CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
CHAPTER-2

Review of Literature

The review of relevant literature on unemployment and psychological health has been classified under four sub themes as follows.

1. Personal variables and psychological health.
2. Environmental variables and psychological health.
3. Demographic Characteristics and psychological health.

I. Personal variables and Psychological Health

a) Self Esteem

In one of the pioneer research on the effects of employment, based on sociography of an unemployed community of Austrian village called Marienthal, it was found that the personal apathy and disintegration were the most common effects of unemployment. In a study of sociography of 'unemployed men' Bakke (1933) concluded that practically every man who had a family showed evidence of lowered self-confidence. Subsequently when the same sample was interviewed between 1936 and 1939, the maintenance of self respect was found difficult by the unemployed man (Carnegie, UK Trust, 1943). In a survey of around 100 studies on unemployment and its psychological effects, Eisenberg and Lazarsfield (1938) listed a number of adverse reactions ranging from apathy, resignation, depression, self doubts and fatalistic beliefs to diminished self-esteem.

Tiffany, Cowan and Tiffany (1970) compared two groups, one with work and another without work, on Tennesse self-concept scale and found that the profile of
the unemployed group showed lower level of self-esteem and less self confidence, doubting their worth, more anxiety, depression and unhappiness in comparison with the employed group.

Tiggemann and Winefield (1980) studied the psychological effect of unemployment on 118 school leavers. They found that the unemployed persons suffered boredom, loneliness and lower self esteem more than the employed workers and were less satisfied with their position. Hartley (1980) compared the impact of unemployment on the self-esteem of 87 unemployed middle and senior managers with 64 employed managers through longitudinal and cross-sectional analysis. The results failed to support the proposition. Self-esteem was not low among the unemployed managers and did not decline with longer unemployment. Somewhat similar findings were reported by Swinburne (1981) in his study of the professional and managerial staff's unemployment and its psychological impact. He found that only 10% of the subjects reported shame, loss of status and self-respect during unemployment.

Jahoda (1982) emphasized that being employed brings access to certain categories of experiences often devoid to those not in formal employment which spoils their personal identity. In a comparative study between employed and unemployed sample, Feather (1982) found that the individuals suffered diminished self-esteem, the longer they were out of work. Similarly Kaufman (1982) and Donovan and Oddy (1982) observed that the young unemployed people had significantly lower self-esteem than their employed sample.

Lower self-esteem and higher inclination towards self-blame for unemployment were found amongst young men and women because of low expectations of findings a job (Feather and Barber, 1983). The finding of lower self-esteem among the young unemployed was also substantiated by other researchers. Krystal, Moran-Sackett, Thomson and Cantoni (1983) surveyed the
family services in Detroit and Wayne country (Michigan) and found that the unemployed people were facing severe loss of internal self besides having psychological distress. The levels of positive self-esteem were not found statistically different in a sample of employed and unemployed young people studied by Warr and Jackson (1983), although the unemployed sample exhibited significantly negative self-esteem.

Both the cross-sectional and longitudinal data showed that the self-esteem level was the same for men and women (Banks and Jackson, 1982; Jackson, Stafford, Banks and Warr, 1983; Warr and Jackson 1983, Breakwell and Harrison 1984).

Tiggemann and Winefield (1984) investigated the psychological effects of unemployment in a two time survey on Australian School leavers, once at school and the other after an year. They found that the unemployed were generally less well adjusted, had negative mood, higher depression, and especially the unemployed girls had self-esteem lower than their employed counterparts. In another study of four different groups of 1636 young people on some psychological variables, Winefield and Tiggeman (1985) showed that the unemployed males had lower self esteem than their female counterparts. The comparison between registered unemployed young men and women revealed similar scores on general distress, self-esteem and life satisfaction.

Shamir (1986), in a study on highly educated Israeli youth found that the self esteem was neither sensitive to employment status nor to changes in employment status, but it moderated the relationship between employment status and psychological well being. The low self-esteem youths were more sensitive to employment status than the high self-esteem ones and they were also more flexible in considering job offers. Rowley and Feather (1987) investigated the impact of unemployment on two groups of unemployed men in Adelaide, South Australia.
The results showed that the older unemployed had higher self-esteem compared to the younger lot. Winefield, Tiggeman and Goldney (1988) investigated the psychological concomitants of satisfaction, employment and unemployment among young people for which they surveyed 742 Australian school leavers (aged 15-17 years) before leaving school and again 4 years later. The results showed neither an increase in self-esteem nor decrease in depression level.

Sheeran and McCarthy (1990) studied the impact of unemployment on self concept, including positive and negative self-esteem, of 48 employed and 40 unemployed subjects. The unemployment was found to be associated with increased inconsistency in the attribution of characteristics to the self and retarded progress towards the realisation of valued goals. The unemployed subjects had significantly poorer evaluation of self than employed subjects and the longer waiting period for unemployment led to diminished self-esteem. A longitudinal study on young people having 4 different identities showed that the unemployed had lower self-esteem (Winefield and Tiggemann, 1990). Similar findings were reported by Patton and Noller (1984), while investigating the effects of unemployment on the self-concepts of 72 male and 44 female high school students in their final year and again after two years. The unemployed subjects had a less positive self-image than the other group.

Winefield, Tiggeman and Winefield (1991) did a longitudinal study on Australian School Leavers comparing them with four occupational groups satisfied, employed dissatisfied, unemployed and tertiary students on a range of psychological measures. They found that the unemployed and dissatisfied employed had lower self esteem in comparison to the other groups. Brand and Pullan (1991) compared 50 employed and 50 unemployed white South African men on their work related self-concepts and family relations and found no significant differences between the groups on work related self-concept. The self-esteem and other factors such as health, locus of control, social support and access to transport as the predictors of
employment status, some other studies failed to notice any significant change in the level of self-esteem during unemployment (Frost and Clayton, 1991 and Kristensen 1991).

Sheeran and McCarthy (1992) investigated the relationship between social structure, self concept and well-being and found that the unemployed subjects had poorer public and private self image than the employed group. Beisn, Johnson and Turner (1993) interviewed 1,348 adult South East Asian refugees in Canada, and the 1,169 adults again after two years. They found that joblessness led to loss of esteem, while underemployment was not a threat.

Jex, Cventanovski and Allen (1994) compared 195 unemployed and 137 employed subjects on self-esteem, anxiety, depression and life satisfaction. Their analysis showed that the self-esteem moderated the relationship between the unemployment and anxiety, eventhough it was weak. Besides, the low self-esteem was associated with high anxiety.

Sheeran and Abraham (1994) presented a symbolic interactionist analysis of the effects of unemployment on self concept along with its dimensions. Self evaluation, self affection, self involvement and self consistency. The subjects consisted of 48 full-time employees and 40 unemployed people aged 18-37 years. Their analysis showed that the negatively reflected appraisals were associated with poorer self-evaluation for the unemployed people more often than the employed group.

b) Locus of Control

Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld (1938) reviewed over 100 studies related to unemployment during the Great Depression of 1930's. They found that the fatalistic belief was one of the most adverse reaction to unemployment. O'Brien and
Kabanoff (1979) found that the unemployed workers had significantly higher external control orientation and more symptoms of ill health.

Tiggemann and Winefield (1980) noted in a study of school leavers that locus of control was not affected during the first six months of unemployment. While Gurney (1980) found that the unemployed school leavers giving more external explanations of unemployment. Donovan and Oddy (1982) showed that the unemployed males had higher external control than the employed males and in case of females the differences were minimal.

Feather and Barber (1983) investigated the correlates of depressive reactions associated with unemployment in a sample of young unemployed male and female Australians. They found that the young unemployed perceived higher lack of control and global depression apart from other depressive reactions. Tiggemann and Winefield (1984) studied the employed and unemployed students, and found the unemployed showing to be more externally oriented than the employed, especially the unemployed males were more externally oriented than the females. Hesketh (1984) tested Kelly’s covariation model in relation to unemployment, and found the unemployed having high internal locus of control attributed failure to lack of effort and credited their success to ability, while the unemployed having external locus of control attributed it to lack of ability. Tiggemann and Winefield (1984) studied school leavers after two years of leaving school again substantiated their earlier study result of unemployed boys having more external orientation than girls. O’Brien and Kabonoff (1981) observed that the unemployed workers had significantly higher external control orientation and more symptoms of ill-health, stress and helplessness. Feather and O’Brien (1986) in a longitudinal study of school-leavers showed that the shift from employment to unemployment led to less of internal and more of external causal attributions by youth. In another longitudinal study of male British school leavers, Layton (1986, 87) observed that the
movement into unemployment led to significant deterioration in self confidence and increase in externality on Rotter's Locus of control scale.

Winefield, Tiggemann and Goldney (1988) in their longitudinal study of youth after four years of schooling, noted a decrement in their externality. In a correlational study of protestant work ethics and economic locus of control on 285 Australian undergraduates, Heaven (1990) found that the economic locus of control and protestant ethics were the significant correlates for reducing the unemployment. In comparison with other groups, the unemployed group showed more externality in a study by Tiggemann and Winefield (1984). Frost and Clayton (1991) examined the psychological effects of unemployment on 241 unemployed and 321 employed subjects but they found no evidence of the external control orientation.

c) Employment Commitment

Banks, Clegg, Jackson, Kemp, Stafford and Wall (1980) investigated 647 recent school leavers for their GHQ, for detecting minor psychiatric disorders and found that the unemployed with a high motivation to work scored higher than those with lower work motivation. Feather and Davenport (1981) found the depression level among unemployed Australian youth to be associated with higher levels of motivation to find a job along with other effects. This result had been substantiated by Jackson, Stafford, Banks and Warr (1983) in their longitudinal study on school leavers, which showed that the psychological distress on unemployment was moderated by the persons's commitment to work. Feather and Bond (1983) found a positive correlation between employment importance and time structure and purposeful activity for unemployed group. Jackson and Warr (1984) also found that the commitment to find a job and the degree of financial strain were positively associated with psychological ill-health during unemployment. Haworth and Miller (1984) examined the daily activities of the unemployed young adults aged between 21-25 years. They found a positive association between the intrinsic motivation and positive subjective well-being. Warr and Jackson (1985) in a study of 629
unemployed found that employment commitment had a strong influence on changes in psychological health. The lower work values along with more symptoms of ill-health among the unemployed were reported by O'Brien and Kabanoff (1981).

The study by Feather and O'Brien (1986) failed to find any relationship between unemployment and employment importance. Warr and Jackson (1987) in a longitudinal study, of adapting to the unemployed role by 954 registered unemployed, found that the unemployed, who had adopted their status, had improved their commitment to have a job. Rowley and Feather (1987) compared the impact of length of unemployment in two groups of 15 to 24 years age and 30 to 49 years age, on job seeking activity, employment commitment and psychological distress. They found that in both the groups the employment commitment acted as a moderator of psychological health.

Payne and Jones (1987) found that unemployment made most aspects of employment more important to people, and affected their attitudes to such feelings as job security, money they earned from employment and the kind of work etc. Ostell and Divers (1987) also found that the highly expressed need for job was associated with poorer mental health. In a study of 297 unemployed American men, Vinokur and Caplan (1987) found that unsuccessful job seeking was associated with poor mental health. Winefield and Tiggemann et al (1987) surveyed two samples of South Australia high school students in 1980 and 1986. They found that students displayed greater optimism about their prospects of obtaining satisfactory employment and it did not decline between 1980 and 1986. The results emphasised that increased optimism and willingness to stay in school from low socio-economic background showed a shift in their work attitude towards the high socio-economic status people.

Ullah (1990) studied the psychological impact of reduced income during unemployment and showed that the higher levels of financial strain were associated
with greater commitment to obtaining job. The career aspirations and expectations in comparison to the job availability were surveyed by Arbon and Novy (1991) on 633 college students aged between 16-19 years. The results showed gender differences in the career aspirations and expectations but no differences in the ethnic groups. Kristensen (1991) in a longitudinal study of unemployed persons showed that during the unemployment their towards goal directedness increased considerably.

d) Alienation

Stockes and Cochrane (1984b) interviewed unemployed school leavers three times during a period of 24 weeks. He found that initial despair and pessimism of that period were transformed into resignation and apathy among these youngsters, was indicated by their helplessness for the future and giving up of looking for job after repeated failure. Donovan and Oddy (1982) compared employed and unemployed school leavers for their emotional and social development. They found that the apathy and hopelessness were frequently associated with unemployment, and these could also be associated with the tendency to attribute events to uncontrollable forces. Brennah (1982) claimed that loneliness was a typical adolescent experience, which may be so overwhelming as to cause later a feeling of deep estrangement and isolation. This loneliness was considered to be an integral part of human development, which made the various stages in the process of acquisition and individuation of the self.

Unemployment and mental disorders were found to have a clear, but not always a very strong association (Lehtinen, 1984). He reviewed studies on unemployment and mental disorders and concluded that the unemployment may affect mental health by acting as a precipitating factor. Tiggeman and Winefield (1984) compared groups of employed and unemployed school leavers on a range of mood questions and psychological scales. They also gathered comparable data for one year earlier when they were at school. They found that the unemployed people were bored, lonely and angry with society. A comparative study of employed and
unemployed people on their expectancy valence analysis (Raj, 1985) showed that the unemployed were more alienated than their employed counterparts. Winefield and Tiggemann (1985) found results similar to Donovan and Oddy (1982). The unemployed boys often occupied their time with interests and hobbies, while few of the girls appeared to do this. Girls tended to stay at home, isolated from peer group and occupied their time with housework and looking after younger siblings. Henwood and Miles (1987) reported that the unemployed groups experienced significantly less social contact than either employed or retired groups.

Mckenna and Payne (1985) showed that men unemployed for between 6 to 18 months had greater problems reflected in the social isolation component of the Nottingham Health Profile than men reemployed after a similar period of unemployment. That declining social contact accompanied unemployment for many mature unemployed people has also been confirmed by a number of self reports (Warr 1984). Martine and Wallace (1984) showed that the older British unemployed women started feeling social isolation and loneliness more because of their unemployment.

Kilpatrick and Trew (1985) emphasized in their study significant relations between Psychological Well-Being (GHQ) and life style, alongwith a progressive decline in mental health being paralleled by decreasing activity and withdrawal into the home. As reported by Dooley and Catalano (1986) the economy influenced well-being through its impact on social cohesion. Rapid changes perse, whether desirable or undesirable, could reduce social cohesion which in turn could lead to increased alienation, distress and ultimately suicide. Winefield and Tiggemann (1985) in a longitudinal study found that the satisfied employed and students showed lesser social isolation than the frustrated employed and unemployed. Whelan (1992) studied the role of income, life style deprivation and financial strain in mediating the impact of unemployment on psychological distress over 3294 national representatives of the Republic of Ireland. The unemployed people's increased
psychological distress was found associated with exclusion from customary life styles, and with involving deprivation of socially defined necessities.

Alienation among adolescent students and their sense of deprivation was studied by Verma and Nayak (1990). They found that the powerlessness, isolation and overall alienation of adolescent students was significantly affected by the magnitude of their sense of deprivation. The disadvantaged rural unemployed Dutchmen showed loneliness and money worries as a major consequence of unemployment (Leeflang, Klein - Hesselink and Spruit 1992). Hammerstron (1994) suggested that the future exclusion from the labour market, increased risk of alienation and lack of financial resources were the consequences of youth unemployment.

2. Environmental Variables and Psychological Health

a) Environmental Perceptions

Frese and Mohr (1978) reported that the increasing duration of unemployment leads to deterioration in well-being along with lack of possibilities to control one's situation due to increased evidence of one's helplessness. The analysis based on Hepworth's (1980) correlation data on 77 unemployed men showed that the man perceiving his time as being occupied or unoccupied affected his subjective well-being and mental health. Gurney (1980) studied the emotional, social and psychological adjustment of 400 unemployed Australian school leavers by using the ideas of neo-psychoanalytic thinker Erikson. He found that having a job helped the female school leavers to clarify their perception of their identity, and that not being able to get work led to a confused perceptions of self. He also found that unemployment had the effect of inhibiting development in school leavers rather than inflicting trauma.
Oliver and Pomicter (1981) studied depression in auto assembly workers and observed that the psychological impact of being without work often created personal and family problems that directly interfered with re-employment and contributed to the use of other social services. Perceptions of financial severity and future status of the economy were associated with depression. Warr (1984) observed that the well-being was significantly associated with increased jobless time spent with friends, and negatively associated with reported decrease in social entertainment requiring money. A narrow range of social contacts during unemployment was found by Miles (1983) in a British investigation with greater distress among the different samples.

A cross-sectional analysis of psychological impact of unemployment was done by Brenner and Bartell (1982; 1983). They found that the unemployed perceived their time as being occupied or unoccupied and it affected their subjective well-being and mental health. A comparison of employed and unemployed university graduates on self-esteem, depression, importance and the extent to which time is used in structured and purposeful way, were studied by Feather and Bond (1983). They concluded that the unemployed showed less engagement, less direction, less routine in their use of time, besides lesser organization and lesser purpose.

Levi, Brenner, Hall, Hjelm, Salovarsa, Arnetz and Patterson (1984) studied unemployed in relation to meaningful activity and stress. They concluded that the greatest biochemical stress was seen as a result of loss of meaningful activity. Stokes and Cochrane (1984b) studied the psychological effects of redundancy and unemployment on adult samples. The subjects were interviewed concerning psychiatric symptoms, social attitudes, interpersonal relations and family relationships. They found that the social contacts were not influenced by employment status but the unemployed indicated that they were less well accepted by others than did the employed.
Warr and Jackson (1985) used financial support, expressive support, social contact and institutional membership measures on unemployed samples. They found that financial support was a significant predictor of deterioration in mental health over 9 month-period, but not independently along with other variables. In the Northern Island study, Kilpatrick and Trew (1985) found that the affective well-being was positively associated with greater social contact when measured through time diaries. Kelvin and Jarret (1985) viewed the unemployed person's position as highly ambiguous in that we do not know what a person is not, and the person does not tell us much of what he is. They argued that the self concept is a scheme which locates the individual within the social environment and shapes his interactions with it, and becoming unemployed causes person's psychological dislocation and disorientation which induces a modification in the self concept.

Fryer and Payne (1986) stated that low income limits family, social and leisure activities, as well as independence of action and future oriented activity. all of which may affect mental health. Stoner and Arora (1987) reported that the environmental considerations, such as the strike's general pervasiveness and impact on the community and the community's attitude toward the strike way critically affect the strikers. According to their model of development the psychological health is positively affected by a higher level of savings, the level of activity, and the degree of social support. Similar results were found in (Jahoda, Lazasersfeld and Zeisel, 1971). Warr (1987) state that the availability of money affected negative but some of the other eight environmental features he suggested contribute to mental health. Such as lack of personal control, opportunity for skill use and physical security. The impact of environment on psychological symptoms was established after controlling the personal variables (Payne and Hartley, 1987).

In a longitudinal study it was observed by Bolton and Oatley (1985) that unemployed, who had little social contact with other people in the month before
losing their jobs were particularly likely to exhibit depression after 6-8 months of unemployment. Fryer and Mckenna (1987) examined low environmental clarity in a comparison between men who had lost their jobs and those who knew their joblessness would be temporary. During their unemployment period temporarily unemployed signed as unemployed and claimed welfare benefits, but, their environmental clarity was greater since the future was predictable. They unemployed had better mental health, and experienced time as passing much more quickly than the other group.

Warr and Jackson (1987) observed that unemployed men who reported more contact with friends and relatives outside their immediate family at the previous interviews showed subsequently more improvement in mental health. In contrast the emotional support and institutional membership showed no relationship with outcome measures. Khan and Ali (1987) surveyed 261 employed and 260 unemployed people and found that the unemployed people perceived contact as one of the important factor affecting their success on the job market. Both performance and field of specialization were found to be important statistical determinants of waiting. Better performance had reduced the length of waiting period. Bose Sanyal and Mukherje (1987) compared the responses of the unemployed and employed regarding their employment experience. They showed that more than 50% of the unemployed graduates, considered their unemployment was due to no help from relations and not having enough political connections and influence. It was also reported that corruption and nepotism were persisting factors in job selection and recommendations played an important role in placement.

Jahoda (1982, 1992) observed of that the concern psychological theories was limited to the cognitive processes of the individual rather than the nature of the social environment which shaped our behaviour or well-being. Feather (1989) reported changes in behaviours after job loss in a sample of 42 older unemployed men. Subjects reported increase in the time spent on domestic activities and in a
wide range of other activities and decrease in the time spent on some activities that required money.

Bergen Hatch and Amundson (1990) in their exploratory study, looked at the experience of unemployment among university graduates. They found that a counseling programme focusing on environmental factors during their unemployment period may help them to reduce their psychological distress. They found that the opportunity for social contact, trust in social contact, norm development and participation in collective purpose could shape employment experiences to meet particular needs of men and women and to achieve psychological well being.

The general labour market conditions and labour market perceptions are related to voluntary turnover. Unfavourable general labour market conditions limit the number of alternative job openings. Payne and Furnham (1990) has examined the explanations for unemployment of 468 respondents the 20 explanations 6 factors emerged as important namely; lack of effort, lack of ability, failure of trade unions, effects of governmental policies, regional and worldwide changes and poor individual management.

Swanson and Tokar (1991) explored the career related barriers perceived by college students in environment. The instrument focused on choosing a career, getting necessary degree/training, getting a first job after college, advancing in career and balancing career and family. Their results showed that the subject did perceive the existence of barriers in each of the 6 stimulus topics. The samples perceived their greatest obstacles to getting a first job as a combination of job availability and their qualifications, skills, experiences and personal qualities. The uncertainty about the future along with impaired mental health was found by Viinamaki, Koshela Niskanem Arnkill and Tikkanen. (1993a) in a study in Finland word processing factory workers.
b) Social Support

A number of studies (Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Caplan, 1979) report that social support reduces the impact of Psychological Stress.

Gore (1978) reported findings on the effects of factory closures, on workers using a 13 item-scale covering a range of features-perceptions of supportive relationships, frequency of activity outside the home, and perceived opportunity to engage in supportive social activities among these unemployed. A month after closure of their factory, among the unemployed less supported respondents (N=15) reported a significantly larger number of illness symptoms than the more supported respondents. This difference was also present 6 weeks prior to closure. Kilpatrick and Trew (1985) examined the life styles (i.e. active, social, domestic and passive) of 121 unemployed male, aged 25-45 years from Northern Ireland. Among the variables, analysed only the social support was found significantly related to GHQ score.

Kabanoff (1982) reviewed psychological researches on unemployment (concentrating on young adults) and identified the lack of fit between people's values and expectations and their unemployed situation as the cause of social disorientation and psychological impact. The role of social support as a coping mechanism was considered. It recommended that the future research should examine the ways in which the unemployed role interacts with other life roles in peer, family, leisure and citizen settings rather than treating unemployment in isolation. Warr and Parry (1982) reported that the low level of affective well-being especially emotionally strain was found in 16% of unemployed and 6% men in jobs, in 21% unemployed women and 9% of women in jobs. A study of school leavers in England revealed that compared to the employed, the unemployed showed higher levels of depression and anxiety, a high incidence of minor psychiatric morbidity, lower self-esteem, poorer subjective well-being and worse social adjustment. The females
showed poorer psychological well-being them males, regardless of employment status (Donovan and Oddy, 1982).

Bartell and Bartell (1985) have explained the differential responses of women and men to unemployment in terms of gender role identity. The women may be identifying more with the home and the community and less with individual careers. Hanlon (1985) made an attempt to clarify the nature of primary group support by documenting the forms of assistance rendered by such groups during a single type of life crisis; i.e. the period of unemployment following layoff from a job. They found that the primary group remained as vital source of aid during periods of individual crisis. Among the primary group, friends, .... parents and other relatives were important and they unemployed received moral support at the maximum, providing a nice time secured, help in making plans, etc. Warr, Banks and Ullah (1985) observed that greater amounts of time spent by teenagers with friends was significantly associated with low scores on measures of general stress, depression and anxiety.

Ullah Banks and Warr (1985) found that the emotional support correlated with better mental health. They studied 1150, 17 year old who had been unemployed for an average of 6 months. The results showed that the social support had significant correlation with psychological distress and depression but not with anxiety. Similar result was found in some other studies also (Thoits, 1982; Turner, 1983). But the emotional support was not effective during continuous unemployment (Warr & Jackson 1985).

Linn, Sandifer and Stein (1985) found non significant correlations between social support and separate measure of anxiety, depression and somatic symptoms. Warr and Jackson (1985) studied the unemployed British men on two occasions with the gap of 9 months on emotional support i.e., availability of someone to talk with about problems, to cheer you up, and to help you find interesting things to do
etc., war significantly associated with lower distress in cross-sectional analysis, but it was not predictive of magnitude of deterioration over a nine month period. As reported in Warr (1987) book, in Frohlich's (1983) study of German unemployed almost 40% reported visiting friends and neighbours more frequently, against only 6% reporting a decrease.

Banks and Ullah (1987) found deterioration in the well-being of unemployed across the subsequent 12 months with lack of emotional support and stronger social pressure to get a job. Jackson (1988) found an increase in reported instrumental support over a year of unemployment and significant changes in the structure of respondents' core social networks. Reliance on family members did not change, but there was a reduction in the number of non-family members giving active support. Viinamaki, Koschela, Niskanem and Arnkil (1993a) study showed that mental well-being was associated with insufficient social support, poor health, low income and uncertainty about the failure.

Social support and psychological well-being among the unemployed British Asian men in north England were studied by Shams (1993). He found that the family support had positive effects on unemployed men's psychological health, besides the material support. In a similar study in Finland of 135 unemployed (Viinamaki, Koschela, Niskanem, and Arnkil, 1993) insufficient social support experienced by the sample was found to impair their mental well-being more often than others. Sheeran and Abraham (1994) stressed that the significant relationships existed between unemployment and reflected appraisal from friends, family and others.

3. **Demographic Characteristics and psychological Health**

a) Gender

Gurney (1980) showed that the unemployed male had shifted towards the mistrust role of the first dimension of trust-untrust. Tiggemann & Winefield (1980)
interviewed 118 school leavers, and showed that 32% of the male unemployed could
arrange a job against 10% of the females unemployed. In contrast to that 97% of
female unemployed had a particular job in mind against 81% of the males
unemployed.

Feather (1982), concluded that the males and females young unemployed
had higher depression, lower self esteem and protestant work ethics and that good
and bad outcomes to everyday events were less important to them compared to
employed males. The cross sectional and longitudinal studies by Banks and
Jackson 1982, Jackson Stafford, Banks and War & Jackson (1983) found the
pattern of distress and self esteem same for men and women (Warr and Parry,
(1982) found that the female who were waiting for longer period for employment had
scored better GHQ score than males.

Donovan and Oddy (1982) compared the employed and unemployed school
leavers on social and emotional development. They found that the unemployed
males were more external than the employed males, whereas the differences were
minimal for females.

Breakwell, and Harrison (1984) study found that the impact of the
unemployment for women for unemployed as same as for men unemployed. Both
the men and women revealed very similar scores for general distress, self esteem,
and life satisfaction. Warr and Jackson (1985) concluded that women tend to obtain
lower scores than men on measures of psychological health and the activities in
which individuals engaged in during unemployment varied by gender.

Heinemann Rohrig and Stadie (1980) analysed the possibilities for
unemployed women to return to their traditional role as housewives. The long-term
unemployed women had a less rational or explicit time structure than women having
jobs. They were also more often resigned and somewhat less emotionally stable
than those who had jobs, and they felt isolated. The housewives who had been previously employed had the least time structure and the narrowest time perspective. The overall study showed that traditional role was not an alternative choice.

Men suffer more during unemployment than women, Jahoda (1982) stated that even if women preferred to have a job, unemployment hits them less hard than the men. This was because of an alternative available to them in return of the traditional role of house-wives that provided some time structure, sense of purpose, status and activity even though it offered little scope for wider social experiences. Similar results were reported by Stokes and Cochrane (1984a) studied psychological and social consequences of reductancy unemployment and found that women adjusted better to being unemployed than males, possibly because the married women at least, had a readily available alternative, of social role to that of paid worker.

Various cross sectional and longitudinal researchers shown that there was no gender differences noted in the pattern of distress and self esteem. (Banks and Jackson 1982; Jackson Stafford, Banks and Warr, 1983; Warr and Jackson, 1983). In addition to that Henwood and Miles (1987) study also could not find any gender differences based Jahodai (1982) five main categories of experience of employment.

Winefield & Tiggemann (1985) emphasized that the unemployed females had the lowest need achievement and highest depressive effect. The unemployed males showed lowest self esteem and highest externality compared to unemployed female.

In contrast Feather and O'Brien (1986) showed that the male respondents scored higher on self-rated potency, desired skill utilization and influence in one's job, whereas female respondents scored higher on self rated positive attitudes and stress disappointment and external control. Honess (1989) in a 3 year logitudial
study of young people drawn from a sample of 150, 15 years old who were interviewed shortly before their planned school leaving date, confirmed the sex differences partially. The girls reported lower employment placement than boys only in village sample but not in the town sample.

Gender differences were also reported on measures of anger with self, helplessness, depressed mood (Winfield and Tiggemann, 1989) and career aspirations and expectations (Arbona and Novy, 1991). Lahelma (1992) in a study of industrial job-seekers in Finland found that men's reaction to unemployment was stronger than that of women. Reemployment made improvement in mental well-being. However, women typically obtained significantly lower scores than men on measures of psychological health.

b) Academic Qualifications

Banks and Jackson (1982) found decline in psychological well-being as a consequence of becoming unemployed, and improvements as a consequence of becoming employed besides that the unemployed sample poses inferior academic qualification.

Some studies showed that the unemployment had a negative impact on the mental health of the educated (Feather and Bond 1983, Fineman, 1979, Kaufman, 1982, Ostell and Divers, 1987, Shamir, 1986) The graduates were supposed to cope better since they had many resources at their disposal like i) exhibit proactive behaviour when they become unemployed (Fryer and Payne, 1986) b) show high levels of self esteem and c) have option of accepting alternative jobs (Kjos, 1987). This was substantiated by the negative effects of unemployment upon mental health found in unqualified male samples compared to more qualified sample (Banks and Jackson, 1982; Jackson et al 1983, Schaufeli, 1993, Warr, 1984).
In an Indian study of Graduates and Post Graduates Singh and Kumar (1974) reported some interesting findings on their level of anxiety. They found that the unemployed master degree holders were more anxious than unemployed graduates. Also, both the graduates and post graduates unemployed for longer period were more anxious than those unemployed for a shorter period.

**Marital Status**

Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel (1971), Fagin, (1981) suggested that unemployment had an adverse effect on marital relationships and family life. Finlay-Jones and Burvil (1979) used the General Health questionnaire in a community survey of Australian women. They found markedly higher proportions of unemployed unmarried women defined as probable psychiatric cases. Differences associated with employment status were not found for married women. Marital status was found unrelated to mental health by Banks, Clegg, Jackson, Kemp, Stafford and Wall (1980). However, Stokes and Cochrane (1984) did not find any significant relationship between marital and family satisfaction.

Martin and Wallace (1984) showed that among British women them the younger women reported similar amount of interpersonal contact before and after job loss, while the older women (often married with husbands who were in job) showed reduction in contacts after becoming unemployed. Viinamaki et al (1993c) study on wood processing factory workers in Finland concluded that the mental well-being was poor in all age groups especially in married men.

d) **Contextual Disparities**

Gore (1978) made an explicit rural/urban comparison, and found that social support modified the severity of the psychological and health related responses to unemployment and that rural subjects had higher levels of social support than their urban counterparts. Roberts, Duggan and Noble (1982) have argued that the high
prevalance of youth unemployment in cities, was recognised as a socially isolating experience or stigma, and the unattractiveness of most available jobs led to a pragmatic acceptance (but not enjoyment) by being out of work. Jackson & Warr (1987) pointed out that the general health score was low for the men coming from area of high unemployment in comparison to those from low and moderately unemployment growth area.

A longitudinal study on 150 school leavers by Honess (1989) showed that the girls reported lower employment placement than boys in valley sample, but not in town sample.

Leeflang, Klein - Hesselink and Spruit (1992) studied the effects of long term unemployment among rural and Urban Dutch men aged 30 to 50 years. They found both the urban and rural unemployed perceived somatic and depressive complaints similarly. The loneliness, money related worries and ill health were the disadvantageous consequences of unemployment. Harding and Sewel (1992) focussed on the relationship between psychological health and employment status in a rural island community. They found that the unemployed rural men were psychologically less healthy than the employed rural men, but they were more psychologically healthy than their urban counterparts.

e) Waiting Period for Employment and Age

Singh and Kumar (1974) hypothesized that the higher level of education and longer period of unemployment would lead to the higher level of anxiety. They measured the level of anxiety among 40 male unemployed graduates and 40 male post graduates for varying periods. It was found that the post graduates unemployed for a longer period were more anxious than those unemployed for a shorter period, who in turn were more anxious than graduate unemployed for a longer (time) period. Graduates unemployed for a shorter period were less anxious. The level of
education and the duration of unemployment had significant effect on anxiety. The post high school attainment had no direct impact on self esteem and only a trivial indirect impact via occupational status Bachman, O'malley and Johnston (1978).

Warr & Jackson (1984, 85, 87) in longitudinal observations carried out on men who had been unemployed for a considerable period found that the maximum impact, in terms of both self-reported physical health and psychological health (as measured by GHQ) seemed to occur up to 6 months. No further deterioration was observed after longer periods indeed, from 15 to 25 months there was a significant improvement in psychological health.

Jackson and Warr (1984) examined the relationship between the length of unemployment and psychological ill health (eg. anxiety, deression low self esteem, distress) among 954 unemployed working class males from age levels 16 to 64 with varying durations of unemployment (less than a month to over 1 year). Subjects completed the GHQ and measures of physical health, employment commitment, job seeking behaviour and financial stress. Results showed that the association between length of unemployment and psychological ill health was the strongest in middle age groups, with greater ill health among those with a longer duration, since jobless. No association was found between duration and ill-health on who had recently entered the labourmarket or who were close to the end of their working lives.

Warr and Jackson,(1983), Winefield & Tiggemann (1990) studied the unemployment duration and affective well-being among the school leave through longitudinal analysis. They found that the unemployed who had 3-6 months 6-12 months waiting period generally showing less improvement (or else greater deterioration) than those unemployed for shorter periods (less than 3 months and those unemployment for longer periods (more than 12 months).
Estes and Wilensky (1978) characterised that early middle aged men as particularly prone to a family 'Life Cycle - Squeeze'. Banks et al (1980) found that the mental health was unrelated to age, marital status and the job level of the unemployed engineers and school leavers. Duration of unemployment and psychological well-being in young men and women were studied by Warr, Jackson and Banks (1982). Two cohorts of students who had left school at the age of 16 were interviewed 5 times over a 2 year period after school leaving to investigate the hypothesis that lower psychological well-being accompanied longer unemployment. Measures of both psychological distress (GHQ) and self esteem were found to be uncorrelated with duration of unemployment for males, and no relationship with self esteem were observed for females. Longer female unemployment was associated with lower distress, which was shown to be due to women's withdrawal from the labour market because of pregnancy and child care. It is suggested that the expected association between duration and well-being may be restricted to older samples and longer periods out of work. In another cross-sectional study Warr and Jackson (1983) revealed a difference between young men and young women on the mental health scores. Although there was no relationship between duration of unemployment and mental health of males, longer period without job were associated with better scores for females on the General Health questionnaire.

Furnham (1983a) looked at the mental health of five groups depending on their employment status: full time employed, part-time employed, unemployed, retired and students. Although there were no age or sex differences in the total mental health score, there was a significant difference between the five employment groups' total score. The unemployed reportedly had diminished life satisfaction because they were denied the financial rewards and higher standards of living that came with employment and were excluded from an important role that was assumed to be a normal part of one's experience in a setting that offered the possibility of satisfying some basic human needs (Warr, 1983b).
Warr (1984) investigated the reported behaviour changes after job loss (in 38 behaviours) in 954 unemployed British. The longer duration of unemployment was found to be significantly associated with several reported changes and substantial age differences were also present.

Warr, Banks and Ullah (1985) concluded that the length of time for being out of work was unrelated to affective well-being. Banks and Ullah (1987, 1988) used GHQ in order to study the effect of employment status on psychological well being of 17 and 18 years old. They found GHQ scores were strongly associated, with employment status. Transitional impacts upon general distress, depression and anxiety had been found for teenagers of both sexes. But there was no further deterioration beyond the initial decrement at least upto age of 18.

Payne and Jones (1987) studied 140 men aged 25-40 who had remained unemployed for longer periods and then returned to work. the experience of long-term unemployment was found to affect their attitudes to such things as job security and money etc.

Rowley and Feather (1987) examined the impact of length of unemployment in 197 unemployed men in 2 age groups (aged 15-24  & 30-49 yeras). Both groups completed scales concerned with job seeking activity, employment commitment self esteem, psychological distress (GHQ), use of time and financial strain. Results indicated that the more the waiting period the more had been the psychological symptoms. Correlations showed that and financial strain, less time structure, less self-esteem, more psychological distress, tended to accompany increased length of unemployment. But there was little evidence (apart from financial strain) that these relationship were stronger for the older group.

Brown and Gary (1988) surveyed both employed and unemployed black adults in an urban area for depressive symptomology and found that the age was the single best predictor of depressive symptomology among unemployed subjects. The
older subjects apparently had more resources to ameliorate the potential negative consequences of unemployment.

Winefield and Tiggemann (1989) analysed data from an Australian longitudinal study of school leavers. In each of three successive years after leaving school, 3 main target groups-employed, full time employed and unemployed, were compared in terms of SE, depressive affect and mood using their school measures as a base-line. Results showed that the employed and student groups displayed overall well-being significantly superior to the unemployed within the unemployed group. The unemployed for intermediate periods were worse off than those unemployed for shorter or for longer periods.

Platt and Kreitman (1990) noted the association between aggregate and individual level trends in parasuicide and unemployment among men and women residents in Edinburgh during the year 1968-87. The highest rate of parasuicide was consistently found among the long term unemployed.

Winefield and Tiggemann (1990) studied the relationship between length of unemployment and psychological distress using longitudinal and cross-sectional data on 34 unemployed Australian young people, ages ranging from 19 to 24 years. Their findings supported the curvilinear hypothesis relating psychological distress or affective well-being to unemployment duration. On most of the dependent measures the unemployed for 3 months and 4-8 months did not differ, but the 9 month group was significantly worse off. The relations between length of unemployment and psychological distress were different for teenagers and young adults.

Peregoy and Connie (1990) found that the psychological affects of unemployment having an adverse impact not only on worker but also on the family, circle of friends, and community of the worker. Longterm unemployment created its own demands on an individual's resources not only financial, but also those of self
concept and the relation to society as a whole. Shams and Jackson, (1993) in a study on British asians, poorer psychological well-being was found among the unemployed and especially for those in middle age.

4. Psychological Health, psychological distress, cognitive difficulties and life satisfaction

A) Psychological health

Jahoda (1982) argued that being in a formal employment brings access to certain categories of experiences often denied to those not in formal employment. In fact the access to these categories of experiences were important for psychological well being. She reported that unemployment imposed financial constraints on the unemployed people to deflate their social status, to make them rootless and disoriented and to spoil their personal identity. Liem and Atkinson (1982) mentioned that joblessness should be thought of not as happening to individuals, but also to families. In their research they found that two or three months after their husbands become unemployed, wives in families with continuing unemployment were significantly depressed, anxious, phobic and sensitive about their interpersonal relationships than their counterparts in employed families.

At the joint symposium of the Royal College of psychiatrist and the College of Occupational Therapists, (1983), Rachel reviewed the medical consequences of unemployment. He opiniened that unemployment may be associated with poor physical and mental health, although the extent to which unemployment was a cause of poor health was not known (Rachel, 1983).

Payne, Warr and Hartley (1984) explored about the psychological health and the experience of being unemployed for between 6 and 11 months in two social class groups: unskilled and semi-skilled workers versus white collar, managerial
and professional workers. British married men aged between 25 and 39 were interviewed about their financial and other problems, perceived threats associated with unemployment, anxiety, depression, general psychological distress and ratings of general health. It was expected that the working class sample would exhibit poorer psychological health than the middle class, but this was not found confirmed. Medium term unemployment appeared to have a homogenizing effect, with similar poor health in both social class samples, although the working class respondents reported significantly greater financial problems and difficulties in filling the time.

Kilpatrick and Trew (1985) investigated life styles of 121, 24-45 years old unemployed males in Northern Ireland. The ANOVA on four, lifestyles-active, social, domestic and passive indicated significant differences between time spent on behaviours typical of each cluster. A significant relationship between psychological well being (measured by GHQ) and lifestyle was identified, with a progressive decline in mental health, being paralleled by decreasing activity and withdrawal into the home. To investigate the possible causal link between unemployment and mental ill health, Layton (1986) administered General Health Questionnaire to 101 men facing compulsory redundancy and again 6 months later. Those subjects who subsequently reported being jobless showed a significant increase in general, minor nonpsychotic psychiatric morbidity and in particular endorsed items forming the derived subfactor Anhedonia. For subjects who reported being re-employed, a significant improvement in general mental health was noted. Change scores between groups were significant on the gross General Health Questionnaire scale, Anhedonia and social dysfunction and loss of confidence.

In a study of mental health among unemployed men, two contrasting hypothesis about the importance of the local unemployment rate were examined by Jackson and Warr (1987), namely that very high local unemployment might be associated with either impowerishment or resilience of the community, and both would affect health in opposite ways. The mental health of 954 unemployed men
was assessed by the General Health Questionnaire. Men in areas of particularly high unemployment were compared with men in areas of moderate and relatively low unemployment. Scores for ill health were found significantly lower for high unemployed, when personal factors were controlled. The results supported the hypothesis that communities with high rates of unemployment develop resilience that was beneficial for the mental health of the unemployed. Ostell and Divers (1987) explored into the attributional styles and mental health of 66 unemployed managers and found that managers who tended to make characterological attributions for negative events had poorer mental health, as measured by General Health Questionnaire, but managers making behavioural attributions (for positive and negative events) had better mental health. High expressed need for job was also associated with poorer mental health.

In a 3 year longitudinal study, Iversen and Sabroe (1988), examined the effects of unemployment and the fear of becoming unemployed on the psychological well being of 1153 employees after a company closedown, and a control group of 441 employees from another operative shipyard. Unemployed people were found to have lower psychological well being than employed people. A change to or from employment was significantly associated with changes in psychological well being (Psychosomatic and Cardio-vascular symptoms, use of medicine, alcohol and tobacco, social support, life events, use of general practitioner and hospital services).

Among employed people, the fear of unemployment was strongly associated with reduced psychological well being. Thus the health related consequences of unemployment were seen in the unemployed and also the employed people who have little job security. Another longitudinal study on school leavers by Winefield, Tiggeman and Goldney (1988) before leaving school and again 4 years later using General Health Questionnaire, confirmed that satisfied employed were better adjusted psychologically. This suggested that unemployment led to deterioration of psychological well being.
Winefield and Tiggeman (1989) analysed longitudinal data of Australian school leavers in three successive years after leaving school, by forming three target, groups employed, full time students, and unemployed. They were compared on self esteem, depressive affect and mood. Results showed that the employed and full time student groups displayed overall well-being significantly superior to the unemployed. Within the unemployed group, those unemployed for intermediate periods were worse off than those unemployed for shorter or for longer periods. In a longitudinal study of 76 male social security clients (aged 20-35), Isaksson (1990) examined the relationship between changes in employment status and psychological well being after one year follow up. The data were gathered through structured interviews. The impact on general mental health and the frequency of job changes were measured. Results showed that re-employment was associated with better psychological well being and fewer symptoms of distress. Unemployment was associated with low psychological well being. Some results, however, suggested adaptation to the experience of repeated unemployment.

In a study of a rural island community, Harding and Sewel (1992) found that the men's psychological health varied especially between the employed and the nonemployed status, but not for the women. Although the differences that were found in the island population were of the same kind as reported from urban populations, they were less pronounced.

The association of unemployment and re-employment with mental well being was examined by Lahelma (1992), in a sample of industrial job seekers (N=703) in Finland. The General health Questionnaire was administered on two occasions. As expected, the unemployed had much low mental well being than employed. The control on other variables indicated that only gender, interacted with employment status to adversely impact mental well being. Men's reactions to unemployment were stronger than women's re-employment followed by a clear improvement in internal well being. Beinser, Johnson and Turner (1993) studied the relation of
employment status and depression among 1,348 adult South-East-Asian refugees resettled in Vancouver, British Columbia. 1,169 of these subjects were reinterviewed two years later along with a comparison sample of 319 permanent residents of the city. A reciprocal relationship between unemployment and depressive affect was found. Increased risk of depression was accompanied by job loss and depression made it more difficult to stay employed. For the refugees income loss, was the overriding stress resulting from job loss while, loss of esteem and loss of social contact also proved to be relevant stressors for the resident Canadians. Although a threat to the mental health of resident Canadians, under employment did not jeopardize the mental health of refugees.

Hammer (1993) examined the types of mental health problems experienced by the unemployed and their relationship to the length of unemployment, using data from 3 questionnaires administered to nearly 2,000 subjects 17-20 years old, (51% male) in 1985, 1987, & 1989. Results showed that unemployment had a weak but significant impact on mental health problems. Active job seeking did not moderate mental health problems.

Viinamaki, Koshela, Niskanem, Arnkil (1993c) investigated associations between unemployment, financial situation and mental well being in 135 former employees of a factory that was closed down. Questionnaires were used to collect data in areas, sufficiency of social support, health, drinking and smoking habits. Mental well being was measured by the Beck Depression Inventory, the General health Questionnaire and a psychosomatic symptoms questionnaire. The poor financial situation was found associated with impaired mental well being. There was no clear association between drinking and smoking habits and financial situation and mental well being. Insufficient social support accentuated the effects of financial problems on mental well being. Subjects who said they were uncertain about the future found it more difficult to cope mentally than did other subjects. In another study Viinamaki, Koshela and Niskanem (1993) compared 132 recently unemployed
and 187 employed subjects to examine the relationship between psychosomatic symptoms and mental well-being by using the General health Questionnaire, the Beck Depression Inventory and Psychosomatic Symptoms Questionnaire. Higher psychosomatic scores implied lower mental well-being, particularly in unemployed subjects. Insufficient social support and uncertainty about the future were associated with psychosomatic symptom scores among unemployed subjects. Subjective mental problems were also associated with high psychosomatic symptoms scores for both employed and unemployed subjects. Unemployed subjects were more likely to indicate that their physical health had deteriorated during the past year. The occurrence of psychosomatic symptoms was associated with depression and the need for psychological help particularly among the unemployed.

B ) Psychological Distress

The growing violence and vandalism by youth and their associations are illustrations of growing restlessness and ebullition of their anger and frustration partially due to unemployment. Singh and Kumar (1974) found that the level of education and period of unemployment were significantly related to the level of anxiety. They measured the level of anxiety among 40 male unemployed graduates and 40 male postgraduates for varying periods. It was found that unemployed master degree holders were more anxious than unemployed graduates. Graduates and postgraduates who were unemployed for a longer period were more anxious than those unemployed for a shorter period. A survey conducted by Daniel (1975) found that the most common complaints by unemployed were feelings of boredom, depression or apathy, feelings of failure, inadequacy, and being looked down because they were unemployed. When asked how had it been for them personally being out of work, majority (48%) of the respondents reported that it had been very bad while 28% said quite bad (Radloff, 1975, Cobb and Kasl, 1977; Kasl, 1979).

An extensive research done on macro-economic factors and mental health of metropolitan communities by Catalano and Dooley (1977, 1979). They showed
significant time-series associations between monthly unemployment rate and depression and absolute change in employment in the basic economic sector with stressful life events and various psychophysiological symptoms in low-income respondents.

In a comparative study, O'Brien and Kabanoff (1979) found that the unemployed workers had higher levels of physical health problems, a greater use of helping services and greater stress. Jones (1979) noted that the stress of unemployment results in depression, withdraw and retreat, in addition to the more extreme effects of suicide, homicide and so on. These psychological factors might directly, interfere with the job search process, thereby creating more stress and tension. In a motivational and attributional analysis of unemployment and depressive effects, Feather and Davenport (1981) tested a sample of 150 male and 60 female unemployed youth contacted through helping Agencies in Adelaide, South Australia. The results showed that subjects who indicated that they were highly motivated to get a job also provided higher ratings of depressive effect. These subjects with higher levels of depressive affect were found less likely to blame themselves for their unemployment and more likely to blame external difficulties, such as the current economic situation.

Warr (1984) found significant associations between psychological distress and reported changes in behaviour. Lehtinen (1984) reviewed studies on unemployment and mental disorders and suggested a circular or interactional relationship. Unemployment may affect mental health by acting as a precipitating factor. The risk for the mentally disturbed to become unemployed was greater than for other people. All unemployed persons are not similar and factors such as age, education, domicile, family other social ties and personality could also effect. Work was an important resource for mental health and unemployment was a risk factor because it means that the individuals lose the positive and supportive demand of work. The negative factors include lack of emotional and economic security, a confusion about time, isolation, identity diffusion and frustration. Results showed
that the non work activities had only weak relationship to the psychological state of the unemployed. The personality and motivational dynamics of 100 employed, 100 underemployed and 100 unemployed arts and science graduate youths (male) were examined by Tiwari (1986). It was found that unemployed group manifested more free floating anxiety as compared to their underemployed counter parts. Neuroticism and extraversion were not found good predictors of personality dynamics of the groups. Unemployed and underemployed educated youths felt more psychological insecurity as compared to the employed. Underemployed educated youths exhibited more dependent proneness than the unemployed. Employment had a significant linkage with achievement motivation. Unemployed educated youth were found to take less risk as compared to the employed.

Dressler (1986) he studied the relationship between unemployment and mental health in 130 employed (mean age 42.8 years) and 49 unemployed (mean age 30.6 years) subjects from a black community in the southern United States. Depressive symptoms were measured with a subscale from the shortened version of the Hopkins Symptom Checklist. Multiple regression analysis showed that unemployment was significantly related to higher depressive symptoms independently of demographic factors, chronic stressors, other life events and resistance resources. The effect of unemployment was exacerbated by low household income and the occurrence of other life events. Feather and O'Brien (1986) compared scores obtained by the employed and unemployed respondents at two different points of time when they were at school and when they were either employed or unemployed. The results showed that those who were not able to find a job tended to see themselves as less competent, less pleasant and less active, reported more stress symptoms, more depressive affect and less satisfaction with life in comparison to those who found jobs.

Banks and Ullah (1987, 1988) used the General Health Questionnaire to study the effect of employment status on psychological well being of 17 & 18 year
olds. They found that general HQ scores were strongly associated with employment status. Transitional impacts upon general distress, depression and anxiety were found for teenagers of both sexes. There was no further deterioration beyond the initial decrement, at least up to age of 18.

Brown and Gary (1985) surveyed 109 unemployed and 246 employed Black adults residing in an urban area to identify factors related to the presence of depressive symptoms. Results showed, the unemployed having a significantly higher mean depressive symptomatology than employed subjects. There were fewer depressive symptoms among unemployed subjects with higher levels of income, education, religiosity, age and satisfactory social support. Older subjects apparently had more resources to ameliorate the potential negative consequences of unemployment. Feather (1986) reported changes in behaviour after job loss in a sample of 42 older unemployed men. Subjects reported increase in time spent on domestic and other activities and decrease in time spent on some activities that required money. The social contacts were negatively related to psychological distress. Increase in activities involving recreation and entertainment through money were negatively related to reported financial stress. Increases in passive, aimless activities were positively related to psychological distress and to life satisfaction. Reported financial stress and financial strain were both positively related to psychological distress and negatively related to life satisfaction and quality of life.

Winefield and Tiggemann (1990) studied the relationship between length of unemployment and psychological distress using longitudinal and cross-sectional data on 34 unemployed Australian young people, (19 to 24 years). Their findings supported the curvilinear hypothesis relating psychological distress or affective well being to unemployment duration. Subjects were divided into 3 target groups unemployed for 3 months or less, unemployed from 4 to 8 months and for 9 months or more. On most of the dependent measures the 3 month and 4-8 month groups did not differ, but the 9 month group was seen worse off than either. The relations
between length of unemployment and psychological distress were different for teenagers and young adults.

Reynolds and Gilbert (1991) tested the relationship between negative life events and depression, mediated by interaction between vulnerability and protective factors. 50 unemployed men completed measures of depressive symptoms, sociotropic or autonomous motivation, social support and activity. There were significant interactions between autonomy and activity but not between sociotrophy and social support. The study suggested that the psychological impact of unemployment was moderated by complex interactions between vulnerability and protective factors. The specific interaction model was thus partially supported.

Winefield, Tiggemann and Winefield (1992) showed consistent differences in psychological well being with those employed in satisfactory jobs (417) being better of than the unemployed (40) or those employed in unsatisfactory (45) jobs, even though the groups did not differ in psychological well being while at school. Moreover the dissatisfied employed were as badly off as the unemployed. These differences arose because of negative reaction to job loss of the employed and the unemployed.

Schaufeli and VanYperen (1992) conducted a longitudinal study on 635 technical college students and 487 technical college graduates who had been unemployed for more than an year, to address the relationship between unemployment and psychological distress. In contrast to the results of many recent published studies, unemployment was found to be associated with psychological distress only among those unemployed for more than 2 years. Males and females were not found to react differently to unemployment. Less psychologically distressed graduates were more likely to become employed than more distressed graduates, and the mean level of psychological distress decreased significantly over time for both employed and unemployed technical graduates. This study indicated, the
importance of group-specific aspects i.e. level of education as well as the structural and cultural context in understanding the consequences of unemployment.

In a follow up study of long term unemployment Claussen (1994) assessed the psychological and biochemical stress in 291 long term unemployed people (aged 16-63 years) in Norway for 2 years. The unemployed had a high level of psychological distress at the first examination. At the 2 years follow-up distress was reduced by re-employment. This fitted into the causation hypotheses, which explained the high distress level caused by unemployment. The selection hypothesis, which assumed that distressed persons have an increased chance of continuous unemployment was also confirmed. Significant differences were not found of biological stress the unemployed, the reemployed and the working controls.

Morrell, Taylor, Qnine, Kerr and Western (1994) analyzed data from an Australian longitudinal survey to estimate the relative risk of psychological disturbance accompanying unemployment in young adults (aged 15-24 years). Two cohorts were surveyed annually over 4 years with 8,995 subjects from the general population and 2,403 subjects selected from employment services records. A Bayesian probabilities approach was used to calculate probability of psychologically normal subjects becoming morbid with unemployment. An overall relative risk of becoming psychologically disturbed as a result of unemployment was estimated as 1.5%. The overall relative recovery from psychological disturbance upon reemployment was estimated to be 1.63%. Residual psychological effects of post unemployment experiences and effects of long term unemployment were investigated but found non-significant.

C) Cognitive Difficulties

Fryer and Warr (1984) studied cognitive difficulties in a sample of 954 unemployed working class men registered at 41 unemployment Benefit Offices in the United Kingdom. The sample was structured to cover equally all levels of age
within the labour force and all durations of unemployment up to and beyond 12 months. They reported either stability or change in 12 cognitive activities. Problem of slowing down and concentration were the most common. Longer duration since job loss was found to be associated with greater cognitive difficulties and middle aged unemployed men were particularly likely to report problems. Harworth, Chesworth and Smith (1990) analysed self-report data of 19 unemployed, middle-aged men and found that subjects experienced cognitive difficulties. Among them 79% of the subjects reported poor affective well being. In a second study, 12 unemployed men (aged 30-55 years) showed an overall suppression of intellectual functioning and difficulty in cognitive estimation related to 12 matched employed men. Further they emphasized that the cognitive problem particularly in conjunction with poor affect, made it difficult for individual to plan and organise their lives.

Layton (1987) predicted a slowing down in cognitive and problem solving ability of unemployed persons. He found that 37% of the unemployed men indicated that they were now taking longer to do things than they did earlier and 30% were getting rusty on things they used to do well. More specifically, the attitude towards job security and work social relationships were adversely affected by long term unemployment (Payne and Jones 1987). Nurmi, Almdaro, Ruotsals Jari- Erik and Ruotsainen (1994) had studied the cognitive and attributional strategies of unemployed people, ages ranged between 14 to 26 years. The results suggested that the young adults displaying evident problem behaviour applied insufficient cognitive and attributional strategy as failure trap rather than as self handicapping or learned helplessness strategy.

Wehmeyer (1994) examined the relationship between individual perceptions of control and employment status among adults with cognitive and development disabilities. It was hypothesized that individuals employed in competitive work situations would evidence more positive perceptions of control than would their peers currently unemployed or employed in sheltered settings. Surveys containing
the adult version of Nowicki Strickland Internal External Scale were mailed to self-advocacy groups. For 216 respondents (aged 19-64 years), there were significant differences in locus of control scores among individuals employed competitively, individuals employed half-time and in sheltered environments. Individual unemployed and employed in sheltered setting perceived themselves as having less control than did individuals employed competitively.

D) Life Satisfaction

Warr (1978) in a cross sectional study found that redundant steel workers in Britain who remained unemployed 6 months after the closure of their plant displayed higher levels of self rated anxiety, life dissatisfaction and negative affect than those reemployed.

Tiggemann and Winefield (1980), have studied the psychological effects of unemployment in school leavers. They found that loss of happiness is one of the major consequences of unemployment along with depression. Jahoda (1982) had a similar viewing that the financial rewards and higher standard of living as an employed brings satisfaction of some of basic needs, which were denied during unemployment.

Stokes and Cochrane (1984) investigated the psychological and social consequences of redundancy and unemployment. They concluded that the unemployed exhibited lower levels of self-satisfaction than the employed during the six months of their study. Winefield and Tiggemann (1985) in there longitudinal study of 1636 young people while they were at school and again two years later, found that the female unemployed shared a decrease in happiness. Conversely the male unemployed showed decreased boredom and helplessness.

Feather and O'Brien (1986) investigated the effects of employment and unemployment in a longitudinal study involving large samples of school leavers from
state high schools in metropolitan Adelaide. The results showed that those not able to find employment tended to see themselves as less competent, less pleasant and had less satisfaction in life. Winefield, Tiggemann and Goldney (1988) surveyed school leavers before leaving school and again four years later. They found that the employed youngsters who expressed overall satisfaction with their jobs had higher self esteem, less depressive affect with their jobs than those who were unemployed. A relative effect of unemployment and quality of employment on the affective state, personal control and work values of school leavers was studied by O'Brien and Feather (1990). They found that when school leavers who obtained good quality employment were compared with those who were unemployed, they had lower depressive affect, higher life satisfaction and higher personal competence. However, the differences were nominal between unemployed and poor employment groups.

Summary

The above review showed that the unemployed had lower self esteem than the employed. The role of locus of control was important in cognitive and behavioral changes during employment and they had more symptoms of illhealth. The externality was more among unemployed than employed. Employment commitment influenced intrinsic motivation, attitudes towards unemployment felt more alienated due to deprivation of socially defined necessities.

The literature focused on the monetary aspects or leisure time activities, or social contacts, but not on how unemployed perceived their environment from various angles like their usability in the society, constructive time use, social interactions, etc.

Besides very few studies had maiden attempt to study the effects of environment on psychological heath. The environmental variables focused were perceived control (Frese and Mohr, 1978) confused perceptions of self environment (Gurney, 1980), financial severity (Oliver and Pomictere, 1981), decreased social entertainment (Feather and Bond, 1983), loss of meaningful activity (Levi, Brenner
and Patterson, 1984), restricted activities (Fryer and Payne, 1986; Stoner and Arora, 1987), lack of effort and ability (Payne and Furnham, 1990), uncertainty about the future (Vinmaki, et al, 1993) etc. Fryer and Mckenna (1987) reported that temporary unemployment did not affect the mental health or perceptions of environment. Very few were conducted in India on social psychology on unemployment. Since culturally, socially and economically, India was different from other industrially developed countries, the impact of different variables on psychological health during could be different and interesting to observe. Although, the general finding delerious impact of unemployment had been corroborated in number of studies, there was a need to investigate the impact of the personal and environmental factors together on psychological health. This research may thus provide answers to some of the important questions related to personal and environmental factors of psychological health of educated unemployed.