with unemployment (Braginsky and Braginsky, 1975; Barbe, 1977; Kelvin, 1981; Swinburne, 1981).

However job loss, as a consequence of plant shutdown or mass dismissal, is a special case of unemployment and in the case of a plant shutdown La France and Cicchetti (1979) found that the stigma of unemployment was substantially reduced. Unemployment was found to be regarded as a consequence of the "system" and less the result of personal inadequacy. Similarly, Isralowitz (1984), in studying the effects of a plant shut down, found that there was a significant and immediate concern on the part of the community for the workers who had lost their jobs. The response of the community was reflected by newspaper articles and television interviews with the workers. Considering the Mpophomeni community within the

context of South African society, it would seem likely that the members of the black community amongst a broader society, might well view the strikers who had lost their jobs as another group who were victims of a white dominated political and economic system. If this was the case, then one could expect that the psychological effects of mass dismissal may well be moderated by the positive response and potential support of the community from which the dismissed workers originated.

Location of community has also been found to be important in potentially moderating coping mechanisms. Kasl et al (1975) found that unemployed individuals living in a rural community were less negatively affected both physically and mentally than those who were in an urban situation. They hypothesised that the social community and support system in rural settings are less severely disrupted by forced unemployment. This result was supported by Brenner and Mooney (1983) and Cramer and Keitel (1984) who found that both the geography and social setting of a plant closure moderates the effects.

In contrast Weeks and Drencaicz (1983), on studying the effects of job loss in a rural community, came to the conclusion that this type of community is deceptively fragile as compared with a metropolitan area which maintains a high degree of stability because of its complexity and diversity. The metropolitan area is,

therefore, more able to adapt to changes within the broader systems that impact on it. By contrast, the rural community although outwardly stable, is continually at risk of economic collapse because of both the simplicity of the community's economic base and its dependence on local economic forces. They suggested that this type of community forms a tight social ecology and any major disturbance of this ecology manifests itself in diverse forms. In the case of Mpophomeni this is particularly significant because firstly, it is, geographically a somewhat, isolated community and secondly, it was almost entirely dependent upon BTR Sarmcol for its economic stability. When the workers lost their jobs, to seek work elsewhere was difficult because they had to travel a minimum of forty kilometres even to get to the nearest industrial/commercial centre. In addition, because of the influx control regulation that existed until 1990, workers were not free to move from one geographical location to another. Therefore, it could be predicted that the mass dismissal for the community of Mpophomeni was a very serious and significant event and was most likely to affect the economic and social stability of the township.

The general level of unemployment may also have a bearing on the psychological effect of job loss. If the individual, having lost a job seeks for another together with numerous other individuals in the same position, it is obviously going to be more stressful than in a

situation where there is very little competition for jobs or having lost one job it is relatively easy to obtain another. The literature suggests that the general level of unemployment will have a direct bearing on the psychological effects of job loss (Brenner, 1979; Warr, 1982; Brenner and Mooney, 1983; Schwefel, 1986). The evidence suggests quite clearly that high rates of unemployment exacerbate the experience of job loss following plant shutdowns. Liem and Rayman (1982) found that being out of work during a period when unemployment was high, meant virtually no opportunity to re-enter the job market until the economy had moved back into boom cycle. They also found that the geographical location of a factory affected opportunities, with those factories being located in rural areas resulting in more competition for jobs within that area. At the time at which the workers from Sarmcol lost their jobs, the unemployment rate in South Africa was significantly high. However, in addition a large portion of the community of Mpophomeni were now without jobs which meant that competition for any jobs in the vicinity of the community was very high.

3.3 SITUATING THE THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO JOB LOSS IN TERMS OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

As mentioned in the overview of this chapter, it was suggested that the various other theories that have been

associated with job loss could be integrated into this model to enhance understanding at specific points. It is outside the scope of this work to give a detailed expose of each of the theories which have been used, to varying degrees, in the study of the psychological effects of unemployment. So with reference to Figure 3.1, they are situated at appropriate points in the model (see theoretical foundations).

3.3.1 STAGE THEORY ✓

One of the central themes running through the literature on the psychological effects of unemployment, is that the responses of individuals to job loss constitute a process which goes through several stages. Jahoda et al (1933) conceptualised this process merely in terms of two stages: despair and apathy. Most of the studies since then have assumed that the best way of conceptualising the effect of unemployment, is in terms of some form of stage model. Some researchers have compared job loss with reactions to a more permanent loss such as death (Harrison, 1976; James, 1979; Findlay and Lee, 1981). However, a number of authors are fairly sceptical about the potential use of stage models in adequately understanding the experience of job loss (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Fryer, 1988; Feather, 1990). Kelvin and Jarrett (1985), although willing

to accept that time is a variable, indicate that the stage models are simplistic and call for a detailed study of the processes that determine changes in reactions, especially transitions between stages and processes within each stage. So although simplistic, they have been useful in identifying the fact that the length of time an individual is unemployed is important in determining the psychological effects of job loss. What has emerged from the Stage Theory literature is some consensus of evidence that in the majority of cases, prolonged unemployment eventually leads to resignation and apathy. Hence over a period of time, the appraisal process could well mean that potential stressors become actual stressors in terms of the job loss model of stress (Figure 3.1).

3.3.2 FUNCTION OF WORK

This theoretical approach was developed by Jahoda (1979, 1981, 1982), based on the premise that paid employment has both latent and manifest functions as far as benefits to the individual are concerned. Because job loss involves deprivation of both manifest and latent benefits and these will vary from one individual to the next, it makes sense that this variable will affect the appraisal of potential stressors in terms of the proposed job loss model.

A difficulty with the approach is that it tends to view the individual as a passive object at the mercy of social institutions and external forces, rather than an active person shaping his or her environment. Fryer (1986) and Feather (1990) also criticise the theory because Jahoda tends to over emphasise the effects of social institutions at the expense of individual choice. Fryer (1986) also argues that the theory is " unfalsifiable " because it can always be argued that those unemployed individuals who are not suffering psychological distress are able to find other activities that satisfy the categories of experience which had disappeared as a consequence of job loss.

3.3.3 VITAMIN MODEL

Warr (1978, 1982, 1983, 1984, 1985) has proposed a vitamin model with mental health being influenced by the environment in a manner that is analogous to the way vitamins affect physical health. Warr(ibid.) has identified nine environmental features which influence mental health. He points out that vitamins are beneficial to one's health up to a certain level after which there is no further benefit from absorbing them. Vitamin deficiency can impair physical health; in a similar way, the lack of certain environmental features can tend to impair

mental health. Warr shows how the negative effect of job loss can be related to detriments in one or more environmental features. The model can be useful in that it may assist the researcher in defining the areas and questions that should be asked concerning the variables that should be taken into account with primary, secondary and re-appraisal. However, there is some question about how the nine environmental variables were chosen and their universality.

3.3.4 SELF CONCEPT THEORY ✓

As already mentioned, self concept can influence the stressful experience of job loss. Kelvin and Jarrett, (1985) have begun to use self concept and self awareness theory to explain why some individuals are affected by job loss more negatively than others. Self concept theory appears to be potentially useful in explaining the appraisal process in our stress model because it shows how the perception of self can influence the appraisal of a potential stressor and the potential use of coping mechanisms. Self concept is modified on the basis of how unemployed individuals perceive themselves to be seen by others eg family, friends, groups etc. This could be useful in helping to understand

whether social support will moderate the effect of job loss or not. It helps to understand the relationship between the characteristics of family and community (7) and the appraisal process (2) (Figure 3.1). It also helps to understand the stigma associated with unemployment discussed in Section 3.2.

3.3.5 AGENCY THEORY ✓

Fryer, (1986, 1988) proposes that it is important to see the person as proactive rather than reactive - an active agent who shapes and plans activities and searches for meaning across a wide time frame of events. In part Fryer is acting to Jahoda's somewhat passive approach to the unemployed individual (Jahoda, 1979, 1982). Again agency theory supports the Job Loss model in that it stresses the significance of the interaction between the person and the environment rather than one or the other being more important.

3.3.6 EXPECTANCY VALUE THEORY ✓

Expectancy value theory is proposed by Feather (1982 and 1990) as a way of analyzing the response to job loss. The expectancy value approach assumes that actions are guided by some combination of expectancies and subjective values: that the amount of effort a person puts into a particular

activity is related to the perceived attractiveness of expected outcomes. This theory has implications for explaining the relationship between coping mechanisms, responses and the appraisal process. Whether or not a person has a tendency to act in a particular direction will depend upon the persons expectation, and whether he or she can perform the action to a required standard thereby achieving a successful outcome; and also depend on a further set of expectations about the possible consequences of the outcome and on the subjective value associated with the action outcome. For example, the action tendency relating to job seeking behaviour as a coping mechanism will depend on the strength of a persons expectation that he or she will find employment following attempts to do so, and on the perceived attractiveness of having a job. The expectation would be weaker following many unsuccessful attempts to obtain employment than after few unsuccessful attempts.

In conclusion this chapter has attempted to make sense of the literature on the psychological effects of job loss by proposing a model based on stress related theory. Attention is now turned to formulation of the specific research questions for the project.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH, AIMS AND HYPOTHESIS

On the basis of the literature review (Chapter Two) and the model of job loss stress presented in Chapter Three, the research questions and hypotheses are refined and presented.

4.1 RESEARCH, AIMS AND QUESTIONS

The aim of the study was to examine the psychological effects of the mass dismissal at BTR Sarmcol on individuals, their families, and the community of Mpophomeni.

4.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions were asked:

- Did individuals in the community experience the mass dismissal as stressful for themselves, their family, and the community of Mpophomeni as a whole?
- What were the reasons for an individual experiencing mass dismissal as stressful or not?
- Were there differences in the experience of stress between those individuals who were:

- mass dismissed
 - unemployed, but not mass dismissed
 - employed
-
- What coping mechanisms did individuals use, and did coping moderate the effects of mass dismissal?
 - What was the relationship between stress and time elapsed since the mass dismissal?
 - Was the relationship between mass dismissal (potential stressor) and perceived stress moderated by a number of variables? (These variables are presented in detail in Hypothesis 9.)

4.3 HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1

Ho There is no difference between the level of stress experienced by those individuals who were mass dismissed, unemployed or employed.

Ha Mass dismissed individuals experience higher levels of stress compared with others who are unemployed or employed.

Hypothesis 2

Ho There is no relationship between the degree of stress experienced and the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal.

Ha A positive relationship exists between degree of stress experienced and the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal.

Hypothesis 3

Ho There is no difference between the perceived personal negative effect of mass dismissal for those individuals who were either mass dismissed, unemployed or employed.

Ha Mass dismissed individuals perceived themselves to be more negatively affected than others who were unemployed or employed.

Hypothesis 4

Ho There is no relationship between the perceived personal negative effect of the mass dismissal and the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal.

- Ha A positive relationship exists between the perceived personal negative effect of the mass dismissal and the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal.

Hypothesis 5

- Ho There is no difference between the perceived negative effect on the family of the mass dismissal by those individuals who were either mass dismissed, unemployed or employed.

- Ha Mass dismissed individuals perceived their families to be more negatively affected by the mass dismissal than others who were unemployed or employed.

Hypothesis 6

- Ho There is no difference between the perceived negative effect on the family of the mass dismissal and the length of time elapsed since the event.
- Ha A positive relationship exists between perceived negative impact of the mass dismissal on the family and the length of time elapsed since the event.

Hypothesis 7

Ho There is no difference between the perceived negative effect on the community of the mass dismissal by those individuals who were either mass dismissed, unemployed or employed.

Ha Mass dismissed individuals perceived the community to be more negatively affected than others who were either unemployed or employed.

Hypothesis 8

Ho There is no relationship between the perceived negative effect on the community of the mass dismissal and the length of time elapsed since the event.

Ha There is a positive relationship between perceived negative effect on the community and the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal.

Hypothesis 9

Ho The relationship between mass dismissal and experienced stress is not moderated by the following

variables:

Ha The relationship between mass dismissal and experienced stress is moderated by the following variables:

- 9.1 Household income.
- 9.2 Wages earned.
- 9.3 Household income adjusted for inflation.
- 9.4 Financial support.
- 9.5 The perceived length / permanence of the unemployment.
- 9.6 The degree to which the individual rates him/herself as able to cope.
- 9.7 The degree to which the individual rates his/her family as able to cope.
- 9.8 The degree to which the individual rates the community as able to cope.
- 9.9 The degree to which the individual experiences him/herself as having control over the circumstance of the unemployment.
- 9.10 The degree to which the individual perceives the community as being able to change or not.
- 9.11 The degree to which the individual feels a part of the community.
- 9.12 The state of the individual's health.
- 9.13 Whether the individual wants to remain in Mpophomeni or not.

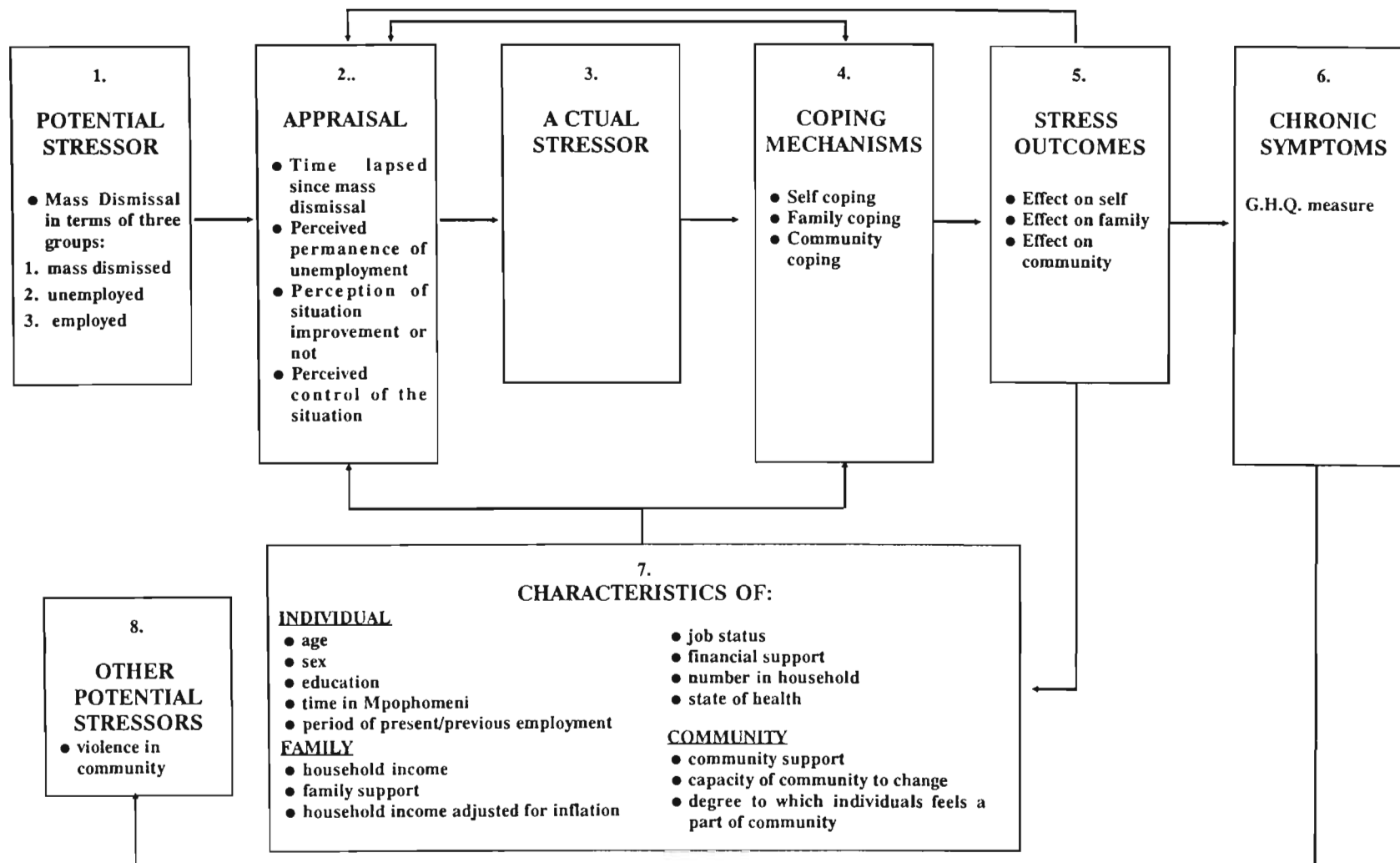
- 9.14 The degree to which the individual perceives his/her family as supportive or not.
- 9.15 The degree to which the individual perceives the community as supportive or not.
- 9.16 Whether the individual perceives the situation as improving or not.

Demographic Variables

- 9.17 Sex of the respondent.
- 9.18 Age of the respondent.
- 9.19 Length of time resident in Mpophomeni.
- 9.20 Education of the respondent.
- 9.21 Number of persons in the household.
- 9.22 The period of present / previous employment.

The variables referred to in the hypotheses are presented in relation to their position in the model of job loss stress (see Figure 4.1).

FIGURE 4.1 VARIABLES ASSESSED IN THIS STUDY IN RELATION TO
MODEL OF JOB LOSS STRESS



CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 PROBLEMS WITH STRESS RESEARCH

A number of problems have been identified by researchers related to stress research. These problems are both conceptual and methodological (Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Schule, 1980; Payne et al, 1982; Caldwell, 1984; Feather, 1990). A number of the main criticisms relevant to this study are covered.

5.1.1 DEFINITIONAL AND CONCEPTUAL CONFUSION

Stress has been defined as either a stimulus, a response or an interaction (Payne et al, 1982), but often the associated research does not make explicit whether stress is being treated as a dependent or an independent variable and lacks both definitional and conceptual clarity (Cooper and Marshall, 1976). In this project an attempt was made to overcome this problem by situating the variables studied clearly within the context of a theoretical model which made explicit the relationship between potential stressor and result stress (See Chapter 3).

5.1.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research on psychological effects of job loss has tended to be nomothetic without much concern for an understanding of why an individual responds in a particular way (Feather, 1990). Lazarus (1978) calls for naturalistic research that focuses on both exogenous and endogenous variables. In addition, the moderating effects of social variables linked to family and community are seldom taken into account in the examination of stress associated with job loss (Fryer and Ullah, 1987). Linked to this, Payne et al (1982) called for a multi-factorial, multi-method approach to stress research with studies that take into account the possible influence of moderating variables. Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) and Lazarus (1978) all called for an ipsative / normative approach that combined large numbers with intensive studies of the processes which underline the various stressfull outcomes. This study has attempted to follow this advice.

5.1.3 SELF REPORT MEASURES

There has tended to be a reliance on self report measures. In the case of unemployed people who complete questionnaires, it is possible that they may distort

their answers in the direction of presenting what they believe are appropriate responses, in relation to their own goals and those of the researcher. However, Maloney and Ward (1976) report that there is no-one better informed than the individual him/herself concerning his/her behaviour. De Vaus (1990) goes one step further to show that individuals can accurately observe their own behaviour and that self-appraisals are at least as predictive as other procedures. Despite the reservations mentioned, Kelvin and Jarrett (1985), O'Brien (1986) and Feather (1990) support the view that self assessment is an appropriate technique for the assessment of the stress associated with job loss. Commenting on the possibility of distortion in self reports, Bacharach (1983) argues that it is this very possibility that makes the self assessment of stress so important. He claims that whether a person feels under stress or not is the critical variable, rather than an objective analysis performed by a third party. In addition to this the model of job loss stress used in this research predicts that self appraisal is a critical component of the experience of stress.

5.1.4 SAMPLING

There is some debate as to whether random sampling is

appropriate for stress research. Fletcher and Payne (1980) report that by taking random samples of the population only 10% of those individuals who are stressed could well be included. In this study random sampling was used because the research design and questions specifically did not want to restrict the examination of stress to those individuals who had lost their jobs, but wanted to include the effects on other members of the community.

5.1.5 LIMITED TO CROSS-SECTIONAL DESIGNS

As mentioned in Chapter Two, most of the research on stress associated with job loss has been limited to cross-sectional designs without examining the effects of different patterns of employment and unemployment over time. This study goes some way to dealing with this critique by taking three samples from the same community over a six year period.

5.2 PROCEDURE

In line with the research questions posed in Chapter Four, it was decided not to restrict the study to those households in Mpophomeni who were directly affected by the mass dismissal, but rather to investigate the effects on others in the community.

Accordingly, a random sample of 8% of the homes in the township was chosen from a listing of the homes. (This process was facilitated by the numbering of the houses). Almost four months was spent in gaining access to the community and attaining permission from the relevant administration authorities, the trade unions, political groups and civic associations. Information was gathered by means of a structured interview which contained a standardised psychometric measure (see section 5.4). The interviews were conducted by nine Zulu speaking researchers, all of whom were post graduate students at the University of Natal. Although the researchers workers all had some experience in survey research, they were given intensive training on the administration of the structured interview prior to the investigation. In addition, their progress during the investigation was carefully monitored, with a de-briefing session at the end of each day during which completed questionnaires were collected and checked. In an attempt to reduce experimenter expectancy, the researchers were only made aware of the overall aim of the study and not given the details of the research questions and hypotheses. For each of the samples the field work was completed within three weeks of the first questionnaire being administered. The majority of the

interviews were conducted in Zulu with the researchers translating the responses into English. The researchers had in their possession a Zulu translation of the G.H.Q. to ensure standardisation of its administration. The subjects were interviewed in their own homes and the interview lasted between sixty and ninety minutes. The researchers were instructed to interview the heads of the households, but if this proved impossible, to interview the next most significant adult in the home. 91,6% of the respondents were heads of their households.

The study was conducted on three separate occasions. On each occasion a new random sample was drawn from the community. It would have been ideal to have a proper longitudinal design to the study with repeated measures on the same subjects on each of the three occasions. As is often the case in a field study, the practical situation did not allow for this. The context in which the research was carried out, was that of a highly volatile situation in which violence had occurred and a number of residents had already been killed. The nature of the conflict in the community was such that individuals could be blamed or scape-goated for various activities and killed. Consequently the study had to be adapted to ensure

that the respondents did not feel they were being singled out for analysis or that the results could be traced back to them with potentially disastrous consequences. A number of measures were taken to ensure that the subjects knew that they were being interviewed as a result of a random sampling procedure and not for any other reason. It would have also been ideal to take the samples at equal time intervals, but after 1988 because of the escalation of violence, it was considered too risky for researchers to enter the area. In 1992, although the violence had not completely subsided, it was considered reasonably safe for the researchers to continue and, thankfully, although the researchers were threatened on one occasion on the access road to the community, they suffered no physical harm. Consequently, the sampling study was conducted in 1986, 1987 and 1992. The structured interview format was identical for each of the studies with the exception of 1992, when additional questions were added, to specifically examine the perceived effects of the violence, and a further psychological psychometric instrument added to assist in the validation of the G.H.Q.

5.3 SAMPLE

5.3.1 SAMPLING

In each of the three interviews a sample was obtained by randomly selecting from a list of houses in the community. In addition to the main sample of 8% of the households, a back-up list of households (also randomly selected) was used, if, for whatever reason the researcher was unable to conduct the interview at the selected house. The back-up lists were only needed on twelve occasions in the entire study.

5.3.2 SAMPLE SIZE

Table 5.1 gives a breakdown of the number of subjects by sample year and employment status group. A total of 358 individuals were included in this study, distributed over the three different samples. As a result of the random sampling method, the ratio of unemployed/mass dismissed individuals to employed individuals represents the degree of unemployment in the community over the period of time. This being the case, it can be seen that the ratio of unemployed to employed increased from 1986 to 1992. Over the period of the study the number of occupied households in the township ranged from 1592

to 1623. The sample, therefore, represents approximately 8% of the total population for 1986 and 1987 and 6,6% for 1992.

TABLE 5.1 SAMPLE SIZE BY YEAR AND GROUP

1986	MASS DISMISSED	n = 26
	UNEMPLOYED	n = 39
	EMPLOYED	n = 62
	TOTAL SAMPLE FOR 1986	n = 127
1987	MASS DISMISSED	n = 23
	UNEMPLOYED	n = 39
	EMPLOYED	n = 64
	TOTAL SAMPLE FOR 1987	n = 126
1992	MASS UNEMPLOYED	n = 27
	UNEMPLOYED	n = 37
	EMPLOYED	n = 41
	TOTAL SAMPLE FOR 1992	n = 105
	TOTAL SAMPLE FOR WHOLE STUDY	n = 358

5.3.3 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

The subjects differed in terms of a number of demographic variables. These included: age, wages earned by breadwinner, number of individuals in the household, household income, number of years in last job, education, and sex. Information about these variables is summarised in Table 5.2.

From Table 5.2, it can be seen that there was not much variance in the age of the subjects between the employment status groups, with the exception of 1986 when the average age of the unemployment group was higher than the others, and in 1992 when the average age of the mass dismissed group was higher (mean = 48,51) than the entire group for that year (mean = 40,70). The 1992 result is to some extent predictable as the subjects were five years older since the previous sample in 1987.

With reference to the wages earned and household income, the mass dismissed groups were generally lower than the unemployed group who, in turn, were lower than those households where the head of the house was employed. The one exception to this trend was the household income for mass dismissed individuals in 1986, when they earned higher than those individuals who were unemployed. This is explained by the fact that at that period they were receiving their U I F benefits which had been delayed in repayment from June 1985.

TABLE 5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC DATA (SAMPLES)

<u>AGE</u>	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	41,785	14,025	358
1986 SAMPLE	43,953	15,189	127
MASS DISMISSED	43,115	9,158	26
UNEMPLOYED	49,205	21,247	39
EMPLOYED	41,000	11,583	62
1987 SAMPLE	40,500	12,786	126
MASS DISMISSED	40,913	8,474	23
UNEMPLOYED	41,205	16,486	39
EMPLOYED	39,922	11,602	64
1992 SAMPLE	40,705	13,795	105
MASS DISMISSED	48,148	11,548	27
UNEMPLOYED	35,703	15,474	37
EMPLOYED	40,317	11,486	41

<u>WAGES EARNED</u>	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	335,747	569,200	292
1986 SAMPLE	266,730	340,808	122
MASS DISMISSED	161,640	232,251	25
UNEMPLOYED	135,972	247,788	36
EMPLOYED	386,967	383,777	61
1987 SAMPLE	213,824	350,723	125
MASS DISMISSED	45,435	80,889	23
UNEMPLOYED	141,868	271,647	38
EMPLOYED	317,063	414,949	64
1992 SAMPLE	861,533	1067,007	45
MASS DISMISSED	100,000	141,421	2
UNEMPLOYED	203,000	203,506	8
EMPLOYED	1055,571	1135,488	35

MISSING CASES = 66

<u>NUMBER IN HOUSEHOLD</u>	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	6,346	3,419	358
1986 SAMPLE	6,331	2,437	127
MASS DISMISSED	6,385	2,229	26
UNEMPLOYED	6,564	2,654	39
EMPLOYED	6,161	2,404	62
1987 SAMPLE	5,659	2,129	126
MASS DISMISSED	6,000	1,651	23
UNEMPLOYED	5,795	2,462	39
EMPLOYED	5,453	2,070	64
1992 SAMPLE	7,191	5,118	105
MASS DISMISSED	7,333	4,132	27
UNEMPLOYED	7,622	5,823	37
EMPLOYED	6,707	5,105	41

<u>HOUSEHOLD INCOME</u>	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	470,216	735,429	357
1986 SAMPLE	337,742	356,548	127
MASS DISMISSED	307,154	405,110	26
UNEMPLOYED	189,883	229,997	39
EMPLOYED	443,577	369,614	62
1987 SAMPLE	388,290	424,067	126
MASS DISMISSED	257,957	441,499	23
UNEMPLOYED	302,579	389,604	39
EMPLOYED	487,359	420,079	64
1992 SAMPLE	731,243	1181,932	104
MASS DISMISSED	235,000	134,588	26
UNEMPLOYED	400,784	333,778	37
EMPLOYED	1344,152	1685,070	41

NUMBER OF YEARS EDUCATION (SCHOOLING)	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	7,601	4,167	351
1986 SAMPLE	6,958	4,295	120
MASS DISMISSED	8,120	2,948	25
UNEMPLOYED	5,086	4,889	35
EMPLOYED	7,567	4,106	60
1987 SAMPLE	8,056	4,103	126
MASS DISMISSED	7,478	3,462	23
UNEMPLOYED	7,282	4,148	39
EMPLOYED	8,734	4,229	64
1992 SAMPLE	7,791	4,042	105
MASS DISMISSED	6,037	4,062	27
UNEMPLOYED	7,622	3,975	37
EMPLOYED	9,098	3,700	41

NUMBER OF YEARS IN LAST JOB	MEAN	STD. DEV	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	5,739	10,254	317
1986 SAMPLE	5,969	12,108	127
MASS DISMISSED	17,577	7,731	26
UNEMPLOYED	7,039	17,235	39
EMPLOYED	,429	1,979	62
1987 SAMPLE	3,508	6,753	126
MASS DISMISSED	11,435	7,751	23
UNEMPLOYED	2,564	5,762	39
EMPLOYED	1,234	4,552	64
1992 SAMPLE	6,672	10,861	105
MASS DISMISSED	18,000	11,579	27
UNEMPLOYED	3,361	4,257	36
EMPLOYED	0,468	2,632	41

<u>SEX</u>	MALE	FEMALE	CASES
ENTIRE SAMPLE	236	122	358
1986 SAMPLE	71	56	127
MASS DISMISSED	26	-	26
UNEMPLOYED	13	26	39
EMPLOYED	32	30	62
1987 SAMPLE	84	42	126
MASS DISMISSED	23	-	23
UNEMPLOYED	21	18	39
EMPLOYED	40	24	64
1992 SAMPLE	81	24	105
MASS DISMISSED	27	-	27
UNEMPLOYED	25	12	37
EMPLOYED	29	12	41

In turning to the number of individuals in the household, it is interesting to see that the average number of individuals in a household increased between 1986 (6,35) and 1992 (7,19), having dropped to 5,66 in 1987. It is impossible that these changes could be associated with the violence in the township and the surrounding areas, and people moving in and out of the township, depending on its stability or security. Turning to the education of the different sub groups, it is worth noting that the employed individuals had on average slightly more education than the other groups.

Turning to the number of years worked in their last/present job, a significant difference between the employment status groups for each of the sample groups was found. The mass dismissed group had a significantly larger number of years in their last job, as compared with the other two employment status groups. This is explained by the fact that most of the Sarmcol workers who were dismissed had been in the employ of the Company for more than fifteen years. Referring to the distribution of the sex of the subjects, it is clear that the mass dismissed group are all male, while the other employment status groups had a mixture of male and female. Considering the sample overall, it can be seen that there were about twice as many men as woman.

To examine the potential moderating effects of these demographic variables on the main results in the study, they were treated as co-variants in an analysis of variance; this is reported on in Chapter Six.

5.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

5.4.1 THE SEARCH FOR APPROPRIATE INSTRUMENTS

With reference to the Model of Job Loss Stress (Figure 3.1) developed in Chapter Three, and the variables assessed in this study in terms of that model (see

Figure 4.1) it was clear that instruments were needed to:

- (i) Measure the chronic symptoms associated with psychological stress as a result of job loss. This measure should obviously be psychometrically respectable with satisfactory levels of reliability and information about its validity.
- (ii) Develop an instrument that would specifically examine the perceptions of the respondent in terms of the variables identified in Figure 4.1.

Firstly, the consideration of a psychometrically respectable instrument to evaluate the psychological impact of the stress will be considered. This study was particularly concerned with the affective reactions and psychological well-being associated with job loss. A review of the literature indicated that the following scales were predominantly used:

- (i) The Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1967) consists of twenty-one items that cover a range of symptoms associated with depression (sadness, pessimism, social withdrawal). This B.D.I has been used in the following studies: (Feather and Bond, 1983; Feather and Barber, 1983; Bond and Feather 1988)

- (ii) Hopelessness Scale (Beck et al, 1974). The scale was designed to measure general pessimism or hopelessness and consists of twenty items in a true/false format. It has been used in the following studies: (Feather, 1983; Bond and Feather, 1988).
- (iii) The Stress Symptoms Scale (O'Brien, 1981). It is a twenty item scale that covers a variety of stress symptoms (eg. loss of appetite, sleeplessness etc.) and has been used in the following studies: (O'Brien et al, 1978; O'Brien, 1981).
- (iv) The Life Satisfaction Scale (Quinn and Shepard, 1974). The scale consists of ten items presented in a semantic differential format to provide a general measure of satisfaction with life and has been used in the following studies: (O'Brien, 1981; Payne and Hartley, 1987).
- (v) General Health Questionnaire (G.H.Q.), (Goldberg, 1972, 1978). As a measure of psychological distress, it appears in three different formats, ranging from a twelve item to a sixty item scale and is strongly recommended by Banks et al (1980) for use as an indicator of mental health and occupational studies. Table 5.3 gives an example of a number of studies in which the thirty item G.H.Q. has been used.

TABLE 5.3 : SOME STUDIES USING 30-ITEM G.H.Q IN UNEMPLOYMENT RESEARCH

AUTHOR	DATE	COUNTRY	AIM
Brenner, S.O; & Bartlett R.	1983	Sweden	To explore important psychological processes in unemployment
Finlay-Jones, R & Eckhardt, B	1981	New Zealand	To investigate the prevalence of psychiatric disorder among the young unemployed
Fineman, S	1979	Britain	To describe a model of psychological stress in an attempt to explain the psychological response state of stress & physical disease (strain) related to stress, from the consequences of an individual's failure to master self-threatening problems
Hepworth, S.J.	1980	Britain	To explore some of the factors important in determining a man's subjective reaction to the experience of unemployment
Jackson, P.R. & Warr, P.B.	1984	Britain	To examine the relationship between the length of unemployment and psychological ill-health
Jackson, P.R.; Stafford, E.M.; Banks, M.H.; & Warr, P.B.	1983	Britain	To examine relationships between unemployment and reduced psychological well-being
Layton, C.	1986	Britain	To investigate the possible causal link between unemployment and mental ill health
Lehtinen, V	1984	Finland	To assess the possibility of a relationship between unemployment and mental disturbance
Melville, D.; Hope, D.; Dennison, D.; & Barraclough, B.	1985	Britain	An investigation of the prevalence of depression among men who had suffered involuntary redundancy
Payne, R.; & Hartley, J	1987	Britain	To test a model for explaining the affective experience of unemployed men
Sanford et al	1985	Britain	Measurement of the effects of unemployment on health in adolescents
Sommer, D.; & Lasry, J.	1984	Canada	To relate stressful life events and pathological reactions to personality structure
Tarnopolsky, A; Hand, D.J.; McLean, E.K.; Roberts, H.; & Wiggins, R.D.	1979	Britain	To check the validity and the uses of the G.H.Q in the community
Ullah, P.; Banks, M.; & Warr, P.	1985	Britain	To measure Social Support, social pressures and psychological distress during unemployment
Warr, P.; & Jackson, P.	1985	Britain	An assessment of the factors influencing the psychological impact of prolonged unemployment & re-employment

For the purposes of this study, the thirty item G.H.Q. was chosen because it is the most extensively used instrument for the measurement of psychological stress associated with job loss or unemployment. It is also psychometrically very sound and is not restricted to one or two aspects of psychological well-being, but examines the state in terms of the number of variables, many of which would be covered by the other inventories referred to above. In addition, a search for a psychometric instrument that had already been applied in South Africa revealed that the G.H.Q. satisfied this criteria (O'Neil, 1990).

To tap the other problems identified in the Model of Job Loss Stress.(Figure 4.1), it was decided to develop a questionnaire that would specifically tap these variables. Although questionnaires are not without their particular psychometric problems (to be discussed later in this section), they do have an advantage in that they may be tailored to the specific needs of the researchers and the context in which the subjects are responding. Feather (1990) refers to the various questions in a questionnaire designed specifically to tap components of a conceptional model of unemployment as Single Item Measures (S.I.M.). He makes the point that S.I.M.'s are not only critical to particular studies of the psychological effects of unemployment, but also allow for the potential development of new scales for such measurement.

5.4.2 GENERAL HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE (G.H.Q)

5.4.2.1 DESCRIPTION OF G.H.Q.

The General Health Questionnaire (G.H.Q.) was developed by Goldberg (1972, 1978) as a measure of psychological distress. The instrument which is in the form of a questionnaire is easy to administer, relatively short and acceptable to respondents. Therefore, it has the advantage that it can be included into a structured questionnaire, as was the case in this study. It is also objective to the extent that it does not require the person administering it to make subjective assessments about the respondent.

The G.H.Q. was designed to identify respondents with non-psychotic, psychiatric illness, thus assessing the severity of their psychiatric disturbance. The G.H.Q. has been used extensively to predict psychological stress and the probability of mental illness. It is particularly useful in measuring the psychological effects of job loss, in that it measures non-psychotic, psychiatric disturbance in terms of the extent to which the individual perceives himself as being able or unable to cope with his problems and to deal with his social difficulties. The areas covered by the questionnaire are: general health, sleep, personal behaviour, relations with others, subjective feelings and subjective depression. The items in the scale consist

of symptoms like abnormal feelings and thoughts, and aspects of observable behaviour.

The instrument is available in three different versions: sixty item, thirty item and twelve item. Goldberg (1978) suggests that ideally the sixty item version of the test should be used. However, the reliability and validity data reported by Goldberg (1978) for progressively shorter versions of the questionnaire, indicate that the psychometric status of the instrument is not significantly affected by using the shorter versions of the test. Although Banks et al (1980) recommend the twelve item questionnaire, it was decided that the longer thirty item version would be used in this study (G.H.Q.-30). It was chosen because, besides being the most extensively used version of the G.H.Q. in studies of the psychological effects of unemployment, the instrument is not validated in South Africa; and therefore it was felt that to use the slightly longer version of the questionnaire would reduce the risk of lowering its validity and reliability. The sixty item version, although ideal, would have been too long to be included in the questionnaire and, therefore, was impractical.

5.4.2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF THE INSTRUMENT

The scale was developed by selecting an item pool

covering four main areas: depression (unhappiness): anxiety (felt psychological disturbance): objectively observable behaviour: hypochondriasis. A total of 140 items were selected from existing scales such as the Taylors Manifest Anxiety Scale, the Cornell Medical Index, Eysenck's Maudsley Personality Inventory and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. In addition, some thirty items not covered by these instruments were written specifically for the scale. Items linked to personality traits, which were not applicable to the entire population, were excluded. Items were selected for the sixty item scale by identifying those which were found to significantly discriminate between the following three groups: "normals", "mildly ill", and "severely ill". Goldberg (1978) points out that if the scale is going to be used to predict psychiatric disturbance, then it needs to be calibrated (standardised) to the particular population for which it is going to be used. For the thirty item G.H.Q., a cut-off score of five or more on average would indicate that the individual was psychologically distressed.

5.4.2.3 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF G.H.Q.

There are some difficulties in assessing the Test-Retest Reliability of the G.H.Q. because the test is designed to assess a potentially highly variable quality in the

test subjects and that one would expect there to be changes in test scores. Nevertheless, in a study conducted on a 114 patients, Goldberg (1978) found reliability co-efficients to range between 0,51 and 0,90 and to some extent the range in co-efficient is explained by the degree of change in the patient, as observed by a third party professional. Split-half reliability has been reported by Goldberg (1978) for 853 subjects at +0,95. The reliability of the G.H.Q. analysed on the 358 subjects for the G.H.Q. in the present study, revealed a reliability co-effecient of 0,947 using the Cronbach Alpha, which is quite satisfactory.

Referring to the validity of the G.H.Q., most of the studies on the validity of the instrument have examined the degree to which the instrument predicts psychological disturbance. Quite clearly, in psychiatric application of the instrument, false positives and negatives should be kept at a minimum. Goldberg (1978), in a study of 183 patients, found that 91,5% were correctly identified by the questionnaire and only 8,5% were misclassified, i.e. either false positives or false negatives. Of interest to the present study, is the construct validity of the instrument i.e. the degree to which it is related to instruments based on similar constructs to the G.H.Q.

It was found that the G.H.Q. correlated at +0,80 with overall clinical assessments of psychological distress by psychiatrists. Table 5.3 also adds to the construct validity of the test in its use to differentiate a number of variables associated with general health i.e. psychological stress, physical disease, mental disturbance, pathological reactions, and depression.

To examine the construct validity of the G.H.Q. in the present study, it was decided to introduce the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger, 1983) into the 1992 sample to examine the relationship between the two instruments. The S.T.A.I. was used because it was developed to study anxiety amongst non-psychiatrically, disturbed adults (Spielberger, 1983). He uses the term anxiety to refer to two related, but different constructs. He defined state anxiety as an unpleasant, emotional state or condition (Spielberger, 1983, p.1). Anxiety states are characterised by "subjective feelings of tension", "apprehension", "nervousness", "worry" and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system (ibid, p.1). Trait anxiety referred to "the relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness, i.e. the differences between people in a tendency to perceive stressfull situations as dangerous or threatening and to respond to such situations with elevations in the intensity of their state anxiety reaction" (ibid,p.1).

It can be seen that there is a degree of overlap between the constructs of the G.H.Q. and that of state anxiety; consequently, one could expect a relationship between these measures. Of the 1992 sample 91 individuals responded to both the G.H.Q. thirty item and the S.T.A.I. and the correlation co-efficient between the responses computed. The correlation between state anxiety for the G.H.Q. was $+0,65$ ($p < 0,001$), and between trait anxiety and G.H.Q. was $+0,7$ ($p < 0,001$), thereby lending support for the construct validity of the G.H.Q. as applied in this study.

5.4.3 THE STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

As mentioned previously a structured interview was developed to obtain information concerning the specific variables identified in the Model of Job Loss Stress (see Figure 4.1). The questions in the interview covered the following areas:

- demographic information
- previous work history
- current work search behaviour
- perception of effect of job loss on self, family and community
- perceived permanence of unemployment
- perceived control of the situation
- health (G.H.Q. included in this section)
- perceived coping of self, family and community

- perceived support of family and community
- effect of violence (1992 study only)

Also note that the G.H.Q. was included in that part of the interview which dealt with health.

(A copy of the structured interview used, can be found in Appendix A).

The major advantage of using a structured interview is that this method of data collection is flexible and can easily be adapted by the researcher to a variety of situations. In training the researchers in the conduction of the interview for this project, they were encouraged not to deviate from the structured interview except to explore responses with the interviewee by asking additional questions to clarify points or in specific situations to tailor the interview to the person. The interview form is designed in such a way that the questions allow the individual an opportunity to determine his/her response and only after the interview was conducted were responses catergorised. To this degree a phenomenological approach to the interview method was adopted; the aim of which was to obtain rich and detailed descriptions of the respondents own concerns, opinions and actions rather than eliciting bits of behavioural responses to pre-categorised stimuli. In an attempt to increase the reliability of

the interview, careful attention was paid in the training of the researchers to the possible influence they could make on the questions they were asking through their own biases, perceptions and opinions and the consistency in the way in which they recorded and responded to the interviewees. They were trained to recognise when a response was complete or when to ask for clarification or qualification. They were also given guidelines and practice at keeping the respondents on the topic without telling them how to respond. Because of the potential sensitive nature of the subject matter, tape recorders were not used and the interviewers recorded the responses on the interview sheets.

Items chosen for the interview were linked to the Model of Job Loss Stress (Figure 3.1) presented and discussed in Chapter Three. A pilot assessment of the suitability of items, checking content and interviewee response, was carried out on a group of individuals employed at the University of Natal prior to the first study. In 1986, as a result of time pressures to complete the first study for presentation at the industrial court, no item analyses on the interview questions were conducted.

In an attempt to check the validity of the structured interview, the correlation co-efficients between the main variables used in the study were calculated and are presented in Table 5.4 below.

TABLE 5.4 CORRELATIONS BETWEEN G.H.Q. AND THE MAIN VARIABLES ASSESSED BY THE STRUCTURED INTERVIEW.

VARIABLE AGAINST WHICH G.H.Q. IS CORRELATED.	CORRELATION COEFFICIENT
EFFECT ON SELF RATING	- 0,2874 **
EFFECT ON FAMILY RATING	- 0,2546 **
EFFECT ON COMMUNITY RATING	- 0,1845 **
SELF COPING	- 0,1717 **
FAMILY COPING	- 0,1619 *
COMMUNITY COPING	- 0,0528
SUPPORT FROM FAMILY	- 0,1327 *
SUPPORT FROM COMMUNITY	- 0,0365
N = 358 * $p < 0,01$ ** $p < 0,001$	

An inverse relationship would be expected and it can be seen that six of the correlations are significant at, at least, the $p < 0,01$ level. This would lend sound support to the validity of the information obtained by the structured interview format. The two variables which showed very little relationship were the "community coping" and "support from the community".

5.5 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The results were computer analysed using the SPSS-X program (Nie et al, 1975). The data from the structured interview was coded using the four steps identified by de Vaus (1990): allocating codes to answers for each variable, allocating computer columns to each question, producing a code book, and checking codes.

The variables were coded using two different coding schemes: pre-coding and post coding. Firstly, the variables encoded using a pre-coding scheme will be examined.

The coding scheme given below was applied to the following variables:

- effect on self
- effect on family
- effect on community

0 = no response

1 = serious negative effect

2 = negative effect

3 = little/no effect

4 = positive effect

5 = strong positive effect

The perceived personal, family and community coping were all measured using the following scheme:

- 0 = no reponse
- 1 = given up all attempts to cope
- 2 = struggling to cope in at least one area
- 3 = coping reasonably - coping in most areas
- 4 = coping in all areas
- 5 = has led to new development

Perceived family support and perceived community support were coded on the following scales:

- 0 = no response
- 1 = has been a severe hindrance
- 2 = has a moderate hindrance
- 3 = has had no impact (neither hindrance or support)
- 4 = has been a moderate support
- 5 = has been a strong support

(For the purposes of the analysis, zero was recoded to equal three).

The remaining variables were coded by developing a set of coding categories on the basis of the respondents answers to the questions. To develop these codes, fifty responses were selected and a list made of the subjects answers. These responses were then grouped under various headings.

These responses were then grouped under various headings. In this way, a set of categories was developed so that all responses could be slotted in somewhere, each category and person's response being given a code. Care was taken to ensure that the categories were mutually exclusive. The following variables were categorised in this way, the actual categories being reported in Chapter Six:

- Perceived personal coping
- Perceived family coping
- Perceived community coping
- Perceived family support
- Perceived community support
- Perceived effect of violence on individual, family, and community
- Perceived personal, family and community coping with violence

To examine the reliability of the judgements made by the encoders in the encoding process, a sample of twenty-five questionnaires were encoded by two different judges and the two sets of encoded information correlated. The results of this analysis revealed a correlation co-efficient of $r = 0,84$ which indicated that the reliability of the encoding process was satisfactory.

Turning to the data analysis it was decided that classical

anova methods would be used for the statistical analyses :

- (i) The data fall into the well-known two-way layout;
- (ii) The availability of SPSS Routines.

It is conceded that the following points should also be borne in mind, using anova methods on these data :

- (i) No attempt has been made to set significances, appropriately, when multiple comparisons tests have been done;
- (ii) It is possible that with some of the scores the normality and homogeneity assumptions are strained.

It was however decided to rely on the robustness of anova and that the main thrust of the discussions would be qualitative rather than quantitative. The reason for not using a longitudinal design has been discussed in Section 5.2.

A number of steps in the data analysis were followed:

- (i) The standard deviations of the scores for all demographic and dependent measures were computed for the sample as a whole and a further breakdown by year and employment status group.
- (ii) A Two-way Analysis of Variance on the results of the G.H.Q. perceived effect of self, family and community (i.e. all the major dependent variables) was carried out to determine whether there were

significant differences between the employment status groups and the different years of the study.

- (iii) Analysis of co-variance was performed on the variables listed in (ii) above, to examine the effect of the partialling out of the influence of the various possible moderator variables. These moderator variables are listed in Chapter Four. Analysis of co-variance seemed appropriate because it enabled the researcher to statistically control the influence of a relevant variable on the "main effects" of the major analysis of variances in the study. In a quasi-experimental design it is impossible to control for all possible confounding variables. In an attempt to overcome this, the analysis of co-variance was carried out to determine the influence of these variables on the main result. Given the critique of the previous studies, these "confounding" variables can be seen to be as important as any other in the study and the analysis of co-variance provided a means of examining some of the interactions between the effects of the job loss at an individual, family and community level and various "contextual" variables

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS

In this chapter the research results are presented. The results are divided up into three broad sections: effects on individual, effects on family and effects on community. The lay-out of these sections is summarised below:

I. EFFECT ON THE INDIVIDUAL

This section begins by examining the results from the G.H.Q. for the three different employment status groups over the period of the study. The effect of a number of moderators on the G.H.Q. results are also presented. The personal effect ratings are then examined, followed by an evaluation of the effects of the moderator variables. A qualitative analysis of the reasons for the individuals' perceived effect ratings is followed by an examination of the individuals' perceptions of the way they have coped with the situation. A detailed analysis of the individuals' assessment of the perceived support from both family and community is then covered. The "Effects on the Individual" section is concluded with the presentation of the results on the effect of violence on the individual for the 1992 group.

2. EFFECT ON THE FAMILY.

The second section of the results focuses on the effect

on the family. It begins with presentation and examination of the perceived effect on family ratings, which are then compared with a number of moderator variables. Similar to Section 1, a qualitative analysis of the reasons for individuals' ratings of the effects on the family is presented. A determination of the way in which the family copes with the situation is also followed by an examination of the effects of violence on the family within the community.

3. EFFECT ON THE COMMUNITY.

The effect on community is the final section of the results and the format for the presentation of the findings in this section is identical to that of Section 2.

6.1 EFFECTS ON INDIVIDUAL

6.1.1 GENERAL HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE (G.H.Q.)

6.1.1.1 EXAMINATION OF G.H.Q. SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR.

The means and standard deviations of the G.H.Q. scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group are presented in Table 6.1. For the entire population ($N = 358$), the mean was found to be 10,03 and standard deviation 7,98. Although these figures give some indication of the degree of

stress in the community, for this study a further breakdown by year and employment status group was necessary.

TABLE 6.1 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR G.H.Q.Scores FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of G.H.Q.
By levels of YEAR
GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			10,031	7,982	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	7,102	6,830	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	9,577	7,431	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	9,385	7,995	39
Group	3.00	Employed	4,629	4,663	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	11,540	9,655	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	14,044	6,197	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	9,333	9,280	39
Group	3.00	Employed	11,984	10,681	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	11,762	5,824	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	15,222	5,905	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	12,432	5,204	37
Group	3.00	Employed	8,878	4,910	41

TOTAL N = 358

A graphical representation of the mean G.H.Q. scores for the three different employment status groups over the three years of this study is presented in Figure 6.1. With reference to Hypothesis 1, it can be seen that with the exception of 1986 the mass dismissed individuals clearly experienced higher levels of stress than the unemployed and employed groups. 1986

saw the mass dismissed and unemployed individuals as almost identical in their mean G.H.Q. score, with the employed group much lower at 4,63. An examination of Figure 6.2, which is a histogram of the G.H.Q. scores for 1986 broken down into the three groups, reveals that 42,1 % of the mass dismissed group received G.H.Q. scores of 12 or above, compared with 36,3 % for the unemployed and 8 % for the employed group.

In 1987, the picture changes dramatically for both mass dismissed and the employed individuals (Figure 6.3). The average score for the mass dismissed group moving from 9,58 to 14,04 and the employed group's average moving almost seven points from 4,63 to 11,99. By contrast, the unemployed group stay almost constant at 9,33. An examination of Figure 6.3, a histogram of the G.H.Q. scores for 1987, reveals that 78 % of the mass dismissed individuals obtained scores of 12 or above, compared with 32 % for the unemployed group. An interesting and unexpected result is that of the employed group; 32 % of them scored higher than 12, but the distribution of those scores is skewed strongly towards the higher stress level, with 25,1 % of them scoring 24 or above. Therefore, referring back to Hypothesis 1 in 1987, even though the mass dismissed individuals were still higher than the other two groups, the employed group was significantly higher than the unemployed group, with some individuals in the employed group experiencing a high degree of stress.

In 1992, the mean G.H.Q. scores still reflect a high degree of

stress within the community, with the mass dismissed group increasing to 15,22, the unemployed at 12,43 and the employed group at 8,88. A glance at the histogram in Figure 6.4 shows a far more normal distribution for each of the groups around their particular mean. The mean standard deviation for that year is computed as the lowest for the three years at 5,82, compared to 9,6 for 1987 and 6,8 for 1986. However, it is important to note that 81,4 % of the mass dismissed individuals obtained scores of 12 or higher on the G.H.Q. compared with 54 % and 36,6 % for the unemployed and employed groups respectively.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that there would be an increase in stress over time and, therefore, one would expect the mean value of the G.H.Q. scores for the mass dismissed group to increase from 1986 to 1992, assuming that they did not find employment in that period. From Figure 6.1, it can be seen that there is a trend in this direction for the mass dismissed group. For the unemployed group there has been an increase from 1987 to 1992 in the degree of stress. Figure 6.5 is a gathering together of the four main figures for the G.H.Q. scores, so that the trends can be seen at a glance. The histogram of the 1986 scores shows a skew towards the lower end of the x-axis. In 1987, the unemployed and employed groups' scores are polarised in their distribution compared with 1992 when there is a more normal distribution. Therefore, in 1992 there is far less chance of extreme scores influencing the mean.

FIG. 6.1 : MEAN G.H.Q. SCORES FOR "EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS" BY YEAR

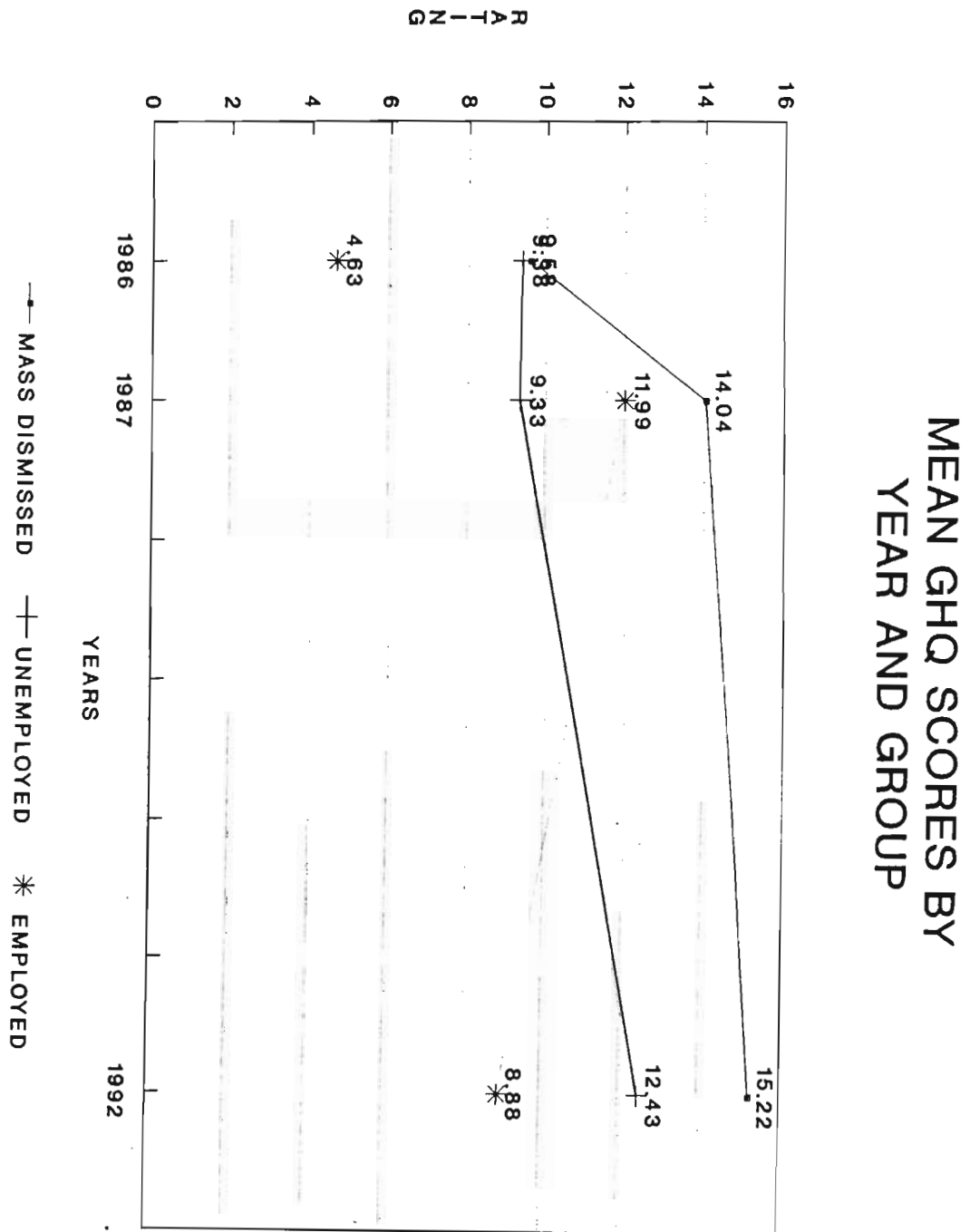
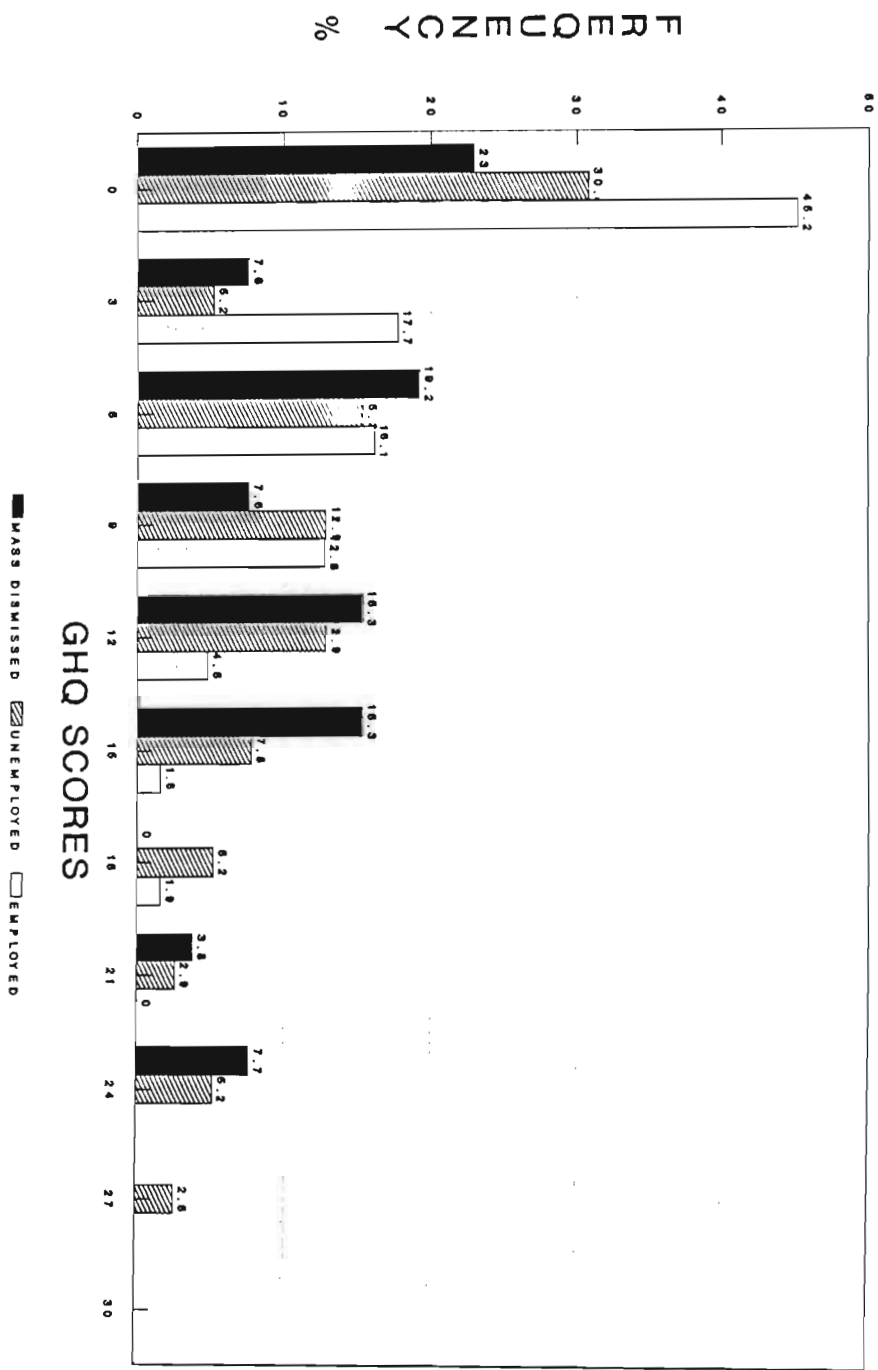


FIG. 6.2 : HISTOGRAM OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR 1986



HISTOGRAM OF GHQ SCORES
1986

FIG. 6.3 : HISTOGRAM OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR 1987

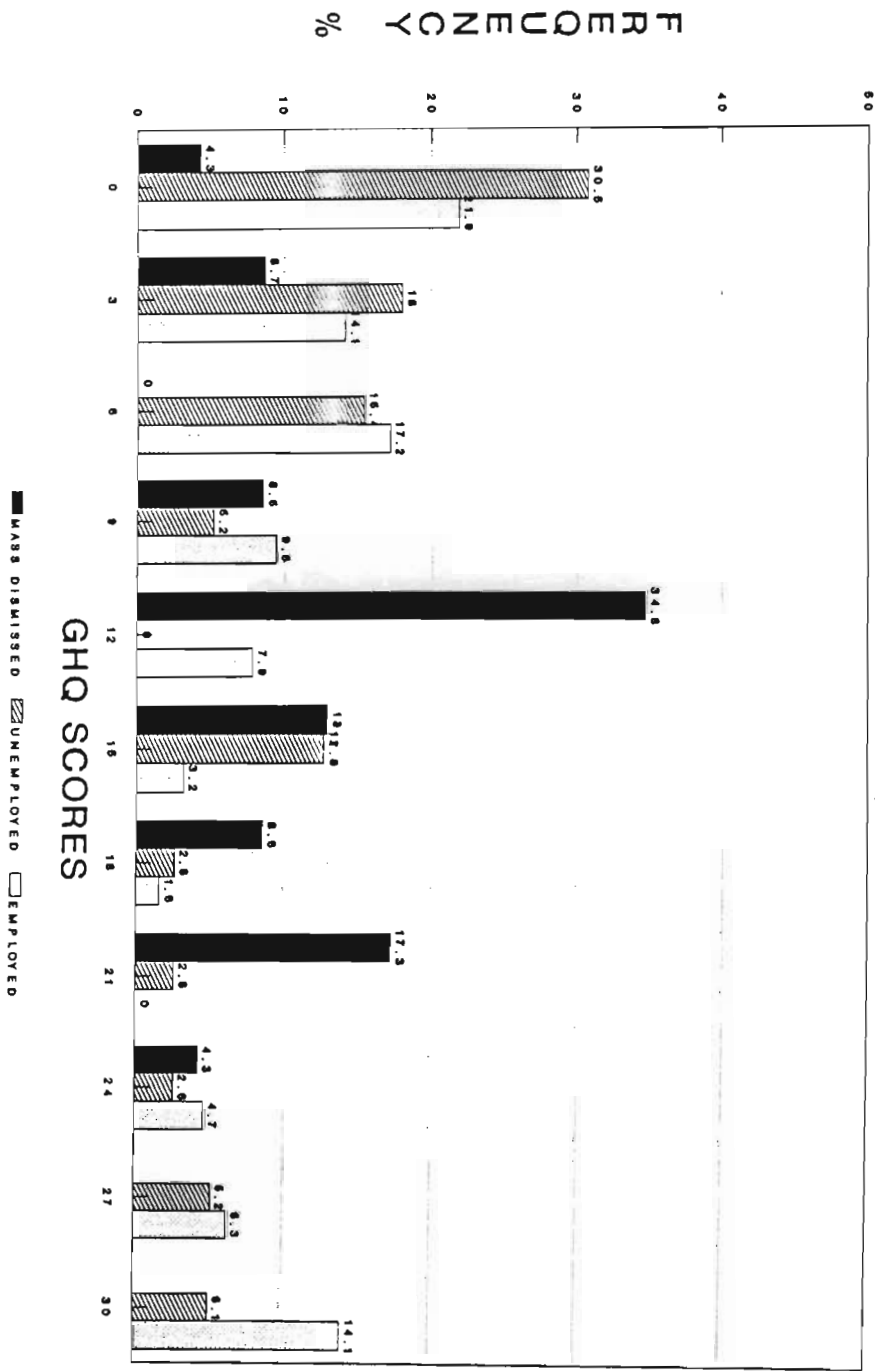
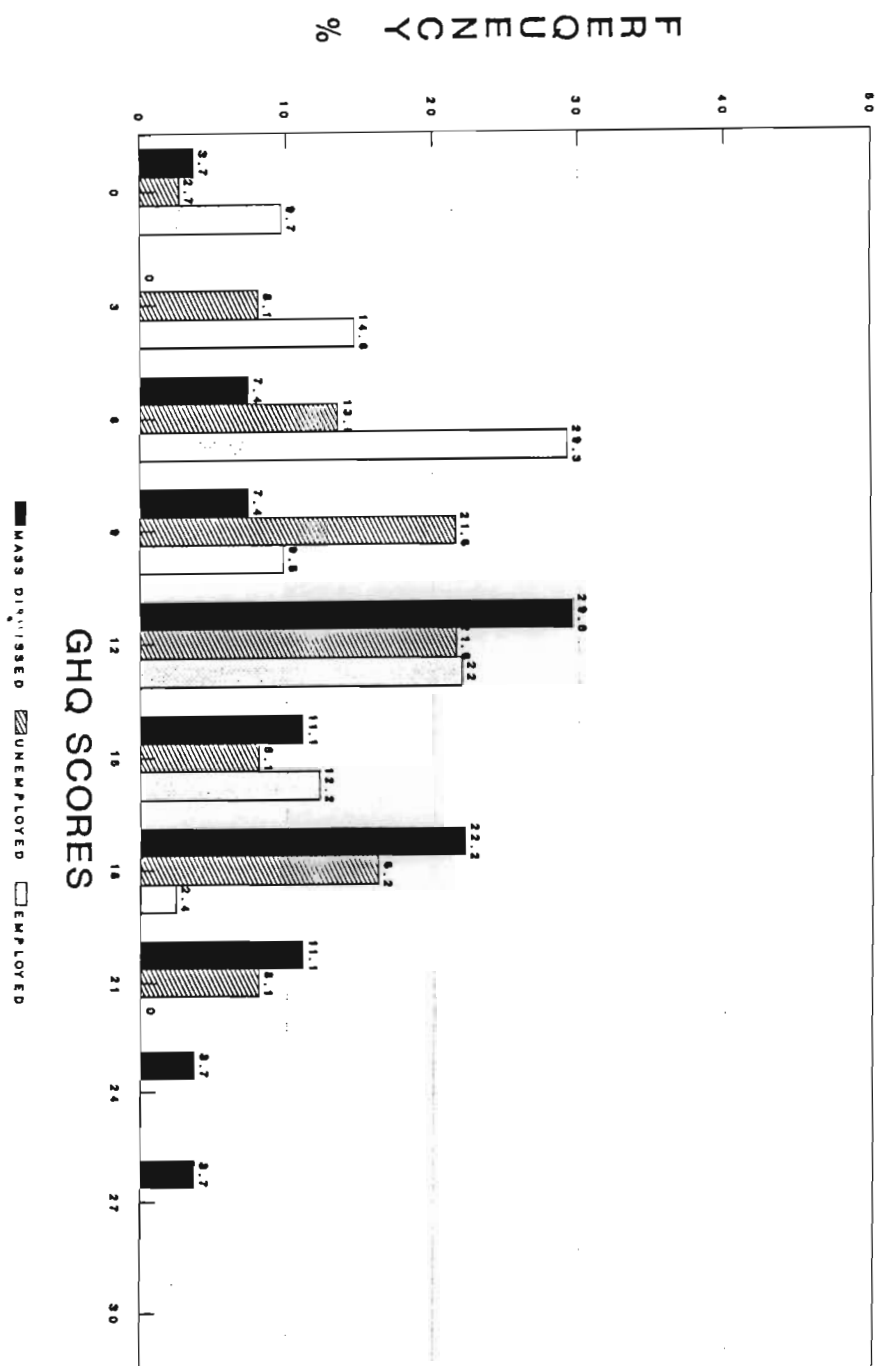
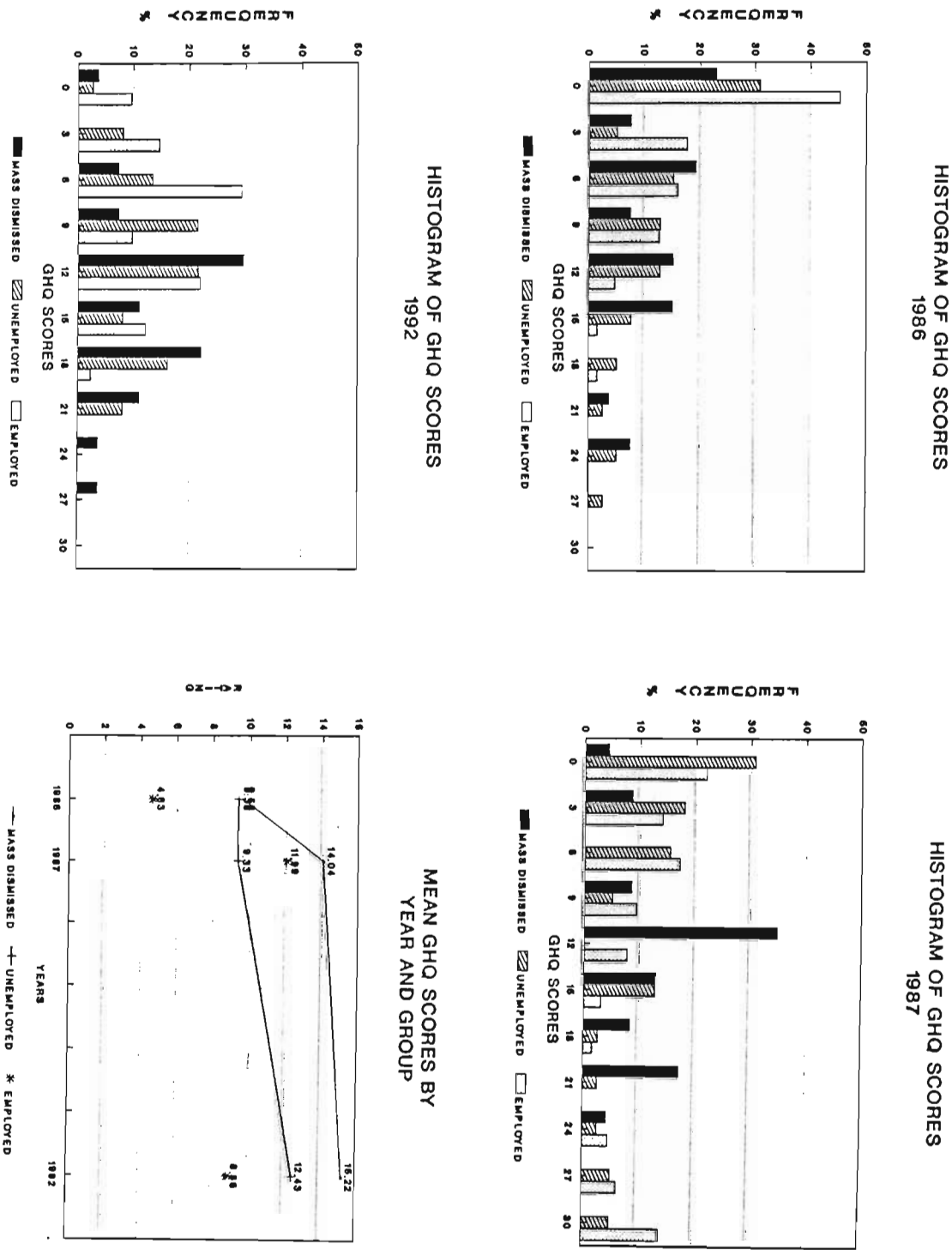


FIG. 6.4 : HISTOGRAM OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR 1992



HISTOGRAM OF GHQ SCORES 1992

FIG. 6.5 : COMBINED RESULTS OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR THE THREE YEARS TOGETHER WITH MEAN SCORES



To test any significant difference between the groups and the years in the sample, a two-way analysis of variance by group and year was carried out. Table 6.2 is a summary of the results for the analysis of variance by group and year. It shows clearly that there are significant differences between the years and groups and the interaction between those variables. The significant interaction is most likely explained by the radical shift in 1987 of the employed and mass dismissed groups compared with the relative stability of the unemployed group's scores. If the 1987 measurement had not taken done the lines would have tended to be parallel and the interaction between the two variables not significant.

TABLE 6.2 : TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF G.H.Q SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E

G.H.Q. N = 358
BY YEAR
 GROUP

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Year	1622,925	2	811,463	14,684	,000
Group	980,449	2	490,225	8,871	,000
Year Group Interaction	788,779	4	197,195	3,568	,000
Residual	19286,790	349	55,263		
Total	22746,662	357	63,716		

NOTE: Computer printouts have pre-chosen numbers of printing positions, and where significances such as 0,00 appear $P < 0,005$ should be understood.

To examine more specifically Hypotheses 1 and 2, a two-way ANOVA "Simple Main Effects" Analysis on the G.H.Q. scores was carried out, reflecting firstly, between-group differences for each year, and secondly, between-year differences for each group. A summary of these results is presented in Table 6.3. From Table 6.3 can be seen that there is a significant difference between the employment status groups for each of the three years of the study. A test was also used to determine, in cases where significant values of F were obtained, which of the three groups or years differed from each other on the variable in question. In SPSS the Scheff Test is available only for one-way analysis of variance so the method suggested by Winer (1971) to test the difference the six group/year pairs was used. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 6.2A. When referring back to the discussion around Figure 6.1 and Table 6.1, there is a trend that for each of the three years, the mass dismissed group experienced greater stress than both of the other groups and this analysis shows this trend to be significant. This was further supported by the test on the pair contrasts involving mass dismissed individuals (See Table 6.2A). Therefore, for Hypothesis 1 we can accept H_a or that there is a significant difference between the levels of the stress experienced by the individuals in the different groups, as measured by the G.H.Q. It is of interest to note that in 1987 this difference is only just significant at the 0,05 level ($p < 0,045$). This is most likely explained by the change in the trend between the groups for this year as previously discussed.

Referring to Hypothesis 2, the simple main effects analysis revealed that there is only a significant difference between

the years for the employed group only: however, from Table 6.2A it must be noted that this is not significant for the year 1987 compared with 1992. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is not supportive for the mass dismissed and unemployed groups and for these groups it must be rejected in favour of a null hypothesis. Somewhat surprising is that the employed group did show a significant difference between years and this result would obviously warrant further explanation.

TABLE 6.2A. : TEST TO EXAMINE PAIR CONTRASTS OF YEARS AND GROUPS

MEASURE	PAIRS BEING CONTRASTED					
	86 vs 87		86 vs 92		87 vs 92	
	F	Sign.	F	Sign.	F	Sign.
General Health Questionnaire	14,840	* *	17,940	* *	0,147	NS
Perceived effect on self	0,386	NS	2,482	NS	0,911	NS
Perceived effect on family	2,774	NS	6,126	*	0,655	NS
Perceived effect on community	8,133	* *	0,406	NS	12,171	* *

MEASURE	PAIRS BEING CONTRASTED					
	MD vs Unemployed		MD vs Employed		Unemp. vs Emp.	
	F	Sign.	F	Sign.	F	Sign.
General Health Questionnaire	6,338	*	19,092	* *	3,430	NS
Perceived effect on Self	38,171	* *	123,762	* *	24,469	* *
Perceived effect on Family	51,415	* *	119,440	* *	14,126	* *
Perceived effect on Community	14,480	* *	5,498	*	2.133	NS

F = F Value Sign. = Significance of F * = $P < 0,05$ ** = $P < 0,01$

TABLE 6.3 : TWO-WAY ANOVA "SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS" ANALYSIS ON G.H.Q. SCORES REFLECTING : i) BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES FOR EACH YEAR ii) BETWEEN YEAR DIFFERENCES FOR EACH GROUP

SIGNIFICANCE OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR EACH YEAR BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS	
Group within 1986	0,001 **
Group within 1987	0,045 *
Group within 1992	0,002 **
SIGNIFICANCE OF G.H.Q. SCORES FOR EACH GROUP BETWEEN YEARS	
Year within Mass Dismissed	0,160
Year within Unemployed	0,119
Year within Employed	0,000 **

6.1.1.2 DETERMINATION OF THE EFFECT OF A NUMBER OF MODERATING VARIABLES ON THE G.H.Q.

In line with Hypothesis 9, the data were then analysed to establish whether the relationship between stress experienced by the subjects and their employment status group/time would be moderated by the variables identified in Hypothesis 9. Analyses of co-variance were performed with these variables as co-variates and G.H.Q. score as the dependent variable. The results of these analyses are summarised in Table 6.4. From Table 6.4, it can be seen that when the effects of a number of co-variates are considered, only two of these potentially moderating variables affected the significance of the G.H.Q. scores, being "the perceived length of permanence of the unemployment" (Hypothesis 9.5) and "the length of the present or previous employment" (Hypothesis 9.22).

TABLE 6.4 : SUMMARY OF ANALYSES OF CO-VARIANCE ON THE FOUR STRESS MEASURES

N/E = No effect on the anova of that variable

TABLE = The co-variate changed the significance of the main variable and is reported in the indicated table.

CO-VARIATE	G.H.Q	PERCEIVED EFFECT SELF	PERCEIVED EFFECT FAMILY	PERCEIVED EFFECT COMMUNITY
Household Income	N/E	Table 6.10	Table 6.10	N/E
Wages Earned	N/E	N/E	Table 6.23	Table 6.23
H/Income Inflation	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Financial Support	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Perceived Term	Table 6.5	N/E	N/E	Table 6.5
Self Coping	N/E	N/E	Table 6.24	N/E
Family Coping	N/E	N/E	Table 6.25	N/E
Community Coping	N/E	N/E	Table 6.26	N/E
Attribution of Change	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Can Community Change	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Belong Community	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Ill Health	N/E	N/E	Table 6.27	N/E
Remain in Community	N/E	N/E	Table 6.28	N/E
Family Support	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Community Support	N/E	N/E	Table 6.29	N/E
Will situation improve	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES				
Sex	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Age	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Time Resident	N/E	N/E	Table 6.30	N/E
Number in Household	N/E	N/E	Table 6.31	N/E
Education	N/E	N/E	N/E	N/E
Period of Employment	Table 6.6	N/E	N/E	Table 6.6

Table 6.5 shows the impact of the partialling out of the variance, associated with the co-variant on the two-way analysis of variance for each of the stress measures, where perceived period of unemployment is used as the co-variate. From Table 6.5, it can be seen that the partialling out of the variance, associated with the co-variate, affects the significance of the difference between the employment status groups. As was mentioned in Chapter Five, the "perceived length of permanence of the unemployment" measure needs to be treated with some caution.

TABLE 6.5 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING "PERCEIVED PERIOD OF UNEMPLOYMENT" AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Sign. of co-variate
	Group	Year	Interaction	Group	Year	Interaction	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	0,086	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,003
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,279	0,664	** 0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	* 0,024	0,614	** 0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,001	* 0,013	0,126	0,615

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

Referring to the demographic variable "the period of present or previous employment" (Hypothesis 9.22), it can be seen from Table 6.6 that the partialling out of the variance

associated with this variable alters the significant difference between the different years.

TABLE 6.6 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING PERIOD OF PREVIOUS/PRESENT EMPLOYMENT AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Sign. of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Interaction	Group	Year	Interaction	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	0,294	** 0,000	** 0,001
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,280	0,495	** 0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	* 0,044	0,416	** 0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,000	** 0,008	0,981	0,168

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

6.1.2 PERCEIVED EFFECT ON THE INDIVIDUAL

6.1.2.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON THE INDIVIDUAL" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

The means and standard deviations of the "perceived effect on the individual" scores for the entire sample, and its breakdown by employment status group and year are presented in Table 6.7. For the entire sample ($N = 358$), the mean was found to be 2,02 and standard deviation 0,94. These figures

indicate that for the entire population they perceived the effect of job loss to be negative. The rating scale referred to in Chapter Five is presented below for easy reference:

0 = no response

1 = serious negative effect

2 = negative effect

3 = little/no effect

4 = positive effect

5 = strong positive effect

TABLE 6.7 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERSONAL EFFECT" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
 GROUP

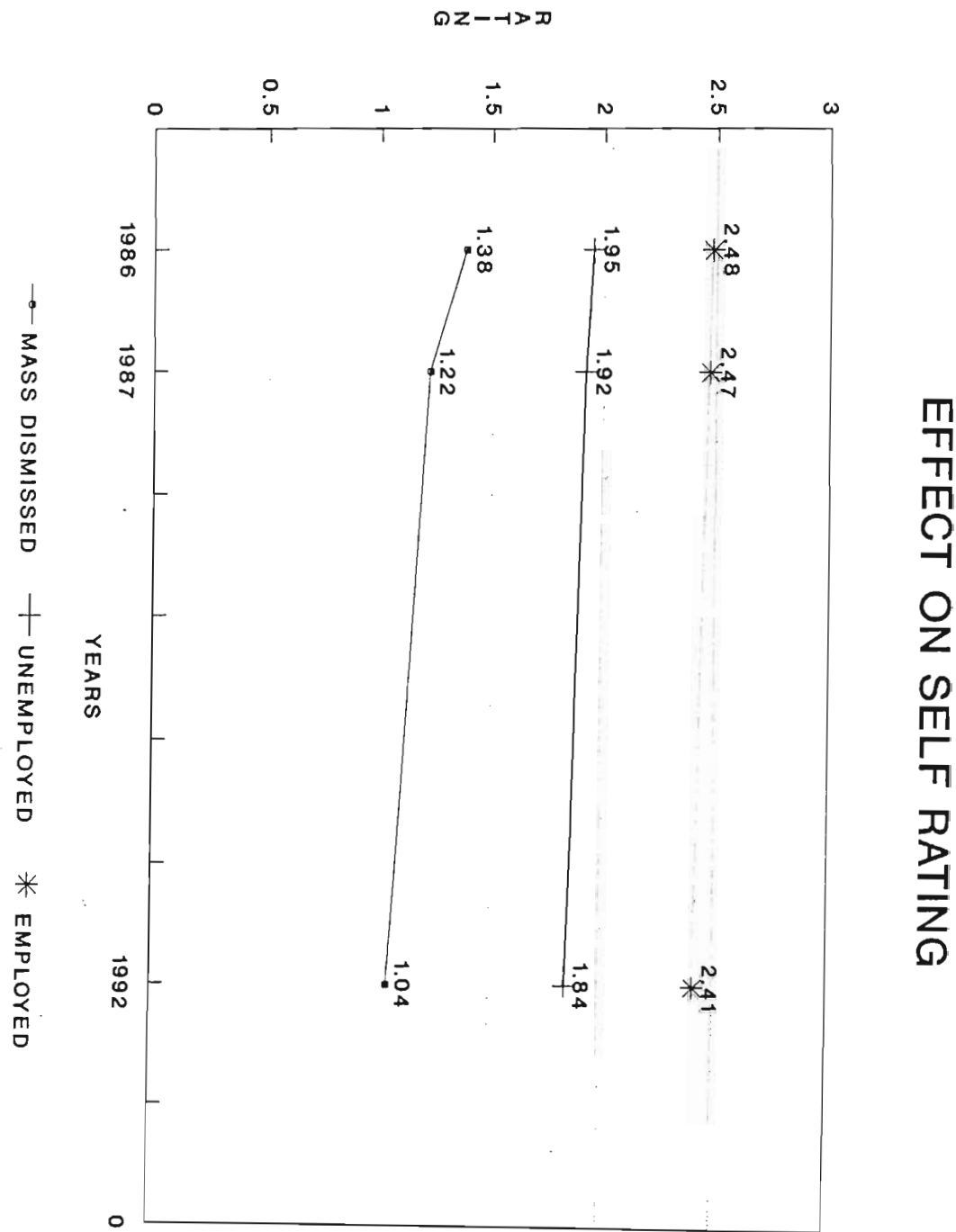
Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			2,017	,944	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	2,095	,921	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,385	,571	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,949	,972	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,484	,805	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	2,071	,989	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,217	,671	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,923	,929	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,469	,908	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	1,857	,903	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,037	,193	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,838	,727	37
Group	3.00	Employed	2,415	,921	41

TOTAL N = 358

However, a meaningful analysis of this result requires a further breakdown by year and employment status group.

A graphical representation of the "mean perceived effect on self" scores for the three different employment status groups over the three years of the study is presented in Figure 6.6. Referring to Table 6.7 and Figure 6.6, it can be seen that the mass dismissed individuals clearly perceive themselves to be more negatively affected than the unemployed and employed groups. It would appear that Hypothesis 3, (that mass dismissed individuals perceive themselves to be more negatively affected than unemployed individuals and employed individuals), is supported by these results.

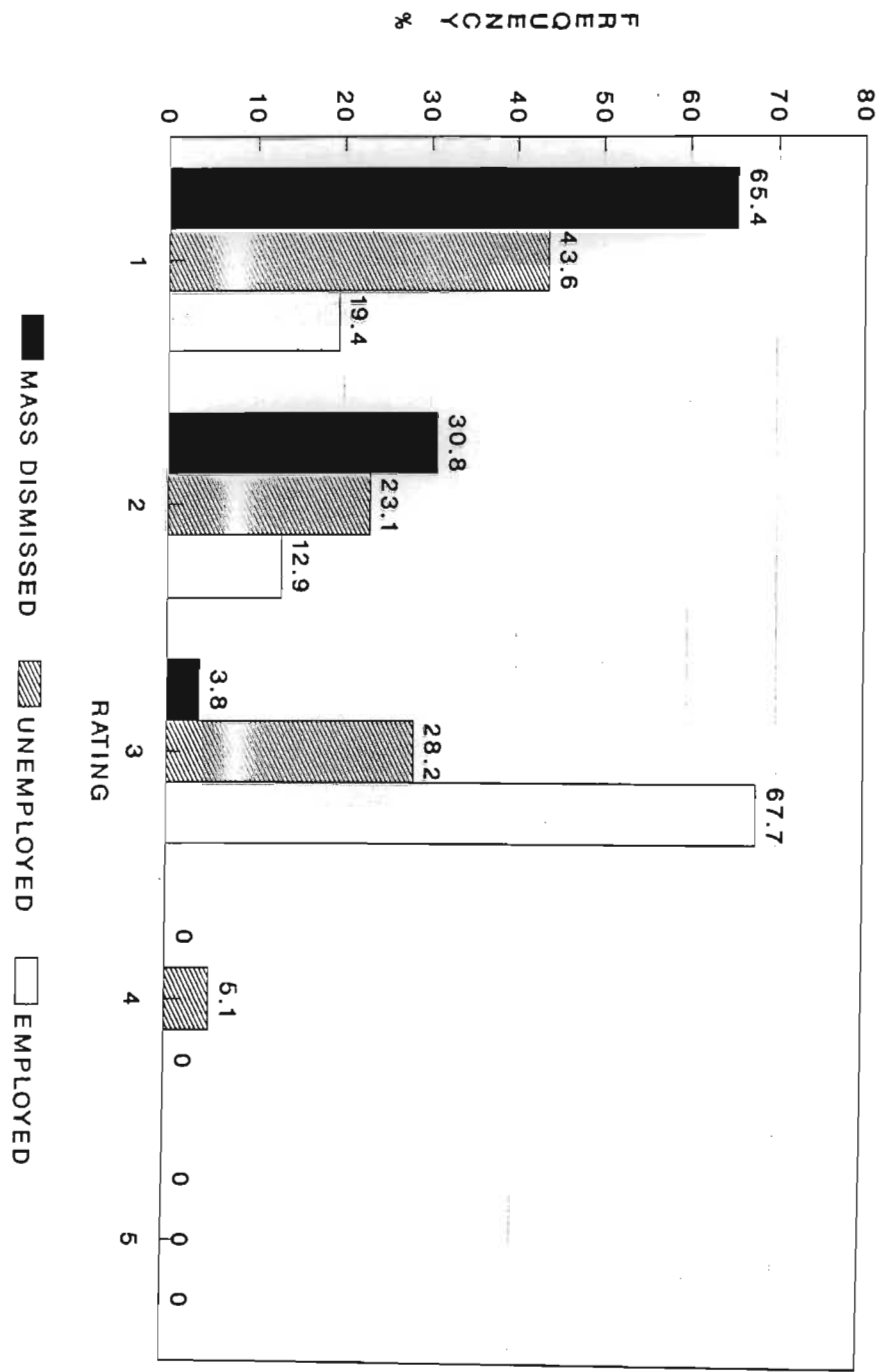
FIG. 6.6 : MEAN "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



Histograms, which give a breakdown of the employment status groups for each of the years from 1986, 1987 and 1992, are presented in Figures 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9 respectively. From Figure 6.7, it can be clearly seen that in 1986 the employed individuals shared the mass dismissed individuals' perceptions of the job loss as having relatively little effect on themselves, with 67,7 % of them receiving a rating of 3. By contrast, the majority of mass dismissed and unemployed individuals saw the mass dismissal as having a serious negative effect on themselves, with 65,4 % of the mass dismissed individuals seeing it as such. From Figure 6.8, it can be seen that in 1987, the one major change was that the number of mass dismissed individuals, who saw the mass dismissal as having a serious negative effect (i.e. received a rating of 1), had increased from 65,4 % in 1986 to 87 % in 1987. In 1992 (see Figure 6.9), the number of mass dismissed individuals who saw the effect of mass dismissal as seriously negative increases further to 96,3 %. Also of interest is the number of employed individuals who see the mass dismissal as having a negative effect on them increases from 34,4 % in 1987 to 44,0 % in 1992, although the mean rating for that group does not change much over the three years (see Table 6.7). It is worth noting that in each of the years approximately 20 % of the employed individuals reviewed the mass dismissal as having a serious negative effect on themselves and that this percentage frequency remained relatively constant over the years.

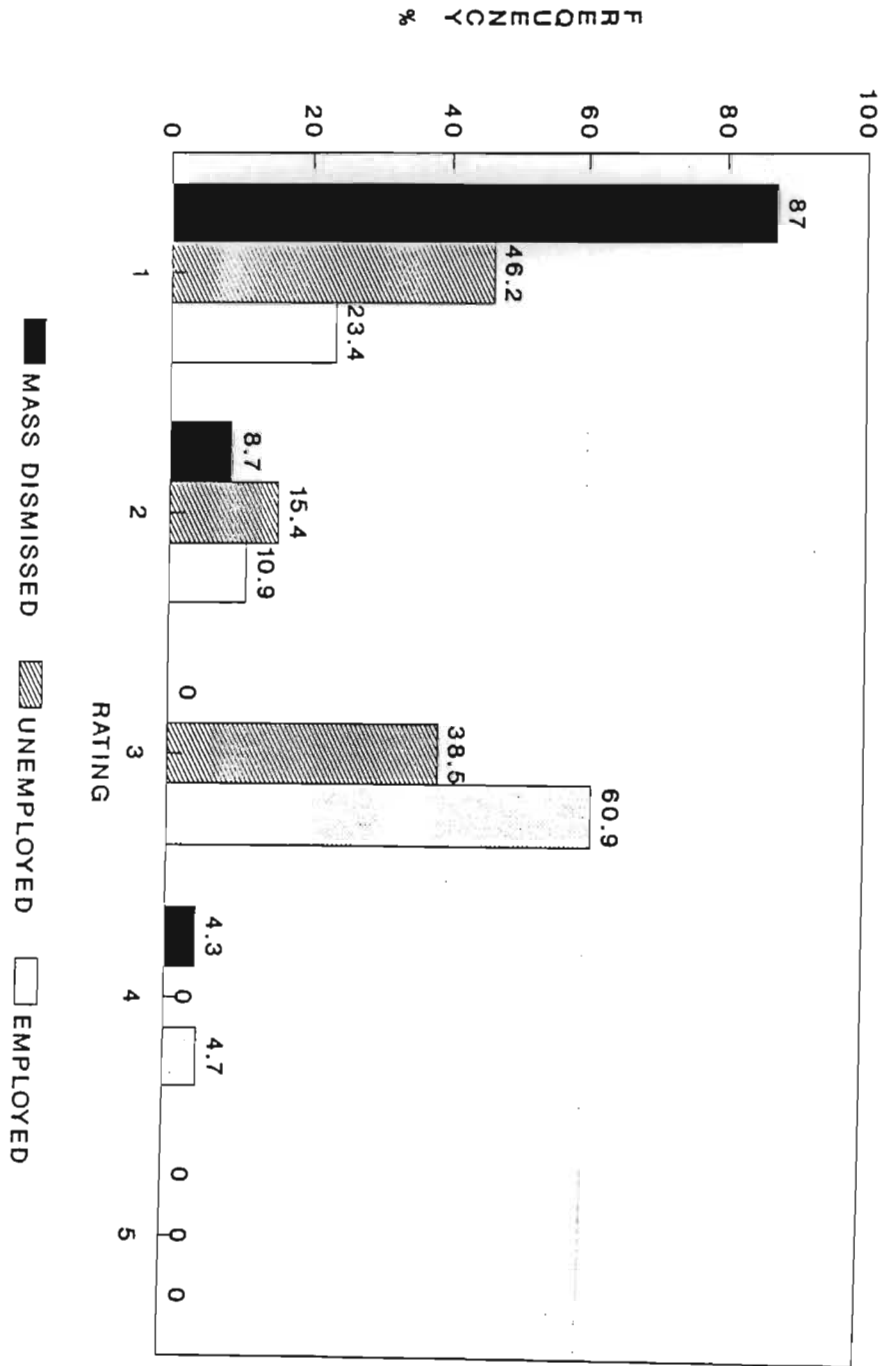
FIG. 6.7 : HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1986

EFFECT ON SELF RATING
1986



EFFECT ON SELF RATING
1987

FIG. 6.8 : HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1987



EFFECT ON SELF RATING
1992

FIG. 6.9 : HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1992

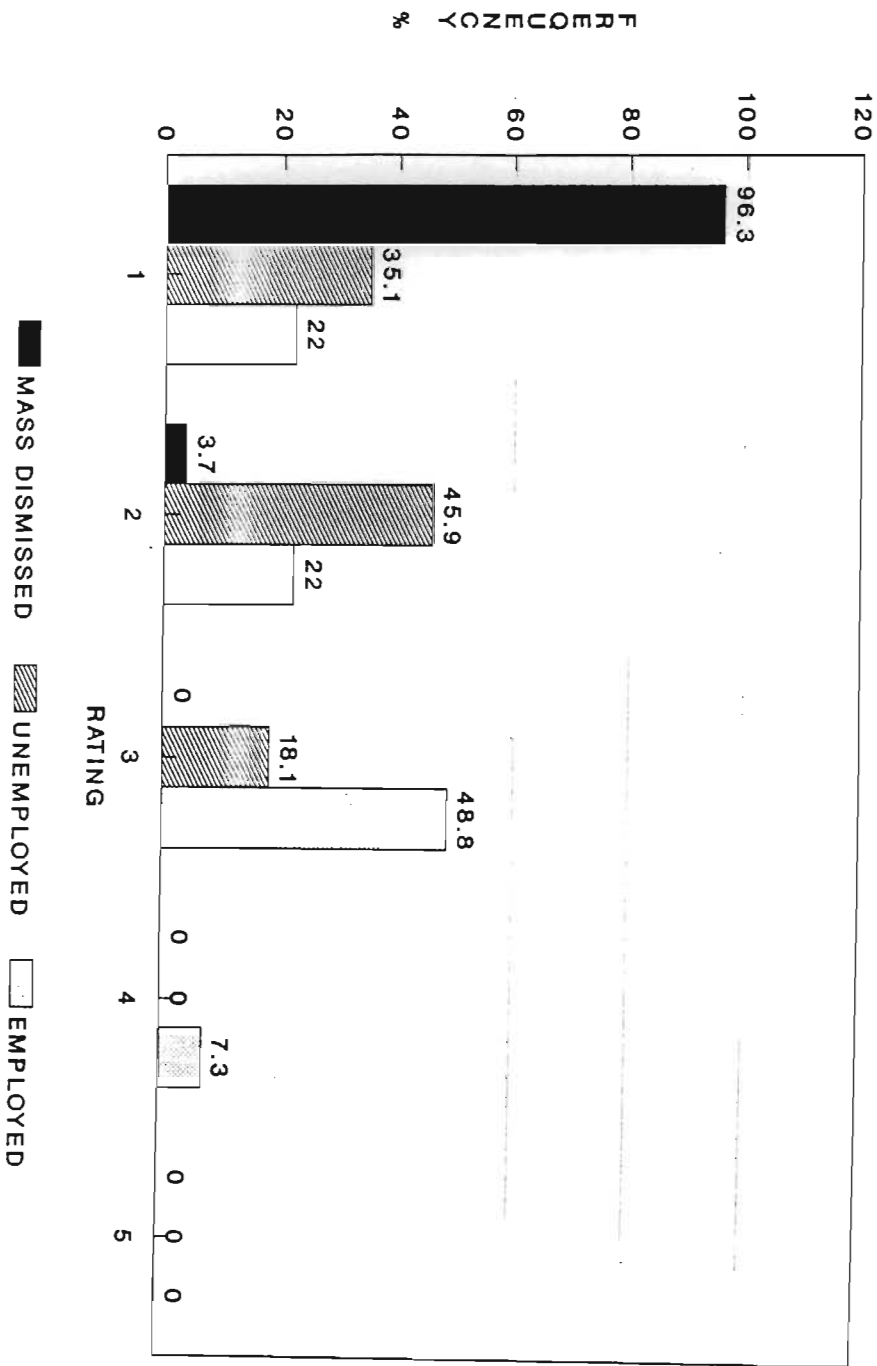
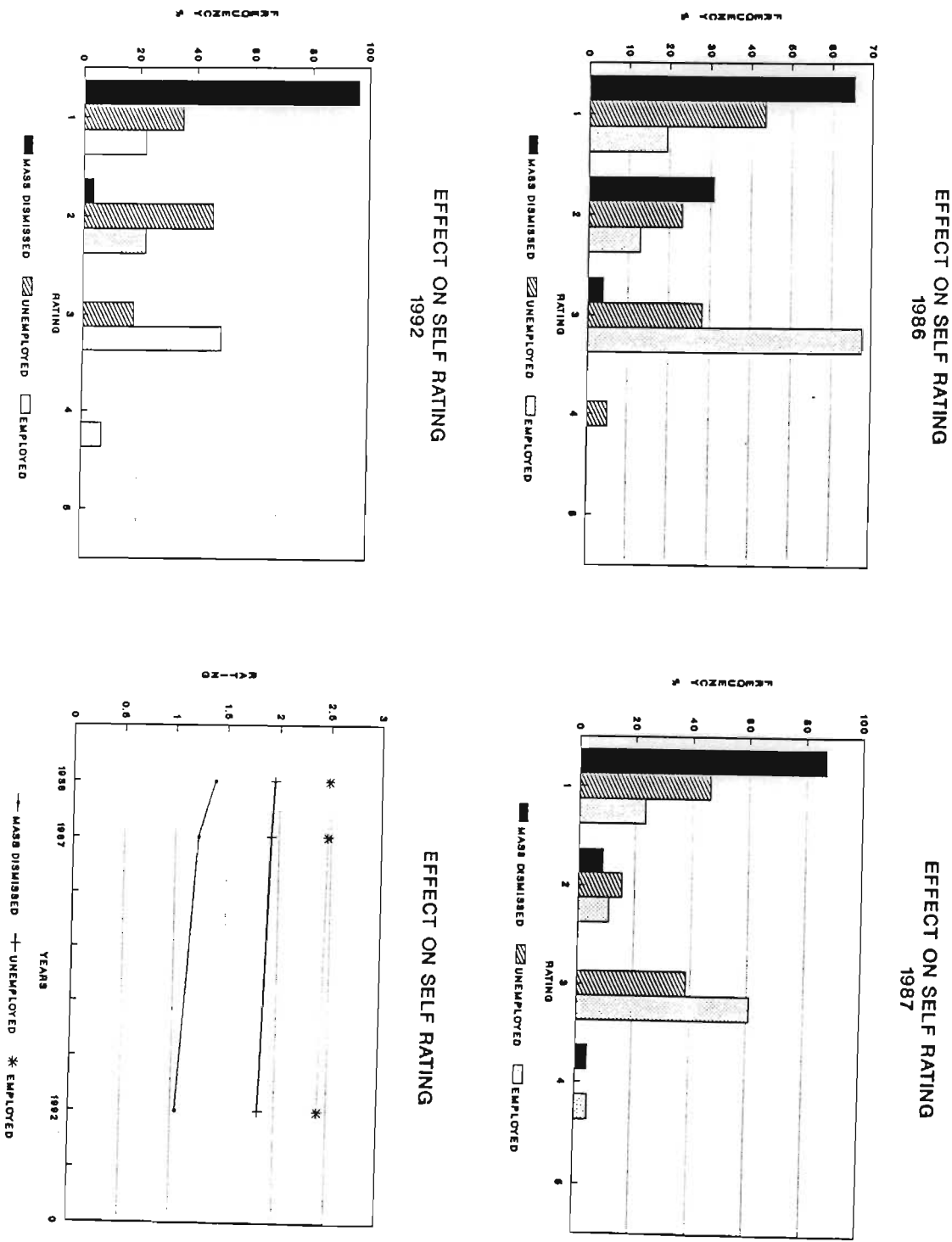


FIG. 6.10: COMBINED RESULTS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS FOR THE THREE YEARS TOGETHER WITH MEAN SCORES



Hypothesis 4 predicted that the perceived negative impact of the mass dismissal on the individual was positively related to the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal. If this hypothesis were true, one could expect that the mean value of the perceived effect on "self" scores would decrease for all of the groups over the period of the study. An examination of Table 6.7 reveals that in 1986 and 1987 the average remains fairly constant at 2,09 and 2,04 respectively and drops slightly in 1992 to 1,86. From Figure 6.6. it can be seen that the lines are almost parallel to the X-axis and, therefore, it could be expected that there is not a significant difference in the scores over the years, and therefore Hypothesis 4 is not supported by the results. Figure 6.10 gathers together Figures 6.6, 6.7, 6.8 and 6.9 onto a single page in order to examine trends. The one discernable trend which has already been mentioned, is the shift in the frequencies towards the lower end of the scale for both the mass dismissed and employed groups in the sample.

A two-way analysis of variance was carried out on the results, analysing it by group and year. A summary of these results is reported in Table 6.8 which shows quite clearly that there is a significant difference between these three employment status groups ($p \leq 0,00$) and no significant difference between the three years in which the study took place ($p < 0,38$). The interaction between year and group is also not significant ($p < 0,89$), as would be expected because from Figure 6.6 the three lines are virtually parallel.

TABLE 6.8 : TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E

"PERSONAL EFFECT" RATING N = 358
 BY YEAR
 GROUP

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Year	1,268	2	,634	,953	,38
Group	81,272	2	40,636	61,104	,00
Year Group Interaction	,712	4	,178	,268	,89
Residual	232,096	349	,665		
Total	317,899	357	,890		

To examine more specifically Hypothesis 3 and 4, a two-way Anova "Simple Main Effects Analysis" on the perceived effect on "self" scores was carried out reflecting firstly, between-group differences for each year and secondly, between-year differences for each group. A summary of these results is presented in Table 6.9. An examination of Table 6.9 reveals that there is a significant difference between the employment status groups for each of the three years of the study ($p < 0,01$). This was supported by the test in which a significant difference was found between the mass dismissed and employed/unemployed Groups (Table 6.2A). Therefore, for Hypothesis 3 we can accept H_a , that there is a significant difference between the levels of stress experienced by the individual in the different groups as measured by "perceived effect on self" ratings.

With reference to Hypothesis 4, the simple main effects analysis (Table 6.9) reveals that there is no significant difference between the years for the various employment status groups. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 must be rejected in favour of the null Hypothesis.

TABLE 6.9 : TWO-WAY ANOVA "SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS" ANALYSIS ON "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES REFLECTING :
i) BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES FOR EACH YEAR
ii) BETWEEN YEAR DIFFERENCES FOR EACH GROUP

SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR EACH YEAR BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS EXPRESSED AS PROBABILITY OF F	
Group within 1986	0,000 **
Group within 1987	0,000 **
Group within 1992	0,000 **
SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON SELF" SCORES FOR EACH EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP BETWEEN YEARS	
Year within Mass Dismissed	0,220
Year within Unemployed	0,801
Year within Employed	0,196

** $p < 0,01$

6.1.2.2 DETERMINATION OF THE EFFECT OF A NUMBER OF MODERATING VARIABLES ON THE "PERCEIVED PERSONAL EFFECT" RATINGS

With reference to Hypothesis 9, the "perceived effect on self" scores were subjected to further analysis to establish the impact of a number of moderating variables on the relationship between stress experienced and employment status group/time. The results of this analysis were summarised in Table 6.4. From Table 6.4 it

can be seen that the partialling out of the effects of the co-variables was only affected by one of the co-variants, namely household income (Hypothesis 9.1). Table 6.10 gives a more detailed breakdown of the effect of this co-variate on the straight Anovas and it is noted that it causes the difference between the years to be significant at ($p \leq 0,05$). This result needs to be treated with some circumspection because when the household income was adjusted for inflation and re-calculated (Hypothesis 9.3), this effect was nullified.

TABLE 6.10 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING HOUSEHOLD INCOME AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Sign. of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Interaction	Group	Year	Interaction	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,002	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,004
Effect on Self	** 0,000	 0,382	 0,899	** 0,000	* 0.027	 0,899	** 0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	 0,666	** 0,000	** 0,001	 0,646	** 0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,001	** 0,000	* 0,028	** 0,007

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

6.1.2.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON INDIVIDUAL"

As was stated in Chapter Five, the categories for the "perceived effect on self" were generated by examining those responses in which the individual was talking about the effects of the mass dismissal on themselves. These response categories are reported in Table 6.11.

TABLE 6.11 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON SELF"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None	No significant effect
Depressed	Feel hurt/depressed/broken-hearted
Stress	Feel worried/desperate/tense/sick
Hopeless	Feel useless, trapped, hopeless, dependent
Guilty	Feel guilty about family/community
No Work	Have missed work routine and work friends
Finance	Have serious financial problems
Coped	Have coped well
Relief	Feel relieved, I hated my job
Help	Feel motivated to help those in need

Histograms, reflecting the response frequencies for the three different employment status groups for each of the samples i.e. 1986, 1987 and 1992, can be found in Figures 6.11, 6.12 and 6.13 respectively. An examination of the data contained in Figure 6.11 shows quite clearly that the majority of mass dismissed individuals in that year felt depressed (46,2 %)

stressed (19,2 %) or hopeless (19,2 %). So 84,6 % of the mass dismissed individuals' experience in 1986 could be slotted into one of these three categories. 58,9 % of the unemployed group could also be found in one of these three categories. By contrast, only 20,9 % of the individuals' experience could be described in terms of these three categories, while 50 % of the employed individuals' experience could be described as not significant. Worth noting was that 21 % of the employed individuals felt guilty in some way about the situation; this represents the second highest frequency category to that of "no effect" for the unemployed group.

Referring to Figure 6.12, it is worth noting that 69,5 % of the mass dismissed individuals' responses could be categorised as that of being depressed, compared with 46,2 % the year before. This result helps to explain the significant number of mass dismissed employees that rated themselves very negatively in 1987 (see Figure 6.8). The other significant trend in 1987 was that the employed group frequency moved from 50 % in 1986 to 37,5 % a year later; in addition, the percentage of that group feeling more hopeless increased from 6,4 % to 15,4 % in 1987. Also of interest was the fact there are still 23,4 % of the sample whose response is best described as that of feeling guilty about the situation.

In 1992 (see Figure 6.13), a much larger percentage of the mass dismissed individuals report lack of finance as having the

single biggest effect on them personally at 25,9 %. Also worth noting is that in 1992 46,3 % of the employed individuals responses could now be categorised as depressed, stressed or feeling hopeless compared with 20,3 % in 1987 and 20,9 % in 1986. Quite clearly finance had become a greater problem in 1992 compared to five years earlier.

FIG. 6.11: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON INDIVIDUAL" FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON SELF 1986

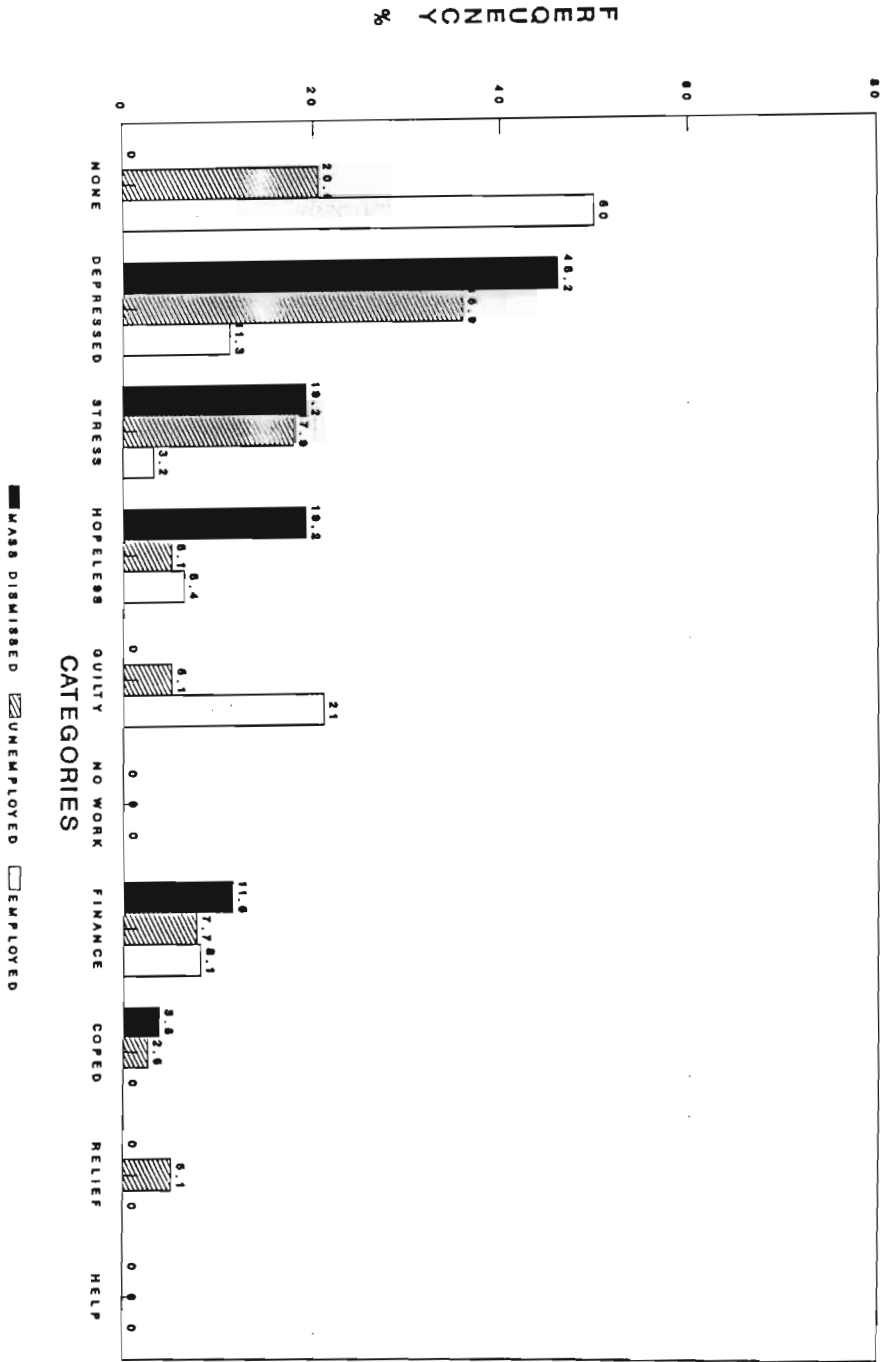


FIG. 6.12: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON INDIVIDUAL" FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON SELF 1987

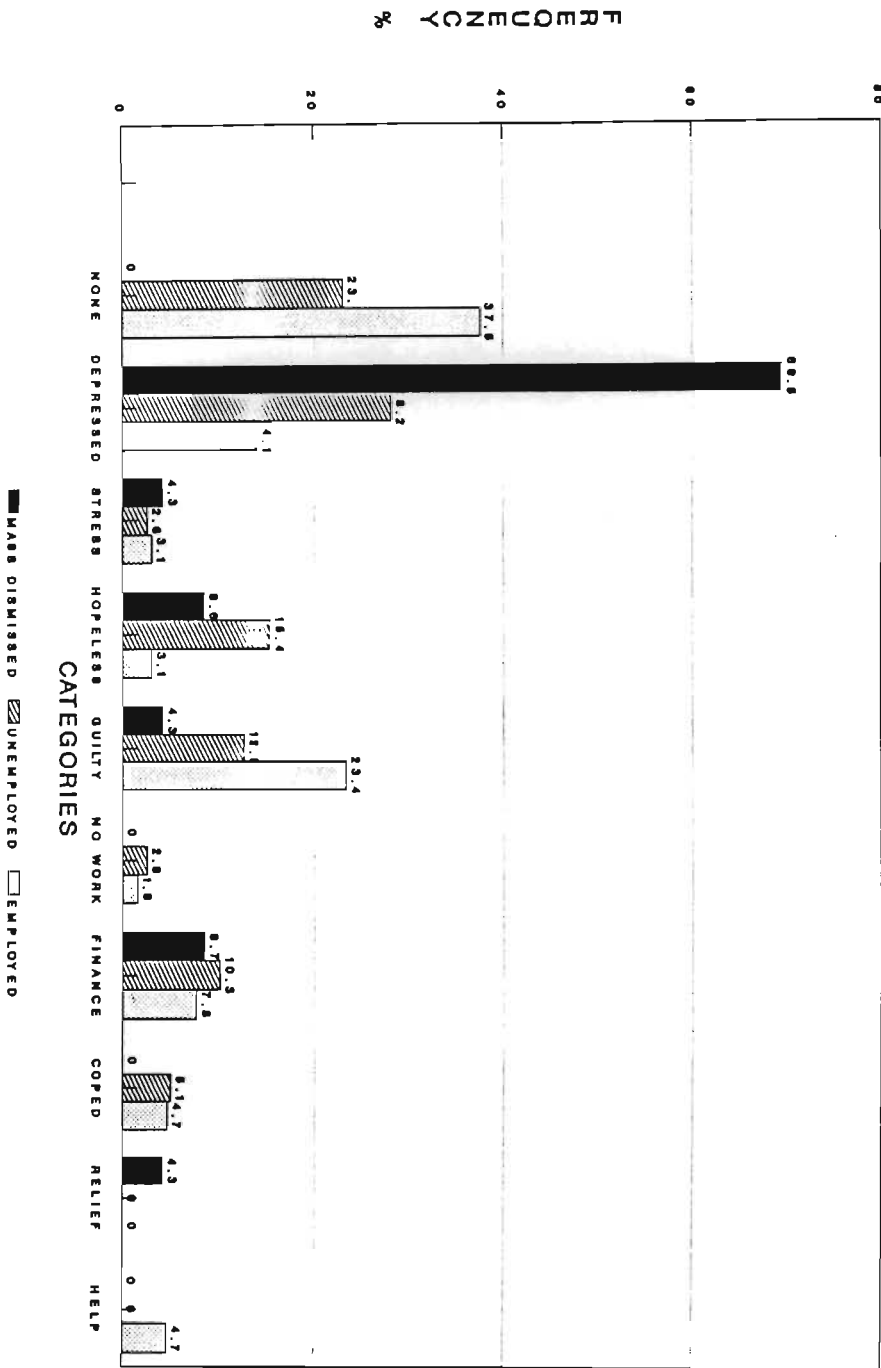
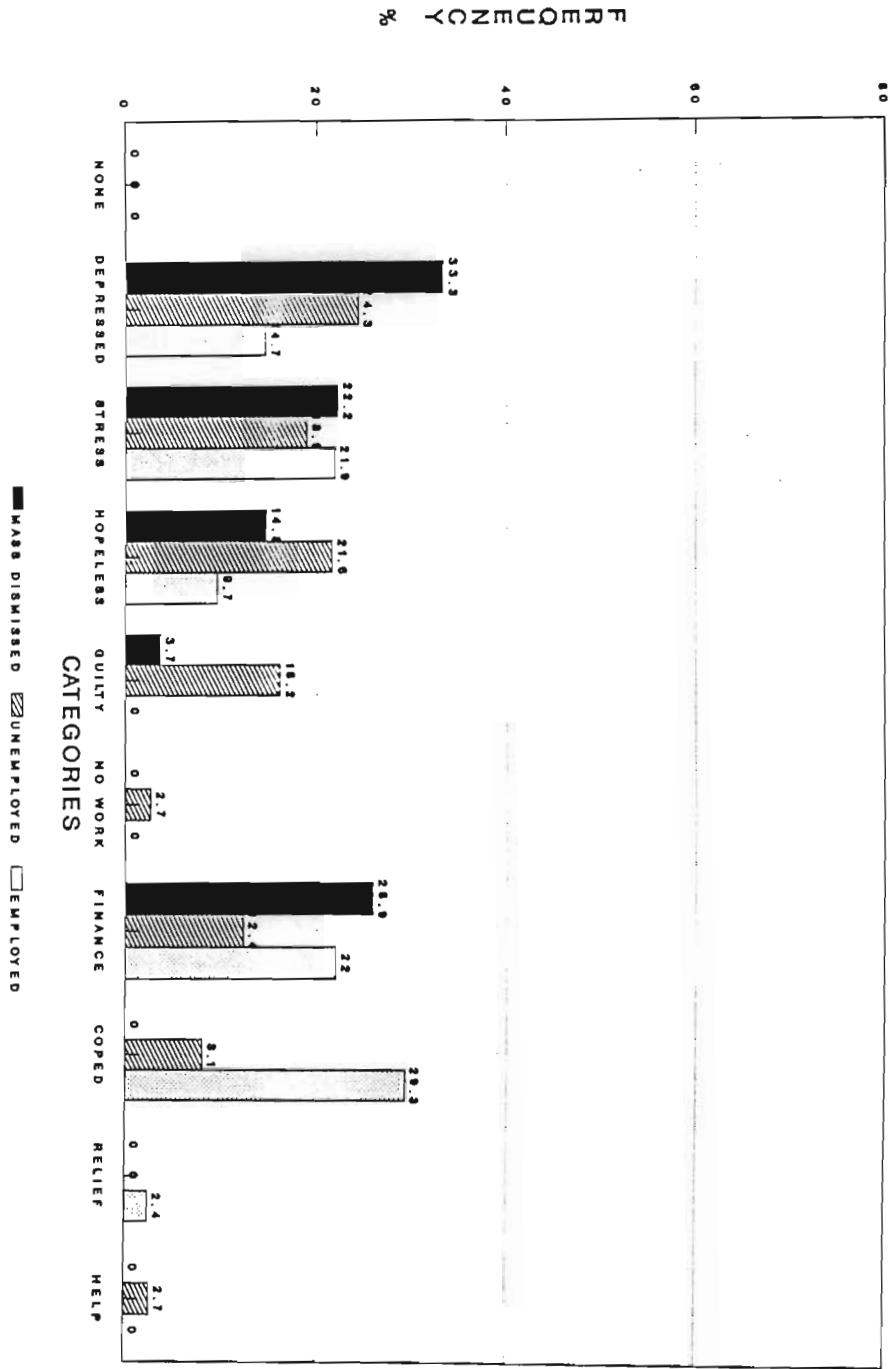


FIG. 6.13: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON INDIVIDUAL" FOR DIFFERENT GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON SELF 1992



6.1.3 PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING

6.1.3.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

As was mentioned in Chapter Five, the "perceived personal coping" was measured on the following scale:

0 = no response

1 = given up all attempts to cope

2 = struggling to cope in at least one area

3 = coping reasonably - coping in most areas

4 = coping in all areas

5 = has led to new development

(For the analysis the 0 response was recoded to a 3 which indicated that coping was not a major issue.)

The means and standard deviations of the "perceived personal coping" scores are for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group are presented in Table 6.12. For the entire sample ($N = 358$), the mean was found to be 2.55 and the standard deviation 0,88.

TABLE 6.12 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

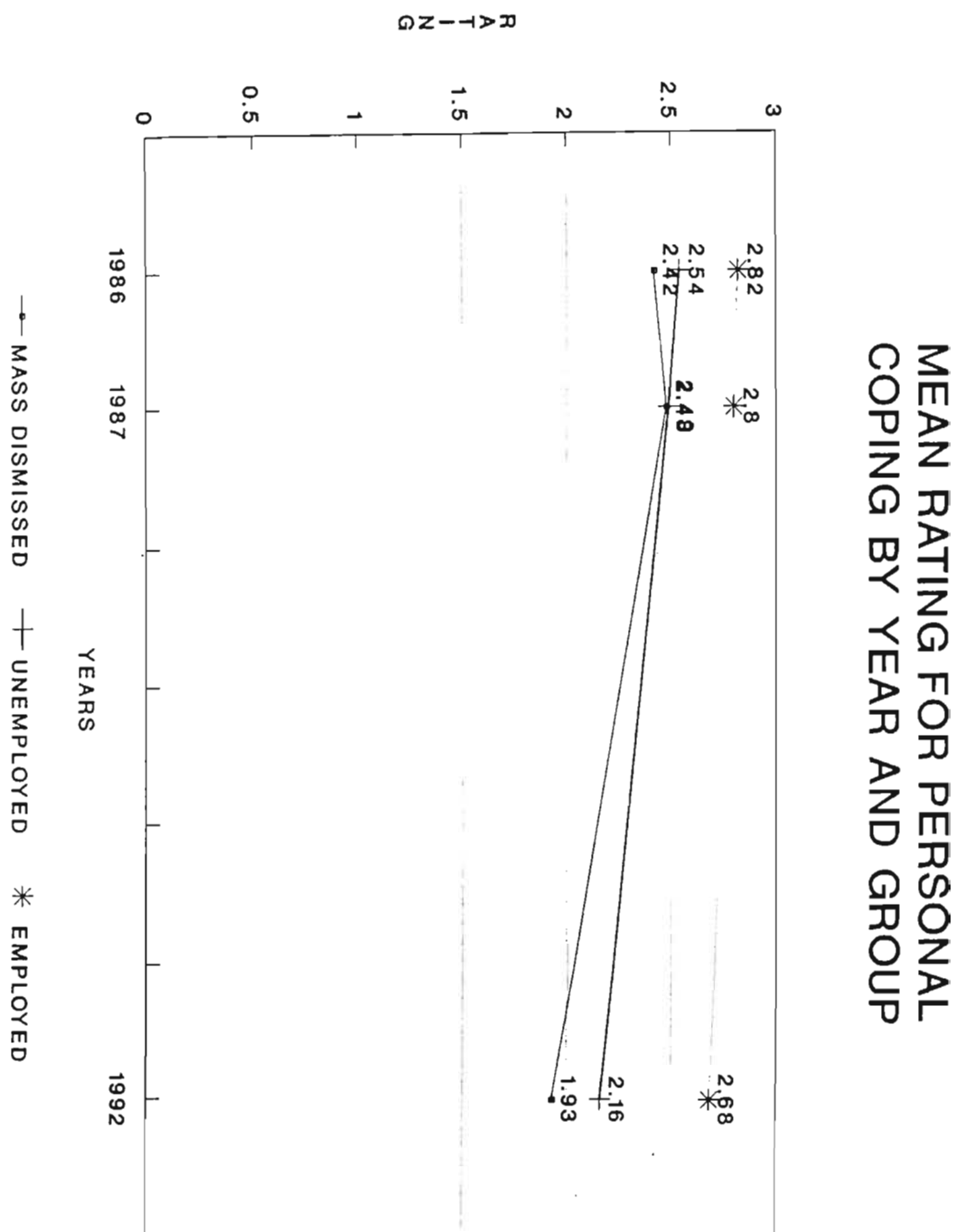
Summaries of "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			2,548	,884	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	2,654	,903	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,423	,945	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,539	1,120	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,823	,690	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	2,643	,881	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,478	1,039	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,487	,885	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,797	,800	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	2,305	,822	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,926	,730	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,162	,800	37
Group	3.00	Employed	2,683	,756	41

TOTAL N = 358

To assist in evaluating the trends in the personal coping, a graphical representation of the mean perceived personal coping scores for the three different employment status groups over the three years of the study is presented in Figure 6.14. It can be seen that the employed individuals indicated that they were coping more easily than the mass dismissed and unemployed individuals. It can also be noted that there is not that much change over the years except for the unemployed and mass dismissed groups who found it more difficult to cope in 1992, represented by a lowering of the mean coping scores from the 1987 figures (Figure 6.14)

FIG. 6.14 MEAN "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



With reference to Hypothesis 9.6, that the "perceived self coping" would moderate the G.H.Q. scores and the "perceived effect on self" rating, it is interesting to note that this hypothesis was not supported in the analysis of co-variance reported in Table 6.4.

6.1.3.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING"

The subjects' responses to those questions, which tapped the way they perceived themselves to be personally coping with the effects of the mass dismissal, were categorised into nine categories which are presented in Table 6.13. Histograms of the frequencies of response for the three employment status groups across the three samples are presented in Figures 6.15, 6.16 and 6.17.

TABLE 6.13 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" MECHANISMS

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None	Had no defined way of coping/is not coping!
Supcom	Got involved in supporting community organisations
T/Job	Tried to keep busy by doing temporary job
Spouse	Relied on spouse and other family members to assist to cope
Own/Bus	Got involved in his/her own business enterprise
Aid	Relied on help from community organisations and others in the community
Avoid	Avoid getting involved in the community problems
God	Rely on God and prayer
Day/Day	Live from one day to the next

Referring to Figure 6.15, it can be seen that in 1986 the coping mechanisms of the mass dismissed individuals are characterised by a reliance upon aid or assistance from community and other organisations, whereas the unemployed and employed groups had no clear or defined way of coping. This trend is very similar in 1987 (see Figure 6.16), but there were some notable changes by 1992. Perhaps the most significant change is that in 1992, 37 % of the mass dismissed and 27 % of the unemployed individuals were reliant upon their spouses or family to cope. In 1992, 88,9 % of the mass dismissed employees relied either on outside aid or their spouses to cope in what was for them a very difficult situation. This is significantly different to the other unemployed individuals, whose coping mechanisms varied between temporary jobs, spouse, prayer, avoidance, or literally coping from one day to the next. Also of interest, in 1992, was the number of employed individuals who were reliant upon other situations or were coping from day to day with the situation as compared with the previous years where the majority of them did not need to cope in any way.

FIG. 6.15 HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
PERSONAL COPING 1986

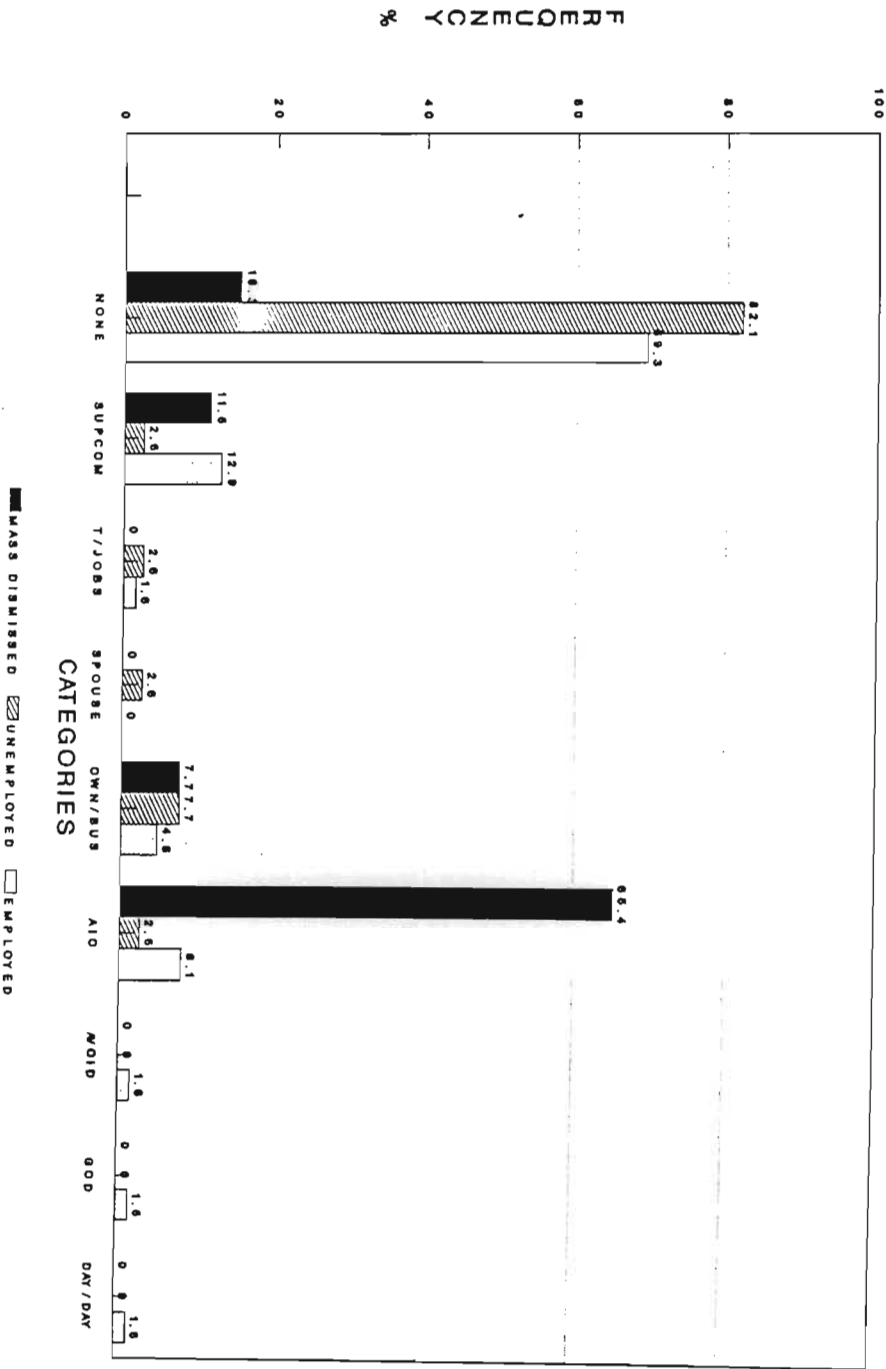


FIG. 6.16 HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
PERSONAL COPING 1987

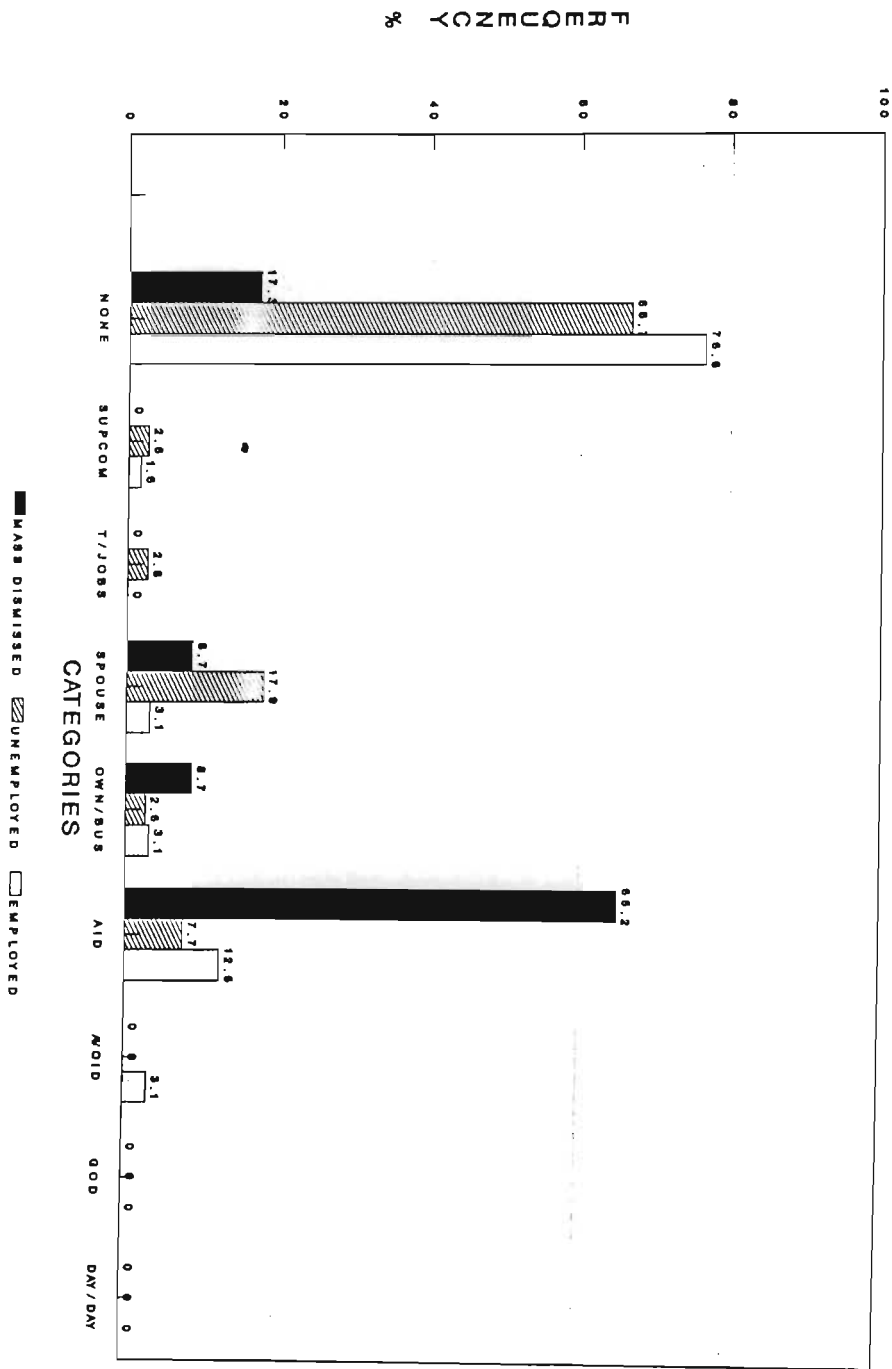
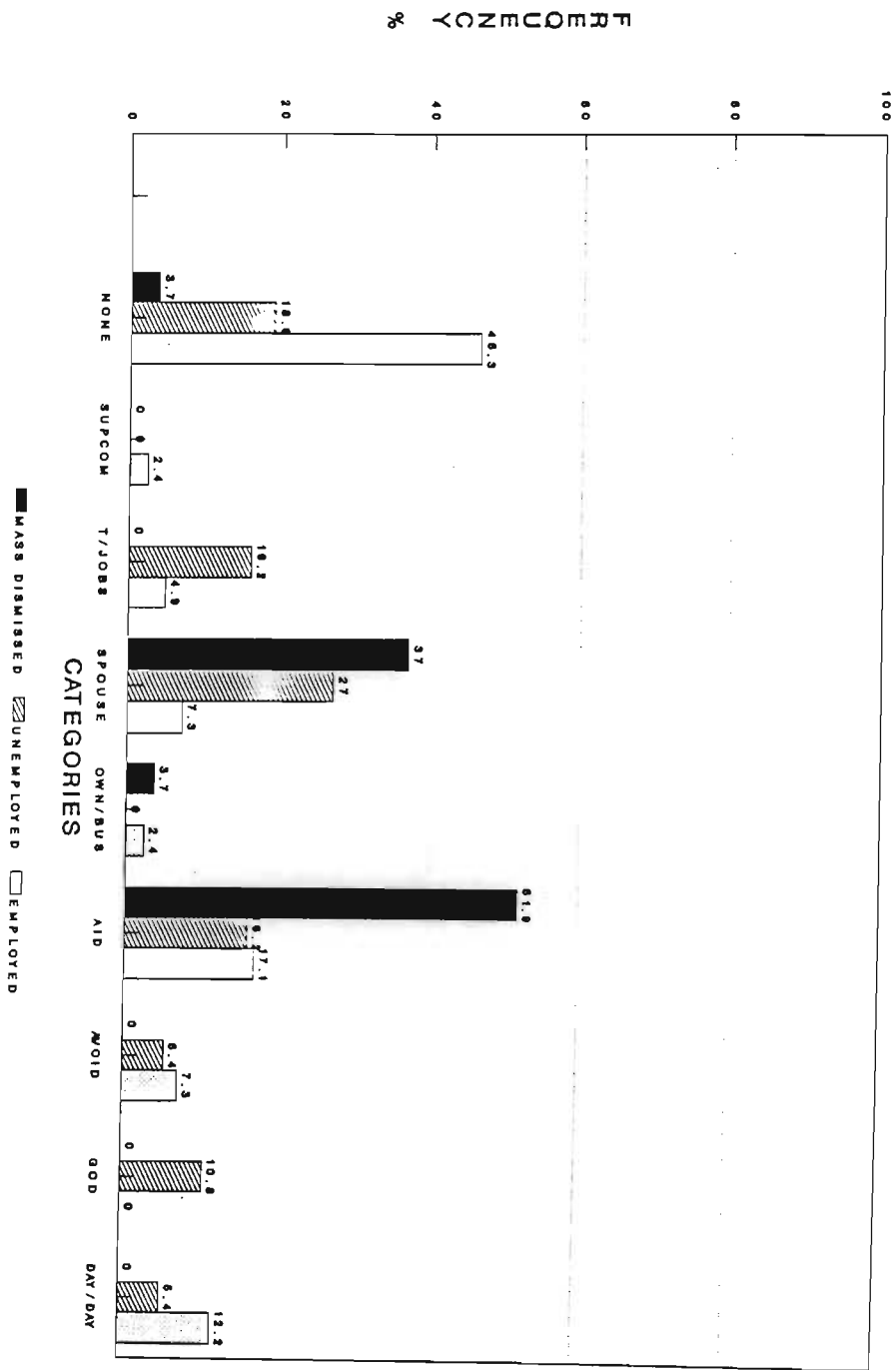


FIG. 6.17 HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED PERSONAL COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
PERSONAL COPING 1992



6.1.4 PERCEIVED FAMILY AND COMMUNITY SUPPORT

6.1.4.1 FAMILY SUPPORT

6.1.4.1.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" "SCORES" BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

As reported in Chapter Five, the "perceived family support" was rated on the following scale:

0 = no response

1 = has been a severe hinderance

2 = has been a moderate hinderance

3 = has had no impact (neither hinderance or support)

4 = has been a moderate support

5 = has been a strong support

(For the purpose of the analysis 0 = no response was recoded to equal 3 i.e. has no impact).

The means and standard deviations of "the perceived family support" scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group are presented in Table 6.14. A graphical representation of the means for the employment status groups by the different years can be found in Figure 6.18. It is interesting to note that there is not much difference in the mean scores between the different employment status groups for each of the three sample groups. With the means for the three employment groups being quite similar to the mean of the particular sample group (i.e. year). There does, however, seem to be a slight variation between the years, with the 1986 average

being at 3,66, moving down slightly to 3,28 in 1987 and then a significant jump up to 4,20 in 1992. Quite clearly there was a slight drop in "perceived family support" in 1987 and a substantial improvement in the perceived family support in 1992. Hypothesis 9.14 predicted that family support would moderate the relationship between the stress experienced by the subjects (as measured by the G.H.Q. and "perceived effect on self") and their employment status group/time. From Table 6.4 it can be seen that Analysis of covariance did not support this hypothesis and so the null hypothesis must be accepted for Hypothesis 9.14.

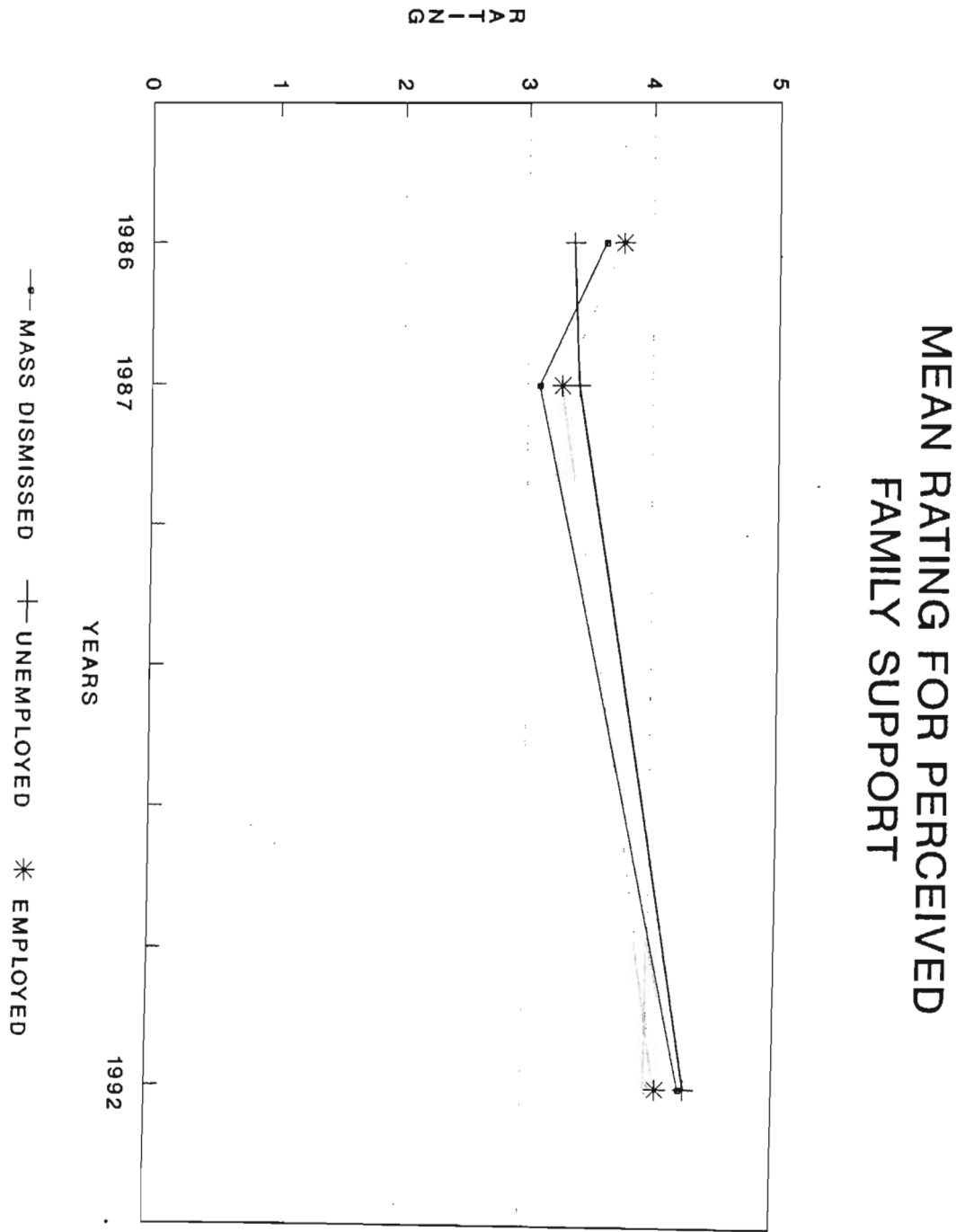
TABLE 6.14 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			3,663	1,165	356
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	3,606	1,107	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	3,615	1,299	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	3,359	1,328	39
Group	3.00	Employed	3,758	,824	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	3,278	1,256	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	3,087	1,240	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	3,410	1,312	39
Group	3.00	Employed	3,266	1,238	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	4,204	,890	103
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	4,259	,984	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	4,297	,878	37
Group	3.00	Employed	4,077	,839	39

TOTAL N = 358

FIG. 6.18: MEAN "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



6.1.4.1.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT"

The subjects' responses, which characterised family support, were categorised into nine categories detailed in Table 6.15. Frequencies of these response categories, broken down by employment status group for each of the samples, are presented in Figures 6.19, 6.20 and 6.21. Referring to the 1986 results (Figure 6.19), it can be seen that the majority of the mass dismissed employees (46,2 %) perceived their family as standing together in the crisis; 34,6 % of the same group felt that there was little support and they were struggling to survive, while the remaining 19,2 % saw the family as being of strong emotional support. By contrast, 33,9 % of the employed group and 28,2 % of the unemployed group saw their family as being of no support and 28,2 % of the unemployed individuals saw their family as struggling to survive, so not being able to provide enough support. Quite clearly, 56,4 % of the unemployed group received no support from their families.

In 1987, the trend begins to change with only 21,7 % of the mass dismissed employees reporting their families as standing together in the crisis and 39,1 % of them indicating that their families were struggling to survive and there was little or no support. Also emotional support and money were becoming more important to all three groups by 1987.

There was a notable increase in the percentage frequency of individuals who reported that their family could not support them because it was split. Also of interest, in 1992, was that the frequencies of all groups under categories of emotional support and financial aid or money increased dramatically, with emotional assistance becoming the most important category in family support. By contrast, the family standing together as a united force, drops for the mass dismissed in 1986 from 46,2 % to 11,1 % in 1992.

TABLE 6.15 : **RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "FAMILY SUPPORT"**

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Emotion	We have supported each other emotionally
Money	Have supported each other financially by sharing, etc.
Move	Being unable to support each other because family members have moved away from Mpophomeni
Struggle	There is little support, we are struggling to survive
United	The family has stood together in the crisis
None	There is no support within my family
Reject	My family has rejected me
Split	The family has split up through conflict/death of one or more members
Depend	The family is dependent on me and my income

FIG. 6.19: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
FAMILY SUPPORT 1986

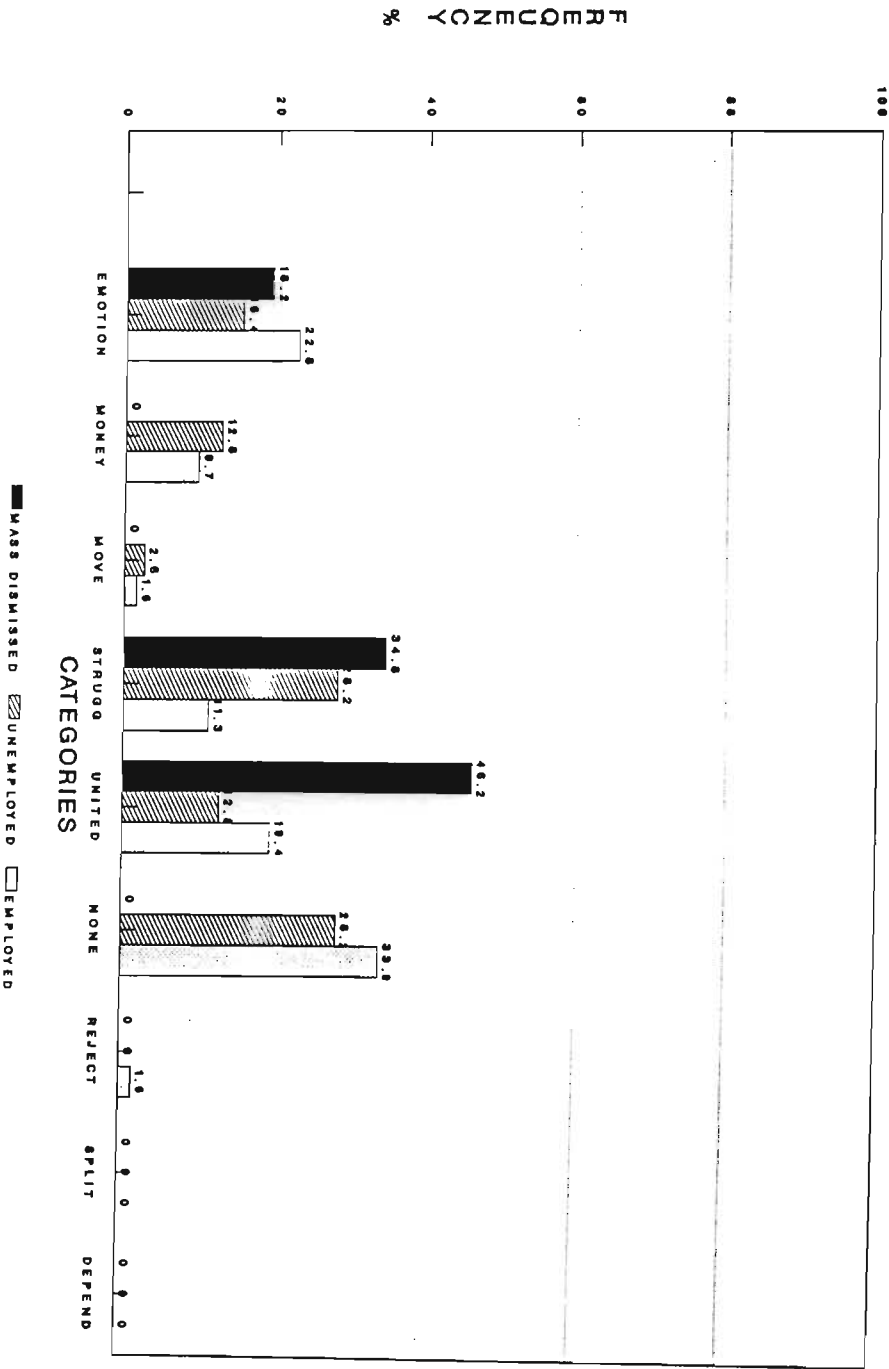


FIG. 6.20:

HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT
EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT 1987

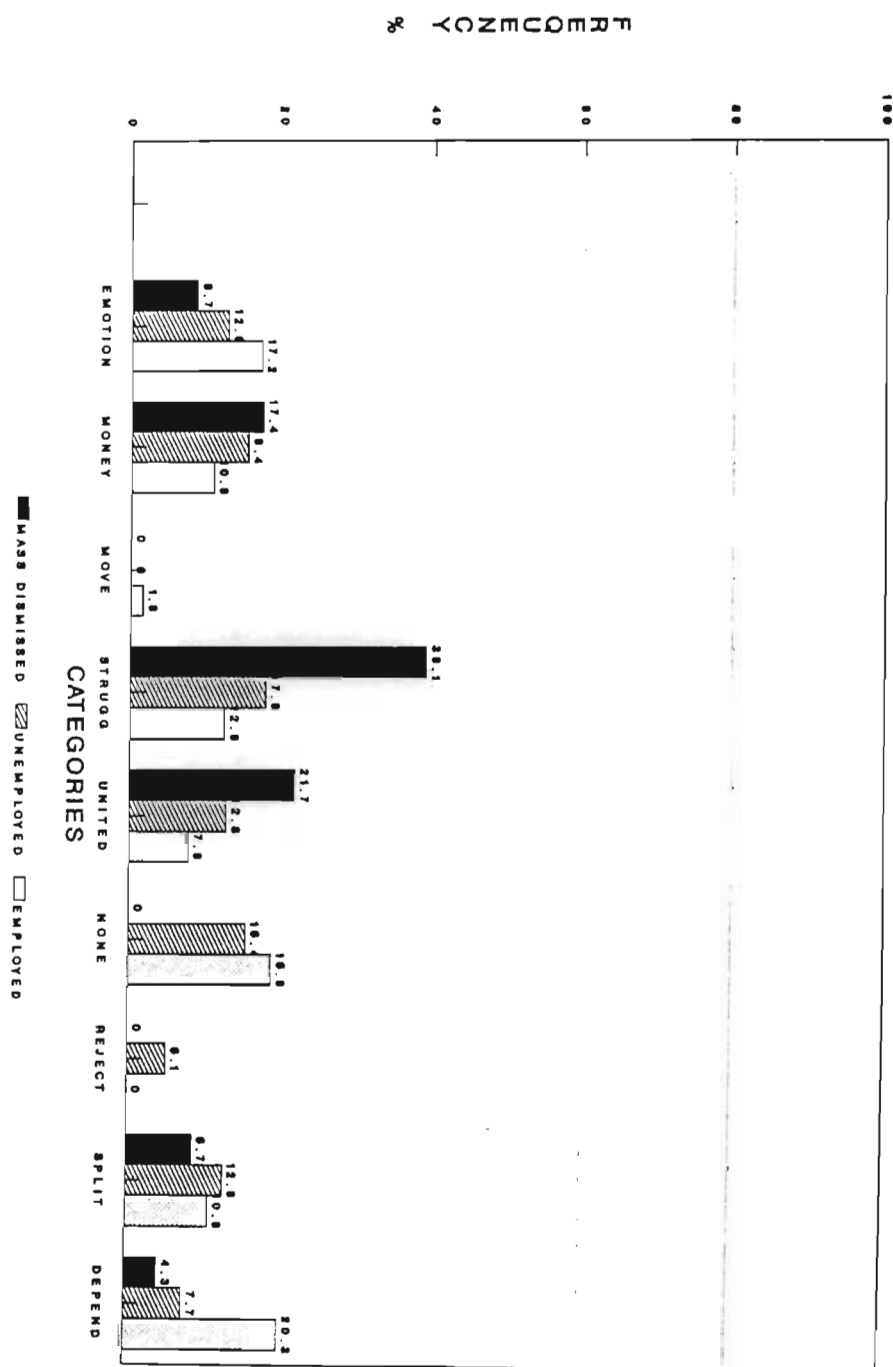
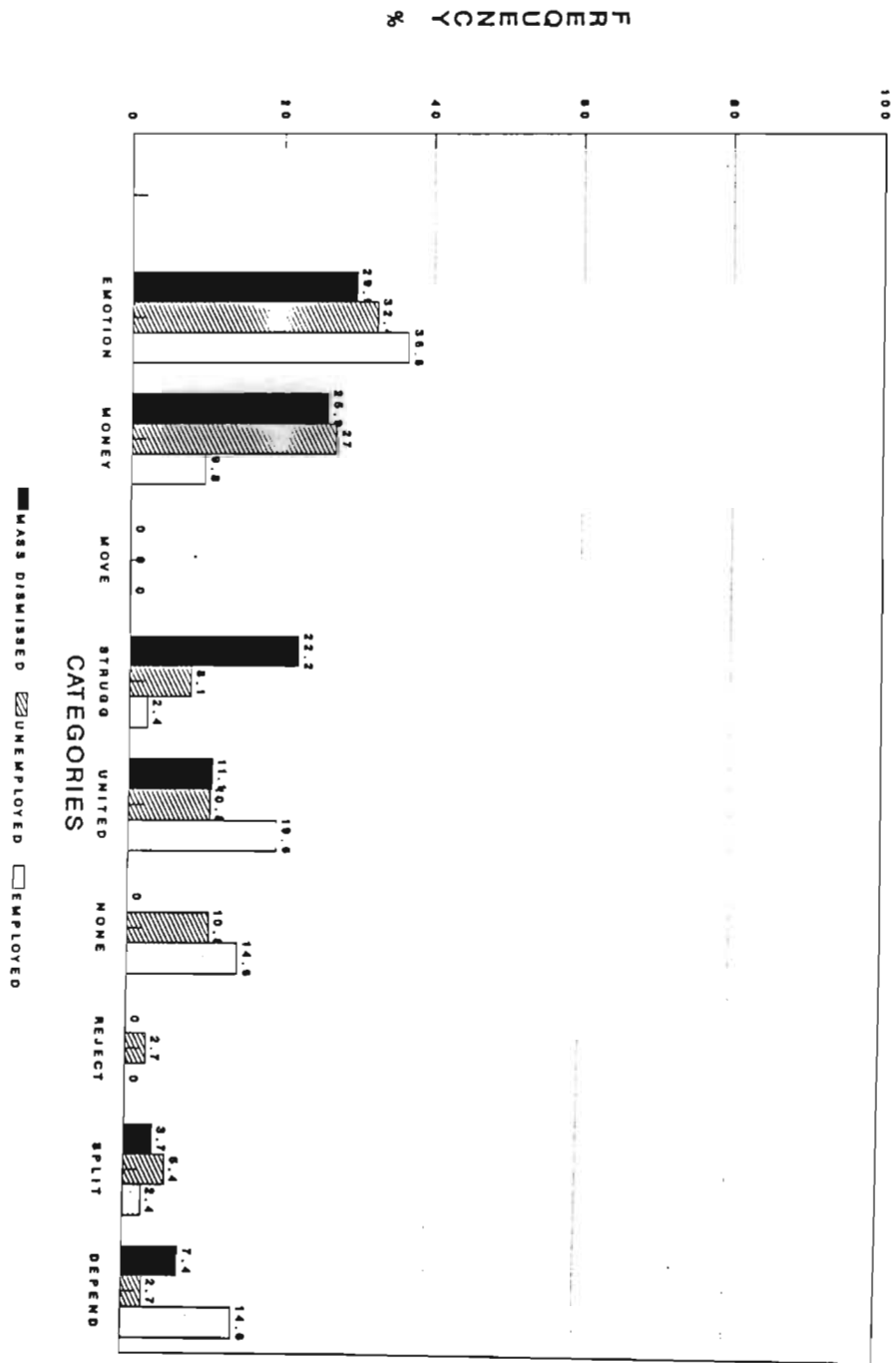


FIG. 6.21: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
FAMILY SUPPORT 1992



6.1.4.2 COMMUNITY SUPPORT

6.1.4.2.1 EXAMINATION OF "PECEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

The responses of the individuals to those questions covering "community support", were rated on a scale similar to that used for family support. The rating scale is detailed below:

- 0 = no response
- 1 = has been a severe hindrance
- 2 = has been a moderate hindrance
- 3 = has no impact (neither hindrance or support)
- 4 = has been a moderate support
- 5 = has been a strong support

The means and standard deviations of the "community support" scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group are presented in Table 6.16. A graphical representation of these means can be found in Figure 6.22. It can be seen that the mass dismissed individuals' perception of "community support" is dramatically higher in 1986 and 1987, but with the difference between the employment status groups being smaller in 1992 (Figure 6.22). It is also worth noting that the "perceived community support" increases for all of the sample groups from 1987 to 1992, with 1992 scoring the highest mean ratings for each of the groups.

With reference to Hypothesis 9.15, it can be seen from Table 6.4 that the "community support" scores did not moderate the relationship between G.H.Q / "perceived effect on self "and the employment status group and time. Therefore, the null hypothesis must be supported for 9.15 for these two dependent variables.

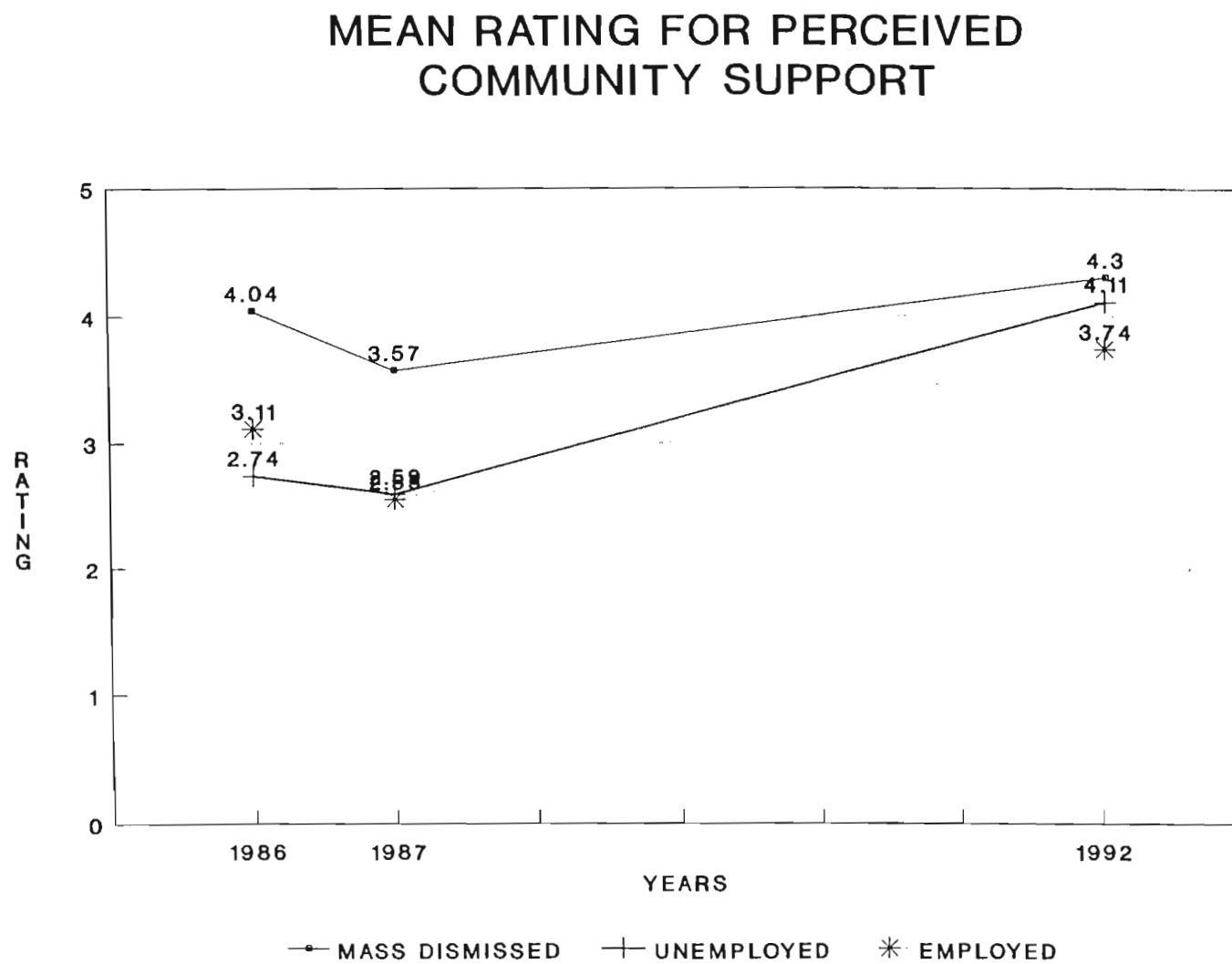
TABLE 6.16 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
 GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			3,268	1,248	354
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	3,189	1,252	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	4,039	1,371	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,744	1,069	39
Group	3.00	Employed	3,113	1,147	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	2,746	1,252	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	3,565	1,237	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,590	1,186	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,547	1,194	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	4,020	,800	101
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	4,296	,542	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	4,111	,919	36
Group	3.00	Employed	3,737	,760	38

TOTAL N = 358

FIG 6.22 : MEAN "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" SCORES FOR
EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



6.1.4.2.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT"

The responses to those questions linked to "community support" were categorised into ten categories as detailed in Table 6.17. Histograms of the response frequencies for the different employment status groups over the three sample years are detailed in Figures 6.23, 6.24 and 6.25. Reviewing the mass dismissed individuals first, it can be seen, by examining these three figures, that the reliance on support through the union and its co-operative decreased dramatically from 69,2 % in 1986 to 47,8 % in 1987 and to 29,6 % in 1992. A number of the mass dismissed individuals felt, throughout the situation, that the union could not support them and that they were not to rely on it, the frequencies for this categories ranging from 15,3 in 1986 to 11,1 in 1992. Also of interest was the decrease in the number of individuals who were in the unemployed or employed categories who indicated that the community support came from the union and the union's co-operative, from around 20 % in 1986 and 1987 to to around 5 % in 1992. It is worth noting that a number of individuals in 1992 who still felt that the best way for the community to support would be for Sarmcol to re-employ its workers; 14.8 % of the mass dismissed individuals, 24,3 % of the unemployed and 22 % of the employed individuals felt this way. A greater number of individuals felt that the community was united in 1992 compared with the 1987 and 1986 responses.

TABLE 6.17 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "COMMUNITY SUPPORT"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Helped	The Union and Sawco have been important in supporting the community.
SARM	The way to support this community is for Sarmcol to re-employ.
Can't	The community can't help because there are too many problems.
Govern	The Government should help.
Split	The community cannot support - it is not united.
United	The community is united in its support and care for those without work. The youth have helped.
Church	Church providing spiritual, emotional and physical support.
Polit	Community Organisations don't support because they're too politicised.
Union	Union can't support us/have let us down.
Unemp	The unemployed are becoming too demanding/jealous.

FIG. 6.23: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY SUPPORT 1986

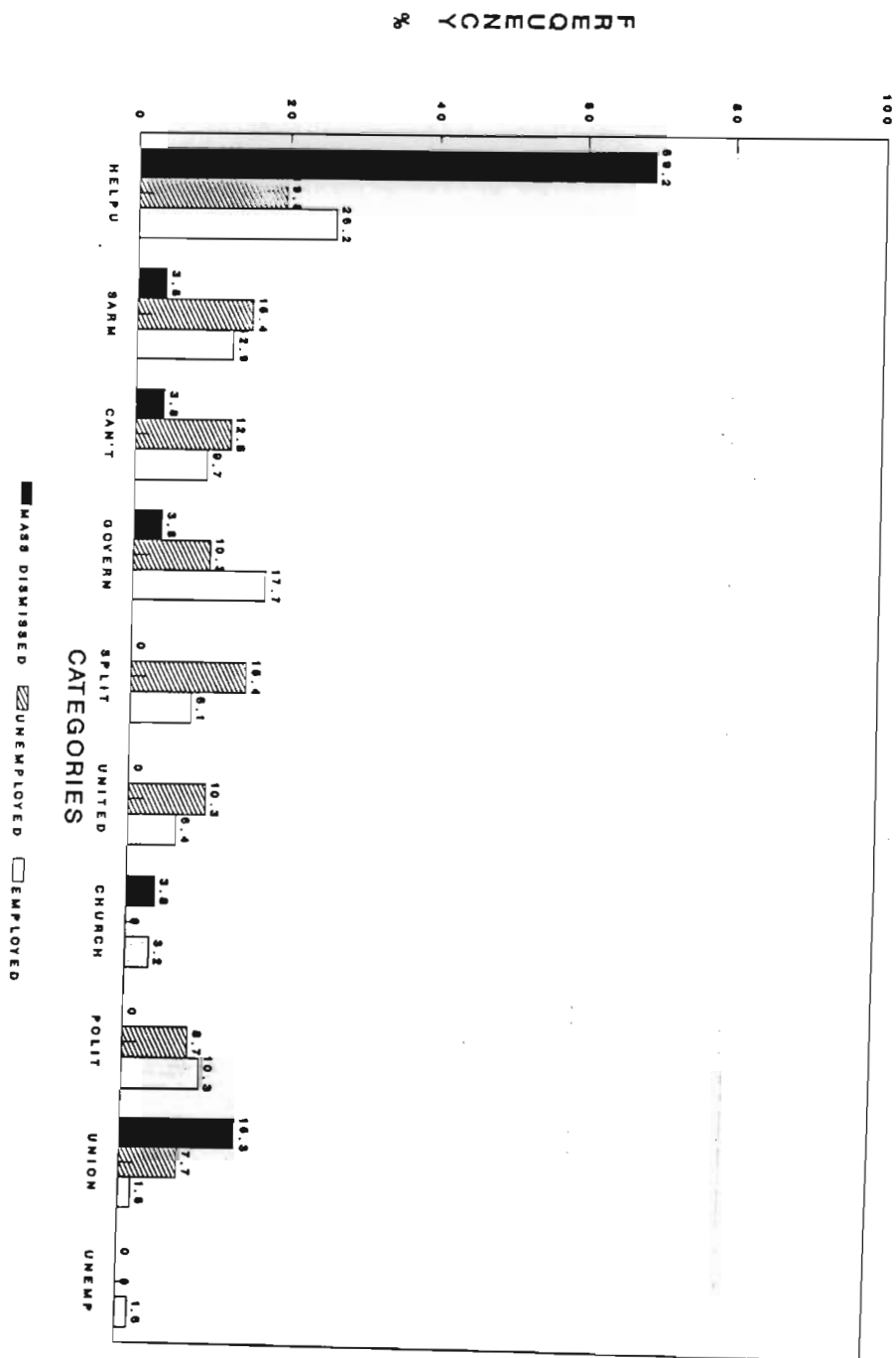


FIG. 6.24: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY SUPPORT 1987

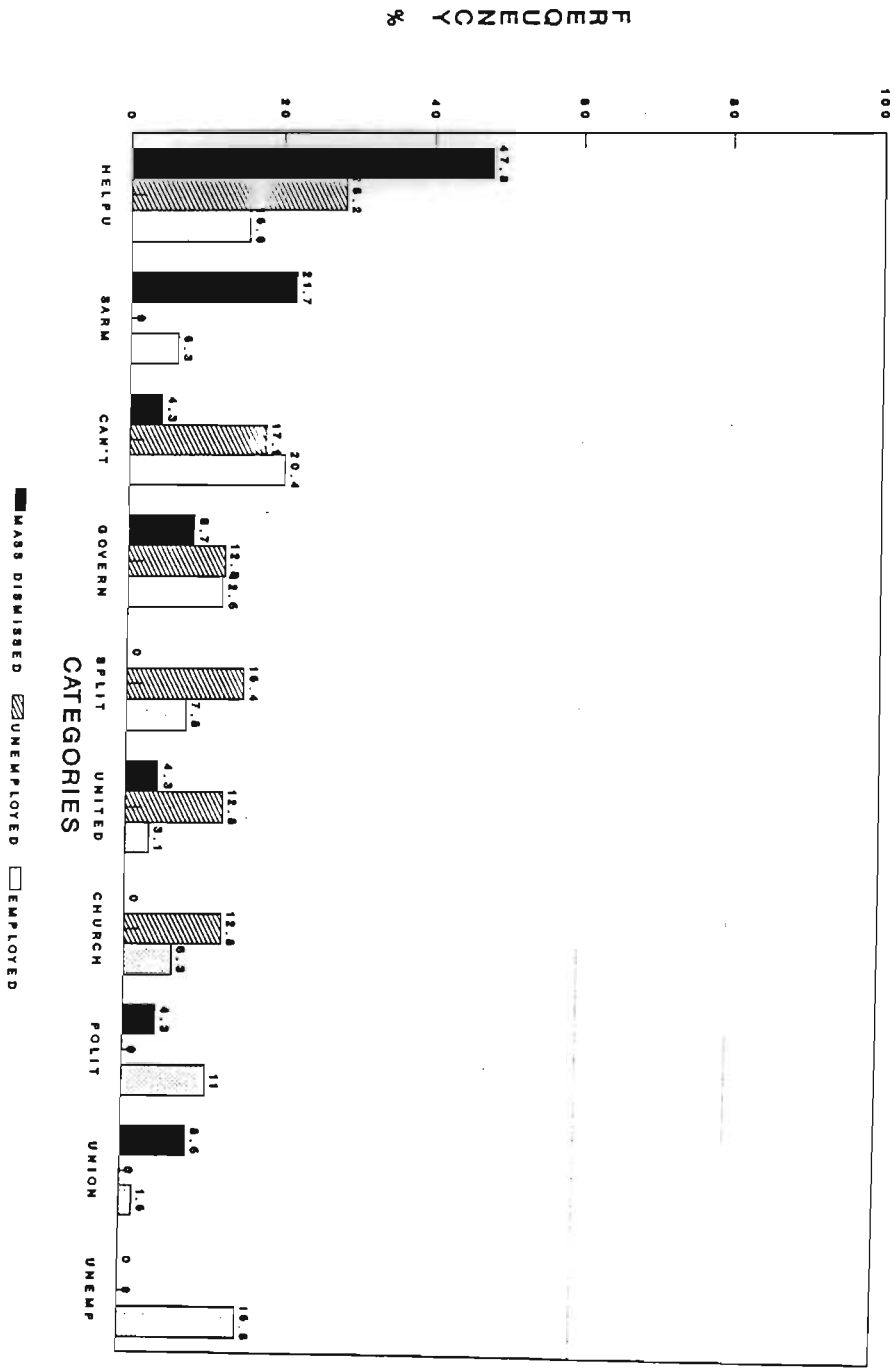
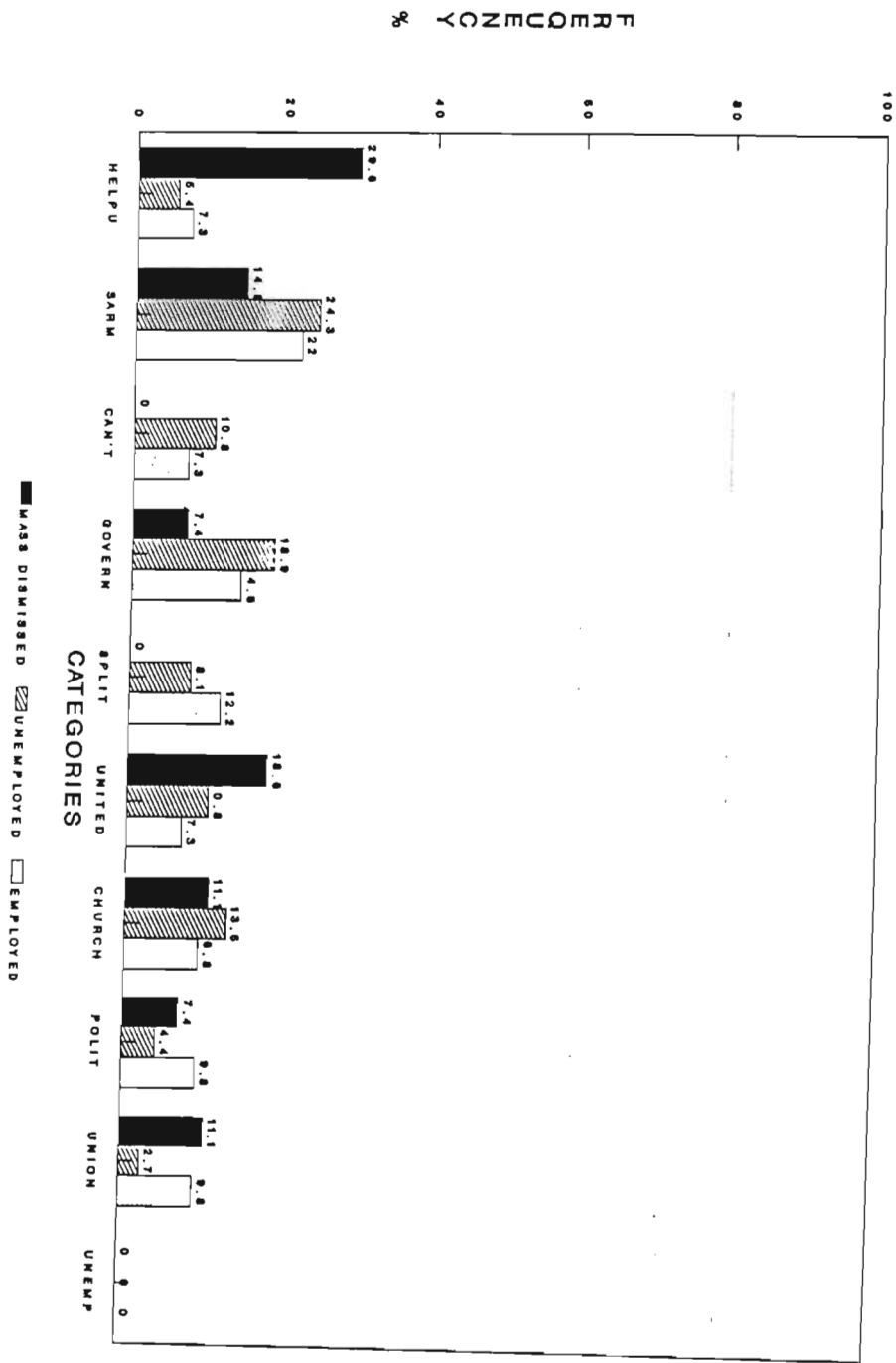


FIG. 6.25: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY SUPPORT" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY SUPPORT 1992



6.1.5 EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE INDIVIDUAL

As mentioned in Chapter Five, in 1992 the questionnaire was modified to include a number of questions related to the impact of the violence on the individual, his/her family, the community and the way they had coped as an individual family at community level.

6.1.5.1 "PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE INDIVIDUAL"

Responses to the question as to how the violence had affected the interviewee, were categorised into eight categories which are detailed in Table 6.18. Figure 6.26 represents the frequencies of the different employment status groups for the categories and is represented in the form of a histogram. Quite clearly, the single biggest effect the violence had on the individual was that it left them in a state of fear or anxiety. 55,5 % of the mass dismissed and 51,2 % of the employed group indicated that fear was the most notable effect that the violence had had on them. The next largest category was that of property loss where individuals indicated that their property had been vandalised or stolen. 32,4 % of the unemployed group indicated this as being the primary effect of the violence. 18,5 % of the

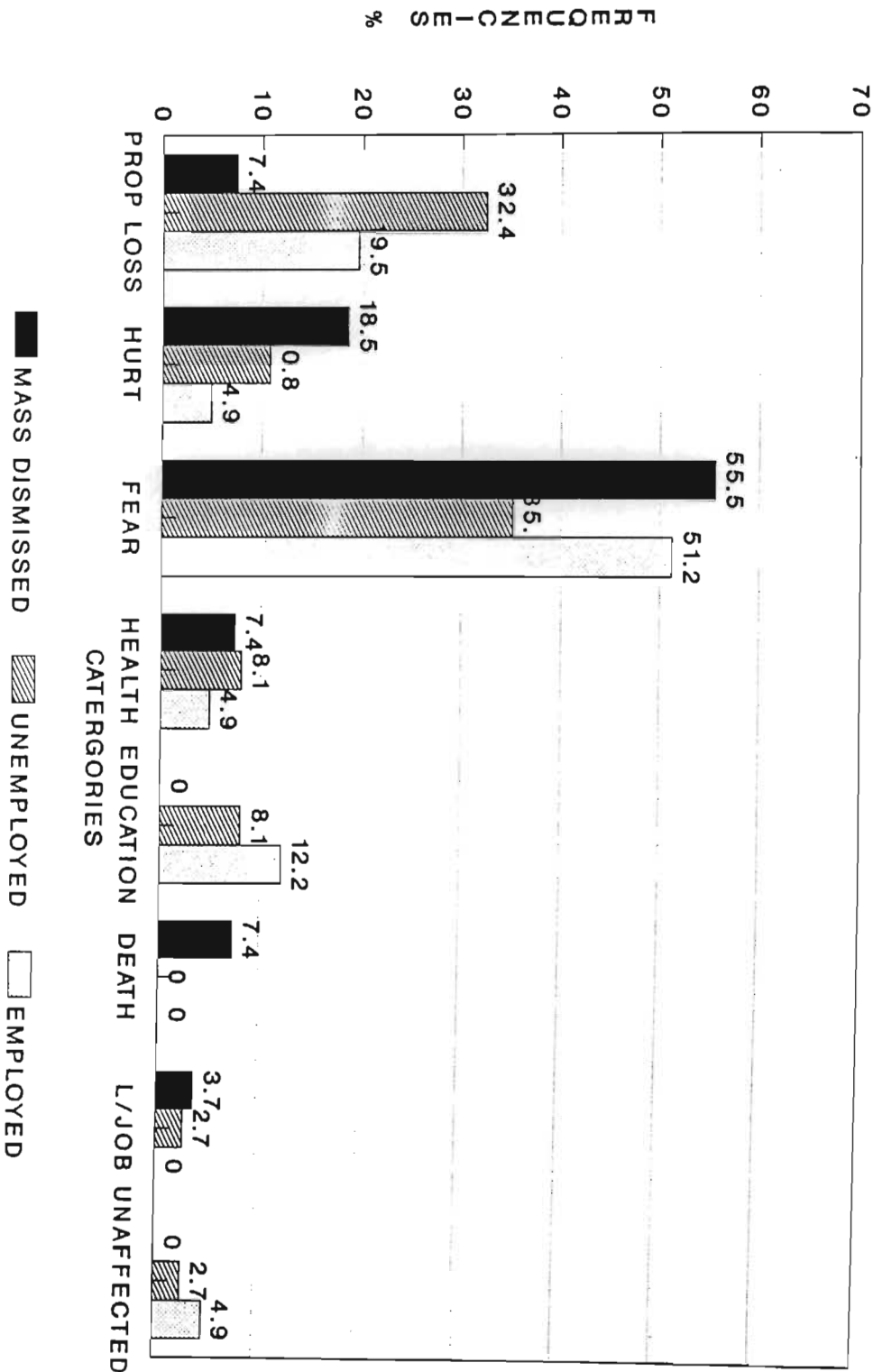
mass dismissed employees indicated that they had personally suffered some physical violation during the violence, which is a significant percentage! In addition 7,4 % of the same group indicated that a friend or member of their family had been killed as a result of the violence.

TABLE 6.18 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE INDIVIDUAL"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Property Loss	Property stocks/vandalised/house burnt down
Hurt	Personality suffered physical violation
Fear	Live in a state of anxiety/fear
Health	Has seriously affected my health
Education	Teachers and children could not attend school
Death	Friends or family were killed
Lost Job	Lost job
Unaffected	Did not affect me personally

HOW HAS THE VIOLENCE AFFECTED YOU ?
1992

FIG. 6.26: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON INDIVIDUAL" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992



6.1.5.2 HOW THE INDIVIDUAL HAS COPEd WITH THE VIOLENCE

The response categories for the way the individual personally coped with violence, are presented in Table 6.19 and a histogram, expressed as a frequency percentage for the three different groups, is presented in Figure 6.27. The single largest category for all three groups in terms of the way that they coped with the violence was that of "struggle". 37,0%, 37,8 % and 41,5 % for the mass dismissed, unemployed and employed group respectively indicated that they were coping very poorly with the violence and a number had indicated that they were in a state of panic. The next largest category was those individuals which indicated that they had coped by going into hiding or leaving the township for a period of time. 37 % of the mass dismissed individuals had coped with the violence in this way. The next largest group was that of God/luck where the individuals indicated that the way they coped was to rely on God and prayer or just their good fortune. It is worth noting that there were no major differences between the way the three groups coped with violence, except for the category of coping well where only 3,7 % of the mass dismissed indicated that they were coping well compared with 13,5 % and 22 % for the unemployed and employed groups respectively.

PERSONAL COPING WITH VIOLENCE 1992

FIG. 6.27: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERSONAL COPING WITH VIOLENCE" FOR THE DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

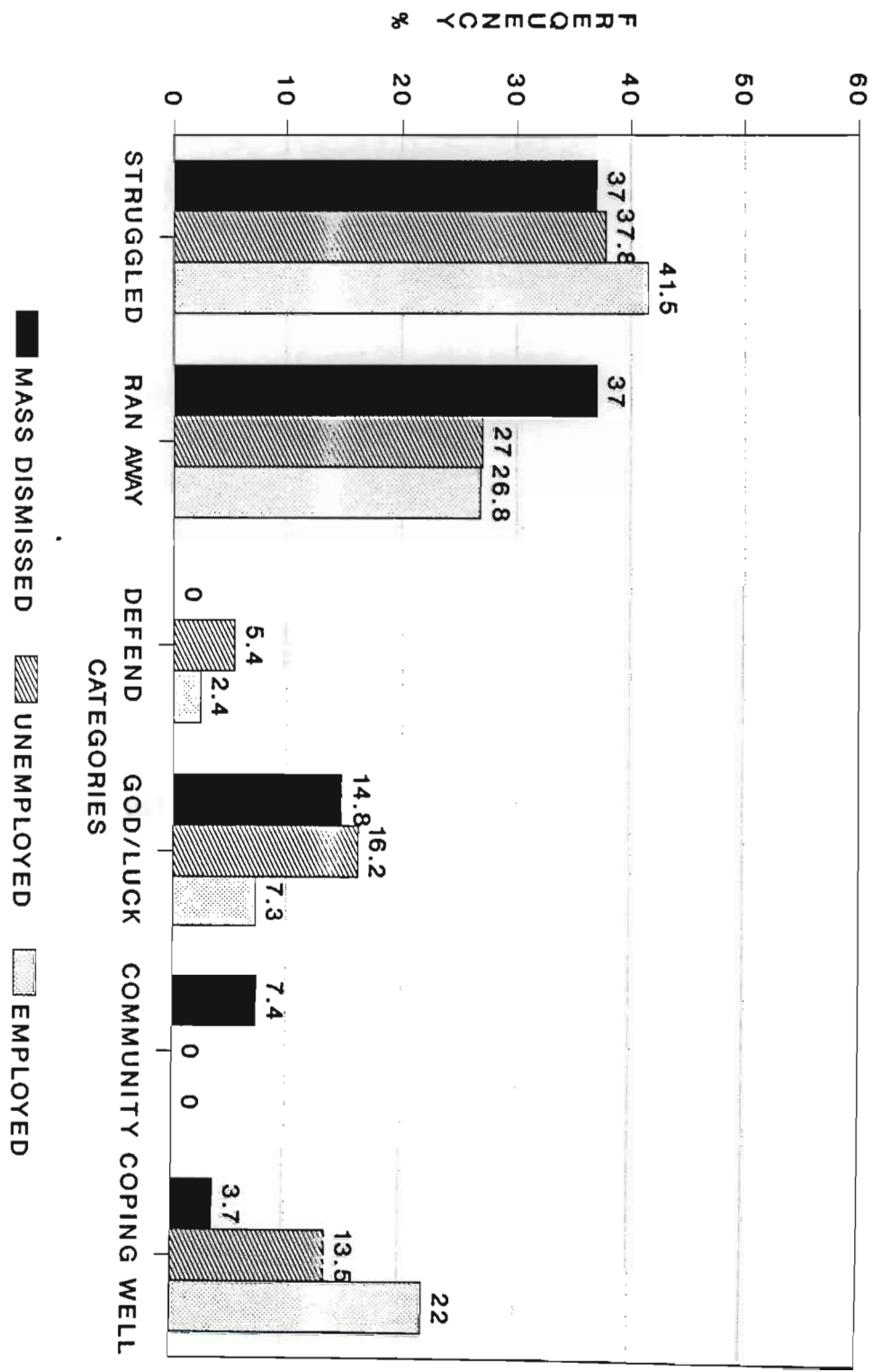


TABLE 6.19 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERSONAL COPING WITH VIOLENCE"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Struggled	Coped very poorly with the situation / panicked
Ran Away	Went into hiding / left township for a period
Defend	I defended myself
God/Luck	Survived by God / Prayer / Luck
Community	Stood together with the Community
Coping Well	Not affected or coping well

6.2 EFFECT ON FAMILY

6.2.1 PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY

6.2.1.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

Table 6.20 contains the means and standard deviations of the "perceived effect on family" scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by employment status group and year. The rating scale for "perceived effect on family", referred to in Chapter Five, is represented below for easy reference:

- 0 = no response
- 1 = serious negative
- 2 = negative effect
- 3 = little or no effect
- 4 = positive effect
- 5 = strong positive effect

The mean for the entire sample (N = 358) was found to be 1,94 with a standard deviation of 0,92 which indicates that the

entire sample perceived job loss as having had a negative effect on their family. A more detailed analysis of this result by employment status group and year was carried out. Figure 6.26 is a graphical representation of the mean effect on family scores for the employment status groups by year. From Figure 6.28, it can be seen that the mass dismissed individuals rated the effect on family as being significantly worse, compared with the unemployed group and employed groups for each of the three samples. Therefore, it would appear that Hypothesis 5 could be accepted.

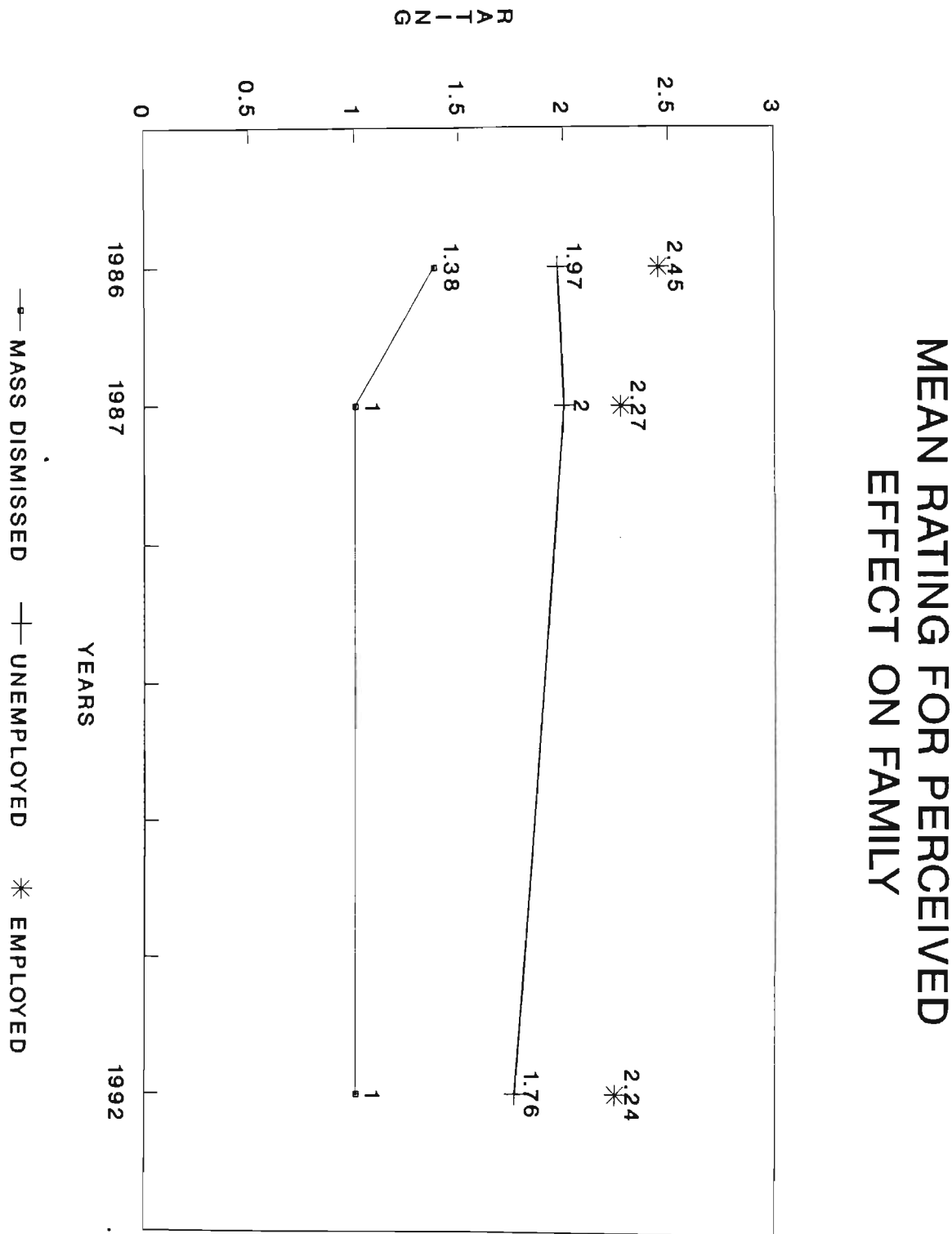
TABLE 6.20 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERCEIVED FAMILY EFFECT" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			1,941	,919	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	2,087	,935	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,385	,697	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,974	,843	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,452	,900	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	1,952	,970	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,000	,000	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,000	1,000	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,266	,913	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	1,752	,806	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,000	,000	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,757	,723	37
Group	3.00	Employed	2,244	,768	41

TOTAL N = 358

FIG. 6.28: MEAN "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

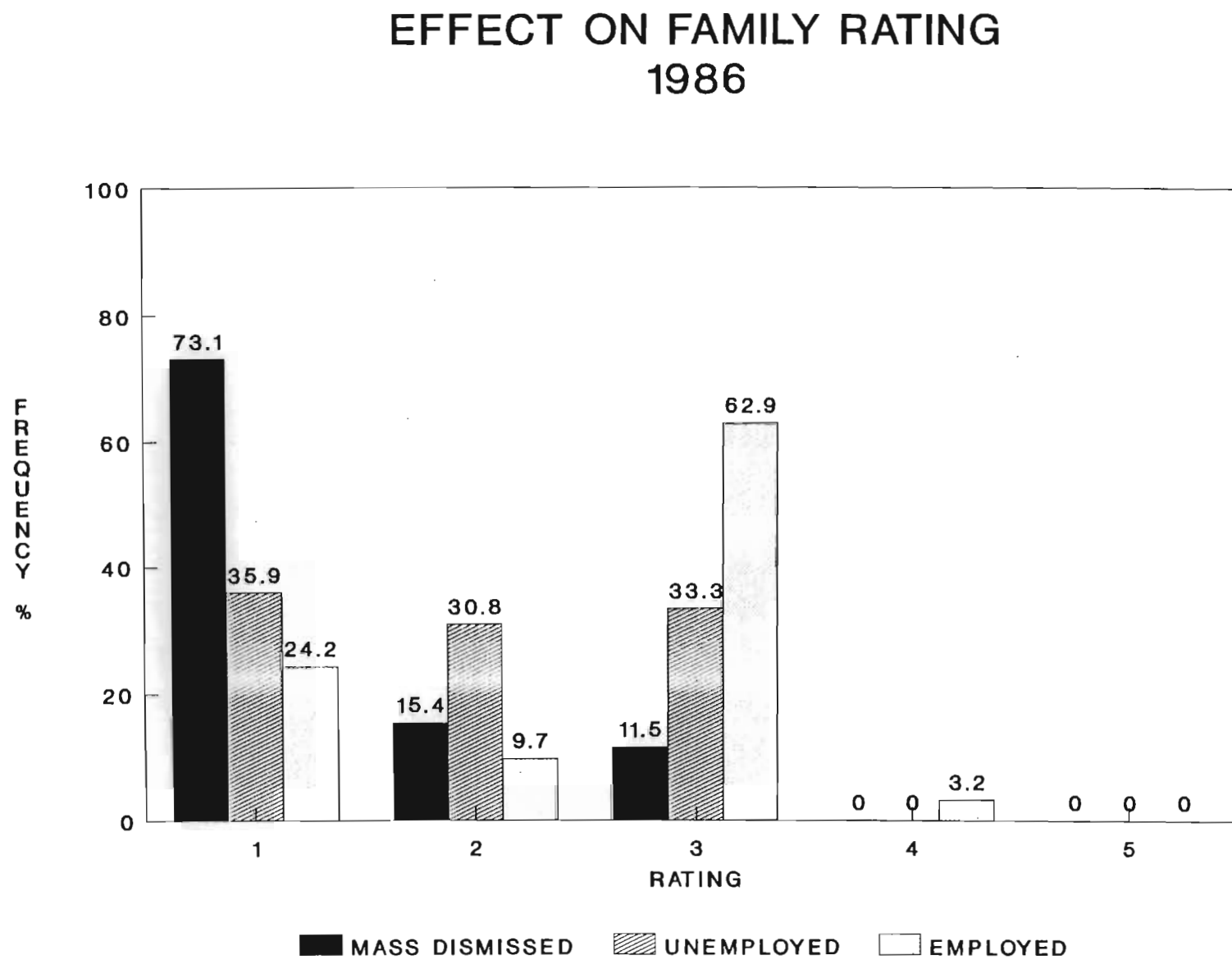


Histograms, which give a breakdown of the differences between the employment status groups for each of the years from 1986, 1987 and 1992 are presented in Figures 6.29, 6.30 and 6.31. An examination of Figure 6.29 shows that the majority of the mass dismissed employees (73,1 %) saw the mass dismissal as having a serious negative effect on their family. A total of 76,6 % of the unemployed group saw the job loss as having a serious negative effect on their family as compared with 33,9 % of the employed individuals. Of note in the 1986 sample was that 24,2 % of the employed individuals experienced it as having a negative effect on their own families; this was somewhat surprising. Referring to Figure 6.30, it can be seen that all of the mass dismissed individuals perceived job loss to be having a serious negative effect on their families and, although the percentage of unemployed individuals experiencing a seriously negative effect had remained the same, it is worth noting that the percentage of employed individuals in these categories had increased from 33,9 % to 48,4 %. Quite clearly, the job loss was having an impact not only on the individuals who were unemployed, but even on those families that had employed breadwinners. The situation worsened still further in 1992, with again 100 % of mass dismissed experiencing a seriously negative effect on their families. The unemployed group who experienced a seriously negative effect, had increased to 89,2 % and the employed group to 61 % for the same categories (see Figure 6.31).

An examination of the change in means for the entire sample for each of the years (see Table 6.20) shows that the means decreased from 2.09 % to 1,75 % over the period of sampling i.e. from 1986 to 1992. This trend, taken together with the perceived shift towards the lower scores on the histograms and Figure 6.29, 6.30 and 6.31, lend support to Hypothesis 6 that the "perceived negative impact of unemployment on the family" would increase with the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal. Figure 6.32, which combines Figures 6.28, 6.29, 6.30 and 6.31, helps to emphasize the trend towards a more negative effect discussed above.

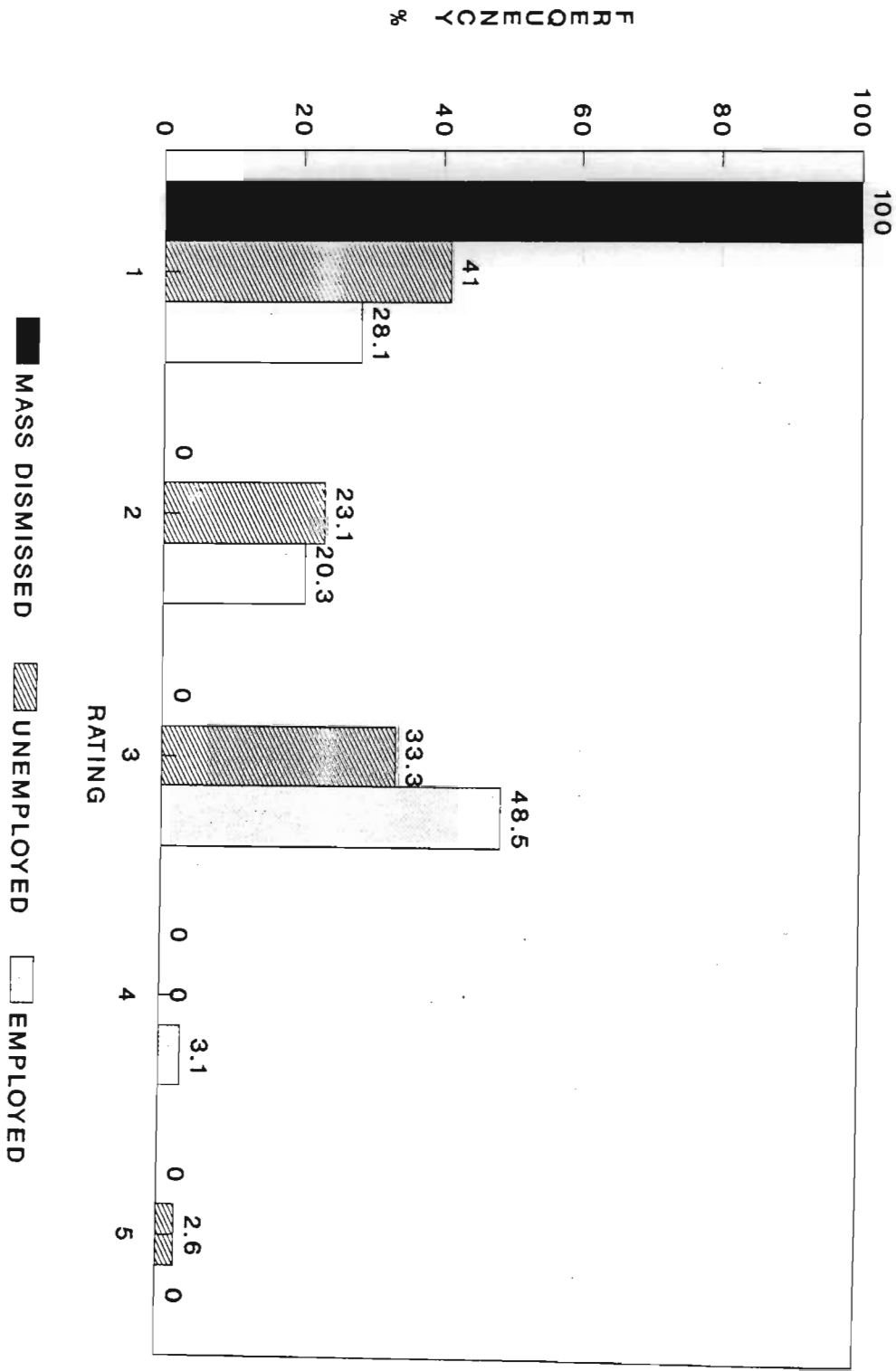
HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1986

FIG. 6.29:



EFFECT ON FAMILY RATING
1987

FIG. 6.30: HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1987



EFFECT ON FAMILY RATING 1992

FIG. 6.31: HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1992

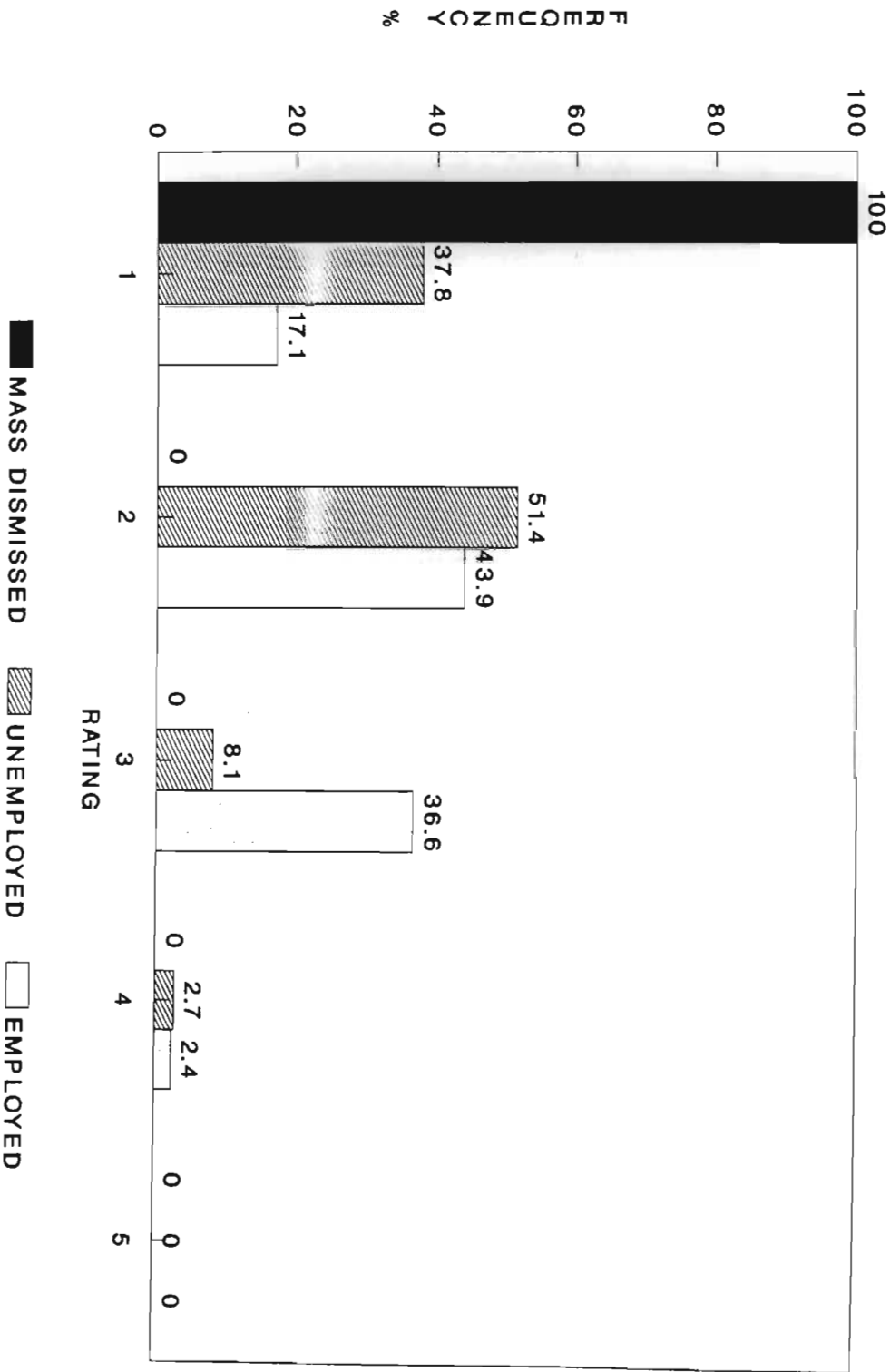
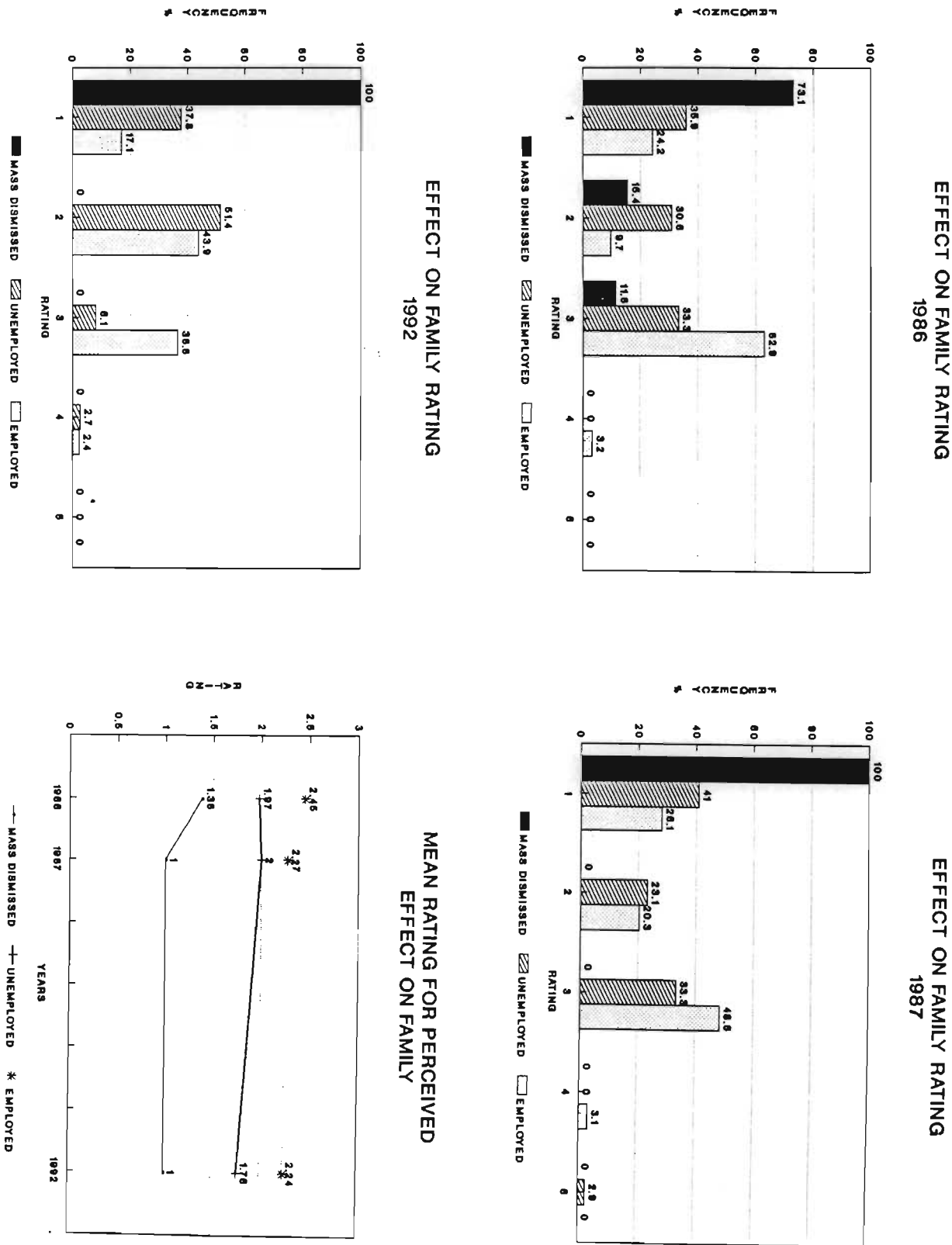


FIG. 6.32: COMBINED RESULTS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS FOR THE THREE SAMPLES TOGETHER WITH MEANS



To test the significance of the trends identified above, a two-way analysis of variance was carried out on the results analysing them by group and year. A summary of these results is reported in Table 6.21 which indicates that there is a significant difference between the three employment status groups ($p < 0,00$) and also between the three years in which the study occurred ($p < 0,04$). The interaction between year and group was found to be not significant.

TABLE 6.21 : TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E

"FAMILY EFFECT" RATING N = 358
BY YEAR
GROUP

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Year	3,852	2	1,926	3,037	,04
Group	72,475	2	36,237	57,138	,00
Year Group Interaction	1,509	4	,377	,595	,66
Residual	221,339	349	,634		
Total	301,768	357	,845		

To examine more specifically the trends predicted in Hypothesis 5 and 6, a two-way ANOVA "Simple main effects" analysis on the "perceived effect on family" scores was carried out. The

summary of these results is presented in Table 6.22 and reveals that there is a significant difference between the employment status groups for each of the three years of the study ($p < 0,00$). The trend reported earlier was shown to be significant (Table 6.2A) and, therefore, we can from Hypothesis 5 accept H_a , that there is a significant difference between the way the different employment status groups perceive the effect of job loss on their families. With reference to Hypothesis 6, the simple main effects analysis (Table 6.22) demonstrates that there was no significant difference between the years for the various employment status groups. Consequently, Hypothesis 6 must be rejected in favour of the null hypothesis.

TABLE 6.22 : TWO-WAY ANOVA "SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS" ANALYSIS ON "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES REFLECTING
i) BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES FOR EACH YEAR
ii) BETWEEN YEAR DIFFERENCES FOR EACH GROUP

SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR EACH YEAR BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS EXPRESSED AS PROBABILITY OF F	
Group within 1986	0,000 **
Group within 1987	0,000 **
Group within 1992	0,000 **
SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR EACH EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP BETWEEN YEARS	
Year within Mass Dismissed	0,142
Year within Unemployed	0,318
Year within Employed	0,381

6.2.1.2 DETERMINATION OF THE EFFECT OF A NUMBER OF
MODERATING VARIABLES ON THE "PERCEIVED EFFECT
ON FAMILY" SCORES

Referring to Hypothesis 9, the "perceived effect on family" scores were subjected to further analysis to establish whether a number of moderating variables had impacted on the relationship between "perceived effect on family" and employment status group/time. From the summary of these results contained in Table 6.4, it can be seen that the partialling out of the effects of the co-variates had the most significant effect on the "perceived effect on family" scores compared with the other three stress measures. The following co-variates were found to have a significant impact: household income, wages earned, self coping, family coping, community coping, ill health, remain in community, community support, time resident, number in household. Tables 6.23 to 6.31 contain a more detailed breakdown of the effect of these co-variates on the straight ANOVA for "perceived effect on family". An examination of these tables indicates that the co-variates affected the significance of the "between year difference" for the "effect on the family" score in each of the co-variate's cases. It is thought that, to a large extent, this result is more a statistical artifact than any real effect on this major stress measure. If one examines the significance of the year differences for effect on family ($p < 0,041$), the effect of the removal of just a small amount of the variance in these scores by a

co-variate pushes the result into non-significance. It must also be borne in mind that the simple main effects analysis also revealed that there was no significant difference between the years for the various employment status groups. This supports an argument that no great weight should be placed on the significance reported of the effects of the co-variates on the between year differences.

TABLE 6.23 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING WAGES EARNED AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Sign. of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	* 0,024	** 0,000	* 0,020	0,365
Effect on Self	** 0,000	 0,382	 0,899	** 0,000	 0,880	 0,959	0,010
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	 0,666	** 0,000	0,322	 0,596	0,018
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	0,057	** 0,000	0,692	0,004

* p < 0,05

** p < 0,01

TABLE 6.24 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING SELF COPING AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Covariate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,001	** 0,000	** 0,008	** 0,000
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,712	0,940	** 0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,122	0,651	** 0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,001	** 0,000	* 0,011	** 0,005

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

TABLE 6.25 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING FAMILY COPING AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Covariate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,001	** 0,000	** 0,008	** 0,001
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,914	0,924	** 0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,269	0,759	** 0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,002	** 0,000	** 0,007	0,764

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

TABLE 6.26 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING COMMUNITY COPING AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Covariate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,000	0,279
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,426	0,901	0,834
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,138	0,799	* 0,032
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,000	** 0,000	* 0,011	* 0,044

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$

TABLE 6.27 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING ILL HEALTH AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Covariate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,006	0,608
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,640	0,970	0,071
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,139	0,650	* 0,045
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,003	** 0,000	** 0,006	0,066

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$

TABLE 6.28 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING REMAIN IN COMMUNITY AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Sign. of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,005
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,366	0,912	0,275
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,064	0,717	0,839
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,003	** 0,000	** 0,004	0,674

* p < 0,05

** p < 0,01

TABLE 6.29 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING COMMUNITY SUPPORT AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Covariate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,008	0,459
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,714	0,742	0,000
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,099	0,590	0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,002	** 0,000	** 0,003	0,256

* p < 0,05

** p < 0,01

TABLE 6.30 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING TIME RESIDENT AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,009	0,067
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,428	0,901	** 0,009
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,064	0,695	* 0,015
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,001	** 0,000	** 0,006	** 0,004

* p < 0,05

** p < 0,01

TABLE 6.31 : RESULTS OF ANALYSIS OF CO-VARIANCE USING NUMBER IN HOUSEHOLD AS THE CO-VARIATE ON THE FOUR OUTCOME VARIABLES - REPORTED AS SIGNIFICANCE OF F

Outcome Variable	Anova without Co-variate			Ancova			Significance of Co-variate
	Group	Year	Inter-action	Group	Year	Inter-action	
General Health Questionnaire	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	** 0,000	** 0,000	** 0,007	0,596
Effect on Self	** 0,000	0,382	0,899	** 0,000	0,495	0,906	0,005
Effect on Family	** 0,000	* 0,041	0,666	** 0,000	0,064	0,697	0,000
Effect on Community	** 0,002	** 0,001	** 0,006	** 0,001	** 0,000	** 0,006	0,774

* p < 0,05

** p < 0,01

6.2.1.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY"

The response categories for "perceived effect on family" are reported in Table 6.32 and histograms, reflecting the response frequencies for the three different employment status groups for each of the samples i.e. 1986, 1987 and 1992, can be found in Figures 6.33, 6.34 and 6.35 respectively.

TABLE 6.32 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None	No significant effect
Hopeless	Suffering very badly/lost hope/lost dignity/trapped
Finance	Family malnourished - serious financial effects
Worry	Worried/unhappy/broken-hearted
Survive	Unhappy <u>but</u> surviving
Breakup	Family divided/lost support
Spiritual	Affected spiritually
Educ	Schooling affected
Death	Lost a family member
Strong	Family bond strengthened

In 1986, the majority of the employed individuals reported the mass dismissal to have had no significant effect on their families (64,6 %). The majority of mass dismissed individuals (57,7 %) reported that the effect on their families was one of hopelessness; they were suffering very badly and felt a loss of

dignity and, at times, even trapped by the circumstances. In 1987 (Figure 6.34), the number of mass dismissed interviewed, who saw the situation as hopeless, increased to almost 70 % and finance was also of great concern. There was still only a number of employed (48,5 %) and unemployed (33,3 %) individuals who felt that the situation was not affecting their family in any significant way in 1987. This trend changes by 1992 (Figure 6.35), when the number of employed and unemployed individuals who saw the situation as not affecting their family had decreased to 17 % and 6,4% respectively. There was also a significant change in the trend for mass dismissed individuals; 66,7% of them indicated that finance was a major problem with serious financial effects and even malnourishment of their families. Also worth noting is that in 1992, the effects on the family for both the unemployed and employed groups were distributed more evenly over a number of other response categories. With the exception of the categories "none" and "strong", all of the other categories are indicative of a negative effect on the family and this would lend some support to the trends found in the ratings that the subjects obtained for effect on family (Section 6.2.1.1).

TABLE 6.33 : **MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR**

Summaries of "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
 GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			2,707	,695	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	2,874	,667	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,692	,736	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,744	,785	39
Group	3.00	Employed	3,032	,511	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	2,818	,599	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,522	,846	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,744	,549	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,969	,470	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	2,371	,724	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,148	,602	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,216	,750	37
Group	3.00	Employed	2,659	,693	41

TOTAL N = 358

FIG. 6.33: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON FAMILY 1986

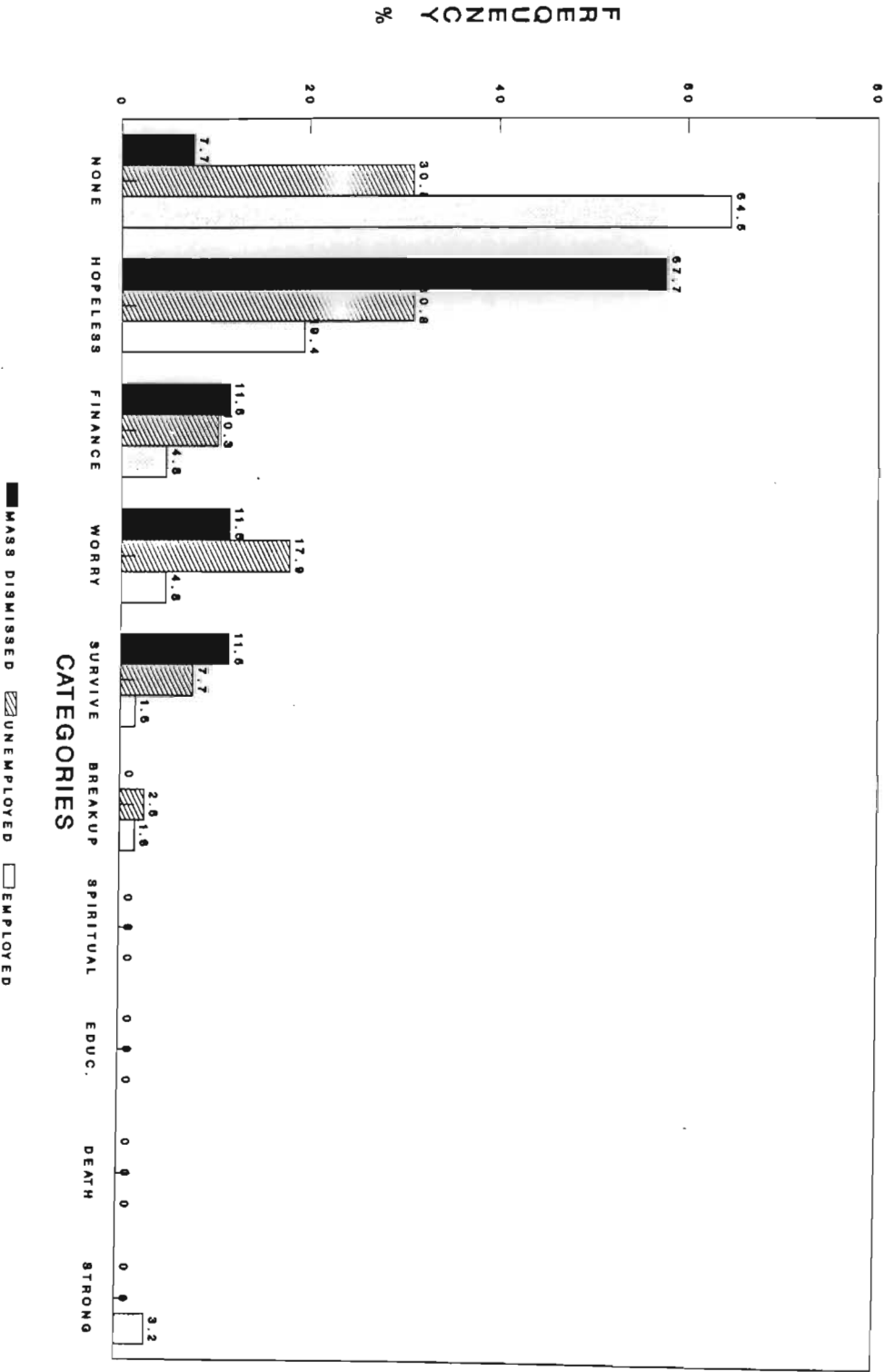


FIG. 6.34: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON FAMILY 1987

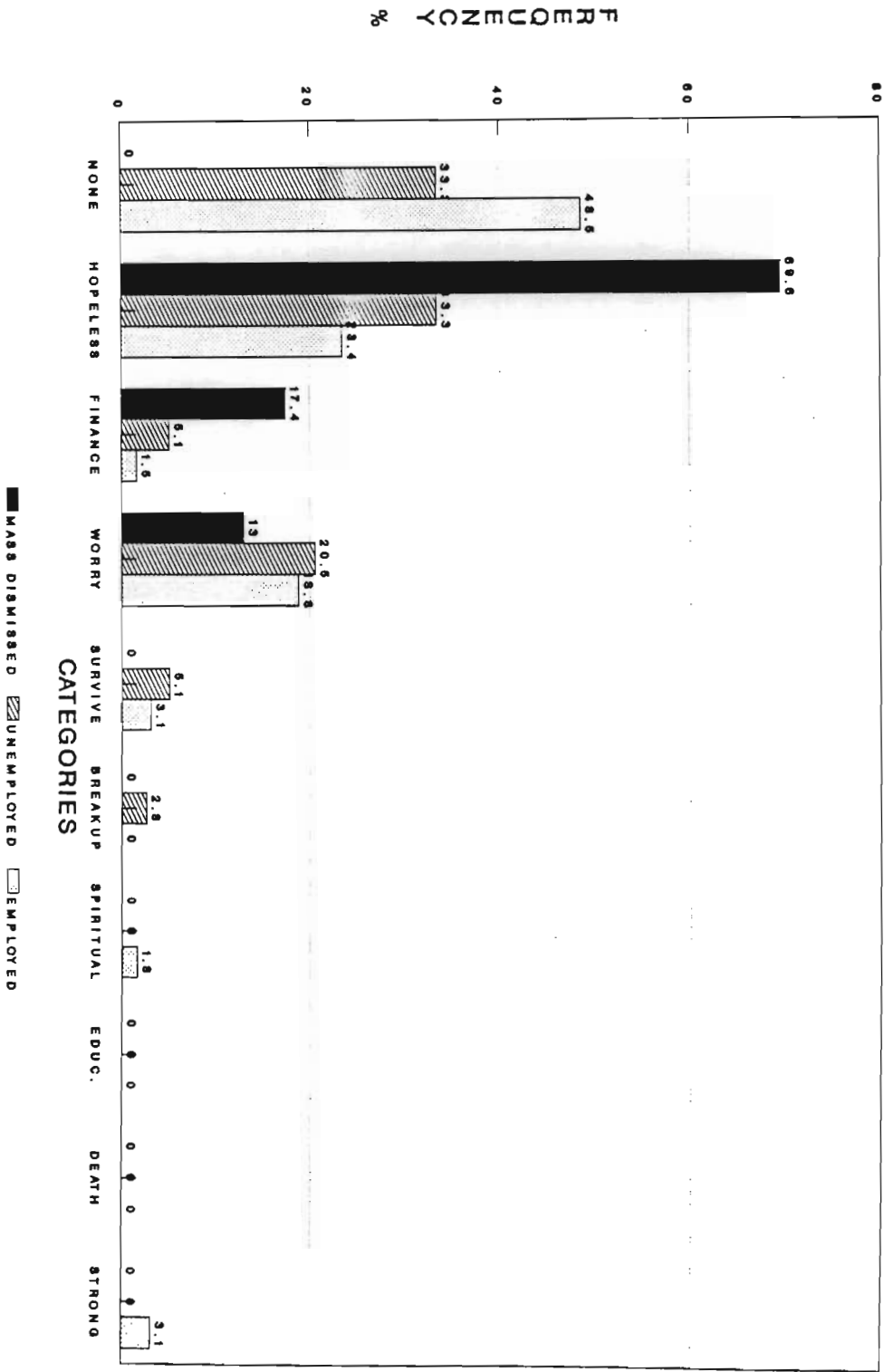
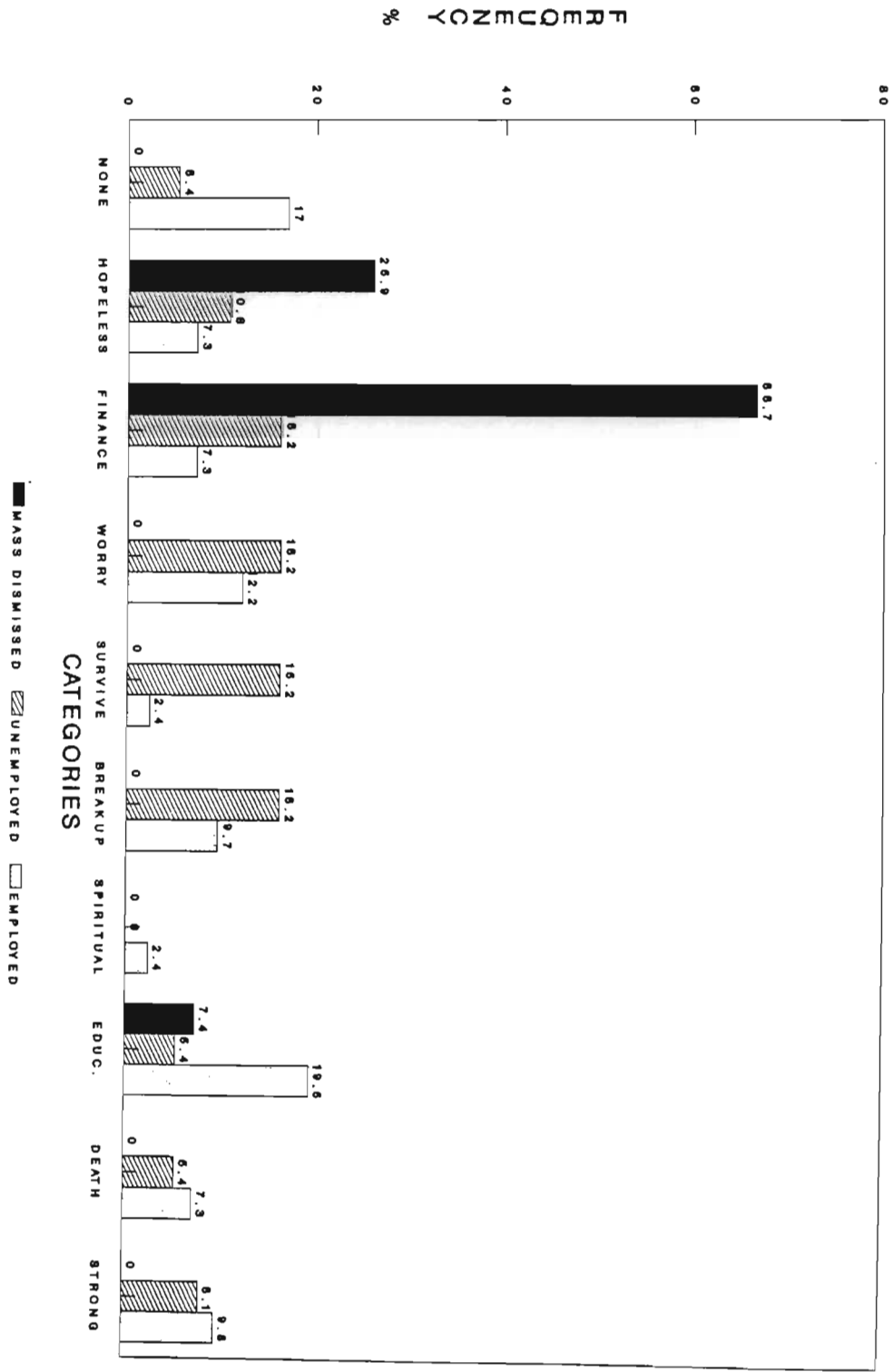


FIG. 6.35: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON FAMILY" SCORES FOR
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON FAMILY 1992



6.2.2 PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING

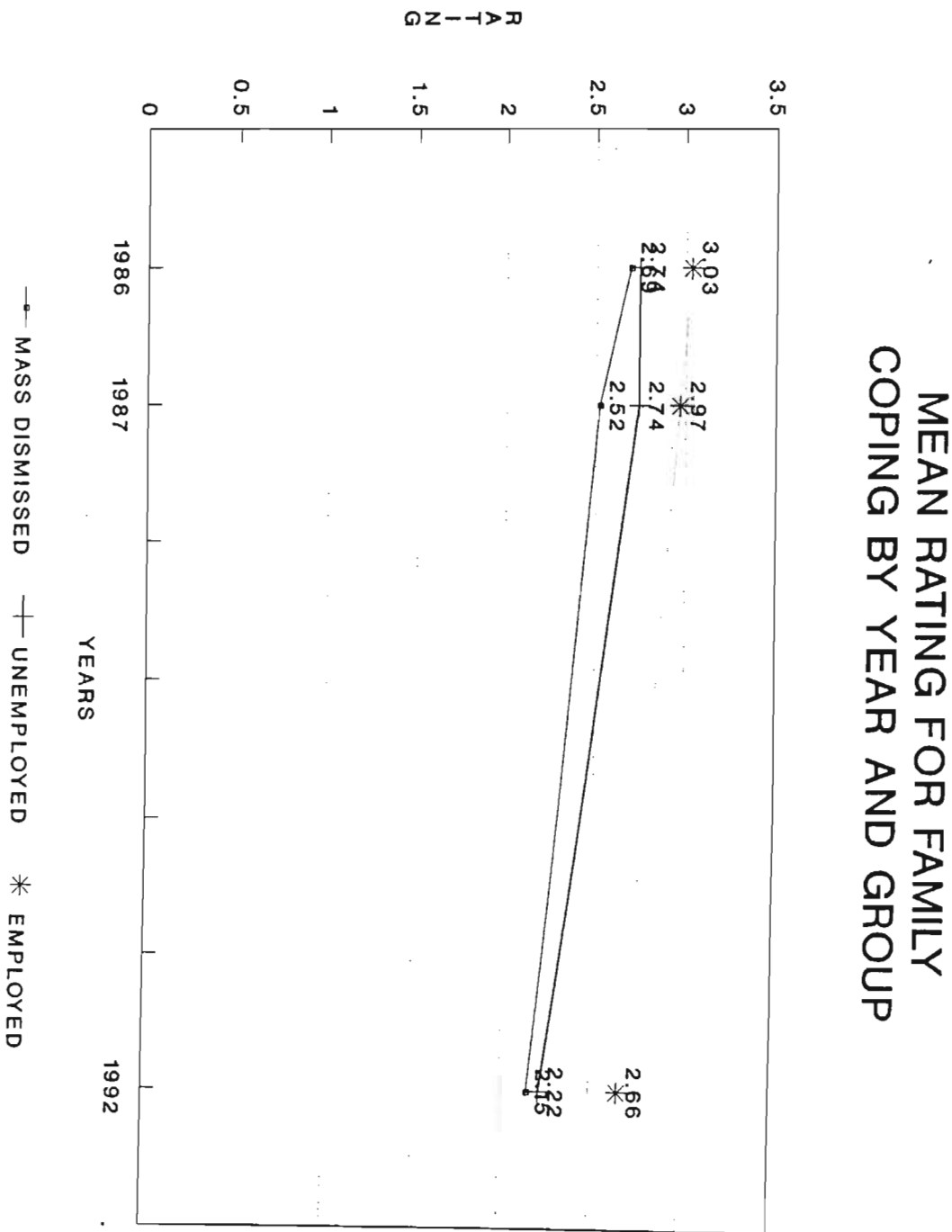
6.2.2.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

As was mentioned in Chapter Five, the "perceived family coping" was measured on the following scale:

- 0 = no response
- 1 = given up all attempts to cope
- 2 = struggling to cope in at least one area
- 3 = coping reasonably - coping in most areas
- 4 = coping in all areas
- 5 = has led to new development

Table 6.33 shows the means and standard deviations of the "perceived family coping" scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group. Figure 6.34 contains a graphic representation of the same scores broken down by year and employment status group. From Table 6.33 and Figure 6.34, it can be seen that the employed group seem to indicate that their families were coping slightly better than the mass dismissed and unemployed groups and that there was some change between 1986 and 1992 in which all three groups indicated that their families were coping less well. This is represented by a lowering of the means for the entire sample group for each year from 2,87 in 1986 to 2,37 in 1992. Hypothesis 9.7 predicted that family coping would moderate the "perceived effect on family" ratings, but it is worth noting that from Table 6.4 that this was not supported in the analysis of covariance.

FIG. 6.36: MEAN "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



6.2.2.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING"

The response categories for "family coping" are detailed in Table 6.34, while histograms of the response frequencies for the three employment status groups across the three sample years are presented in Figures 6.37, 6.38 and 6.39.

TABLE 6.34 RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING"

CATEGOR	LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None		Family had nothing to help them cope/family is not coping
T/Job		Relied on temporary/occasional work to help support financially
Family		Relied on each other as family members for support
Own/Bus		Their own business enterprise has helped the family to cope
Help U		Helped by Union/Sawco and community organisations
Saving		Relied on money the family had saved/UIF monies/pension money
Avoid		As a family we have everything - tried not to get involved in the violence
Comaid		We depend on the community's goodwill and Church help

FIG. 6.37: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
FAMILY COPING 1986

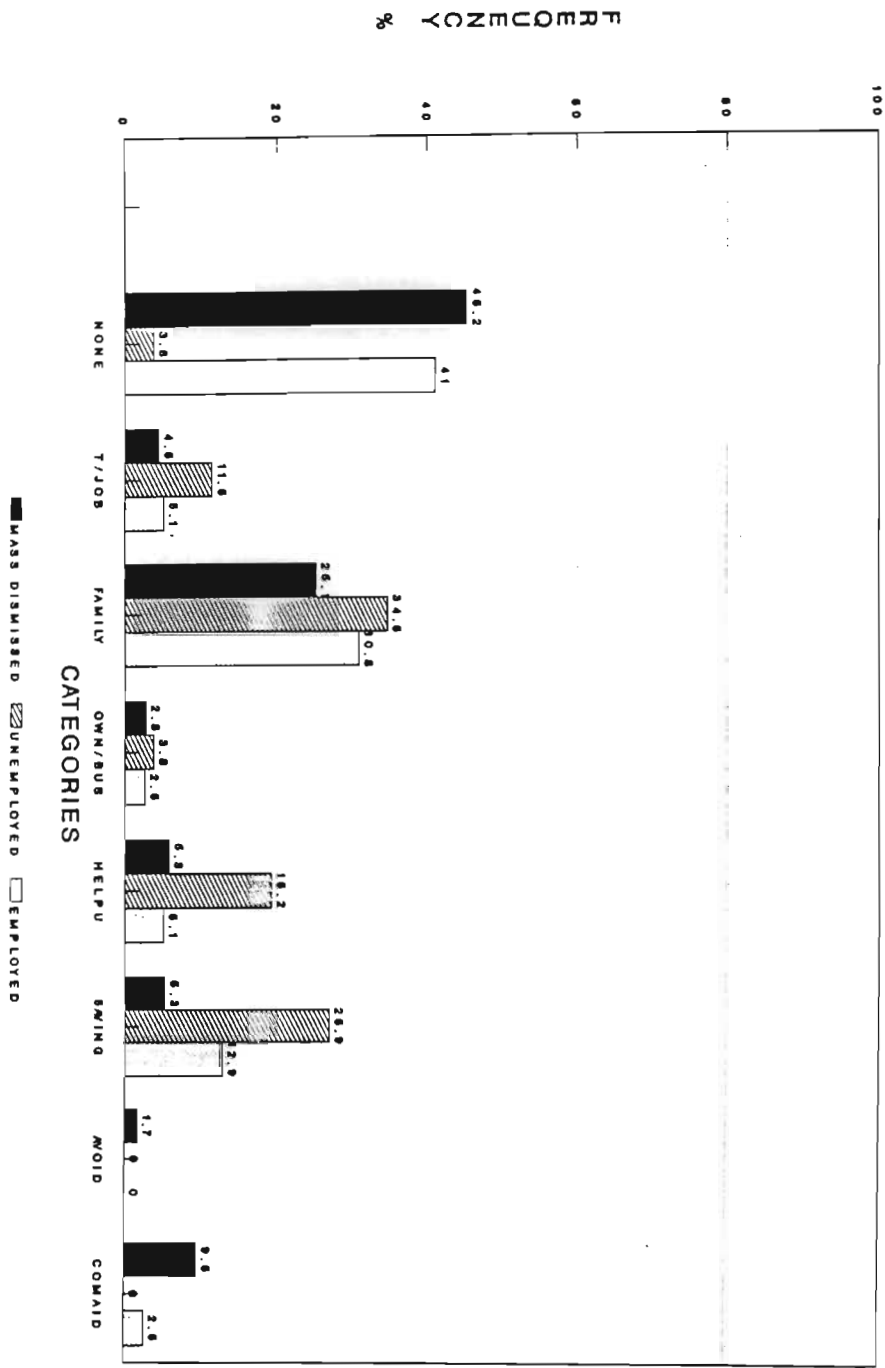


FIG. 6.38: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT
EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
FAMILY COPING 1987

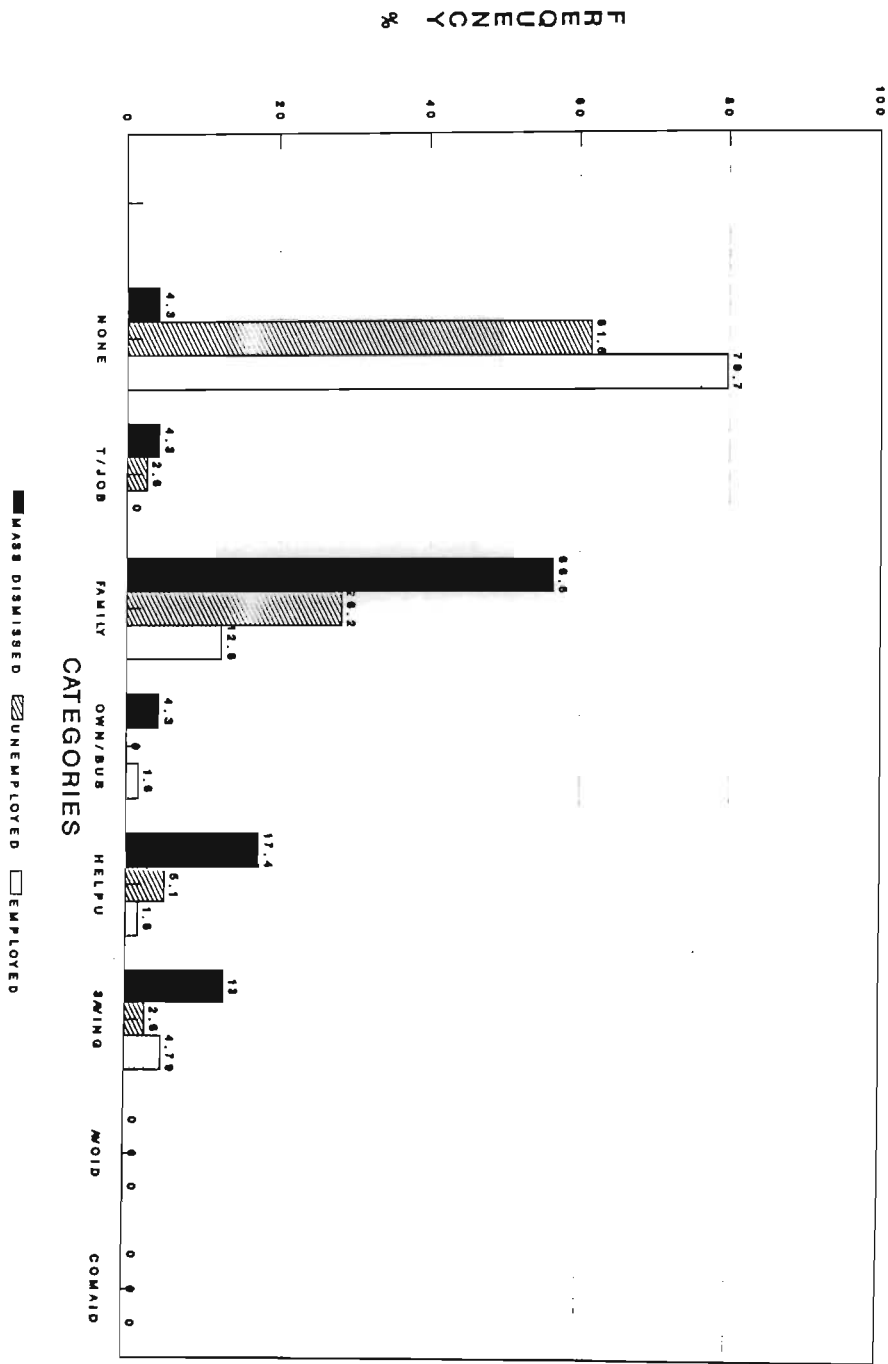
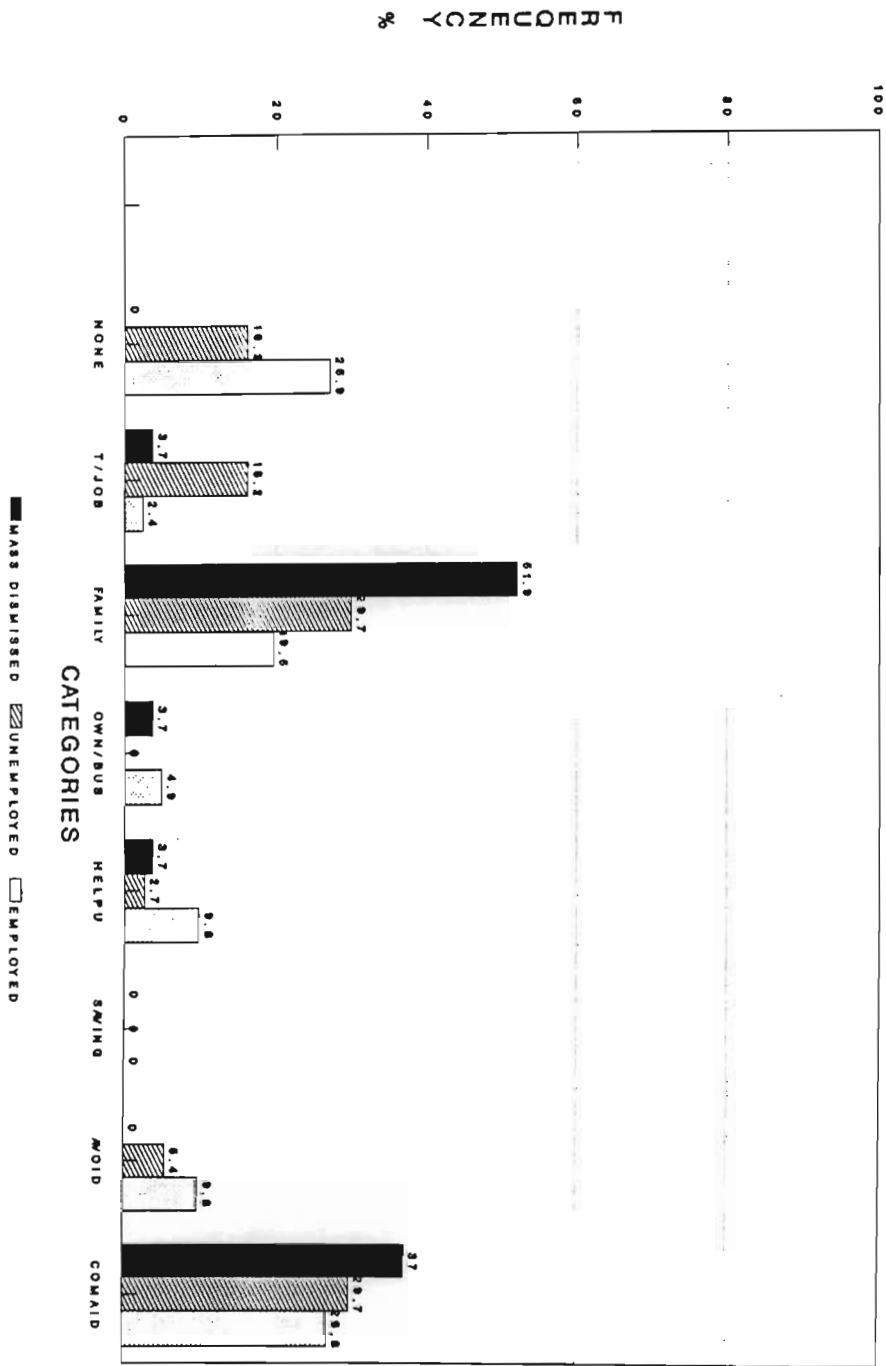


FIG. 6.39: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
FAMILY COPING 1992



With reference to Figure 6.37, it can be seen that the coping mechanism for the mass dismissed and their families was non-existent (45,2 % of them reported this); 25,1 % of the mass dismissed individuals relied upon their families to cope. The unemployed group relied more on their families (34,6 %), their savings (26,9 %) and the help of community organisations (18,2 %). In 1987 (see Figure 6.38), the mass dismissed individuals relied more significantly on their families (56,5%), community organisations (17,4 %) and some of their savings (13 %). By contrast, the unemployed and employed individuals indicated that they had no family coping mechanisms in this period (61,5 % and 79,7 % respectively). The most notable change in 1992 was the increase amongst all employment status groups in their families' dependence upon the communities goodwill and the Church for assistance (mass dismissed 37 %; unemployed 29,7 % and employed 26,8 %). This, together with the reliance upon the family for support, were the main mechanisms for family coping in 1992.

6.2.3 VIOLENCE AND THE FAMILY

6.2.3.1 THE EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE FAMILY

The response categories for the "perceived effect of violence on the family" are reported in Table 6.35, whilst Figure 6.40 is a histogram reflecting the response frequencies for the three employment status groups for 1992. From Figure 6.40, it can be seen that the majority of the respondents reported a fear response in describing the effect of the violence on

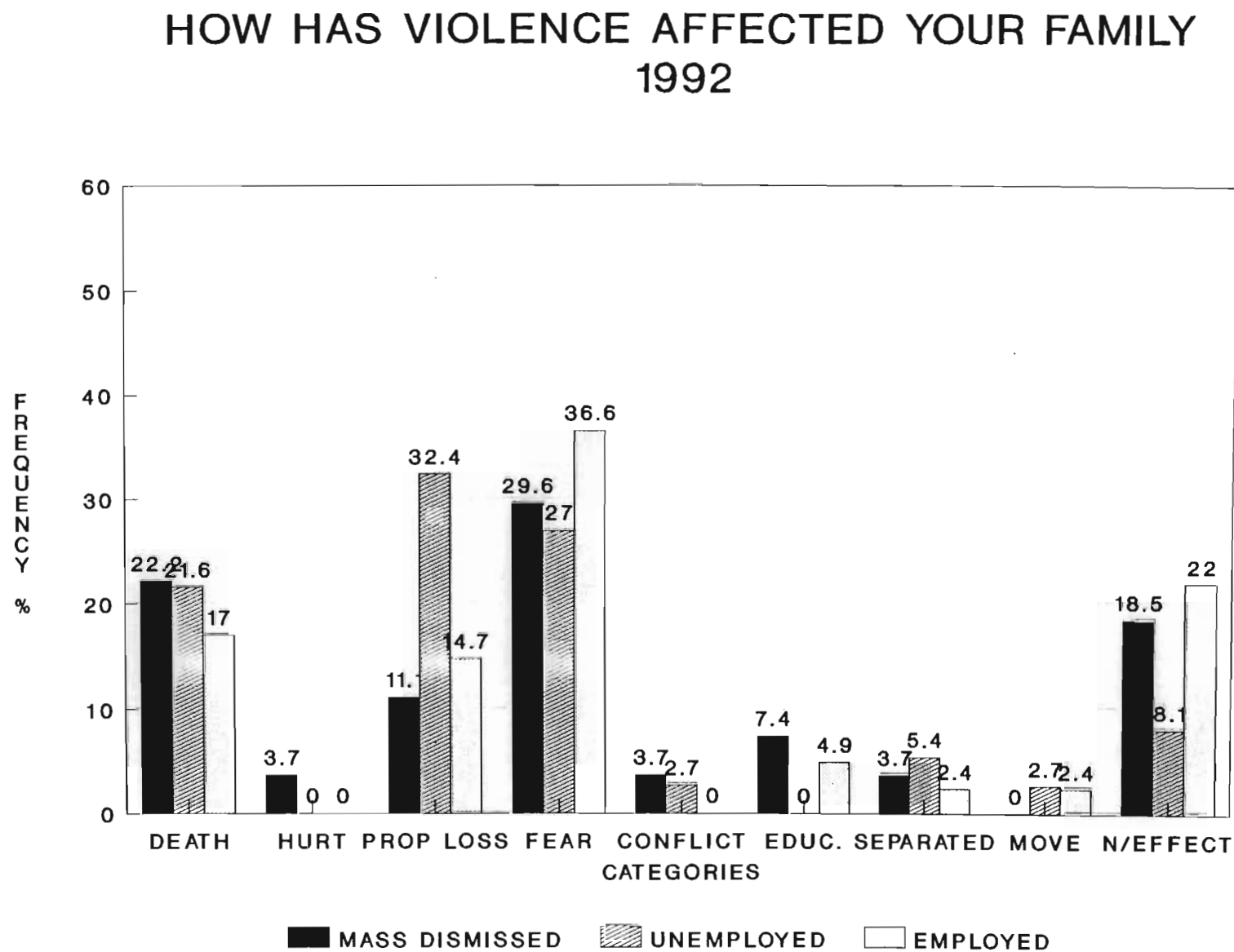
their family. For all three groups this was significantly high. Similarly, for all three groups the death of an immediate family member was reported as being the most significant effect. If one considers that on average 20 % of the sample reported the death of an immediate family member, it gives an indication of the degree and severity of the violence which has affected this particular community. 32,4 % of the unemployed individuals reported that they had had property stolen or vandalised as a consequence of the violence. Another interesting trend was that 18,5 % of the mass dismissed and 22 % of the employed individuals reported that the violence had no effect on their family.

TABLE 6.35 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE FAMILY"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Death	Member of immediate family killed
Hurt	Member of family seriously injured
Prop Loss	Property/stocks vandalised/house burnt down
Fear	Live in a state of insecurity/fear
Conflict	Family members turned against each other
Education	Children could not attend school
Separated	Family had to separate or scatter
Move	Had to move residence/go into hiding
Unaffected	Did not affect our family

HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON FAMILY" FOR
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

FIG. 6.40:



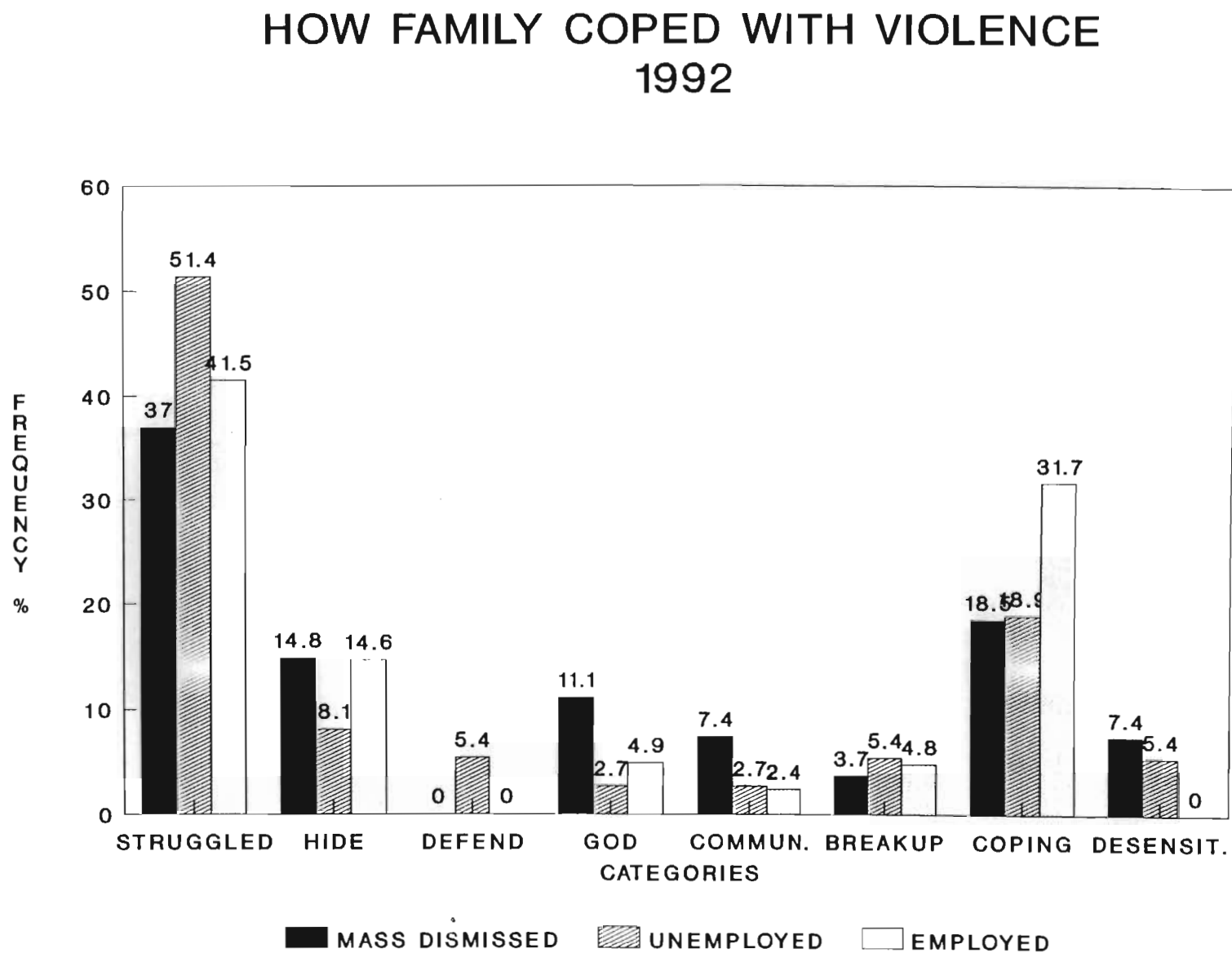
6.2.3.2 HOW FAMILY HAS COPEd WITH VIOLENCE

Table 6.36 contains the response categories for perceived family coping. The associated response frequencies are presented in Figure 6.41. From an examination of Figure 6.41, it is evident that the majority of respondents across all the employment status groups had struggled or were coping poorly with the situation. A number of respondents (14,8 % and 14,6 % in the mass dismissed and employed groups respectively) indicated that the family had to go into hiding or leave the township for a period as a way of coping with the violence. Most of the family coping mechanisms indicated by the respondents, with the exception of "coping well", were reactive in nature. 31,7 % and about 80 % for both mass dismissed and unemployed groups indicated that the family was coping well or was not affected as a consequence of the violence.

TABLE 6.36 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "FAMILY COPING WITH VIOLENCE"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Struggled	Coped very poorly with the situation/panicked
Hide	Family went into hiding/left township for period
Defend	Family defended itself against attack
God Helped	God helped the family to cope
Community	Family joined in/stood together with the community
Disintegrated	Family disintegrated/living in different places
Coping Well	Family not affected <u>or</u> is coping well
Ostracised	The family is now used to the violence

FIG. 6.41:
HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED FAMILY COPING WITH VIOLENCE" FOR
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992



6.3 EFFECT ON COMMUNITY

6.3.1 PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY

6.3.1.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

The mean and standard deviations of the "perceived effect on community" scores for the entire sample and its breakdown by employment status group and year are presented in Table 6.37. For the entire sample (N = 358), the mean was found to be 1,37 and the standard deviation 0,65 which is far lower as compared with "perceived effect on family" and "perceived effect on self" (1,94 and 2,02 respectively). The same rating scale as the other perceived effect categories was used.

- 0 = no response
- 1 = serious negative effect
- 2 = negative effect
- 3 = little or no effect
- 4 = positive effect
- 5 = strong positive effect

Figure 6.42 is a graphical representation of the mean "perceived effect on community" scores for the three different employment status groups over the three years. It can be seen that in 1986 and 1987, the mean ratings for the mass dismissed and employed groups were very similar, but for the same years the unemployed group were a few points higher. With reference to Hypothesis 7, it would appear that in 1986 and 1987 the mass dismissed

individuals did not perceive the community to be more negatively affected than the employed individuals, although there was some difference between themselves and the unemployed individuals. In 1992, there appears to be a difference between the mass dismissed and other individuals in the predicted direction.

TABLE 6.37 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
 GROUP

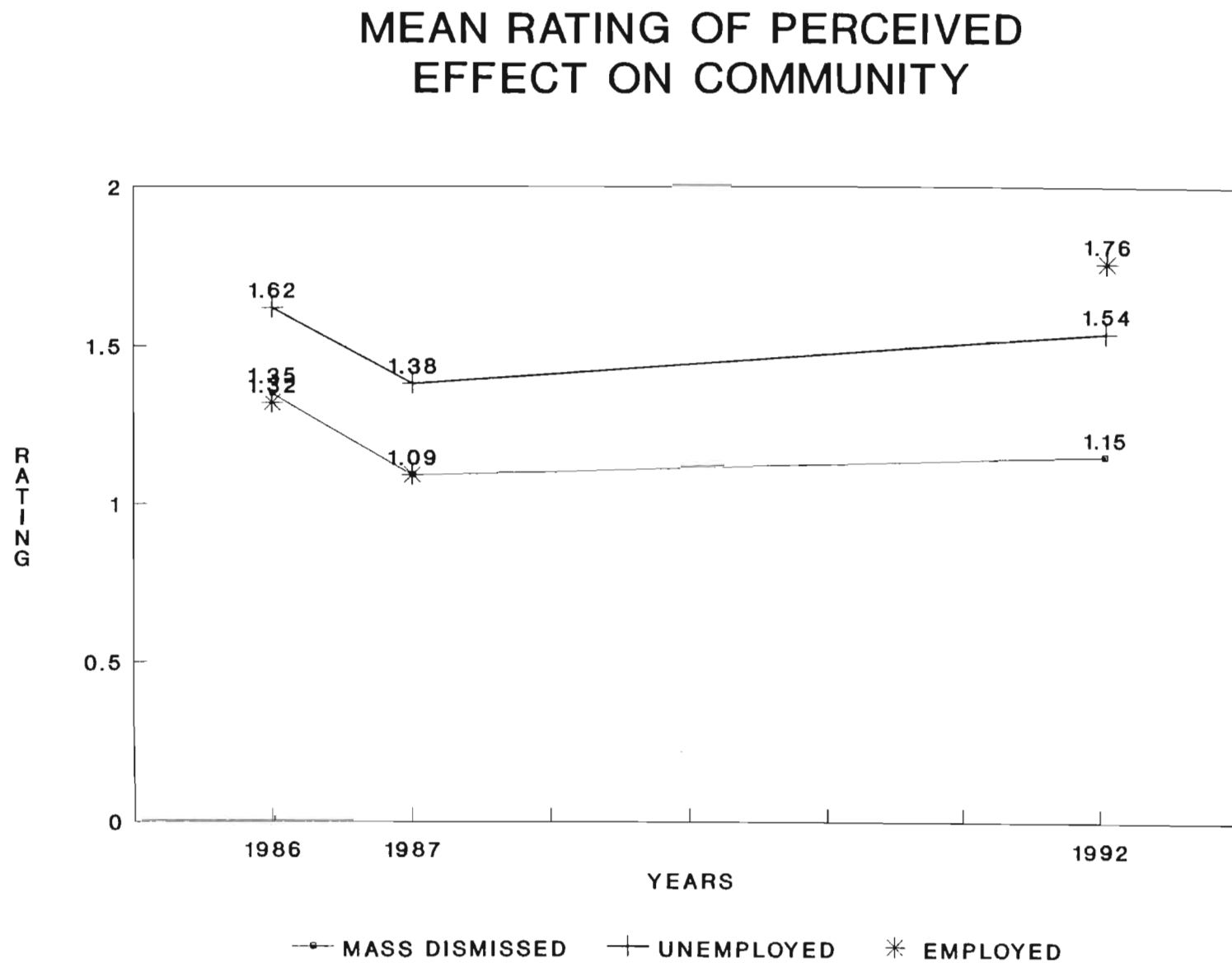
Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			1,366	,646	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	1,417	,718	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,346	,690	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,615	,847	39
Group	3.00	Employed	1,323	,621	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	1,183	,585	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	1,087	,417	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,385	,847	39
Group	3.00	Employed	1,094	,387	64

YEAR	3.00	1992 ss	1,524	,573	105
GROUP	1.00	UNEMPLOYED/MASS DISM	1,148	,362	27
GROUP	2.00	UNEMPLOYED/NOT DISMI	1,541	,650	37
GROUP	3.00	EMPLOYED	1,756	,489	41

TOTAL N = 358

MEAN "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES
FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

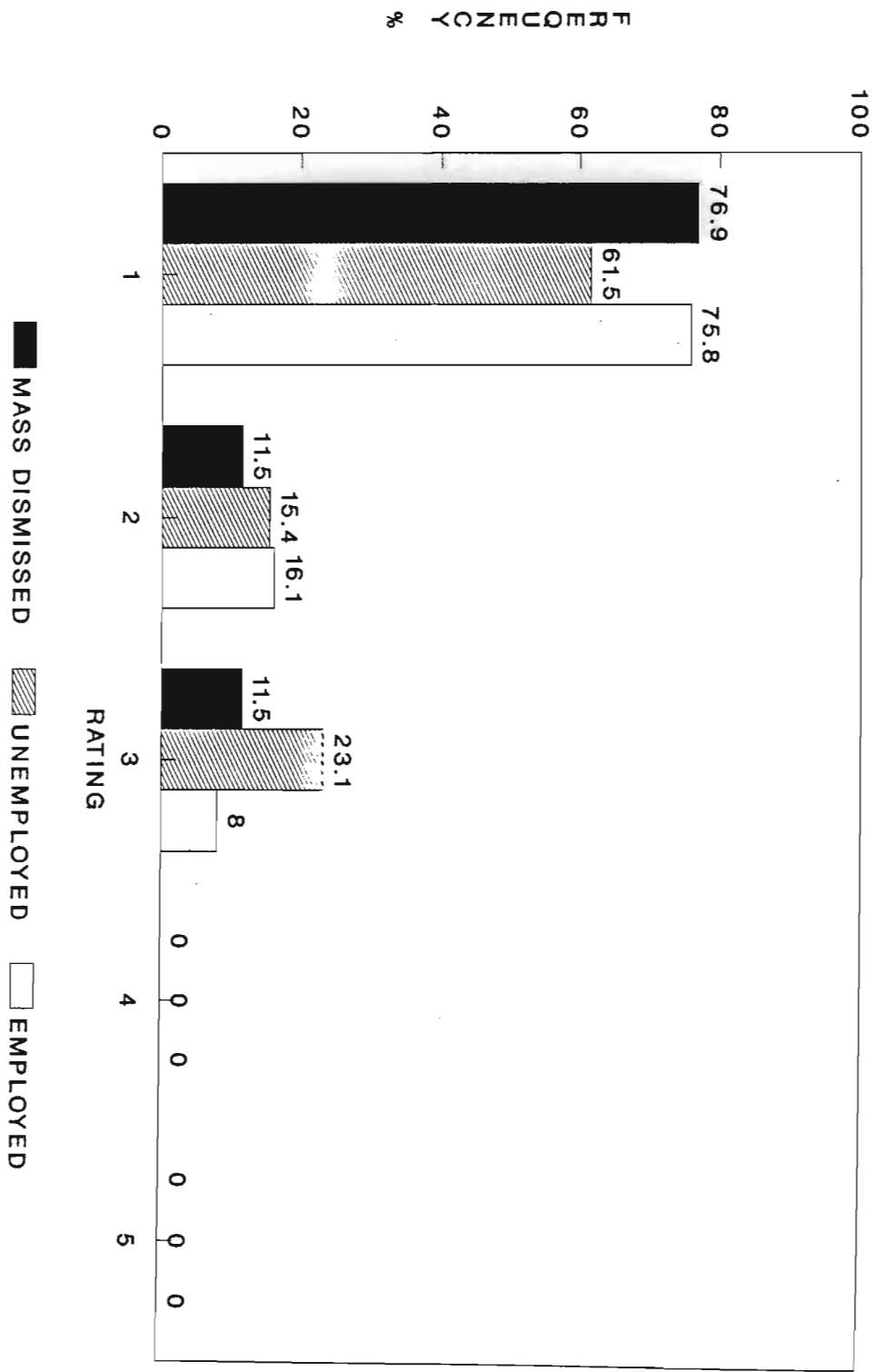
FIG. 6.42:



A closer examination of these trends is provided in three histograms which give a breakdown of the employment status groups for each of the years from 1986, 1987 and 1992 (presented in Figures 6.43, 6.44 and 6.45 respectively). In 1986, the majority of all the groups rated the "perceived effect on the community" as being seriously negative (Figure 6.43). This trend became even more significant in 1987 when almost the entire sample rated the effect as "seriously negative" (95,7 % of the mass dismissed individuals, 82,1 % of the unemployed individuals and 93,8 % of the employed individuals). In 1992 (Figure 6.45), the trend was not as distinct; 85,2 % of the mass dismissed individuals still rated the effect as seriously negative, but only 51,4 % and 26,8 % of the unemployed and employed individuals rated it as such. However, it must be pointed out that an examination of Figure 6.45 shows clearly that, although the frequencies are split between ratings 1 and 2, there are virtually no individuals who rated the impact on the community as having no effect or positive effect. These trends can be seen with ease in Figure 6.46.

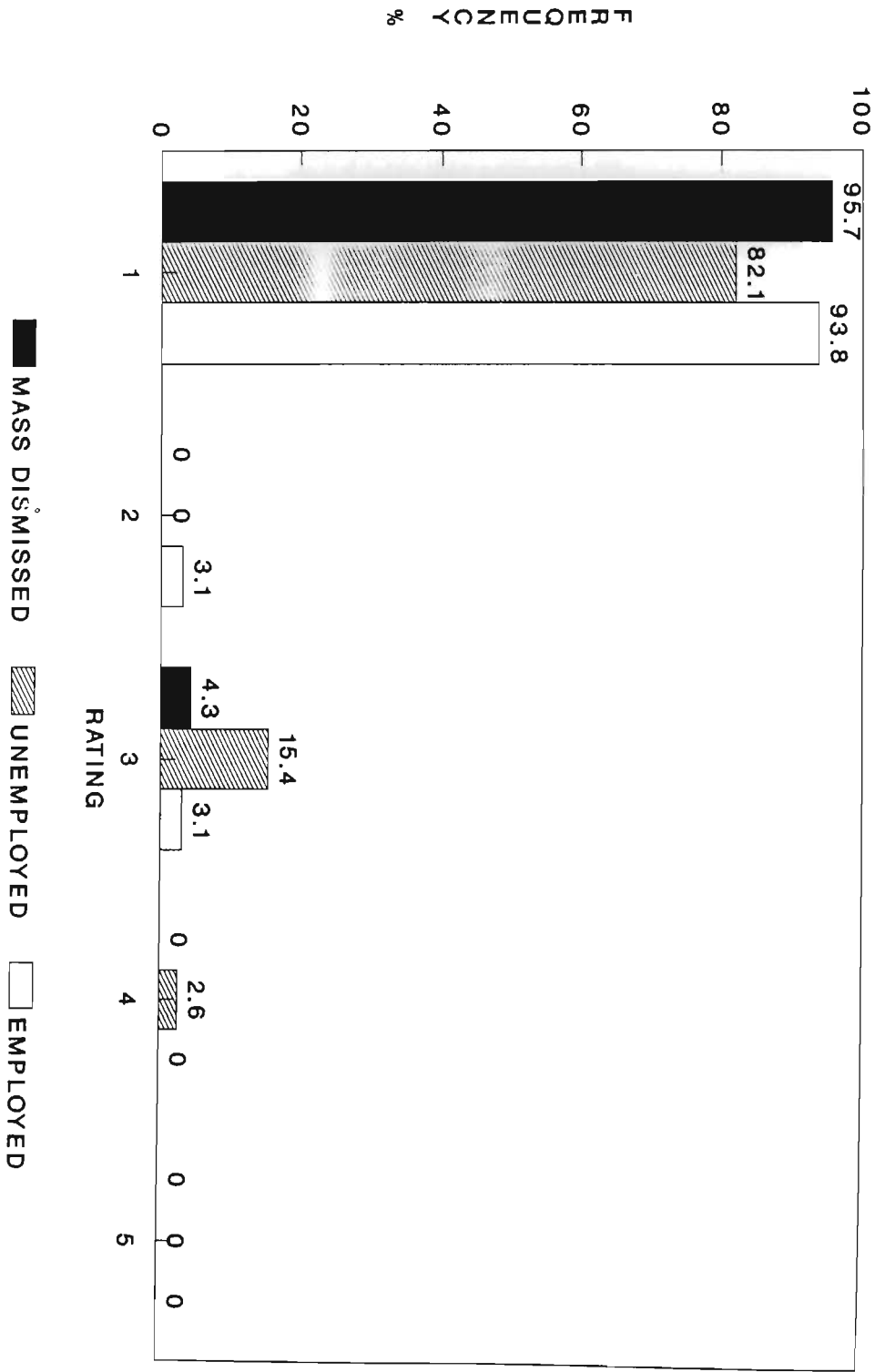
EFFECT ON COMMUNITY RATING
1986

FIG. 6.43: HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1986



EFFECT ON COMMUNITY RATING
1987

FIG. 6.44: HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1987



HISTOGRAM OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY"
SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS
IN 1992

FIG. 6.45:

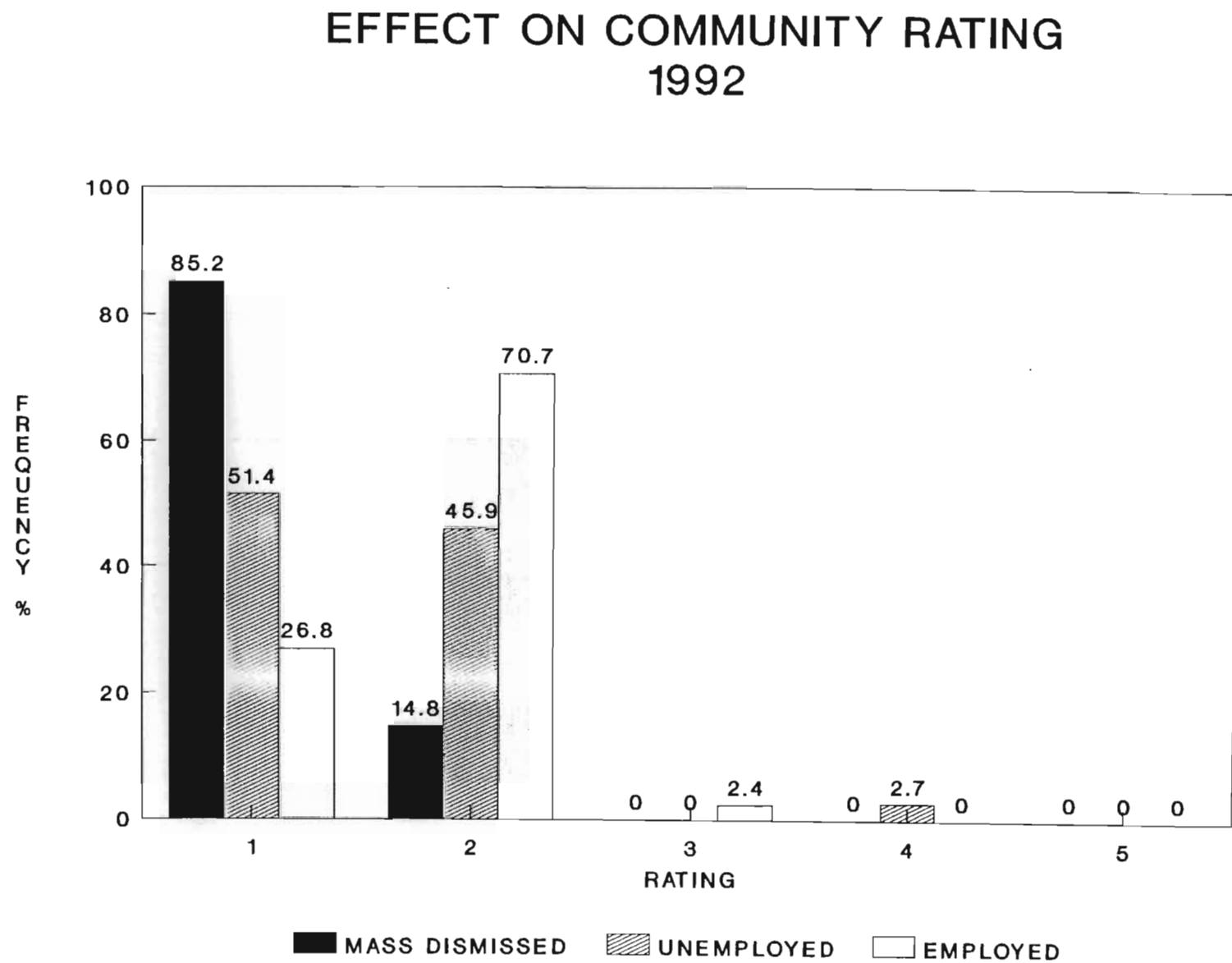
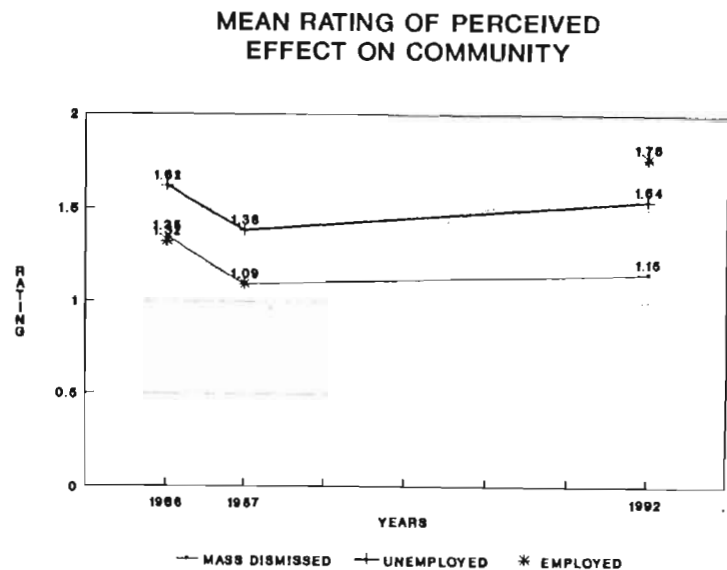
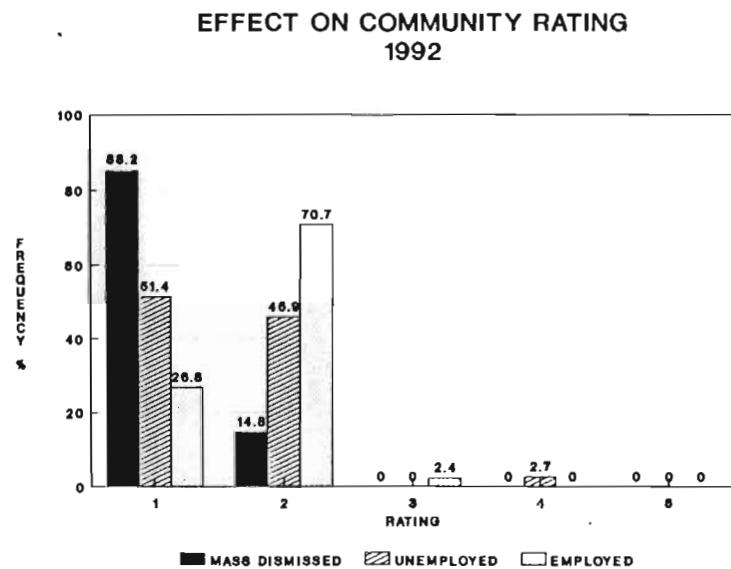
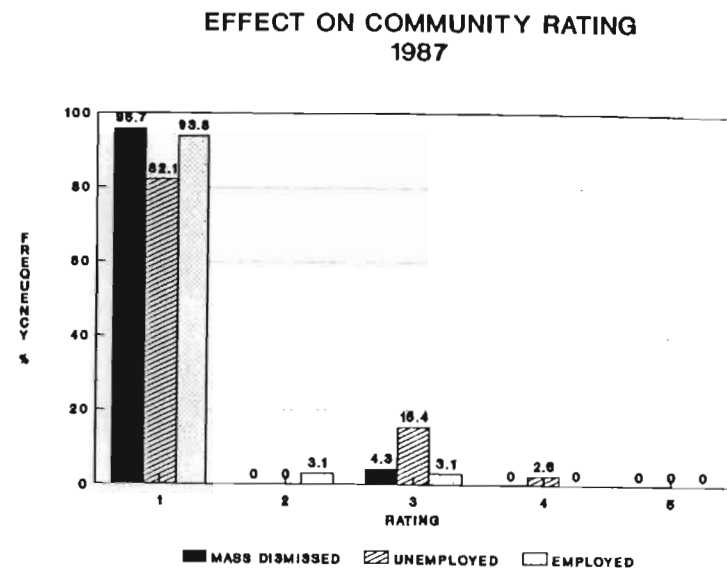
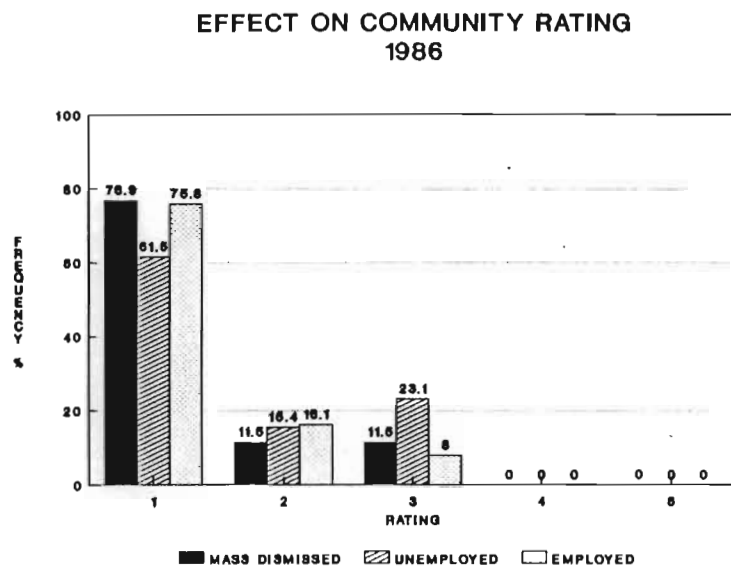


FIG. 6.46: COMBINED RESULTS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS FOR THE THREE SAMPLES TOGETHER WITH MEANS



Hypothesis 8 predicted that the perceived, negative impact of mass dismissal on the community would increase with the length of time elapsed since the mass dismissal. An examination of the means for the entire sample over the years indicated (see Table 6.37) revealed that this trend is not clear.

To examine whether any of the trends between the employment status groups and the sample groups over the years were significant, a two-way analysis of variance was carried out on the results (see Table 6.38). The analysis of variance indicated that there was a significant difference between the three employment status groups ($p < 0,00$) and between the three years in which the study took place ($p < 0,00$). The interaction between year and group was also found to be significant ($p < 0,00$).

TABLE 6.38 : TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

A N A L Y S I S O F V A R I A N C E

"COMMUNITY EFFECT" RATING
BY YEAR
GROUP

N = 358

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Significance of F
Year	7,407	2	3,704	9,843	,00
Group	4,966	2	2,483	6,600	,00
Year Group Interaction	5,592	4	1,398	3,715	,00
Residual	131,316	349	,376		
Total	149,064	357	,418		

For more specific analysis, the two-way ANOVA "Simple Main Effects" analysis on the "perceived effect on community" scores reflecting between year differences for each group, was carried out. A summary of those results is presented in Table 6.39. As was noted in the discussion of Figure 6.42, no significant difference was found between the employment status groups for 1986 and 1987; however, a significant difference was found for 1992 ($p < 0,00$). Referring back to Hypothesis 7, we can only accept H_a for 1992 when there was a significant difference between mass dismissed individuals and those who were unemployed and employed (Table 6.2A). For the other two years we must accept the null hypothesis. With reference to Hypothesis 8, the only group in which a significant difference between years was found, was the employed groups ($p < 0,00$), (see Table 6.39); although there was no significant difference between the years 1986 and 1992 (Table 6.2A). For both the mass dismissed and the unemployed groups the null hypothesis must be accepted.

TABLE 6.39 : TWO-WAY ANOVA "SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS" ANALYSIS ON "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES REFLECTING
i) BETWEEN GROUP DIFFERENCES FOR EACH YEAR
ii) BETWEEN YEAR DIFFERENCES FOR EACH GROUP

SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR EACH YEAR BETWEEN EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS EXPRESSED AS PROBABILITY OF F	
Group within 1986	0,092
Group within 1987	0,081
Group within 1992	0,000 **
SIGNIFICANCE OF "EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" SCORES FOR EACH EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP BETWEEN YEARS	
Year within Mass Dismissed	0,252
Year within Unemployed	0,286
Year within Employed	0,000 **

6.3.1.2 DETERMINATION OF THE EFFECT OF A NUMBER OF
MODERATING VARIABLES ON THE "PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY EFFECT" RATINGS

In line with Hypothesis 9, the "perceived effect on community" scores were subjected to analysis of co-variance to establish the impact of a number of moderating variables on the relationship between reported community stress and employment status group/time. As mentioned previously, the results of this analysis were summarised in Table 6.4. The partialling out of the effects of the co-variates on the "perceived effect on community" only affected the significance of the ANOVA for three of the co-variates; namely wages earned, perceived term of unemployment, and period of previous/present employment. Details of the wages earned analysis of co-variance is reported in Table 6.23 in which it can be seen that this variable effects the significance of the between- group differences to make them non-significant and also takes away the significance from the interaction. With reference to the discussion concerning household income (Hypothesis 9.1), this result also needs to be treated with some circumspection because it needs to be adjusted for inflation and, if done so, would most likely nullify this effect as was reported in Hypothesis 9.3. The result of the perceived term of unemployment (Hypothesis 9.5), mentioned in section 6.1.1.2, needs to be treated with some sceptism for the reasons

noted and does not warrant further discussion. The period of previous/present employment removed the significance of the interaction between group and year.

6.3.1.3 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY"

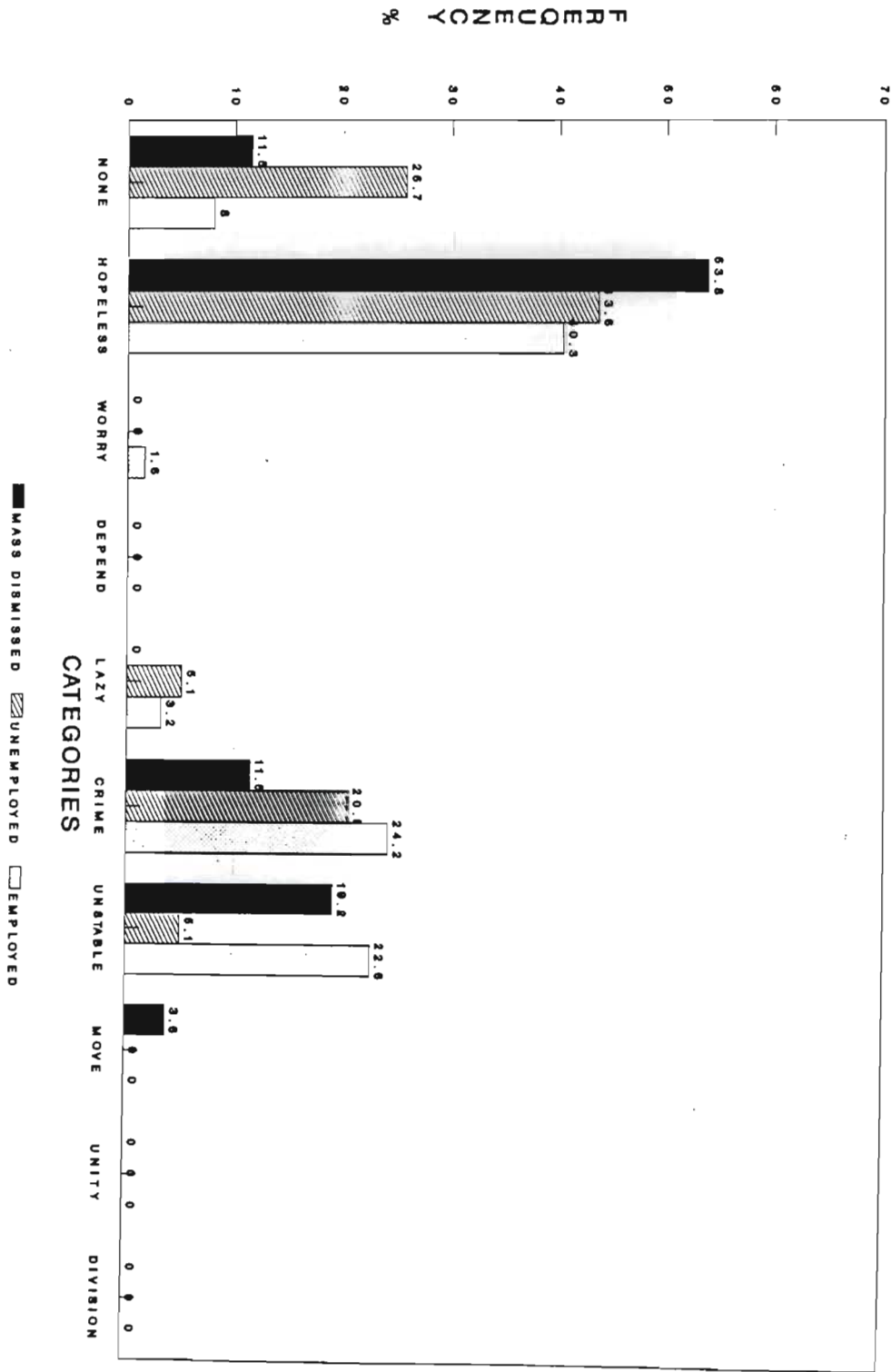
The response categories for "perceived effect on community" are described in Table 6.40 and histograms, reflecting the response frequencies for the three employment status groups for the years 1986, 1987 and 1992, can be found in Figures 6.47, 6.48 and 6.49 respectively. A glance at the 1986 frequencies reported in Figure 6.47, indicated that most of the individuals across all three groups reported the effect on the community to be that of hopelessness (mass dismissed = 53,8 %, unemployed = 43,6 % and employed = 40,3 %). The next most important categories were those of increased crime/violence and that the community had become unstable. An interesting result was that 25,7 % of the unemployed group indicated that it had had no great effect on the community in 1986. Turning to Figure 6.48, the 1987 results indicated an increase in the number of individuals reporting crime and lack of stability in the community as being major effects and a slight decrease in hopelessness, although it was still the most popular category for all groups. In 1992 (Figure 6.49), the number of mass dismissed individuals who described the situation as hopeless increased to 66,6 %. More individuals indicated

that one of the effects was that individuals had had to move away from Mpophomeni. An interesting development in 1992 was an increase in the number of employed (9,8 %) and unemployed individuals (10,8 %) who indicated that the effect had been to create division between groups within the community. However, at the same time, a number of individuals (7,3 % for the employed group and 2,7 % for the unemployed) indicated that the effect was to create unity in the community and that it was one of the few safe places to be. Another important trend in 1992 was an increase for both the employed at (19,6 %) and unemployed at (10,8 %), indicating that the effect was to make the community more dependent on third parties such as government unions and farmers.

TABLE 6.40 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY"

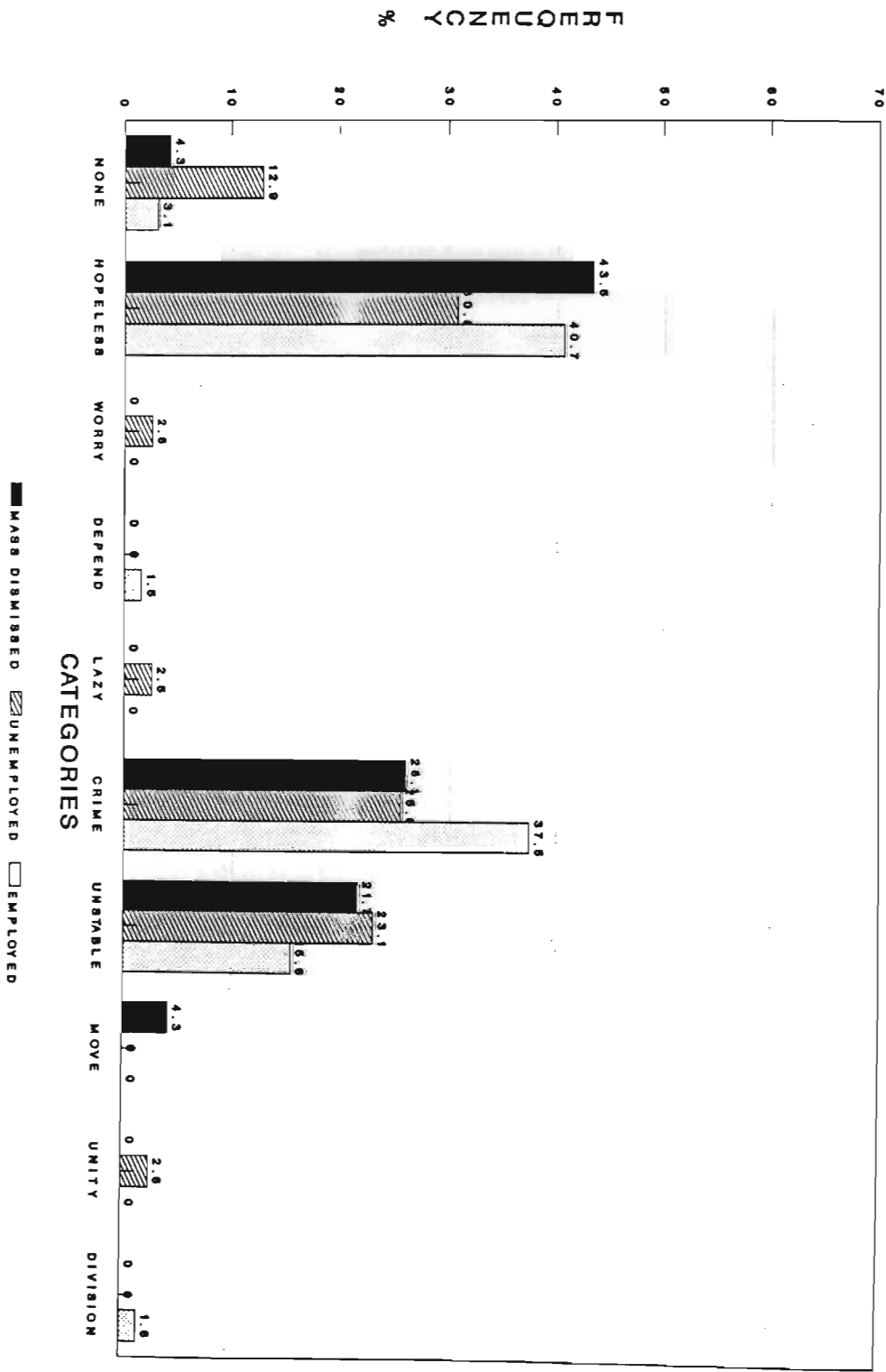
CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None	No significant effect
Hopeless	Feeling depressed/miserable/hopeless/lost dignity
Worry	Feeling desperate/trapped/tense/worried
Depend	More dependent on third parties e.g. Government, Unions, Farmers
Lazy	Increased loafing/laziness
Crime	Increased crime, murder, strikes, drunkenness, violence
Unstable	Increased community instability/people can't run families, schools, hospitals, pay rent, education etc.
Move	Movement (of people) away from Mpophomeni
Unity	Unity in the community/only safe in Mpophomeni
Division	Division within community groups/violence as direct result of unemployment

FIG. 6.47: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" FOR THE
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986



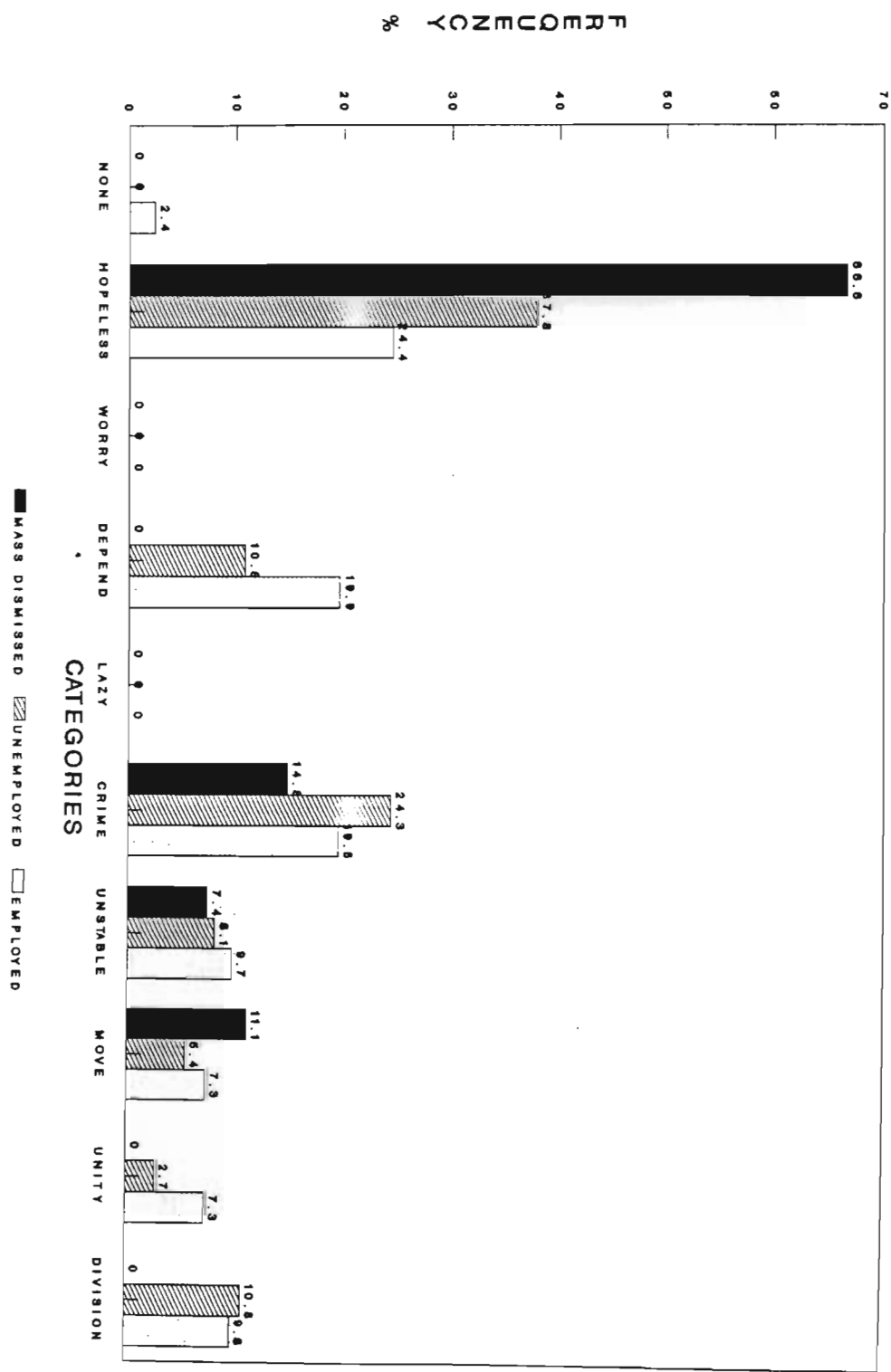
RESPONSE FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON COMMUNITY 1986

FIG. 6.48: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" FOR THE
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987



RESPONSE FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON COMMUNITY 1987

FIG. 6.49: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT ON COMMUNITY" FOR THE
DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992



RESPONSE FOR PERCEIVED
EFFECT ON COMMUNITY 1992

6.3.2 PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING

6.3.2.1 EXAMINATION OF "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" SCORES BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUP AND YEAR

"Perceived community coping" was measured using the following scale (for development see Chapter Five):

- 0 = no response
- 1 = given up all attempts to cope
- 2 = struggling to cope in at least one area
- 3 = coping reasonably - coping in most areas
- 4 = coping in all areas
- 5 = has led to new development

(Note: For purposes of analysis a 0 response was re-coded to 3)

The mean and standard deviations for the "perceived community coping" scores are reported for the entire sample and its breakdown by year and group in Table 6.41. A graphical representation of the means for the three employment status groups across the years of the study are presented in Figure 6.50. With the exception of 1986, in which the mass dismissed individuals indicated that the community was coping better than the other two groups, the difference between the employment status groups in 1987 and 1992 is not great. Worth noting is the drop off in the average scores for 1992, indicating that all the

employment status groups perceived the community as coping less well compared with 1987 and 1986. Referring to Hypothesis 9.7, in which it was predicted that the "perceived community coping" scores would moderate the major stress measures, it is worth noting that this was not found to be the case (Table 6.4).

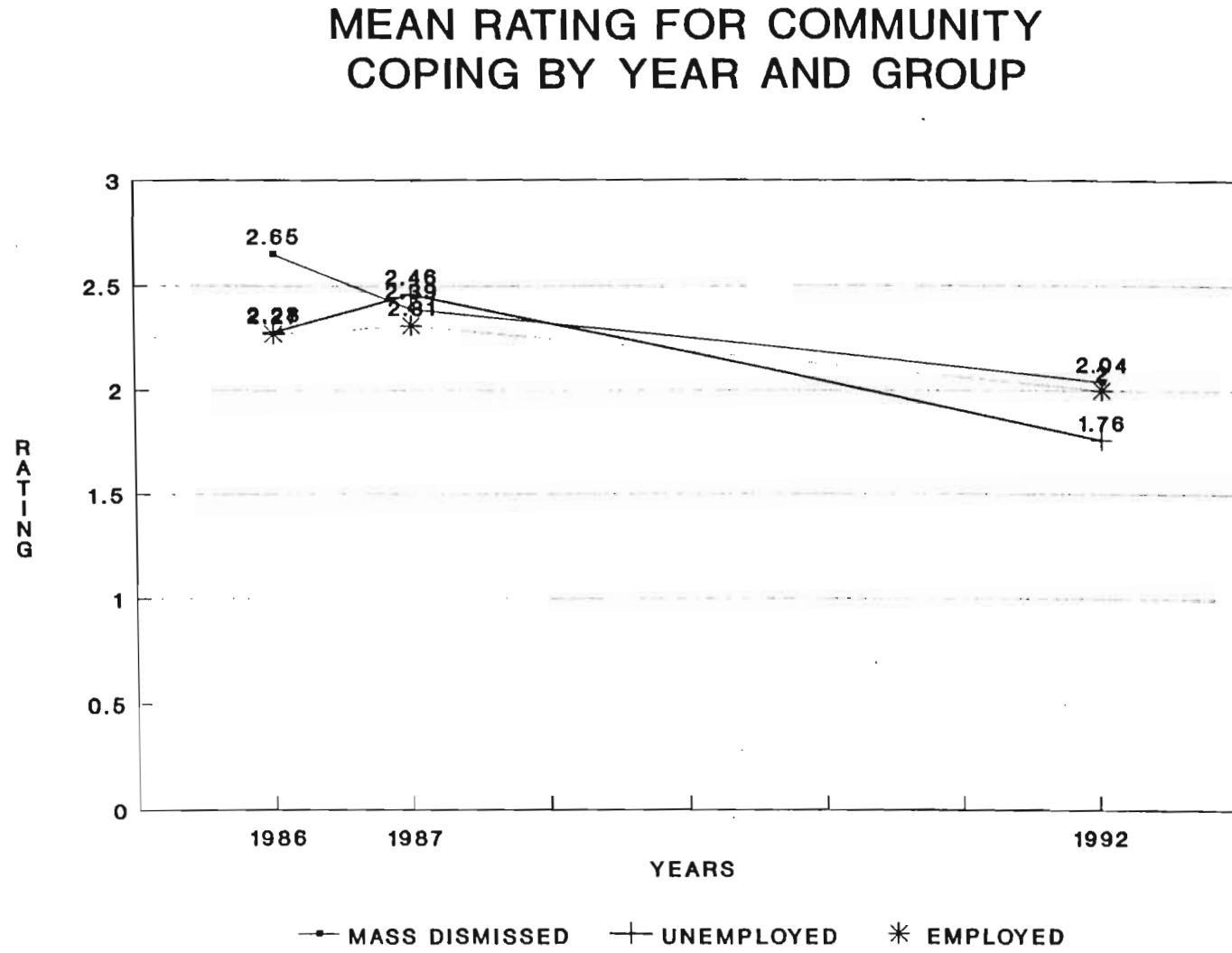
TABLE 6.41 : MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR

Summaries of "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" SCORES
By levels of YEAR
GROUP

Variable	Value	Label	Mean	Std Dev	Cases
For Entire Population			2,235	,745	358
YEAR	1.00	1986 SS	2,354	,822	127
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,654	,690	26
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,282	,857	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,274	,833	62
YEAR	2.00	1987 SS	2,373	,827	126
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,391	,656	23
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	2,462	,884	39
Group	3.00	Employed	2,313	,852	64
YEAR	3.00	1992 SS	1,924	,359	105
Group	1.00	Unemployed/Mass Dism.	2,037	,193	27
Group	2.00	Unemployed/Not Dism.	1,757	,495	37
Group	3.00	Employed	2,000	,224	41

TOTAL N = 358

FIG. 6.50: MEAN "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" SCORES FOR EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS BY YEAR



6.3.2.2 QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING"

The responses to the questions, related to the interviewees' perceptions of the way the community has coped, were categorised into ten categories which are reported in Table 6.42. Histograms of the response frequencies for the three employment status groups across the three years are presented in Figures 6.51, 6.52 and 6.53. In 1986, the majority of the mass dismissed employees reported the community as coping as a consequence of the help it received from a number of community organisations (73.1 %). By contrast, 79,6 % and 61,3 % of the unemployed and employed samples respectively indicated that the community had no means of coping with the situation. In 1987 (Figure 6.52), the trend was quite similar to the previous year with some of the responses being redistributed between "none" and "help". Contrary to this trend in 1992 (Figure 6.53), the number of perceptions being categorised under "none" and "help" reduces significantly to below 10 % in each. Approximately 50 % of each of the categories report fairly positive coping in the sense of the members of the community standing together and caring for each other; an average of about 25 % support from the church, temporary jobs (average 8 %) and working together to create peace rather than violence (average 13 %). There is, however, an increase in the number of individuals who reported that one of the ways in which members of the community have coped was to resort to theft (22 %) for the employed

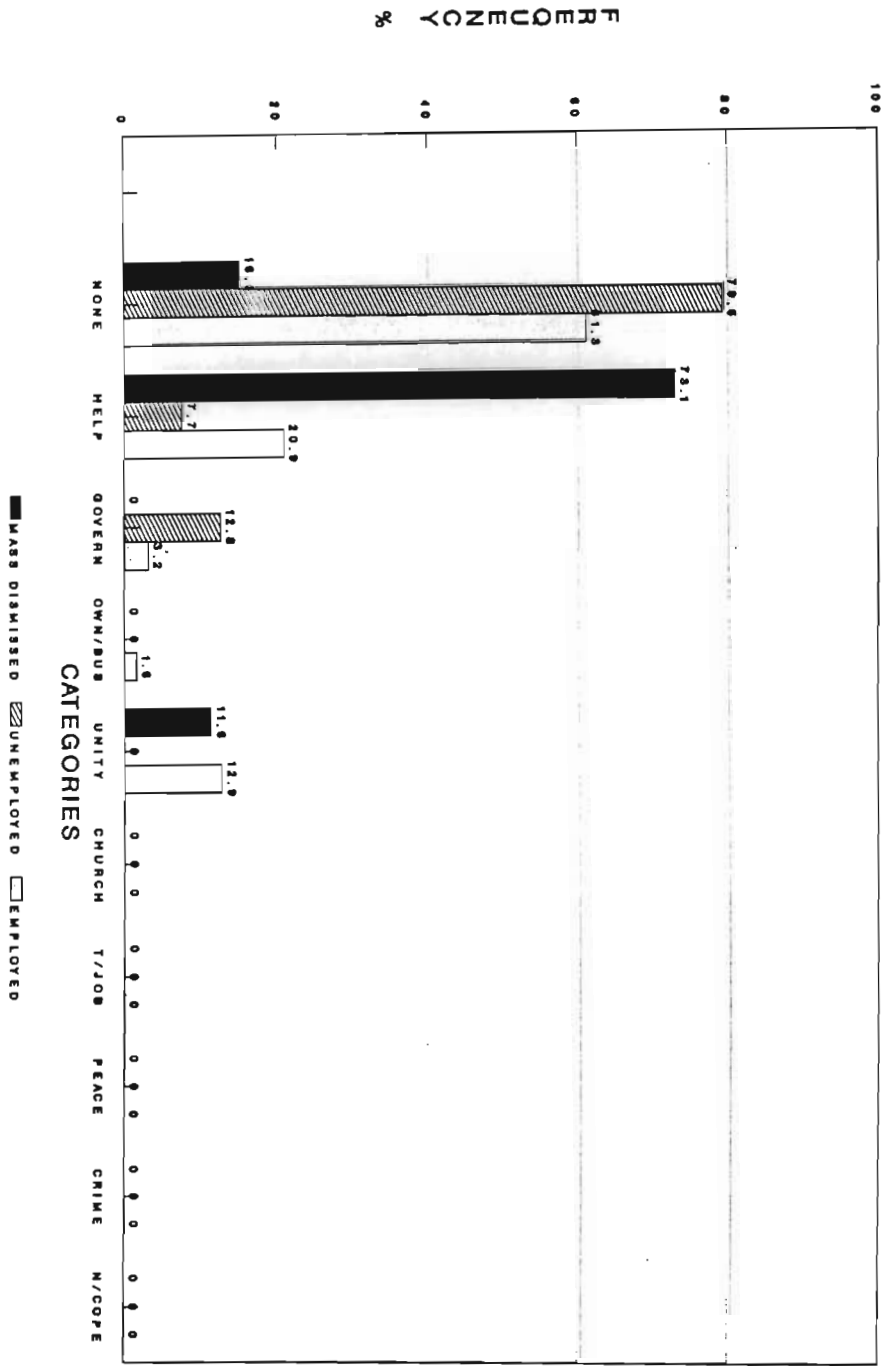
group. In addition, 22,3 % of the mass dismissed and 24,3 % of the unemployed group indicated that the community was not coping and was desperate at that point in time.

TABLE 6.42 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
None	The community has nothing to help them cope/it is not coping!
Help	The community has coped through the help of its own organisations: youth organisation, union, burial association, dress manners club, taxi association, etc.
Govern	It should be assisted by the Government
Own/Bus	People in the community are starting their own businesses
Unity	Members of the community have stood together in the common cause of fighting for their rights and caring for each other
Church	The Church has been important in helping the community to cope
T/Job	Community members are finding temporary jobs to help themselves cope
Peace	The community is working to create its own peace rather than violence
Crime	Even members of this community have resorted to theft in an attempt to cope
N/Hope	The community is not coping and is desperate

FIG. 6.51: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1986

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY COPING 1986



RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY COPING 1987

FIG. 6.52: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT
EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1987

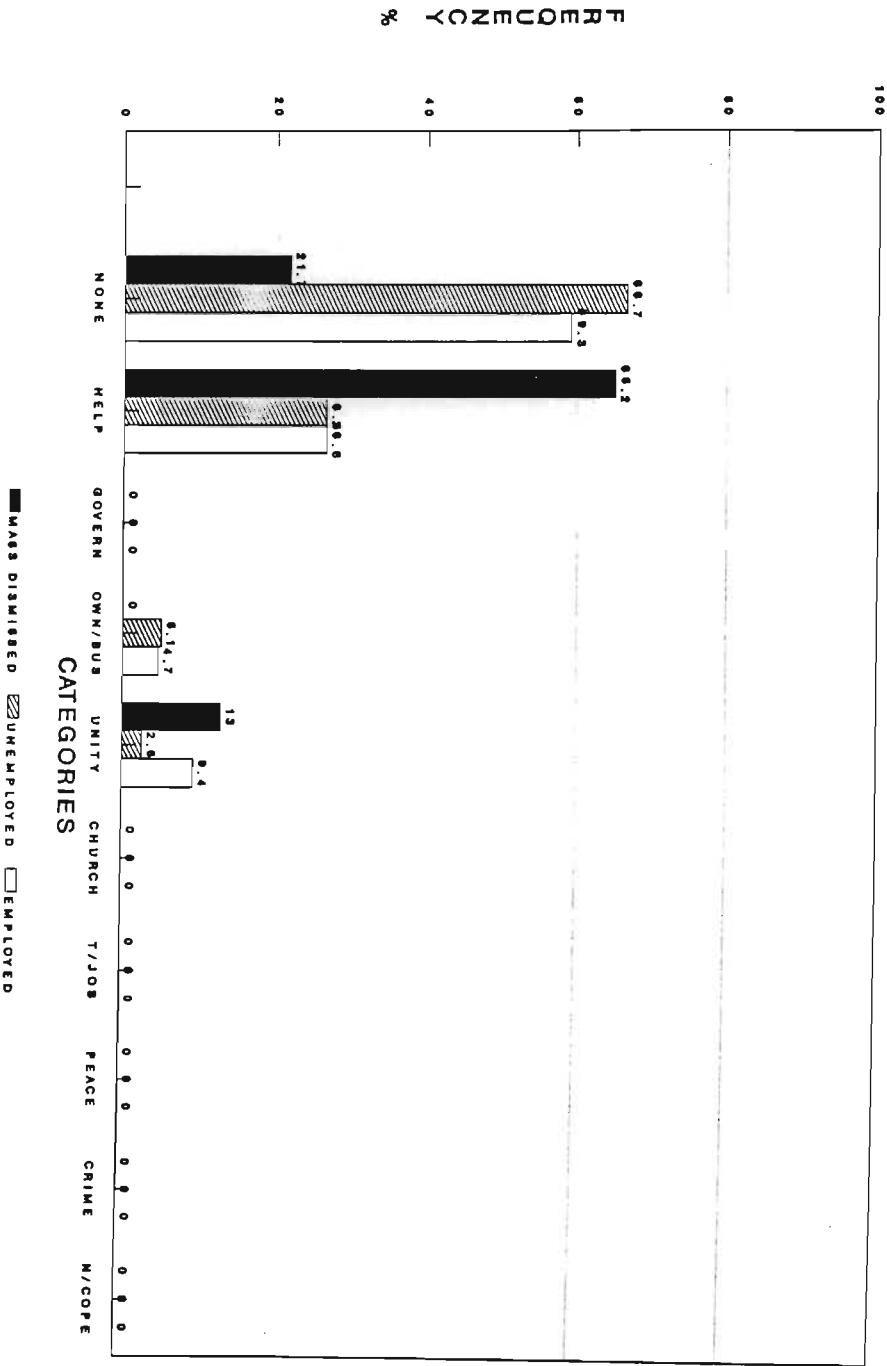
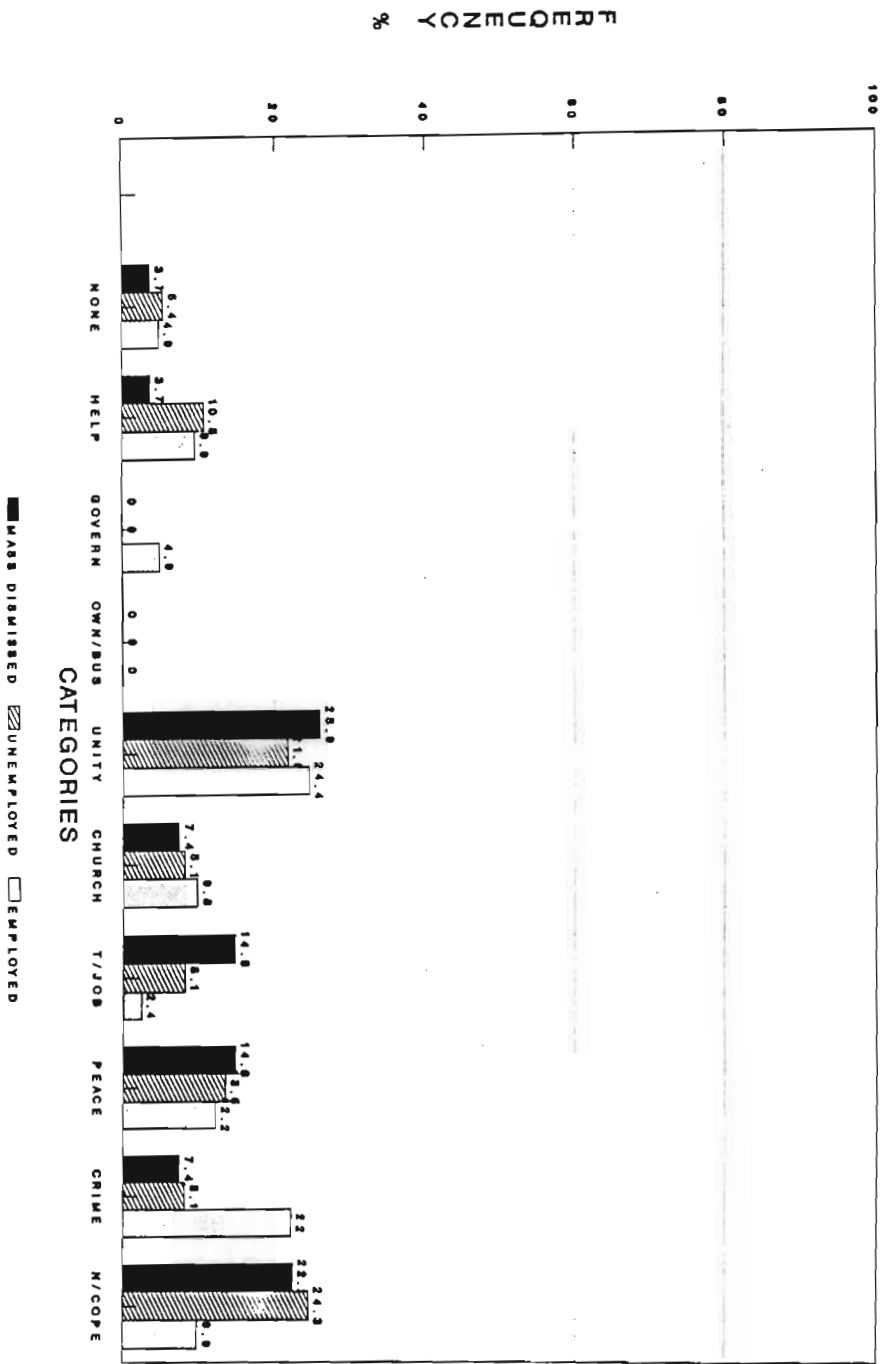


FIG. 6.53: HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING" FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR PERCEIVED
COMMUNITY COPING 1992



6.3.3 VIOLENCE AND THE COMMUNITY

6.3.3.1 EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE COMMUNITY

The response categories for the "perceived effect of violence on the community" are described in Table 6.43 and a histogram of the frequency of these responses is presented in Figure 6.54 for the year 1992. It is worth noting that there is no observable difference between the three employment status groups in the way in which they have responded to this question, with the majority of individuals indicating that the effect was that people have died (mass dismissed = 51,9 %, unemployed 62,2 % and employed 51,2 %). 31 % of the employed group indicated that there had been property stolen and malicious damage in the community and on average about 10 % of all three groups reported that it had resulted in a high degree of mistrust in the community. 11.1 % of the mass dismissed individuals indicated that people had had to leave the township and an interesting result is that 11,1 % of the same group reported that people had become very politicised as a result of the violence.

TABLE 6.43 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON THE COMMUNITY"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Death	Many people have been killed
Property Loss	Much property stolen/houses burnt
Mistrust	Has created a high degree of mistrust
Killings	There has been an increase in revenge killings
Assault	Increase in assault in the township
Politisisation	People are very politicised
Move	People have had to leave the township
N/Effectuated	Did not have a significant effect on the community

6.3.3.2 HOW COMMUNITY HAS COPEd WITH VIOLENCE

The response categories for the community coping with violence are detailed in Table 6.44 and a histogram of the associated response frequencies in Figure 6.55. The majority of the unemployed and employed individuals indicated that the community was coping very poorly with the situation and was in many ways struggling (56,8 % and 56,1 % for unemployed and employed groups respectively). 40,7 % of the mass dismissed individuals also felt that the community was struggling, but it is really interesting to note that 44,4 % of the same group

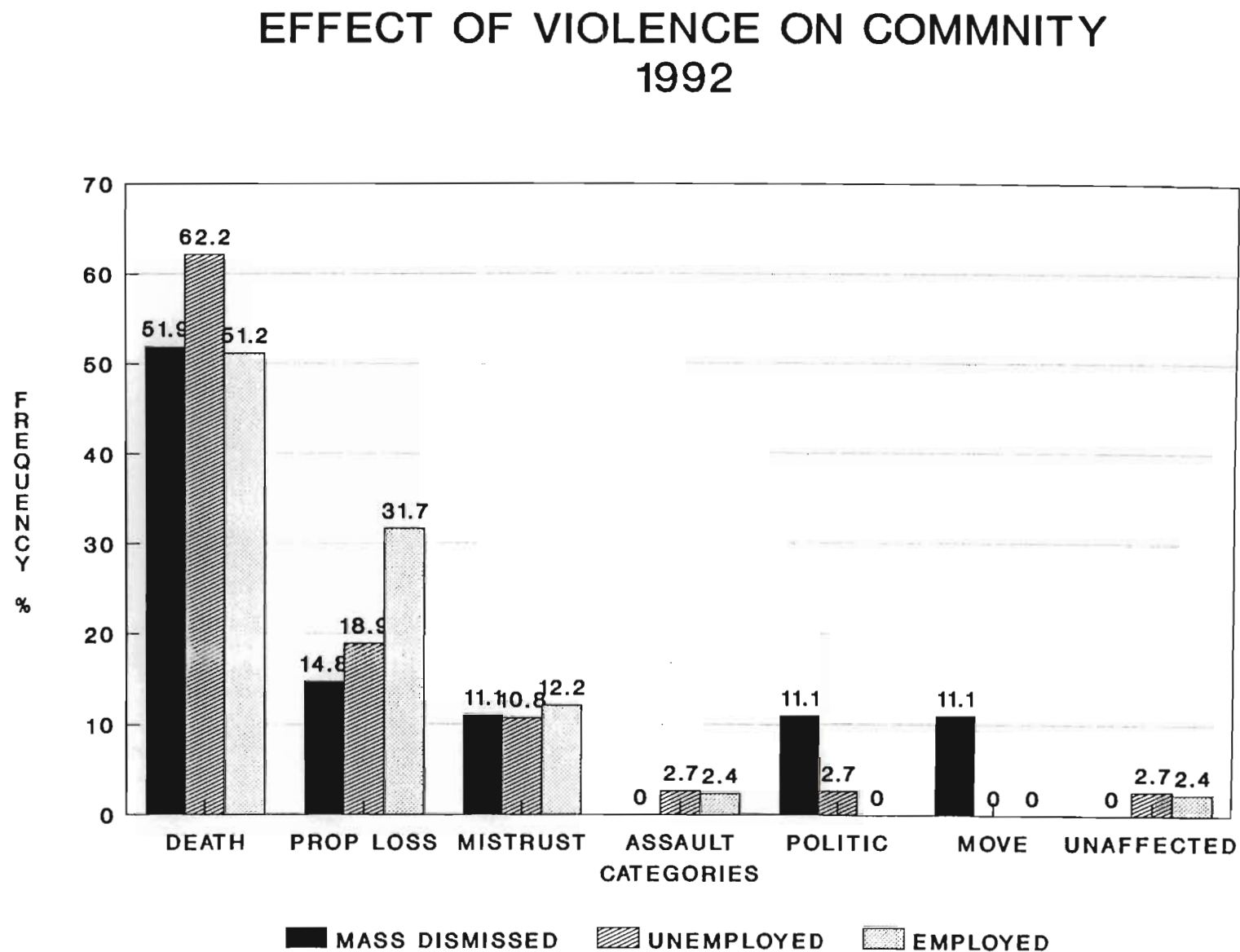
felt that the community had sorted out its problems over time. 24,3 % of the unemployed individuals had also felt that the community was coping successfully compared with 14,6 % of the employed group. An average of around 10 % of the sample said that the community had united to defend itself as a way of coping with the violence.

TABLE 6.44 : RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR "COMMUNITY COPING WITH VIOLENCE"

CATEGORY LABEL	DESCRIPTION
Struggled	Coped very poorly with the situation
Hid Away	The problem people have left
Defend	The community united to defend itself
Peace	Negotiated/Created peace
Coping Well	Have sorted their own problems in time

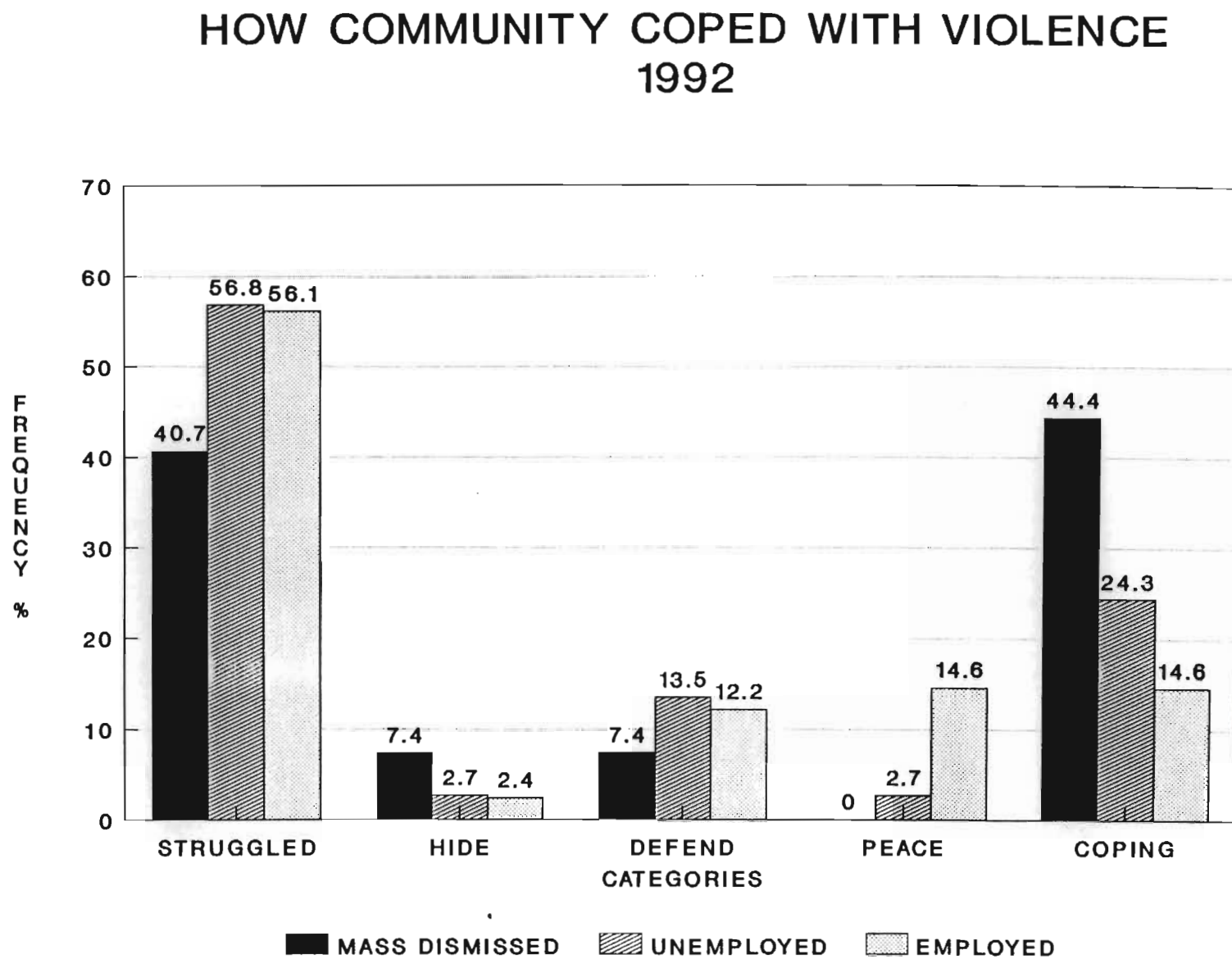
HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
"PERCEIVED EFFECT OF VIOLENCE ON COMMUNITY"
FOR DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

FIG. 6.54:



HISTOGRAM OF RESPONSE CATEGORIES FOR
 "PERCEIVED COMMUNITY COPING WITH VIOLENCE" FOR
 THE DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS GROUPS IN 1992

FIG. 6.55:



CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The research questions are detailed in section 4.2. A key research question was: "Did individuals in the community experience the mass dismissal as stressful for themselves, their family and the community of Mpophomeni as a whole?" The reasons for the individuals experiencing the mass dismissal as stressfull or not were also sought. The major difference between this research project and other research on job loss and unemployment was that the study did not restrict itself just to those individuals who had experienced the job loss, but included other unemployed and employed individuals. Any differences in the way these individuals experienced the mass dismissal were also examined. The relationship between time elapsed since the mass dismissal and stress was also examined by sampling the community on three different occasions over a six year period. The moderating effect of the way individuals coped, the support received from family and community, and a number of other variables was also examined.

In line with the first research question, this discussion will examine the effect of the mass dismissal in terms of the individual, the family and the community.

7.1.1 EFFECTS ON THE INDIVIDUAL

The results of the G.H.Q. indicate that the majority of the individuals sampled from the Mpophomeni community were suffering relatively high degrees of stress. Goldberg (1972) reports that individuals who received a score greater than 5, would be diagnosed as abnormally stressed. An extrapolation of this cut-off point to the population under investigation must be treated with some caution but, nevertheless, does give an indication of the degree of stress experienced by the individuals in Mpophomeni. The results revealed that the majority of individuals experienced an abnormal degree of stress as measured by the G.H.Q. result. The nature of the research design means that one cannot attribute the stress to the mass dismissal or any one particular factor. However, a significant difference was found between the stress experienced by the mass dismissed individuals, compared with others who were employed or unemployed (accept Hypothesis 1a); this would lend support to a relationship existing between the stressor (mass dismissal) and the experience of stress.

A particularly interesting result of the research was that only the employed group of individuals showed a significant increase in their G.H.Q. stress scores

over time. With reference to the Model of Job Loss Stress (Figure 3.1) proposed in Chapter Three, this result could be explained by the appraisal process for these individuals over a period of time. A qualitative analysis of the reasons for these individuals rating themselves as being more negatively affected (section 6.1.2.3) revealed that they were more depressed, stressed and had feelings of hopelessness, but also that finance had become a greater problem compared with five years earlier. The re-appraisal process (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), for a greater number of individuals, was most likely based on a new perception of their environment. This perception is linked, amongst others, to the financial position deteriorating along with the increased number of unemployed individuals and violence in the community. Also of note, were the increasing number of employed individuals who began to feel guilty over time about the situation. This will be explored in more detail in section 7.1.3, in the discussion of the effects of job loss on the community.

The G.H.Q. result was found to be moderated by only two variables, namely the "perceived length of the permanence of unemployment" and the "length of the present or previous unemployment". Although it has

been pointed out that caution must be taken in interpreting these results for statistical reasons, it is worth noting that both of these variables would affect the appraisal process of the individual. The perceived term of the unemployment is unique in this study in that it was affected by the majority of the respondents' perceptions of the outcome of the legal dispute between the mass dismissed individuals and their employers.

A somewhat surprising result was that "perceived personal coping" did not moderate the "perceived effects of the mass dismissal" at an individual, family or community level. Perhaps the major reason for this was that a large number of the individuals had either given up all attempts to cope or were struggling to cope (see Sections 6.1.3.1 and 6.1.3.2). A qualitative evaluation of the personal coping mechanisms used by the group revealed that they did not have any way of coping or were reliant upon outside, third party aid. However, over time, the reliance on third parties such as unions or community organisations decreased with the individuals becoming more reliant on their spouses and families for support. This lends support for a move away from a instrumental coping mechanism to a palliative coping

mechanism (Lazarus, 1978). During the initial few years, the mass dismissed individuals spent time involved in union related activities such as gaining support for their cause and the workers co-operative. Although these activities still continue some seven years after the mass dismissal, the amount of effort spent on them has reduced significantly. The fact that in 1992, 88,9% of the mass dismissed employees relied either on outside aid or their spouses to cope is indicative of a shift towards an external locus of control (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985). This is also most likely linked to some form of re-appraisal of the way they were coping as a consequence of their reduced involvement in union activities.

Although family and community support was not found to moderate the relationship between the potential stressor of job loss and experienced stress, the majority of the subjects reported that support from both these areas was important. Although there was not much difference between the employment status groups in their perception of family support, there was an increase in the perceived support from 1986/1987 to 1992. The qualitative analysis of the type of support received indicated that emotional and financial support became increasingly more important

over time to the majority of the respondents. An interesting result was that for the mass dismissed individuals, the number of individuals reporting their family staying together dropped from 46,2% in 1986 to 11,1% in 1992. It is doubtful whether this result is a consequence of "reversed buffering" (Larocco and Jones, 1978) reported in section 3.3.3.4 because individuals reported themselves to be quite desperate.

Community support was seen to be more important for mass dismissed individuals compared with the other employment status groups. Although the community support for all the groups increased between 1986 and 1992, the mass dismissed individuals' reliance on support from the union decreased dramatically from 69,2% in 1986 to 29,6% in 1992. This result is understandable considering that in 1986 and 1987 a lot of time and energy was extended in preparation for and the attendance of an industrial court case concerning the mass dismissal.

A contextual variable that must have had some bearing on the case was the violence within the community during the period of the research. All groups experienced an increase in anxiety and fear, vandalised property and the number of instances of

physical violation. Most of the respondents indicated that they had coped very poorly with the violence and, consequently, felt that they were in a state of panic or that they had to take some form of avoidance action, such as leaving the township for a period of time. As mentioned in the introduction, one of the consequences of the mass dismissal for the community was that the Company began hiring new employees from a different political affiliation to those of the dismissed employees. A number of newly-hired employees and massed dismissed employees were killed in 1986 and 1987 as a consequence of the conflict between the two groups, and this incident was the trigger to the commencement of the violence in Natal which began at the same time.

7.1.1.2 EFFECTS ON THE FAMILY

The results show quite clearly that the mass dismissal had a "perceived negative effect on the family". The mass dismissed individuals perceived the effect to be worse than the other employment status groups (Hypothesis 5a accepted). No significant difference was found between the "perceived negative impact of the mass dismissal on the family" and the length of time elapsed since the event (except Hypothesis 6o). Although a number of the co-variates moderated the

relationship between the "perceived effect on family" and the major independent variables, this was attributed more to a statistical artifact than any real effect. The qualitative analysis of the "perceived effect on family" painted a picture of increasing hopelessness reaching almost desperation for the families with finances becoming a major concern. A significant number of mass dismissed individuals indicated that the serious financial predicament in which their families found themselves had led to malnourishment. Respondents also indicated that one of the consequences was increased tension in marital and extended family relationships. Perhaps the most important result in this section was that the majority of the families in the study had been negatively affected by the mass dismissal as indicated by Liem and Liem (1988). Most studies of job loss exclude effects on family and community and yet, as reported in the study, the psychological suffering of the family is an additional stressor for the respondent no matter what his/her employment status. This situation is further exacerbated in South Africa by the lack of social support in the form of financial aid for the unemployed. The extent of the financial difficulties experienced by families in Mpophomeni can be seen by examining the Minimum Living

Level for the area. A Minimum Living Level (M.L.L) is an indication of the absolute minimum household income necessary to maintain the most basic standards of health and hygiene, and may be used to determine those households subsisting at a "poverty level" (Padayachee, 1985). In 1986, 69,1 % of the households in Mpophomeni fell below the M.L.L. and in 1987, 78,2% of the households were in the same position. Although figures were not available for the 1992 situation, an extrapolation of the 1987 position, taking into account inflation, would indicate that the households were most likely in a worse off position in 1992. Quite clearly impoverishment of the households in the community was a major variable and most likely it added to the subsequent experience of stress.

The employed group rated their families as coping marginally more effectively than the mass dismissed and unemployed groups. The situation deteriorated with time as the families became more dependent on the community's goodwill and support groups such as the church for assistance. The research clearly paints a picture of the community's families struggling to cope with the situation.

The violence had a significant effect on the family

with almost 20% of the sample reporting a death of an immediate family member since the mass dismissal. Again the research indicated that the families most predominant response to how they cope with violence was that they weren't coping and, in fact, were struggling.

7.1.3 EFFECT ON THE COMMUNITY

The "perceived effect on the community" received the most negative scores compared with the other variables assessed. Virtually no individuals rated the impact on the community as having no effect or a positive effect. The difference between the years over which the study was conducted, was found to be not significant (accept Hypothesis 8o). No difference was found between the employment status groups except in 1992 (Hypothesis 7a accepted for 1992 sample only). The only variable that had a moderating effect on the relationship was the period of previous and present employment. The qualitative analysis of the "perceived effects on the community" revealed that all three employment status groups reported the effect on the community as being hopeless and that over time, with increased violence, the situation had worsened with

the community becoming increasingly unstable. Both the qualitative and quantitative analyses of the perceptions of the community of the way in which the community was coping, revealed that the community was struggling to cope and there was no great difference between the various employment status groups in that perception. Over time the situation was perceived to be getting worse. An unexpected result was that in 1992, although the community was perceived as not coping as well, it was at the same time perceived as working together. A perception linked to the way they saw the individual coping with violence was that the community had, over a period of time, sorted out its problems and there was more unity. This might well be linked to the fact that many individuals, who were potentially in conflict with the majority of individuals in the community, had left the community. A pattern emerging in the violence in the Natal Midlands has been that the political groupings over the last four years have divided themselves into politically homogeneous areas (Moller, 1990).

In essence, the effect of the mass dismissal on the community could be described as devastating given

the geographical isolation of the community and its dependence upon Howick as a market for its labour. Thus it is understandable that the mass dismissal would have a significant negative effect on the community. To this degree the mass dismissal has provided an ideal opportunity to study the interactive relationship between a work organisation (Sarmcol) and the community from which it drew a large portion of its labour force (Mpophomeni). Quite clearly, when this relationship is terminated the impact on the community is significant.

7.2 IMPLICATIONS OF THE RESULTS

Most studies have failed to take the context of the community of the individual who has experienced job loss into consideration. This study has demonstrated that the inclusion of an examination of the impact of the community provides valuable insight into the stress experience of the individual. Quite clearly, variables like poverty, the general level of unemployment and the physical location of the community will play a role in the individuals' appraisal of the job loss as a potential stressor.

The study has shown that the individuals' perception of the family situation can lead to a more succinct understanding of the individuals' experience of stress. The majority of

individuals experienced their families as being under particular stress as a result of the mass dismissal and this directly or indirectly had a potential influence on their personal experience of stress. With reference to the proposed Model of Job Loss Stress (Figure 3.1), quite clearly the characteristics of family and community are important in the stressor appraisal process and warrant further examination.

An examination of the effects of the mass dismissal over a period of time was useful in that the study demonstrates the impact of the changing nature of conditions and the appraisal process which individuals undertake. An interesting and somewhat surprising outcome of the research was the effect the mass dismissal had on those individuals who were employed. Research has been carried out to examine the effect on job survivors (those individuals who are left behind in an organisation after a retrenchment exercise). These studies have been limited to organisational job survivors, but the study has shown that there were "community" job survivors and that they were directly affected by the mass dismissal. It is quite possible that this effect was enhanced as a result of collective consciousness of morality, respect and consideration for one's neighbour before one's self. This has been referred to as "Ubuntu" (Mbigi, 1993). This

could well account for some of the feelings of guilt experienced by those individuals who were employed and their perceived responsibility for doing something about those individuals in the community who were suffering. This could well be a variable affecting the appraisal process for the community job survivors.

The relationship between the organisation or industry and a community is often taken for granted. This study has shown the consequences of this relationship being dramatically severed for the individuals and community involved. It has not focused on the effects within the organisation which is another significant area of investigation. As Mpophomeni is a somewhat geographically isolated community, it is dependent to a large extent on employment from local industry. The implications of the break in this relationship were shown to be serious. This has implications for a number of "border industries" in South Africa which have been set up with suitable incentives to industrialists to build factories nearer the rural or semi-urban environments. The study demonstrates the danger of the community becoming reliant on one particular organisation.

Quite clearly, the Model of Job Loss proposed in Chapter Three (Figure 3.1) has been useful in attempting to

understand some of the results of this investigation. Besides those already discussed, some examples of the model's usefulness are:

- (i) The coping mechanisms used by the mass dismissed individuals to deal with the job loss were clearly moderated by the pending outcome of the legal dispute. The consequence was an over-reliance on instrumental coping with the individuals attempting to change the situation through legal action. This was also reinforced by the creation of a number of community based organisations which gave some individuals employment and limited income and assisted in the process of preparing for the legal dispute. This delayed the palliative coping almost to the extent of emotional blocking taking place. It is worth noting that some of the mass dismissed individuals still see themselves as employees some eight years after the dismissal took place (demonstrating an over-reliance on instrumental coping mechanisms).
- (ii) Another example, as indicated in stage 5 of the model, was the relationship between the way in which the individual had coped with an actual stressor and the stress outcome. It was predicted that the stress outcome could become more negative over a period of time due to a number of chronic symptoms such as

physiological or psychological health. These chronic symptoms, if combined with other potential stressors, could lead to changes in the appraisal phase of this stress process. In line with studies by Cohen (1978) and Feather and Davenport (1971), this study supports the fact that the relationship between psychological impact and job loss is modified where an external source is perceived to be responsible for the job loss. Although some individuals indicated that they felt that the Government could solve their problems rather than management at this point in time, the result is still reinforced. Similarly, the predictions made in Section 3.2.2 concerning the possibility of learned helplessness being a consequence of a failure to reinstate the mass dismissed workers, will persist until an outcome of the court case is obtained. Research results have shown that secondary appraisal in the case of job loss or unemployment normally occurs within a short period of time, up to six months (Cook et al, 1982: Warr and Jackson, 1984). In the case of this research the secondary appraisal did not occur as soon as previous studies, the reason being the delay in the outcome in the legal resolution of the dispute. Consequently, the expectation of regaining control of the situation as an outcome of the court action persisted.

One of the significant implications of the research was the clear exposition of the devastating effects of prolonged, unresolved legal disputes around labour issues in a society in which there is no financial or social support and many individuals are living close to poverty.

Mass dismissal, as a method of resolving conflicts, is quite clearly unacceptable. The consequences of it in our society have been made explicit.

Community organisations did play a role in the dispute although their role diminished over time.

7.3 METHODOLOGICAL AND THEORETICAL CRITIQUE

The extent to which the results of the study can be generalised is affected by a number of factors which will be discussed.

7.3.1 MEASURES

The use of self-report has been criticised by Feather (1990) in that such measures are subject to consistency pressures which lead respondents to present a consistent view of how they feel and what they do, despite the fact that there may be inconsistencies in their thoughts and actions. Obviously, the understanding and interpretation of the

questions asked can vary from one respondent to another and will also be modified by ego-defence processes. Ideally, behavioural and other types of information should have been obtained to increase the convergent validity of the study (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). For the reasons found in Chapter Five, this was practically difficult given risks of researchers being in the township. The structured interview should also have been subjected to more rigorous psychometric item analysis before being used in the research.

However, self-report measures had a specific advantage in the study because the Model of Job Loss Stress proposed in Chapter Three was primarily based around the "individual evaluation" of the potential stressor. Further support for self-report measures has been provided by Kyriacou (1987); in writing in the area of teacher stress, he proves that self-report measures are more useful than physiological or behavioural measures in that they provide an "unequivocal objective measure of stress" (p.147). He further argues that such measures are able to control for large, individual differences and the way in which they interact with other factors.

The G.H.Q. was used because it is psychometrically respectable, with satisfactory reliability and validity. However, its validity and reliability have

not been conclusively tested in South Africa. Some of the questions in the questionnaire could have been more carefully formulated to enable a more clear interpretation / evaluation by the respondent and encoder.

A difficulty in cross-cultural research occurs when an instrument needs to be translated into another language because the meaning of some of the questions may be altered. To overcome this, the questionnaire was translated into Zulu and then that Zulu version was re-translated by a second party back into English to determine whether the meaning of the questions had been altered. The distribution of the G.H.Q. scores was not a perfect, normal curve and, as mentioned in Chapter Five, this had the effect of making it more difficult to draw conclusions, particularly concerning the effects of the moderators on the main variables.

7.3.2 SAMPLE

The sample size was adequate to assume that the results were representative of the township of Mpophomeni, but the degree to which it is representative of a typical South African township is questionable. The demographics of Mpophomeni are

similar to other Natal townships (Bromberger and Bhamjee, 1987; Moller, 1990). However, it is different in that it is more geographically isolated and the residents were to a large degree dependent upon one factory for employment. With this exception, it could be said that this township would be representative of Natal, but cannot be generalised to the whole of South Africa.

The degree to which the effects of the job loss can be extrapolated to other townships in South Africa, is also affected by the peculiar, close relationship between a single factory and a community. However, this very unusual relationship provided an ideal opportunity to examine the psychological effects of job loss.

7.3.3. SUBJECT EXPECTANCY

The results of this study may well have been influenced by the respondents' knowledge that they were participating in a research project in which the outcome could have a direct or indirect effect on their well-being. The study could have been seen as an opportunity for individuals to express their dissatisfaction with the mass dismissal of the BTR Sarmcol workers. The effects of Subject Expectancy

were very likely not that great because of the respondents naivety in social research and the fact that the researchers took a number of steps to ensure that the research was seen to be a study of the general effects of unemployment rather than limited specifically to Sarmcol. It will be noted that the questionnaire does not specifically ask subjects whether they were one of the individuals dismissed from Sarmcol in 1985.

Experimenter effects were minimized in that the researcher was not directly involved in the data collection.

7.3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

Due to practical limitations, it was not possible to have the measures repeated on the same sample across the number of years over which the study extended. Three different samples had to be taken which limited the potential effects of the moderator variables and a more careful analysis of the " stressor appraisal process " over time (see Fig. 3.1).

Not all of the possible contextual variables were taken into account; as emerged from the results, some

measures of the cultural values associated with work and relationships in the community ("Ubuntu") would have been useful. As is often the case in field research, the study was not able to determine clear causal relationships between the variables. However, the design went some way towards consolidating a model for the stress associated with job loss; this could be useful as a basis for further research.

7.3.5 CONTEXTUAL VARIABLES

The study has focused on the interactive relationship between the individual and his/her environment and more specifically, the effect of job loss as the environmental change (potential stressor) and the individual's perception of its effects on self, family and community. The potential effect of the previous place of employment (for unemployed individuals) and present organisation (for employed individuals) has not formed a part of this study. The effect of the work organisation has been found to be a variable moderating the effects of unemployment (O'Brien, 1986) and could well have been a further variable which might have moderated these results. Referring to Warr's (1987) Vitamin model, the present study did not take into account three features which could have also moderated the relationship between job loss and

stress. These variables were:

- * generally externally generated goals; the degree to which environments provide opportunities for the exercise and development of competence and skill;
- * externally generated goals; the extent to which environments generate goals and task demands, enabling individuals to have a sense of purpose and to be actively motivated;
- * environmental clarity; the degree to which the environment provides clear feedback about the consequence of actions, has some degree of predictability and has explicit, normative expectations about what is appropriate behaviour;

By identifying these variables, one might have been able to have a more clear understanding of the specific effects of the violence and the broader socio-political change (Radford and Rigby, 1986) on the results of the study.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DEALING WITH THE EFFECTS OF JOB

LOSS/MASS DISMISSAL

7.4.1. LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The study shows the devastating effects of an abnormally high rate of unemployment on the community.

Quite clearly, at a national level, the present and any future South African Government should consider the effects of policy on overall levels of unemployment in the country. It is also apparent that the nature of work and organisation is changing (Wood, 1989). Within South Africa this is most clearly seen in the rapid growth of an informal employment sector in which individuals are entrepreneurs with their own businesses. The fact that our education systems at school and post school levels are designed to equip the individual for organisational employment and creates expectations that, having attained an education, there is every likelihood of employment. At a national educational level consideration needs to be given to those skills required for self-employment.

7.4.2. STRESS REDUCTION

There is clearly a place for stress reduction interventions which would assist individuals in palliative coping with the psychological consequences of job loss. The researcher was involved in assisting to set up such interventions in Mpophomeni, but it is worth noting that they were not all well received, primarily because the individuals were waiting for reinstatement or compensation for job loss

(instrumental coping) or indicated that what they needed was financial assistance before receiving psychological help. This is most likely also linked to their perception that psychological help was, to some degree, a luxury when their families were starving.

7.4.3. FAMILY SUPPORT

Interventions to assist families cope with the internal conflict and role shift associated with job loss could be most valuable. The research has shown that this intervention should not just be limited to those families in which there are unemployed, but should also include the families in which breadwinners are employed. The research showed that the degree to which the family was perceived to be of support was dependent on the way in which the family handled its internal conflict as a result of emotional distress linked to unemployment. This result confirms some of the limited, previous research done on the effects on the family (Atkinson et al, 1986; Liem and Liem, 1988).

7.4.4. ORGANISATIONAL MANAGEMENT SKILLS

The research has shown that the potential usefulness of some of the community organisations established, to

give both financial reward and some control of the environment and the possibility of these being potential moderators of the effects of the job loss, might have been improved by the development of the appropriate management and organisational skills.

7.4.5. LABOUR-MANAGEMENT CONFLICT RESOLUTION

It is worth considering that the cause of the job loss was, in the first place, the unresolved conflict between the management of BTR Sarmcol and the Metal and Allied Workers' Union who represented their employees. In addition, job loss was the consequence of the failure of the labour relations system in South Africa to resolve this conflict. The adversarial approach adopted by the legal representatives of the parties most likely forced them into a win-lose situation which resulted in the mass dismissal. Mediation would have been a far more effective way of resolving the conflict with both parties' interests being met.

7.4.6. MASS DISMISSAL

The study shows that the effects of mass dismissal, in an environment in which the unemployment rate is already relatively high, are serious not only for the individuals dismissed, but for their community as a

whole. It is recommended that, in line with other western world countries, consideration be given to a statute which protects employees from collective redundancy.

7.5. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The study has demonstrated that in examining the psychological effect of job loss, careful attention needs to be paid to both the personal characteristics of the unemployed persons and the environments in which they exist. The appraisal process, examined in the Model of Job Loss represented in Chapter Three, needs to be explored further to determine the kinds of situational and personal factors affecting the responses to job loss. Consequently, a move away from static conceptions about job loss and unemployment to dynamic views which examine the reactions of the jobless over periods of time, is critical to our understanding of the appraisal process.

Community Organisations

The effect of community and social institutions on the psychological effects of job loss needs to be investigated further, so that their usefulness as potential moderators of the stressor can be

determined; thereby improving the effectiveness of interventions.

Effect on Family and Community

This study has shown that the effects on the family and community are important. International research in this area has been very limited and is an obvious area for future exploration. If this exploration was combined with questions like " Under which conditions is unemployment followed by a sense of injustice, alienation from society, anti-social behaviour ? ", it is quite possible that this information could change governments' policy in a number of areas. Therefore, future research needs to take into account the wider impact of job loss rather than limiting it to the individuals concerned. As was shown in this study, the personal and social cost of job loss can be massive and not limited to the individual, but can spread to the family and entire community.

Moderator Variables

Those variables which moderate the relationship between job loss as a potential stressor and stress experience need to be carefully identified and appropriate stress reduction interventions developed. The effectiveness of systematic stress reduction

interventions which attempt to modify the environment, as well as develop flexible, palliative coping skills, needs to be empirically evaluated. Future research should also include physiological measures (eg. blood pressure and heart rate) of the effects of stress.

7.6 CONCLUSION

This study set out to examine the psychological effects of mass dismissal on the individuals of the community of Mpophomeni. Although a significant difference in the experience of stress was found between those individuals who were mass dismissed and the other employment status groups in the community, of particular interest was the fact that the effects of such extensive job loss was not limited to those individuals who had lost their jobs. This research project revealed that the impact of the mass dismissal extended to the majority of households in the community. The psychological effects of the mass dismissal were found to be extremely serious, with such high levels of stress that even a number of variables which might normally be expected to moderate the relationship between stressor (job loss) and stress, were not found to be of significant influence.

The study has demonstrated that the social psychological effects of mass dismissal can be both widespread and devastating throughout a community. The major methodological implication of this study is that research into the psychological effects of job loss, or even unemployment in general, should not be limited to the breadwinners of the families affected. Quite clearly, there is still much scope for further research into this area of study.

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APPENDIX

JOB LOSS QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF NATAL

	SARMCOL	EX-SARMCOL	OTHER
EMPLOYED			
UNEMPLOYED			

Schedule No:

Person interviewed, (preferably head but at least an adult).

1. General Household Information

1.1 Name:

1.2 Age: Sex:

1.3 Position in household:

1.4 Are you:
(1) married (2) divorced (3) living together (4) widowed
(5) never married?

1.5 How often are you present in this house? (1) daily (2) over weekends (3) once a month (4) once a year (5) other, please explain.

1.6 Other members of the household:

[illegible]

2. Details of Work History

2.1 Are you employed? Yes/No

2.2 For Employed People Only

2.2.1 Is your job full-time or part-time?

2.2.2 How many hours a day do you work? How many days a week?

2.2.3 Where?

2.2.4 How long have you worked there?

2.2.5 What do you do?

2.2.6 Do you enjoy your job?
Why/Why not?

2.2.7 What do you earn there?

2.2.8 Do you think that your wage is fair?
Why?

2.3 For Unemployed People Only

2.3.1 If unemployed, have you ever been employed before?

2.3.2 If you were employed before, where were you employed?

2.3.13 Did you work for BTR SARMCOL?

2.3.3 If you have not been employed before, why not?

2.3.4 Was your job full-time or part-time?

2.3.41 How many hours a day did you work?

2.3.42 How many days a week did you work?

2.3.5 What did you do there?

2.3.6 Did you enjoy your job?

2.3.7 How much did you earn?

2.3.8 Did you think that your wage was fair?
Why?

2.3.9 For how long had you worked there before you left?

2.3.10 Why did you leave?

2.3.11 Have you looked for work in the last 30 days?

2.3.12 Have you worked for 5 hours or more in the last 7 days?
How long? For whom?
How much were you paid?

2.3.13 When did you last try and look for work?

2.4 To be Answered by Everyone

2.4.1 How many jobs have you had in the last ¹⁰ years?

2.4.2 Why did you leave them?

2.4.3 Are you looking for work now? Yes/No

2.4.4 What sort of work?

2.4.5 Where are you looking?

2.4.6 Would you work for less than you earn now, or less than you earned
when you were employed?

2.4.7 If you are not looking for work, why not?

3.0 General Education (to be answered by everyone)

3.1.1 For how many years did you go to school?

3.1.2 What was the last standard you were in?

3.1.3 Why did you leave school?

3.1.4 Have you had any other form of training or schooling?

3.1.5 What was it?

3.1.6 Where did you do it?

3.1.7 Would you like to learn anything else?

3.1.8 What would you like to learn?

3.1.9 Do you or your family do anything that brings in money?

3.1.91 If so, what is it?

Please tell us about it as fully as possible so that we know what it is you do.

3.2 Have any of your household left school in the last ^{seven}~~two~~ years?

3.2.1 How old were they?

3.2.3 Why did they leave school?

3.2.4 Would you have liked them to continue if it had been possible?
Please tell us about it:

4.0 Feelings About Unemployment (for unemployed people only)

4.1.1 If you are unemployed, could you please tell me how you felt when you lost your job?

4.1.2 Did you see it as permanent or short-term?

4.1.3 What did you do immediately?

4.1.4 Did you at any stage get money from U.I.F.?

4.1.41 If so, how much? and for how long?

4.1.5 Did you or your family get any other help after you lost your job?
Please explain:

4.1.6 Have you or your household received aid in the form of food parcels, health aid, or any other assistance since you have been employed?

4.2.1 How has being unemployed affected you personally?

4.2.2 How has being unemployed affected your family?

4.2.3 When you lost your job how did you feel?

4.2.31 After 3 months how did you feel?

4.2.32 And after 6 months?

4.2.33 How do you feel now?

4.2.4 What does your household do to manage?

5.0 Community Feeling (to be answered by all)

5.1.1 Do you know of any organisations within the Mpophemeni community?

5.1.2 Do you belong to any of these community organisations?
Could you tell us which ones?

5.1.3 Do you think any of these organisations have helped you or your
community in the last two years? Which ones and how?

5.1.4 If you do belong to any organisations, do you attend meetings
regularly?

5.1.5 Are you active in any organisation/s?

5.1.6 If so, what do you do?

5.1.7 Do you think that these organisations are important for the
community?

5.1.8 If so, why?

5.1.81 If not, why?

5.1.9 Do you see Mpophomeni as an united community?

5.2.0 Do you feel you belong here?

5.2.1 Where were you born?

5.2.2 Where did you go to school?

5.2.3 How long have you lived in the Howick area?

5.2.31 Where did you live before?

5.2.4 How long have you lived in Mpophomeni?

5.2.5 Why did you come to Mpophomeni?

5.2.6 If you could leave would you?

Why would you want to leave?

Why would you want to stay?

5.2.7 Are there any prospects of jobs in the area?

5.2.8 Do you think anything could be done to create employment in this area?

5.2.9 Why have others left Mpophomeni in the last few years?

5.2.9 If so, what would you like to see being done?

5.3.0 How has unemployment affected the Mpophomeni community?

6.0 Health (to be answered by everyone)

6.1.1 What are health facilities like in this area?

6.1.2 Do you use these facilities?

6.1.3 If you do not, why?

If you do, why?

6.1.4 Do you feel that you have used the health facilities for you and your family more often recently than you did in the past?

6.2 To be answered by all

- (1) Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?
Yes/No
- (2) Have you recently lost much sleep over worry? Yes/No
- (3) Have you recently felt that you are playing a useful part in things?
Yes/No
- (4) Have you recently felt that you are capable of making decisions about things? Yes/No
- (5) Have you recently felt constantly under strain? Yes/No
- (6) Have you recently felt that you could'nt overcome your difficulties?
Yes/No
- (7) Have you been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?
Yes/No
- (8) Have you recently been able to face up to your problems? Yes/No
- (9) Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed? Yes/No
- (10) Have you been losing confidence in yourself? Yes/No
- (11) Have you been thinking of yourself as a worthless person? Yes/No
- (12) Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered? Yes/No
- (13) Have you been managing to keep yourself busy and occupied? Yes/No
- (14) Have you been getting out of the house as much as usual? Yes/No
- (15) Have you been feeling that on the whole you were doing things well?
Yes/No
- (16) Have you been satisfied with the way you carried out your job?
Yes/No
- (17) Have you recently been taking things hard? Yes/No
- (18) Have you found lately that things are getting on top of you?
Yes/No
- (19) Have you recently felt that you are nervous and strung up all the time? Yes/No
- (20) Have you found at times that you can't do anything because your nerves are so bad? Yes/No
- (21) Have you recently been having restless, disturbed nights? Yes/No
- (22) Have you found that you are managing as well as most people in your shoes? Yes/No
- (23) Are you able to feel warmth and affection for those near to you?
Yes/No
- (24) Have you found it difficult lately to get on with other people?
Yes/No
- (25) Have you spent much time chatting with people lately? Yes/No
- (26) Have you been finding life a struggle all the time lately? Yes/No
- (27) Have you recently been scared or panicky for no reason? Yes/No

- (28) Have you recently felt that life is entirely hopeless? Yes/No
- (29) Have you recently been hopeful about your own future? Yes/No
- (30) Have you recently felt that life is not worth living? Yes/No

6.3.1 Would you advise a friend or relative of yours to do the job that you do?
Why?

6.3.2 What else would you like to do?

6.3.3 Would you rather have less spare-time or more spare time?
Why?

7.0 Food Buying and Transport (to be answered by all)

7.1.1 What do you and your family usually eat:
for Breakfast?

for Lunch?

for Supper?

7.1.2 What do the people who work or go to school take with them for lunch?

7.1.3 Where do you shop for food?

7.1.4 How do you get there?

7.1.5 How much does transport to shop for food cost you?

7.1.6 What do you usually buy?

7.1.7 How much do you usually spend, or do you just buy as much as you can afford at the time?

7.2.1 If you work, how far away do you work?

7.2.2 How much does transport to work cost you?
and the rest of the household?

- 7.2.3 If you are looking for work how far do you travel to find work?
- 7.2.4 How much, on average, does it cost you each day that you go out to look for work?
- 7.2.5 Where do you get the money from to pay for transport?
- 7.2.6 Does this mean that your family have to go without food in order to pay for transport?
- 7.3.1 How much money does your household have every month?
- 7.3.2 How do you get it?
- 7.3.3 If people are earning money on their own (that is; without having a formal job) what do they do?
- 7.3.4 How much do they make doing that?
- 7.3.5 Does your household receive any money from pensions, grants, U.I.F. Funds, donations, or gifts?
- 7.3.6 If so, who gets it, who do they get it from, why, and how much?
- 7.3.7 Does your household receive any help in the form of food parcels, clothes, etc?
- 7.3.8 If yes, what, who from, and why?
- 7.3.9 How often?
- 7.4.1 Have any of your family had to go away in the last two years?
- 7.4.2 Who are they, and why have they gone?
- 7.4.3 Where did they go to?
- 7.4.4 How do you feel about this?

8.0 Perceived Effects on Community (to be answered by all)

8.1.1 Mpophomeni has a large number of unemployed people. What do you think of this?

8.1.2 Do you feel that it has affected you or your family personally?

8.1.3 How has it affected you?

8.1.4 What other effects do you see in this area because of unemployment?

8.1.5 What do you think could be done to help the situation?

8.1.6 Would you be willing to do anything to change this situation?

8.1.7 If so, what?

8.2.1 Do you feel that the situation is going to improve, or not?

8.2.2 Why?

8.2.3 Are you going to stay here, or are you thinking of leaving?

8.2.4 Why?

8.2.5 What would you like to see in this area? What sort of buildings, help, organisations or change do you think will improve this place?

8.2.6 Do you think that the community itself could help bring about these changes?

8.2.7 How?

9.0 Violence

9.1.1 How has the violence in Mpophomeni affected you since 1986?

9.1.2 How have you personally coped with the violence?

9.2.1 What effect has it had on your family?

9.2.2 How has your family coped with the violence?

9.2.3 What effect has it had on the community?

9.2.4 How has the community coped with the violence?

10.0 Overall Ratings - Effects

10.1.1 Self

- 0 - No response
- 1 - Serious negative effect
- 2 - Negative effect
- 3 - Little/no effect
- 4 - Positive effect
- 5 - Strong positive effect

10.1.2 Please could you describe the effect the BTR Sarmcol dismissal has had on you personally?

- 10.2.1 Family 0 - No response
1 - Serious/strong negative effect
2 - Negative effect
3 - Little/No effect
4 - Positive effect
5 - Strong positive effect

10.2.2 Please describe the effect the BTR Sarmcol dismissal has had on your family?

- 10.3.1 Community 0 - No response
1 - Serious/strong negative effect
2 - Negative effect
3 - Little/no effect
4 - Positive effect
5 - Strong positive effect

10.3.2 Please describe the effect the BTR Sarmcol dismissal has had on the Mpophomeni community?

11.0 Overall Ratings - Coping

- 11.1.1 Self 0 - No response
CSELFRACT 1 - Given up all attempts to cope
2 - Struggling to cope - coping in at least 1 area
3 - Coping reasonably - coping in most areas
4 - Coping in all areas
5 - Has led to new development

11.1.2 How have you personally coped with effects of the BTR Sarmcol dismissal?

- 11.2.1 Family 0 - No response
CFAMRAT 1 - Given up all attempts to cope
2 - Struggling to cope - coping in at least 1 area
3 - Coping reasonably - coping in most areas
4 - Coping in all areas
5 - Has led to new development

11.2.2 How has your family coped with the effects of the BTR Sarmcol dismissal?

11.3.1 Community 0 - No response

- CCOMRAT
- 1 - Given up all attempts to cope
 - 2 - Struggling to cope - coping in at least 1 area
 - 3 - Coping reasonably - coping in most areas
 - 4 - Coping in all areas
 - 5 - Has led to new development

11.3.2 How have the residents of Mpophomeni coped with the effects of the BTR Sarmcol dismissal?

12.0 Attribution of Change

- 0 - No response
- 1 - Internal : Individual feels that he/she is able to do something to change the situation, has control over situation.
- 2 - External : Individual feels that he/she is unable to do anything to change the situation; feels powerless in the situation.

13.0 Family Support

13.1 To what extent does the respondent perceive the family to be supportive/hinderance?

- 0 - No response
- 1 - Has been a server hinderance
- 2 - Has been a moderate hinderance
- 3 - Has no impact (neither hinderance or support)
- 4 - Has been a moderate support
- 5 - Has been a strong support

14.0 Family Support Categories

- 1 - Emotional support (sad together)
- 2 - Financial support
- 3 - Family has moved away
- 4 - Family is struggling to survive/starving
- 5 - Family stand together in the crisis
- 6 - No different
- 7 - Family has rejected me
- 8 - Family has broken/split up/members have died
- 9 - Family is dependent on my income

15.0 Community Support

15.1 To what extent does the respondent perceive the community to be supportive/hinderance?

- 0 - No response
- 1 - Has been a severe hinderance
- 2 - Has been a moderate hinderance

- 3 - Has no impact (neither hinderance or support)
- 4 - Has been a moderate support
- 5 - Has been a strong support

16.0 Community Support Categories

- 1 - SANCOC has helped
- 2 - Food parcels from union/union helps us
- 3 - Solution is for Sarmcol to re-employ
- 4 - Community can't help, there are too many problems
- 5 - The Government must help
- 6 - Community is not united
- 7 - Community stands together/united
- 8 - The Church helps us
- 9 - Mpophomeni Youth Organisation helped unite community
- 10 - Community organisations are too politicised
- 11 - Union can't support us
- 12 - Union has let us down
- 13 - Not interested in community organisation
- 14 - Unemployed are getting more jealous/demanding
- 15 - There is too much conflict/violence

17.0 Any Other Comments

Thank you very much for helping us with this survey. We appreciate you giving us some of your time.

Directions:

A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then place 'X' in the columns to the right of the statement to indicate how you *feel* right now, that is, *at this moment*. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe your present feelings best.

	Not at all	Somewhat	Moderately so	Very much so
1. I feel calm				
2. I feel secure				
3. I am tense				
4. I am regretful				
5. I feel at ease				
6. I feel upset				
7. I am presently worrying over possible misfortunes				
8. I feel rested				
9. I feel anxious				
10. I feel comfortable				
11. I feel self-confident				
12. I feel nervous				
13. I am jittery				
14. I feel "high strung"				
15. I am relaxed				
16. I feel content				
17. I am worried				
18. I feel over-excited and "rattled"				
19. I feel joyful				
20. I feel pleasant				

Directions:

A number of statements which people have used to describe themselves are given below. Read each statement and then place 'X' in the columns to the right of the statement to indicate how you *generally* feel. There are no right or wrong answers. Do not spend too much time on any one statement but give the answer which seems to describe how you generally feel.

	Almost never	Sometimes	Often	Almost always
21. I feel pleasant				
22. I tire quickly				
23. I feel like crying				
24. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be				
25. I am losing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough				
26. I feel rested				
27. I am "calm, cool, and collected"				
28. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them				
29. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter				
30. I am happy				
31. I am inclined to take things hard				
32. I lack self-confidence				
33. I feel secure				
34. I try to avoid facing a crisis or difficulty				
35. I feel blue				
36. I am content				
37. Some unimportant thought runs through my mind and bothers me				
38. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of my mind				
39. I am a steady person				
40. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent concerns and interests				