Chapter II

Review of Literature
CHAPTER II - REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The present chapter reviews the various studies available in literature on unemployment, values and personality. The first part of the chapter deals with the impact unemployment has on the individual. These studies are classified under four major heads, viz., studies dealing with need deprivation as a result of unemployment, unemployment leading to deterioration in mental health which also includes studies relating to stress and anxiety as a result of unemployment, studies relating to psycho-social effects of unemployment, finally those studies dealing with the psychiatric problems of the unemployed. These are followed by the various studies relating to Values, Security and the personality characteristics, Tamas, Rajas and Sattwa and Probabilistic orientation, in that order.

The studies relating to unemployment date back to the early period of the Great Depression (Elderton, 1931; Bakke, 1933; Zawadski and Lazarsfeld, 1935; Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938). Many studies that have been carried out after that, during this century, also deal with the psychological consequences of unemployment. The consensus of most of these findings is that there exist vast individual differences and occupational differences among the unemployed over the various cultures. In most cases it is not possible to generalise the results to all the cultures.
Unemployment and need deprivation

The consequences of mass unemployment in Marienthal, Austria, is a well documented part of the literature dealing with unemployment (Jahoda, et al., 1933; Jahoda, 1982, 1992). The studies on unemployment in Austria highlight the fact that human needs are deprived and the consequences of unemployment stem from denial of the latent functions served by employment. Few studies investigating youth unemployment have found "marked effects on personality" including a tendency to become drifters, increased irritability, loss of ambition, an increase in female prostitution, criminality and hopelessness. The earlier findings suggest that the effects of unemployment are similar in both adults and youth (Eisenberg & Lazarsfeld, 1938).

Continuous monitoring of a small group of unemployed between 6 weeks to 6 months after job loss on a range of psychological and physiological measures reveal that the men either improved significantly or showed no change with continuing unemployment. No significant deterioration is reported on any of the psychological measures used in this study (Kasl, 1979).

In a study on the impact of unemployment, a small group of 31-57 year old British unemployed managerial/professional staff were interviewed. The findings of the study suggest that the experience of the unemployed vary according to individual circumstances and the broad trend that could be identified in their experiences show that they undergo the same phasic reactions usually reported
in studies on unemployed by previous investigators (Swinburne, 1981).

A study of school leavers in Britain focuses on measures of psychological distress and self-esteem. The findings suggest that psychological distress and self-esteem are not correlated with unemployment duration and the expected association between unemployment and psychological effects may be restricted to older samples and longer periods out of work (Warr et al. 1982).

A longitudinal investigation involving comparison of two cohorts of British school leavers interviewed over two year period brings out interesting information. The findings show that both self-esteem and psychological distress are not correlated with duration of unemployment for males and no relationship with self esteem is seen in the case of females. In one cohort, longer female employment is found to be associated with lower distress and this is attributable to women’s withdrawal from labour market because of pregnancy and child care (Warr et al. 1982).

Another longitudinal cohort study extending over a period of three years involving British school leavers show that psychological distress is higher for the unemployed than the employed and changes in employment status lead to changes in distress. The relationship between distress and status is moderated by Ss’ commitment to paid employment in that the effect of movement between work and unemployment is greatest for those whose employment commitment is high (Jackson et al. 1983).
A study has examined the relationship between self-esteem and unemployment among young British workers using cross sectional and longitudinal analyses. The findings show that there are large and reliable differences in negative self-esteem between those young workers who are employed and those who are out of work. The differences reported pertain both to men and women. Changes in negative self-esteem are reported to accompany changes in the job status. Personal work involvement is found to moderate the relationship between self-esteem and unemployment (Warr and Jackson, 1983). The case of old workers suffering due to the job loss is supported in the findings of another study (Warr and Jackson, 1985).

A study of a very large sample of unemployed working class men registered with a number of benefit offices in UK has focused on changes in 12 cognitive abilities. The findings of the study show that greater cognitive difficulties are reported in ten out of the twelve cognitive abilities investigated with increasing time since job loss (Freyer and Warr, 1984).

The relationship between psychological health and the experience of being unemployed has been explored in a longitudinal study expanding from 6 months to 11 months in a British community. The investigation involved unskilled and semi skilled as well as white collar managerial and professional workers. All the Ss studied were married males belonging to the age group 25-39 years. The findings of the study show that the general psychological
distress and general health do not get affected due to unemployment though medium-term unemployment appears to have homogenizing effect on psychological health including anxiety, depression, general psychological distress and general health (Payne et al., 1984).

Importance of a situational factor on the effects of unemployment has been tested in a study on 16-19 year old British Ss. The findings of the study show that Ss unemployed for 4-9 weeks suffered greater distress, loss of self-esteem, and lower life satisfaction than Ss unemployed for longer or shorter periods (Breakwel and Harrison, 1984).

A factor analytical inquiry of responses of students in penultimate year of secondary school to a questionnaire concerning work and unemployment has yielded two factors labeled employment-importance and helplessness-pessimism (Feather, 1986). These two are identified to correspond to value and expectancy. A path analysis of the responses shows that high class predicts to moderate internal attribution in the way the students explained current youth unemployment, to higher school grades, and to an employed rather than an unemployed father or guardian. Further, higher internal attribution for youth unemployment predicted to more school guidance received by the students about their employment prospects and higher school grades obtained by the students predicts to staying at school longer (Feather, 1986).
Desired measures of job valence and control-optimism (the helplessness-permission dimension in reverse), defined on the basis of a factor analysis predict to job-seeking behaviour among young unemployed individuals. The findings available so far suggest that job valence reliably predicts to job-seeking behaviour but the control-optimism variable does not predict to job-seeking behaviour (Feather & O'Brien, 1987). Job valence is found to be positively related to work ethic values and that control-optimism negatively related both to the length of times Ss had been unemployed and the number of unsuccessful job applications (Feather & O'Brein, 1987). These results are further confirmed in another study using four different measures of job-seeking behaviour and measures of the variables that are similar to control-optimism, and job-valence measures. The results show that job seeking behaviour is positively related to job valence, but significantly related to control-optimism. Lower levels of control-optimism are associated with length of unemployment duration (Feather, 1990).

Another large sample study of black and white urban teenagers suggests that distress levels are significantly higher among unemployed than comparable employed samples, and symptoms have usually commenced after the onset of unemployment. Unemployed black of Afro-Caribbean descent are found to exhibit significantly lower levels of distress and depression than whites. However, the findings report no differences to exist between black and white
respondents in respect of anxiety, financial strain and concern over being unemployed (Warr et al. 1985).

Another longitudinal study on the effects of long-term unemployment suggests that higher commitment at the initial interview is significantly associated with a greater subsequent decline in psychological but not physical health and a chronic health impairment at the initial interview is significantly associated with a greater subsequent decrement in physical but not psychological health (Warr and Jackson, 1985).

Findings of another study shows that while a small minority of long term unemployed can make a constructive adaptation to unemployment, the most common response was a resigned adaptation. People reduced their routine of behavior, avoided any new or potentially stressful situations including job-seeking with its negative potential rejection with this apparent resignation. There is reduction in aspirations, autonomy and personal competence. "By wanting less, long-term unemployed people achieve less, and they become less" (Warr, et al. 1988).

A study of Irish youth suggests that many suffer in specific developmental ways from unemployment. The unemployed youth suffer high levels of psychological distress two to three times higher than that found in the employed youths. Unemployed young jobless women are significantly more deprived and anxious than the unemployed males. Most disadvantaged in the labour market are
also more vulnerable to the negative impact of unemployment on psychological well-being. In a 6-months follow up, those youth who were still unemployed report significant higher levels of anxiety, depression, anger and hostility (Mcarthy, 1986).

A cross sectional analysis of psychological impact of unemployment in Sweden confirms the relationship between unemployment and mental health. The correlational analysis shows that the extent to which a S perceived his time as being occupied or unoccupied affect his subjective well-being and mental health (Brenner and Bartell, 1982; 1983).

Activity levels acting as moderators to the effects of unemployment has been examined in a study of 112 unemployed and and a comparison group of 93 employed youths aged between 16 and 21 years. The study also investigated the personality characteristics of the groups. Activity level proved to be a significant variable which had a strong relationship with mood and self-esteem measures. The trait personality of the two groups did not show differences but the unemployed were found to be more neurotic than the employed Ss (Lennings, 1993).

The effects of unemployment on self-concept, including the following dimensions, self-evaluation, self-involvement, and self-consistency has been studied among 40 unemployed and 40 full-time employees aged between 18 and 37 years. Results proved that significant relationship existed between unemployment and
reflected appraisals (perceived evaluations) from friends, family, and employers. Negative reflected appraisals were associated with poorer self-evaluation, poorer self-involvement and greater inconsistency in the self among the unemployed sample (Sheeran & Abraham, 1994).

A community survey conducted in the Fall of 1984 in a sample of high unemployment blue-collar workers attempted to test the earlier findings that involuntarily unemployed workers would have significantly elevated levels of depression, anxiety, somatization, and self-reported physical illness relative to a stably employed comparison group. Results of this study revealed that this relationship is modified by social support, self-concept and various coping processes. The modifying effects of social support and coping operate primarily by buffering the impact of unemployment-related financial strain on the health outcomes. Self-concept operated primarily by attenuating vulnerability to other stressful life events (Turner, et al., 1991).

**Unemployment and psychological stress**

Literature on stress is no longer directed either to environmental stressors or the personality dispositions. Rather they treat stress as a complex phenomenon that occurs and develops in the person-environment process (Lazarus & Launier, 1978). The process of coping is to be viewed as adaptive response to both
kinds of appraisals in a stressful situation - both person and environment.

In recent times, research on stress and coping has turned to observations in natural settings and focuses on the experience of life events. Possibly, four or more dimensions may be distinguished with respect to the contents of life events standing as stressful ones: loss and separation (death or severe illness in the immediate family, divorce), autonomy and intimacy (tension with a loved one, arguments with the boss, peer pressure, religious problems), academic pressure (amount of home work anticipated failure of an examination, work load, deadlines), and financial obligations (lack of money, paying bills, job search, installment of loans) (Schwarzer, 1989).

A growing body of literature devoted to occupational stress is now available. It emphasizes that unemployment is often experienced as a highly stressful life change. Job loss consistently ranks between seventh and ninth in the degree of stress it creates relative to as many as 61 life changes as reported in a number of studies (Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Masuda & Holmes, 1967; Paykel, 1971). Job loss can create almost as much stress as the death of a loved one and has been been found to be more stressful than divorce or the death of a close friend.

A stress cumulative model is invoked to account for the findings on the relationship between length of unemployment and psychological ill-health by Jackson and Warr (1984).
An experimental study involving small groups of employed and unemployed has attempted to investigate the effects of chronic unemployment and acute psychological stress on sexual arousal in men. The unemployed and the employed groups involved were exposed to two erotic videotapes in the laboratory and acute stress was induced by telling the Ss that they would have to give a talk on their own sexual behavior and fantasies. The findings show that the unemployed achieved less penile tumescence than the employed (Morokoff et al. 1987).

A study has tested the hypothesis that the greatest biochemical stress related to loss of meaningful activity would be experienced among the unemployed. The study done on Swedish Ss suggests that the hypothesis has credibility (Levi, et al. 1984).

Payne and Hartley (1987) have attempted to explicitly develop a stress model to predict variations in the psychological experience of the long-term unemployed (Payne & Hartley, 1987). Payne and Hartley hold that personal attributes and conditioning variables like financial worries, financial behaviours, income change, reported health, health change and social class have mutual interaction. Similarly, the perception of environment and current affect mutually influence one another. Both perception of environment and current affects are acted upon by the personal attributes and conditioning variables. The stress model has been applied to explain variations in psychological experience among the unemployed (Payne, 1988). The sample for the study of Payne
included middle class sample defined in terms of occupational levels - higher managerial, administrative or professional jobs, intermediate jobs of similar nature and working class including semiskilled, unskilled manual workers and casual laborers. The longitudinal study investigated the sample on three occasions over a period of 2 years.

The findings of the study reveal that remaining unemployed for 2 or more years did not affect most of the conditioning variables or the personal attribute variables. However, there was a small improvement in anxiety symptoms by the time 3, concurrent with slight improvements in perceived problems and income change. The findings conform to the predictions made by the stress model with regard to predicting affective experiences. Another study on unemployed British Ss aged around 40 years shows that the unemployed manifested greater stress than the employed. The differences observed in this study pertain to symptoms of ill-health, hostility, guilt, self-satisfaction, acceptance by others and family role behaviour (Strokes and Cochrane, 1984).

In a study in Belfast, Northern Ireland the unemployed men are found to vary in their ability to cope with the psychological stress of unemployment, with some groups experiencing greater damage to psychological well-being than others (Kilpatrick and Trew, 1985).

In a study in Lanchester, British Colombia, 1,348 adolescent Asian refugees migrated to that place were compared with 319
permanent residents of that city on their depression effects as a result of unemployment. Results of the study after a reinterview with 1,169 of these refugees two years later showed that a reciprocal relationship existed between unemployment and depression. Increased risk of depression accompanied job loss and depression made it more difficult to stay employed. In contrast of refugees for whom income loss was the overriding stress resulting from job loss, loss of esteem and loss of social contact also proved to be salient stressors for the residents. Although a threat to mental health of residents, underemployment did not jeopardise the mental health of refugees (Beinser, et al. 1993).

Feather and his coworkers have used the Expectancy-valence approach to predict the depressive effect that can follow unemployment. A comprehensive review of the works done since the 1970s is available in Feather (1985; 1992). The findings of these studies, in addition to explaining the stressful consequences of unemployment, also seek to suggest an explanation to their dynamics. Analysis of data obtained from a large group of unemployed divided into four groups depending on their ratings of depressive affect show that Ss with higher levels of depressive affect are those who (1) indicate that they are initially more confident about getting a job, (2) that they are more in need of a job when past leaving school, (3) who view employment as an attractive goal (4) who provide higher ratings of personal
effort and (5) who are also inclined to view that relatively stable external factors are the source of their present difficulties (Feather and Davenport, 1981).

A comparison of the unemployed with employed on psychological correlates of adults in Australia shows that the unemployed have higher depression and lower self-esteem as compared with the employed. Unemployed males have lower protestant ethic and also report that good and bad outcomes across a range of situations are less important to them, compared to the employed (Feather, 1982).

Yet another study that looked at the effects of unemployment duration up to 18 months or more, in a younger and an older sample reports that no effect of duration could be observed on self-esteem, psychological distress or employment commitment in either group, although distress tend to increase with duration (Rowley and Feather, 1982).

Another study reports different patterns of correlates for situation-specific depressive affect and for the general measure of depressive symptoms. The Ss who provided higher ratings of depressive affect about unemployment also tend to report that not having a job is an important concern to them, and are also more likely to endorse external causes as reasons for their unemployment (Feather and Barber, 1983).
A comparison of employed and unemployed male and female university graduates on self-esteem, depression, importance and extent to which time is used in structured and purposeful way shows that the unemployed show less engagement, less direction, less routine in their use of time. The use of time by the unemployed indicates less organization and less purpose (Feather and Bond, 1983).

Data of the Australian Longitudinal Survey, conducted by the Commonwealth Department of Employment, Education and Training, were analysed to estimate relative risk of psychological disturbance accompanying unemployment in young people aged 15-24 years. The total sample size included 11,398 subjects of which 8995 included a general population of 15-24 year old and the other 2403 selected from Commonwealth Employment Service records. The 12 item General Health Questionnaire was used to study the psychological morbidity among the Ss. Results showed that there was some evidence of psychological adaptation to unemployment. Unemployment was a significant cause of psychological disturbance in young people who were initially unemployed, not suffering physical ill-health, and psychologically normal; conversely, re-employment reversed the effect (Morrell, et al., 1994).

In a study of the impact of unemployment on the psychological well-being of British Asians living in north of England, a sample of 139 unemployed men were studied for the psychological
consequences of unemployment in relation to other psychological variables. Results showed that the unemployed group had lower levels of psychological well-being, self-esteem and employment commitment with high external beliefs, than the employed group. Moreover, the length of unemployment was a significant determinant of psychological well-being and prolonged unemployment in comparison to shorter durations of unemployment (Shams & Jackson, 1994).

The relationship between unemployment and depressive symptoms among the Black community has been studied on a 49 unemployed sample residing in Southern US. The results of the analysis showed that unemployment was significantly related to higher depressive symptoms and other chronic stressors (Dressker & William, 1986).

The psychologically and biologically assessed stress among long-term unemployed has been studied in a 2 year follow-up study of 291 long-term unemployed people aged 16 to 63 years from Norway for their psychological and biological stress. The unemployed were found to be having a high level of psychological distress at the 1st examination. At the 2 year follow-up distress was reduced by re-employment. The study also confirmed the view that distressed persons have an increased chance of continuous unemployment (Claussen, 1994).
Mental health and well-being in relation to unemployment

10 to 20% of the unemployed report improvement in general health (Payne et al., 1984; Spruit, 1983). Jackson & Warr (1984) report that among the unemployed, teenagers and those over 60 have slightly better mental health than the middle-aged. Warr & Jackson (1985) report that the effect of length of unemployment on mental health increases over the first 2-3 months and then remained stable over the next year. Social support is shown to moderate the effects of unemployment to a very small degree (Ullah et al. 1985).

The moderating factors of the psychological impact of unemployment have been explored in a study of a group of British Ss aged 19-63 years. The findings suggest that length of unemployment is inversely correlated with mental health and well being. Semi skilled and unskilled Ss have poorer psychological well-being during unemployment than those of higher occupational status. The study identifies the time occupied as felt by the S as the single best predictor of mental health during unemployment (Hepworth, 1980).

Improvement of well-being is reported after extended periods of unemployment in another study. However, the improvement reported seems to be accompanied by a significant improvement in income of the respondents during the period of unemployment (Payne et al., 1984).
A large scale longitudinal study of youth (16-18 years) focussed on well-being of young people with varying lengths of unemployment up to two and half years after leaving school. The findings fail to disclose any association between unemployment duration and general psychological distress, depression or anxiety; the only significant result obtained is on males. In the case of males, the greatest distress is found in the shortest and in the longest duration categories, suggesting a curvilinear relationship between duration of unemployment and distress (Banks and Ullah, 1987; 1988).

Another study shows that distress levels among the urban unemployed are significantly higher than among comparable employed samples and the symptoms have usually commenced after the onset of unemployment. Further, length of time out of work is unrelated to affective well being and employment commitment in both black and white respondents, but job attitudes are significantly less positive among the respondents who have been unemployed for longer periods (Warr et al., 1985).

Well-being is reported to improve from 15 to 25 months of continuous unemployment accompanied by any improvement in financial situation (Warr and Jackson, 1987).

A series of investigations have focussed on the impact of unemployment on the well-being among the Australian School Leavers. A study on school leavers with regard to the effect of
unemployment on their perception of their identity used as many as 22 variables in the inquiry and tested the Ss while at school and after 4 months since they left the school. The findings of this large project provides partial support for the hypothesis that unemployment leads to confused perception of self. Employed female leavers showed significantly clearer sense of identity at the time of second testing but, the males did not show similar change. Further, no significant decrease in self-esteem is found in those who are unemployed but, an increase in self-esteem is reported in the case of employed. This trend is marked in the case of females who showed lower self-esteem than males while at school. A similar pattern is seen with regard to psychosocial development (Gurney, 1980).

A comparison of the rural and urban unemployed on their subjective well-being and Holland Personality Dimensions reveals that the urban unemployed, compared to the rural unemployed experience higher degree of expectation-achievement congruence, family group concern, social support, confidence in coping and adequacy in social contacts, and lower degree of primary group concern and general well-being positive affect. Further, the urban unemployed, compared to the rural unemployed, experience greater degree of inadequate mental mastery and perceived ill health and lesser degree of deficiency in social contacts. The urban unemployed are more social and enterprising and the rural unemployed are more conventional when compared to one another.
that the association between unemployment and psychological ill-health is the strongest in the middle-age groups with greater ill-health among those with a longer duration since the job loss. Curiously, no association between duration and ill health is found for those who had recently entered the labour market or who are close to the end of their working lifes. Desire for a job and financial stress are found to be additional mediators of psychological ill-health during employment (Jackson & Warr, 1984).

A study of school leavers in England reveals that compared to employed, the unemployed show higher levels of depression and anxiety, a high incidence of minor psychiatric morbidity, lower self-esteem, poorer subjective well-being, and worse social adjustment. Females are found to show poorer psychological well-being than males, regardless of employment status (Donovan and Oddy, 1982).

A study on young adults employing a couple of psychomotor tasks and a questionnaire had compared employed with unemployed and under employed. The findings suggest that the unemployed are more anxious (stressful) than the employed and are less anxious compared to the underemployed (Santhanam, 1973).

Another study on the unemployed graduates and masters shows that unemployed masters are more anxious than unemployed graduates and anxiety and duration of unemployment is positively related. Matsers
unemployed for a longer period are more anxious than the graduates unemployed for shorter duration (Singh and Kumar, 1976). A series of studies done on highly educated unemployed in Israel reveals interesting findings. The findings show that unemployed are characterized by lower morale and high levels of depressive affect and anxiety while unemployment has no effect on self-esteem. Self-esteem is also not correlated with duration of unemployment. Changes in the employment status do not affect the level of self-esteem though they are related to the level of psychological well-being. Further, depressive affect is found to be jointly determined by employment status and self-esteem. Self-esteem seems to moderate the relationship between unemployment status and psychological well-being. Both the cross-sectional and longitudinal evidences available in these studies suggest that work involvement moderates the relationship between employment status and psychological well-being while protestant work ethic does not assume such moderating role (Shamir, 1985; 1986).

In an analysis of the theoretical and empirical studies relating to unemployment and mental health, Osipow & Fitzgerald (1993) indicate that job loss has predictable effects on individual sense of well-being and further that the effects differ in particular populations related to variables such as age, gender and occupational background. They also suggest that early intervention after unemployment is likely to be important in ameliorating the undesirable effects of psychological well-being.
Finally, mental-health policy-makers, especially in the US are criticised for their failure to devote resources to encourage investigations into mental health implications for workers and the unemployed.

The effect of unemployment on the mental well-being of the entire personnel (n=305) of a wood-processing factory in Finland was studied using mail questionnaires 6 months after the factory closed down. Mental well-being was measured by means of the 12-item General Health Questionnaire, 13-item Beck Depression Inventory and 13-item questionnaire assessing psychosomatic symptoms. Mental well-being was poor in all age groups especially in married men. The impaired mental well-being in the men in the study group was associated with insufficient social support, subjectively poor health, low income and uncertainty about the future (Viinam, et al. 1993).

In a similar study, Viinam et al. examined the relationship between psychosomatic symptoms and mental well-being among the unemployed and employed. The study involved comparing 132 unemployed and 187 employed of two similar wood-processing factories. The results suggest that unemployment is a powerful external stress factor and that psychosomatic symptoms were associated with impaired mental well-being. These findings do not support a longitudinal study of nearly 2,000 unemployed youth aged between 17 to 20 years. The study conducted by the Central Bureau of Statistics in Norway between 1985 to 1989,
shows the unemployment had a weak but significant impact on mental health. Active job seeking did not moderate mental health problems (Hammer, 1993).

The relationship between employment status and psychological well-being of British Asians has been explored in a study of 89 employed and 71 unemployed persons who were interviewed. Findings showed poorer psychological well-being for the unemployed group, and especially for those of middle age. Moreover, religiosity as buffering the impact of unemployment was also confirmed (Shams & Jackson, 1993). The mental health of the unemployed and their adaptation to the role of unemployment has been studied among 411 unemployed British men aged between 16 and 64 years. It was found that mental health, indexed in terms of affective well-being improved slightly since the first interviewing 25 months earlier. Changes in aspiration, autonomy and competence were to underpin the improvement in well-being (Warr & Jackson, 1987).

The health effects of long-term unemployment among men in a rural and urban setting has been revealed from a study of 596 urban and 200 rural Dutch men aged 30 to 50 years. Independent effects on perceived somatic and depressive complaints and self-reported chronic disease were found among both rural and urban unemployed. The most important factors related to ill-health were loneliness, disadvantageous consequences of unemployment, money worries and ill health prior to job loss (Leeflang et al, 1992).
The effect of long term unemployment has been examined in a study of 629 unemployed men by re-interviewing them 9 months after initial measurement of their psychological health and commitment to labour market. The results showed that the Ss remaining continuously unemployed for 3 months after the initial interview did not show any change in their general health. But the Ss interviewed less than 3 months after the first interview did show a significant deterioration in their general health. Similarly, for those Ss unemployed for more than 3 months also there was a significant decline in the general health (Warr, et al. 1985).

The effect of unemployment on well-being has been further proved in a study of 78 currently unemployed young adults who were compared with 588 similar-aged persons in satisfactory employment and 228 full-time tertiary students on 7 measures of well-being. Results bring out the effect of unemployment, with lower levels of well-being among the unemployed (Winefield, 1993).

Social support and Psychological well-being among unemployed has been studied among 71 unemployed British Asian men in north England. Measures obtained on psychological distress, financial strain, employment commitment and unemployment stigma showed that family support had positive effects on unemployed men's psychological health. Moreover, material support was also correlated with psychological well-being (Shams, 1993). In a similar study in Finland conducted among 135 unemployed Finnish
Ss, results showed that Ss considering social support insufficient, experienced impaired mental well-being more often than the others (Viinamaki, et al. 1993).

The relationship between unemployment and mental well-being has been studied among 703 Finnish women and men who were originally employed in industry. Results of the study showed that there was a strong relationship between unemployment and mental well-being and that the impact of unemployment was felt more drastically among the women than the men (Lahelma, 1992).

**Socio-psychological effects of unemployment**

Earlier studies in India have concentrated on social psychological effects of unemployment. One of the earlier study reports that the attitude of the unemployed as a whole towards family to be least favourable. Those who depended on their parents for their maintenance had more favourable attitude than the self dependent ones (Sinha, 1957).

The Psychosocial consequences of prolonged unemployment has been investigated by Pillai & Dharmangadan (1977). They have studied the effect of unemployment on individual’s attitude, adjustment pattern and temperament at various education levels and varying levels of unemployed duration. Attitude change was assessed in terms of the dimensions of conservatism-Radicalism and Toughmindedness-Tendermindedness; changes in temperament was assessed in terms of psychopathic deviation, anxiety, mania,
depression, inferiority, paranoia and general inadequacy; and adjustment in terms of Home and Social adjustment. 754 individuals with varying educational qualifications ranging from high school to Post graduate level education comprised the sample. The findings of the investigation revealed that the strain of unemployment is found to be not so demanding as to make the unemployed psychologically maladjusted in general. The length of unemployment was a contributor to radical thinking, with the long term unemployed being more radical in their outlook but with lesser feelings of inferiority. The unemployed were also found to be more maladjusted, more depressed and with greater inferiority feelings.

An extensive investigation has studied the personality of unemployed and the entrepreneur with degree in engineering using California Psychological Inventory and Probabilistic Orientationaire. The findings show that the unemployed, compared to entrepreneurs, are less poised, less ascendent and less assured, less socialized, less mature and less responsible, has less achievement potential and intellectual efficency, less intellectual and interest modes that are conducive for success in work-a-day world. He is less probabilistically oriented than the entrepreneur. The duration of unemployment accentuates the deleterious effects of unemployment (Radhakrishanan, 1993).

A comparison of unemployed and employed young adults on locus of control, interpersonal trust, probabilistic orientation, social
desirability, protestant ethic, alienation and mental health in a cross sectional large scale study shows that the unemployed has a few friends, is less prone for internal orientation and more to powerful and chance orientation, has a low degree of interpersonal trust, more probabilistic orientation, more social desirability, low degree of protestant ethic, more alienation and lower level of mental health. Sex and sect differences seem to moderate the findings (Raj, 1985).

Another study has compared the unemployed with employed and entrepreneurs on protestant ethic, entrepreneurial attitude orientation and general health using samples of young adults having a degree in engineering. The results show that protestant ethic distinguishes the unemployed from the entrepreneur and not from the employed. The unemployed has less protestant ethic compared to entrepreneurs. The unemployed distinguishes himself from the employed on achievement attitude orientation, and from the entrepreneur on opportunism. In both the cases the unemployed has a lesser score compared to the employed and the entrepreneur. The unemployed does not distinguish himself from others on innovation, personal control and self esteem. The unemployed seems to be having greater general health as reported in this study (Yuvaraj, 1993).

An extensive analysis of the socio-psychological covariants of perceptions and attributions of unemployed reveals that the course studied by the individual has significant effect in that
the professional graduates have less negative experience compared to their non-professional counterparts. They seem to have more job-expectancy and perceive more job-success than the non-professional students. The professional students ascribe less importance to external and fatalistic factors compared with non-professional students. Further, context and course interact with regard to perceptions of unemployment, internal and fatalistic attributions. Context and gender interact with regard to internal and fatalistic attributions of unemployment. Course and gender interact on fatalistic attributions. Again, the context, course and gender have significant main and interaction effects on alienation; non-metro, non-professional females feel more alienated than metro, professional males. Only gender has a significant effect on externality; females are more external than males (Pal, 1993).

A national cross-sectional study in USA shows that the psychological symptom will vary directly with unemployment rate after controlling for individual's unemployment experience, other undesirable job events, and undesirable non-job events (Cohen, 1978). This finding is further confirmed in another longitudinal study of a single community in Kansas City, Missouri (Brown, 1982). However, this finding does not get support in a similar study based on two communities - Kansas City, Missouri and Washington County, Maryland (Dooley et al., 1988). The difference in the two Kansas City Studies was probably attributable to the use of
An adverse main effect of aggregate unemployment rate has been reported for workers in a survey analysed by Dooley & Catalano (1988).

The study by Kelvin (1985) reports that when the structure that a job gives a person's life is gone, a high level confusion ensues and with unemployment a whole circle of expectations which an individual has built up are no longer viable, and individuals are no longer capable of making valid predictions about their future (Kelvin, 1985).

A panel study of Boston area involving intensive interviews over a year's time reveals interesting findings on effects of job loss. The findings of the study suggest that unemployment resulting from losing blue and white-color jobs induces higher levels of psychological symptoms in general shortly following the job loss. Elevations in anxiety and depression, smaller increases in the symptoms of somatization, hostility and paranoia, less passivity and a minor negative mood are reported by the workers who lost the jobs. The symptoms are reported to consistently increase over the period of unemployment (Liem and Rayman, 1982; Liem and Liem, 1979).

A comparison of school leavers on attitudes, expectations and experience unemployment and employment have on happiness and self-esteem when they were still at school and seven months later reveals interesting findings. The findings suggest that
unemployment affects the individuals in terms of loss of happiness and self-esteem and no difference exist between the unemployed and the employed in attitudes and locus of control (Tiggemann & Winefield, 1980).

Another study has compared groups of employed and unemployed school leavers on a range of mood questions and psychological scales. The study collected comparative data over one year earlier, when the two groups were still at school. The expected differences are reported on most of the mood questions with the unemployed Ss rating themselves as more bored, lonely, angry with society, helpless and depressed, and less happy than the employed Ss. The results further suggest that although the differences in boredom, happiness and helplessness are consequences of unemployment, the differences in loneliness, anger with society, and depressed mood were predisposing factors. Similarly, the differences in depressive affect is seen as consequences of differences in employment status; however, such an inference with respect to self esteem is only applicable to girls. For boys, differences in self-esteem seem to be predisposing factors rather than consequences of differences in employment status (Tiggemann & Winefield, 1984)

Findings of another longitudinal study suggest that loneliness (in males only) and differences in locus of control and in need achievement, must be regarded as solely predisposing factors; Of these, only loneliness (in males) and need achievement can be
seen as predisposing factors of unemployment. Locus of control fails to distinguish the unemployed from other groups compared. Further, differences in anger (both internally and externally oriented), happiness, helplessness, and depressive affect may be seen as solely effects, not predisposing factors, of status. Depressed mood and self-esteem may be seen both as predisposing factor to, and effects of status. Further, the unemployed are reported to have higher emotional problems (Winefield and Tiggemann, 1985).

It is also found that greater self-esteem is associated with internal attributions for good outcomes and less depressive affect is associated with internal, stable attributions for good outcomes among the employed while no such relationship could be found with the unemployed. By contrast, attribution for bad outcomes are related to both depressive affect and self-esteem in the unemployed, but, are related only to depressive affect in the employed. Again, in the unemployed, lower depressive affect and higher self-esteem are both associated with unstable attributions (Winefield et al. 1987).

A longitudinal study has attempted a comparison of employed, full time students and unemployed with one another on self-esteem, depressive affect and mood. The study employed individuals' at-school measures as base line and measures obtained in each of three successive years after leaving school. Further, five sub groups have been evolved of the unemployed sample used in this
study based on the duration the group has remain unemployed, viz., less than one month, 1-3 month, 3-6 months, 6-12 months and more than 12 months. These groups were also compared with one another on well-being. The findings show that the employed and student group overall display well-being significantly superior to the unemployed, although, within the later group those unemployed for intermediate periods were worse off than those unemployed for shorter or longer periods (Winefield & Tiggemann, 1990).

Another longitudinal study on school leavers in Australia brings out interesting findings. The study compared four groups of Ss on two occasions after leaving school. The four groups include those employed on both occasions, those employed on the second occasion and not on the first occasion, those employed on the first occasion and not on the second occasion, and those unemployed on both the occasion. The questionnaires were administered to the Ss in 1980 while they were at school and then after intervals of 2 and 3 years when they were in labour market. The comparison of the groups show clear differences between the unemployed and employed groups after longer intervals that are not apparent after short interval. The unemployed show lower self-esteem and greater depressive affect, negative mood, and externality in locus of control than the employed. The unemployed show no deterioration on any of the measures since they were in school, but the employed show an improvement (Winefield and Tiggeman, 1990).
Dissatisfied employed are also reported to show similar psychological disadvantages to the unemployed when both are compared with satisfied employed. Ratings of health show that satisfied employee rate their health somewhat more favourably than did either the dissatisfied employed or the unemployed. But, changes in work situation over the next year are not found to be related to change in health (Winefield et al. 1987).

Another comparison of the unemployed, satisfied employed and dissatisfied employed in a questionnaire survey at two times: initially when they were still at school and again four years later when they had entered the work force strongly adduce evidence to show that the psychological benefits of employment for young people are conditional on job satisfaction. The dissatisfied were significantly worse off in terms of self-esteem, depressive affect and minor psychiatric morbidity than those who were satisfied, and they were no were better off than the unemployed. The overall findings of the longitudinal and cross-sectional comparisons suggest that satisfactory employment results in improved psychological well-being rather than unsatisfactory employment, or unemployment, leading to deterioration (Winefield, et al. 1988; 1992).

Similar results are obtained with regard to general health and hopelessness relating to the well-being of the unemployed, satisfied employed and dissatisfied employed (Winefield et al., 1991).
The high psychosocial cost of unemployment has been emphasized in a survey of 1,863 Danish Ss, of whom 485 were unemployed. The social and psychological importance of work in Danish life is being established from the result that 85% of the unemployed Ss stated that they would work if they could find jobs. About 66% of the unemployed were actively seeking employment and 33% were involved in retraining for new occupations (Peterson, 1985).

The great advantages of being employed has been emphasized in a study of 250 employed and 250 employed persons matched for age, household size and annual household income where the purpose of the study has been primarily to differences in economic (monetary) and psychological effects of their situations. Results revealed the fact that although employment was associated with physical and mental fatigue, restricted leisure and various costs, the financial rewards more than counterbalanced these disadvantages, with employment preferred over unemployment (Van Raaji & Antonides, 1991).

The need to develop preventive and rehabilitative measures for the unemployed has been stressed through the review conducted in the German-speaking countries on the relationship between unemployment and mental health. It is found that illness is caused by both employment as well as unemployment. But depression and alcoholism is frequent among the unemployed. Given the social security and alternative social roles and activities being available, it is argued that unemployment may
improve health as stress and role overload are reduced. It is suggested that the most cost-effective prevention of the negative effects of unemployment comprises a fair social organization of work (Schwefel, 1986).

A study on experience of unemployment among 17 male and 33 female youth seeking jobs in Dunedin, New Zealand indicate that unemployment is associated with lower academic achievement and current emotional social and physical stresses. Most of the seekers blamed joblessness on personal deficiencies. (Bethune, & Harrison, 1986).

The attributional responses of young short-term unemployed has been studied using the responses of 72 young people aged 16 to 19 years on the way in which they explained their own and other people's unemployment. If unemployed for a very short time, they explained their own unemployment in terms of the failure of the system to provide jobs and of others in terms of personal inadequacies. If unemployed for longer periods, they tended to engage in self-blaming attributions (Breakwall, 1986).

An investigation concerned with long-term unemployment on attitudes explored the attitudinal changes occurring after one has found a job. The findings of the study reveals that unemployment reportedly has made most aspects of employment more important to people. Those whose mental health is worst when unemployed report job security being most important to them (Payne and Jones, 1987).
The high negative costs of unemployment being reflected in greater hostilities has been emphasized in a study of 150 unemployed and 150 employed men aged 28 to 35 years in India using the Buss-Durkee Hostility-Guilt Inventory. The results revealed that the unemployed possessed a high sense of guilt and low indirect aggression (Singh et al. 1992).

The relationship between sex, economic orientation, religious beliefs and family financial position and the attributions for unemployment, perceived consequences of unemployment and their perceptions of employment prospects has been examined in a study of 108 male and 112 female University students. Findings indicate that the males judged societal causes are more important determinants of unemployment than did females. Males also rated psychological and familial consequences of unemployment as more important than did females. Females rated their chance of obtaining a job significantly higher than did males (Singer, et al. 1987).

The impact of unemployment on certain self-concepts like self-consistency, self-involvement, self-evaluation, self-affection and positive and negative self-esteem has been studied among 40 unemployed and 48 full-time employed subjects aged between 18 and 37 years. The results revealed an association between unemployment and increased inconsistency in the attribution of characteristics to the self and retarded progress toward the realization of valued goals. The unemployed were also found to
have poorer evaluation and consistency when compared with the employed. Longer periods of employment was associated with diminished self-affection (Sheeran & McCarthy, 1990).

A finding not in this has been found in a study of 241 unemployed and 321 employed Ss who were randomly selected and administered Rotter's Internal - External Locus of Control Scale. The results showed that the hypotheses that being unemployed decreases an individual's self-esteem and that being unemployed increases an individual's external locus of control orientation were not true (Frost & Clayson). The effects of unemployment being reflected in the declined marriage rate and increased divorce rate has been proved in a survey of 29,282 Ss in Great Britain. The results contradict the views of G.S. Becker (1981) who attributes such changes to improvements in the economic status of women. Male unemployment was found to be an important determinant of the changes in the marital status. The high rates of male unemployment not only reduce the incidence of marriage, but also increase the likelihood of divorce (Sander, 1992).

The role of human values has been stressed in a study of 256 adult Australians who were asked to give suggestions for reducing unemployment. The suggestions for reducing unemployment ranged from punitive to increased government spending and were related differentially to human values. Among the values that showed a relationship with punitive suggestions included, national
strength and order, traditional religiosity, competence and effectiveness, getting ahead, priority in dress and manners and religious commitment (Heaven, 1990).

The impact of father's unemployment on the parent-child relationship and self-concept of the adolescents has been studied among Ss of a shut-down steel mill. The results showed that relationships of the adolescents with fathers were more negative when income loss was significant. But the self-concept of the adolescents was not directly affected by unemployment or income loss (Ortiz & Farell, 1993).

The extent to which people displaying evident problem behaviour, show signs of applying inefficient cognitive and attributional strategies in an achievement context, has been studied among 20 unemployed, 23 controls and 14 unemployed with health problems in the age group of 14 to 26 years. Results suggest that young adults displaying evident problem behaviour seem to apply a cognitive and attributional pattern characterized as a failure-trap strategy rather than a self-handicapping or learned helplessness strategy (Nurmi, et al. 1994).

The differential impact on the expression of psychological distress among men and women has been studied in an investigation carried out in Baltimore. It was found that the importance differences in psychological symptoms in the sample were related to employment status, problems in parenting,
financial difficulties, perceived lack of social support, hostility, and feeling about unemployment (Ensminger & Calentano, 1990).

**Epidomological psychiatric studies**

Recent investigations are concerned with the relationship between non-fatal deliberate self-harm, i.e., parasuicide or what is misleadingly referred to as attempted suicide. A good summary of these studies may be found in Platt (1986). Platt concludes that most of the studies in this area remain cross sectional and their conclusions demonstrate that significantly more parasuicides are unemployed than would be expected of a general population, and that the parasuicide rates among the unemployed are always considerably higher than among the employed.

Epidomological psychiatric studies distinctly elucidate the possible effect of the stress due to fluctuations in the unemployment rate on the mental health of a population. Until three decades ago investigations have almost exclusively focussed on fatal self-harm, i.e., suicide. Restricting the range of data to a relatively short period consisting of the years immediately before the Great Depression, Galbraith (1961) suggests that suicide is not related to unemployment. However, using much longer period it has been shown that for every sustained 1 percent increase in unemployment, there is a subsequent 4.1 percent increase in suicides. This suggests that in 1975, 1540
additional suicide deaths were related to the rise in employment during 1970 (Brenner, 1976).

An analysis of data collected from unemployed and employed male parasuicides admitted to a hospital in Bombay, India, during 1968 reveals that the unemployed, compared to their employed counterparts, is less impulsive, recently migrated, has more serious physical illness and alcohol addiction, hails from broken home, has more financial and accommodation stress (Bagadia et al., 1976; Platt, 1985). Another study by Platt & Dyer (1987) suggests that unemployed may be significantly worse on measures of depression and hopelessness than the employed and hopelessness may be a key social psychological variable for inclusion in any model of the pathways which link unemployment with parasuicide. Analysis of the trend in parasuicide rate and unemployment also emphasizes the link between parasuicide and unemployment.

Findings of a study in which the subjective index of American social, economic and political threat and percentage of personal violence, perceptual and motor skills was analysed, revealed that the suicide rate was predicted significantly only by the unemployment rate (Lester, 1993). In another study of African-Americans, Lester (1993) has found that the relative income and unemployment rates of African-Americans were not related to their suicide rates. Testing the link between suicide rates and unemployment in UK with the same other European Community has been attempted by Pritchard (1992). It was found that the
general suicide rate was statistically associated with rises in unemployment in most of the European Community.

A psychiatric institution based study comparing a group of twenty unemployed and thirty employed patients recovering from an attempted suicide has found no difference between the two groups on the motives for suicide (Velamoor & Cernovsky, 1990).

Unemployment has also been found to be negatively associated with crime rate while the military participation rate was unrelated to crime rates, as found in another recent study on the American population (Lester, 1993).

Analysis of the trend of the two phenomena among the men and women residents in Edinburgh, Scotland since 1968 to 1987 shows that parasuicide rates increased in parallel with the rate of unemployment during the first half of the period, and tended to fall while unemployment continued to rise after 1977. Further, while parasuicide incidence does not increase uniformly with duration of unemployment up to 52 weeks, in general, the highest rate is consistently found among the long-term unemployed. In particular, the study has found, men without work for over a year of experience between twice or five times the risk of parasuicide than those unemployed for a month, and 12-18 times the risk compared to their employed counterparts. The investigation suggests that the falling of parasuicide rates reported could be attributed to a "threshold" effect and the influence of other (non-economic) factors. The highest rate of parasuicide is
reported to have been consistently found among the long-term unemployed (Platt, et al., 1988; Platt & Kreitman, 1990).

The consensual view that unemployment causes a significant deterioration in psychological well-being principally applicable to the role of unemployment in producing relatively minor degrees of psychological distress may require to be modified for severe forms of mental disorder. Evidence could be adduced to argue that a reciprocal relationship exists between unemployment and mental disorders, and severe psychological impairment can limit the ability of individuals to secure and maintain gainful employment (Platt & Kreitman, 1990).

A comparison of unemployed, underemployed and employed graduates reveals that the unemployed manifest more free floating anxiety as compared to the underemployed counterparts. The three groups do not differ from one another on neuroticism and extraversion. Unemployed and underemployed feel more psychological insecurity than the employed. Underemployed are more dependent prone than the unemployed (Tiwari, 1986).

An analysis of cross sectional and longitudinal data from two cohorts of school leavers reveals interesting finding on the possible effects of unemployment on minor psychiatric disorders. The findings reveal that greater psychiatric disturbance in the unemployed youths are consequences rather than causes, of their unemployed status. Further, the unemployed group shows a
significant increase from when they were at school, whereas the control group consisting of employed youngsters and those on government-sponsored work experience programme and those engaged in further education show a significant decrease (Banks and Jackson, 1982).

The researches that have dealt with the relationship between youth unemployment and minor psychological disorders has been analysed in a study by Hammerstrom (1994). It has been found that few studies have included somatic health which indicate increased physiological illness, especially among unemployed girls. Unemployment is found to be associated with increased tobacco consumption and increased use of illicit drugs as well as deteriorated health behaviour. Morality rate is significantly higher among unemployed young men and women, especially in suicides and accidents. Social consequences include increased risk of alienation, lack of financial resources, criminality and future exclusion from the labour market. Social support, high employment rate, negative attitudes towards work and high possibility of control have been documented to have a protective effect on health.

In a study of the impact of unemployment among psychiatric clients, 68 psychiatric clients in outpatient treatment of Mental Health Research Center of the University of Wisconsin were interviewed. Comparisons were made between clients who are not working or seeking work, those who are employed and seeking work,
and those who are currently working. Results showed that working is related to higher levels of functioning in the community, while unemployment is positively related to stress. Work status was related to social integration, indicating that work may be an alternative source of social support and should receive separate attention in assessments of community adjustment and integration (Scheid, 1993).

An attempt to find an answer to the question of whether there would be any relationship between unemployment and suicides has been done by Morell, et al. (1992). The study took into account the period between 1907-1990. The age-adjusted male and female suicide rates and annual unemployment rates were derived for this period. The year-based aggregate data analysis showed that despite the inability of any investigation to establish an unequivocal causal relationship, no evidence was detected to suggest that relatively high population levels of unemployment were not related to the occurrence of suicide. Jones, et al (1991) show evidence to contradict this finding in their study of sixty-four in-patient cases of deliberate non-fatal self-poisoning compared for psychosocial problems. Matched with similar number of individually matched controls, the study revealed that there was a strong relationship between unemployment and self-poisoning. But the chances of a third factor independently increasing the risk of both unemployment and self-poisoning was not ruled out.
The effect of job layoffs on the violent behaviour of the individuals has been studied using data of 4,049 Ss, who participated in an Epidemiologic Catchment Areas (ECA) Survey. The results revealed that the risk of violent behaviour of those who were laid off was nearly 6 times higher than that of their employed counterparts (Catalona, et al. 1993).

The impact of unemployment on psychosomatic symptoms and mental well-being has been studied among 132 recently unemployed and 187 employed Ss in wood-processing factories in Finland. The results indicate that although there was an association between impaired physical health and occurrence of psychosomatic symptoms among both employed and unemployed Ss, unemployed Ss were more likely to indicate that their physical health had deteriorated during the past year. The occurrence of psychosomatic symptoms is associated with depression and the need for psychological help particularly among the unemployed is stressed (Viinamaki, et al. 1993).

The significance of unemployment for admissions to a psychiatric department has been investigated by interviewing a total of 295 patients, 152 women and 143 men aged between 18 to 70 years during a period of three years. Half of the patients interviewed, stated that unemployment contributed to admission to hospital but only 6% stated that this was the primary cause. While need for employment was most felt among the men, need for improved social network has been stressed by the women (Solstad, et al. 1990).
Studies relating to Values and Value orientation

A number of studies have been conducted over this century to study the values held by individuals. Most studies deal with what the individual values based on some categorization. The studies that deal with values as moderating variables affecting either the personality or behaviour are mostly spread to different settings (Allport & Vernon, 1931; Trldahl & Powell, 1963; Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Rokeach & Berman, 1971; Rim, 1970; Feather, 1971; Holland, 1973; etc.). Values have been viewed as equivalent to beliefs (Allport, 1961; Rokeach, 1973) Attitudes (Campbell, 1963), needs (Maslow, 1954), interests (Allport, 1961), preferences (Katzell, 1964; Rokeach, 1973), standards of criteria (Rokeach, 1973; Rosenberg, 1957; Smith, 1969) and the conception of desirable (Dewey, 1939; Kluckhohn, 1951; Rosenberg, 1957; Smith, 1969). It has hence been described by Kluckhohn (1951) as comprising a complex variable that 'has to be described in terms of several dimensions such as modality, content, generality and intensity. A enormous number of studies have been devoted to studying the cultural differences that exist in value orientations. The major work in this area has been done by Rokeach (1973) in the cross-cultural studies over various cultures.

Holland’s (1975) theory supports the view that people of different personality types make different vocational choices depending on interests and values. It is explained that leisure,
like work, permits the expression of personality. A validation of Holland's theory in this regard was attempted using data from the quest of leisure values on 1420 secondary and 1228 college students in Queba. Results revealed that leisure values are associated with personality types as explained by Holland with the values appearing differently in the two academic groups.

The career choices and values of 27 siblings of individuals with developmental disabilities and another group of 27 siblings of individuals without developmental disabilities in the age group of 26 to 53 years has been studied by Konstam (1993). It was found that the group with siblings having developmental disabilities would be more likely to channel their sensitivity and tolerance abilities into career choices that invoke these helping skills than would the graduate students with nondiabled siblings. But no significant difference was reported between these two groups in their career choices or value orientation.

The relationship between the values held by students during the time of their entry into college and their academic achievement subsequently after 2 years has been studied among 336 students. Results showed that the students who were academically successful and persistent had value systems that emphasized developing inner harmony, being open-minded, and having affectionate, caring relationships with others. Academically unsuccessful Ss had value systems that emphasized material comfort, pleasure seeking, and conventional relationships with others (Jones, 1990).
In a study conducted in India, the influence of values on the behaviour dispositions relevant to work behaviour has been studied. Hindu religious values such as renunciation and fatalism and characteristics such as passivity, conformity, and love of comfort were felt to be inimical to proper work behaviour. The study revealed that a dynamic synthesis existed between values and work behaviour, thus making it imperative for any program for making work more effective to consider these sociocultural realities.

Plausible difference in value orientation within the six personality dimensions envisaged by Holland (1975) has been studied among 53 post graduate business management students. Results revealed that variations existed between and within the six personality dimensions. Quite a number of values (from the total list of 50 values) that differentiated high and low groups seemed to be directly linked to the nature of the individual and do not reflect the values expected of them. The conclusion drawn was that no one to one correspondence could be drawn between the specific values and dimensions of personality studied (Narayanan, et. al. 1994).

The determinants of values accepted by youth has been studied on 113 students aged between 13 and 14 years and 119 students aged 17 to 19 years followed by and interviewing the parents specifically on age related developmental tasks. The results showed that values that received the highest ratings were related
to achievement, self-guidance, and community life. Level of acceptance was most related to parental education and school type (Reddy, 1980).

An exploration of values differences in 3 groups of students who share common interests and are likely to interact with one another as professionals has been attempted by Furnham (1988). Analysis of Rokeach value survey data from medical, nursing, and psychology students (N=74,67,52) in Great Britain indicates that nursing students are more similar to medical students. The psychology students value terminal values more than the instrumental values (Feather, 1986).

A study on the acceptance, resistance and the values system of young adults done on 500 subjects showed that spirituality was the most salient dimension for a majority of the subjects. One forth of the subjects relegated financial success and power to the periphery of their value system (Madhere, 1993).

The differences in value systems of youth from different socio-economic standings has been investigated in a study of three groups of college students categorized on the basis of their socio-economic status. Findings revealed that the scheduled caste group of students differed significantly from the backward class and advantageous groups in practical mindedness, orderliness, goal orientation and recognition. But a repeat of the study 4 years later did not reveal any differences between the three groups (Girija & Bhadra, 1986).
That high SES group valued more political, social, moral and aesthetic values than the low SES group has been proved in the study conducted on high and low SES groups of school students on seven values, viz., economic, social, political, theoretical, religious, moral and aesthetic on social, political, moral and aesthetic Values (Singh, 1991). Dukes (1955) reports that men scoring higher than women on theoretical, economic and political values but low on aesthetic, religious and social Values.

The relationship between value orientation and personality has been investigated in a study conducted among 185 adolescents in Australia. Results had shown that proauthority attitudes and behaviour were significantly related to values labeled as conservative and to the personality dimension psychoticism. However values were found to be relatively not unimportant in predicting proauthority attitudes (Heaven & Gurnham, 1991).

The fact that the values held by the parents in turn affect those held by their children has been proved in the study of 60 undergraduate students in relation to their 120 parents. The value preferences were identified using the Study of values. The results revealed significant influences of parental values on the theoretical, social and political values of their children. Parents belonging to occupational groups (i.e., business and professionals) tended to influence their children more than did parents from government service (Singh & Thapar, 1984). A comparison of family values been studied in 193 Chinese, 138
Mexican and 124 American college students. Results indicated that Americans attach less importance to family, felt less macho, believed more in sexual equality and were more independent. Chinese students scored highest on temporal farsightedness, such as an emphasis on ancestral lineage and future descendants, and lowest on conscience. The Mexican students scored between the 2 groups (Chia, et al., 1994).

The differences in the values of traditionally aged college students (aged 18-22 years) and that of nontraditionally aged students (aged 23+) on Rokeach's Value survey has been studied among 238 female and 196 male college students. Results showed that aged-related differences in college students' values were consistent with E. Erickson's theory of development and gender differences, consistent with both traditional sex-role stereotypes and C. Gilligan's (1982) theory of moral development, but the nontraditional Students were more androgynous than the traditional Students.

Value orientation has been studied among 116 male and female undergraduate college students. The Value Orientation Scale (VOS) consisting of 50 value items provided data to arrive at a constellation of values among the male and females. The conclusions of the study were that male students were more oriented to instrumental values while female students, to Terminal values (Narayanan, et al., 1994).
Studies on Probabilistic Orientation

Various studies have been carried out in recent years relating probabilistic orientation to a host of variables on different populations. Probabilistic orientation as a personality variable has been successful in identifying individuals with specific traits and character. Probabilistic Orientation has been found to have systematic and meaningful relationship with MMPI, EPI and IE I (Narayanan et al. 1983a).

Studying the Probabilistic Orientation among the employed and unemployed has been attempted by Michael (1985). Results have revealed the fact the Probabilistic Orientation does contribute to unemployment. Further, the results show that the interaction between employment status and sex is also significant with regard to Probabilistic Orientation.

A study on Probabilistic Orientation among housewives, career women and women entrepreneurs has showed that Probabilistic Orientation among the three groups studied has been different (Sunandhini, 1985).

That Probabilistic orientation has no impact on a person's role conflict has been proved in a study of clerks and officers working in banking organizations. Further, the different levels of Probabilistic Orientation do not distinguish themselves on role conflict (Devi, 1982).
In a study of high school boys and girls, Probabilistic orientation has been found to have systematic relationship with intelligence, creativity, extroversion and introversion. But no significant relationship could be established between probabilistic orientation and socio economic status. The results of the study reveal that the individual differences cannot be accounted by Eysenck’s dimension of probability in Probabilistic Orientation (Natarajan, 1983).

In a study of working males and females, Probabilistic Orientation is found to be significantly related to perceived support for innovation and mental health in the case of females and not in the case of males; Probabilistic Orientation and the sex of the individuals interacted significantly with a person’s innovative personality (Jayaraj, 1984).

Probabilistic Orientation in relation to the accident rate among the transport drivers has been studied by Govindarasu (1984), the results of which has shown that Probabilistic Orientation does not contribute to the accident levels among the drivers.

Probabilistic Orientation has been related to organizational climate in a study of various organizations under Likert’s 4 systems of management. The perceptions of specific organizational climate dimensions was found to be different among the high and low probabilistic orientation groups. The results of the study also show that the profiles of perception of organizational
climate by the organizational members belonging to high and low probabilistic orientation groups are not parallel (Indumathi, 1985).

Probabilistic Orientation has been related to Internal-External locus of control among school children. The results show that there is a significant relationship between Probabilistic Orientation and I-E locus of control only in the case of girls but not in the case of boys (Narayanan, et al, 1984). Probabilistic Orientation has also been found to have no relationship with innovative personality (Narayanan, 1984).

Holland personality dimensions have been studied in relation to Probabilistic Orientation among male and female school children. The results revealed that Probabilistic Orientation has a systematic and meaningful relationship with Holland personality variables. Probabilistic Orientation was positively related to R, I, A and S dimensions among the boys and negatively related to I and C dimensions among the girls. Sex was found to be a moderator variable construing relationship between Probabilistic Orientation and personality (Narayanan & Govindarasu, 1986).

Entrepreneurs and managers differing on their probabilistic orientation has been confirmed from the findings of a study which was conducted among these samples by Balakrishnan (1985). Probabilistic Orientation has been studied in relation to the many dimensions of the MMPI. The results reveal a significant
positive relationship between Probabilistic Orientation and Hypochondriasis, Psychopathic and Deviate characteristics and a significant negative relationship with Masculinity, Femininity, Schizophrenia and social introversion dimensions (Narayanan, 1985).

An attempt has been made to study the relationship between Probabilistic Orientation and Security-Insecurity among the transport drivers of a public sector corporation. The results of this study reveal that there is a positive and significant relationship between Probabilistic Orientation and security feeling (Narayanan & Govindarasu, 1986). The death anxiety among the elders and adults, studied in relation to Probabilistic Orientation has shown that age has a significant effect on Probabilistic Orientation in the case of elders. But this is not so in the case of adults. Both the elders and adults differ significantly on Probabilistic Orientation with the adults being more Probabilistic Oriented (Narayanan, 1990).

A study was attempted to relate Probabilistic Orientation to Rorschach variables among a general population. The results of the study showed there existed systematic differences in the personality characteristics of the high and low probabilistic orientation groups (Ganesan, 1985).

Probabilistic Orientation has been studied in relation to burnout among the sport coaches with a specific aim to estimate the
extent of burnout experienced by sport coaches. Results of the study revealed that high and low burnout groups differ on Probabilistic Orientation with the high group experiencing lesser Probabilistic Orientation when compared to the low group (Govindarasu, 1988).

The motivation to work among clerical women has been studied in relation to Probabilistic Orientation with an aim to understand whether the high and low Probabilistic Orientation groups differ in the kinds of factors that are responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The results of the study revealed that the high and low Probabilistic Orientation groups differ on job attitudes with low preference but do not differ with regard to job attitudes with high preference (George, 1989).

The oriental personality types of Tamas, Rajas and Sattwa has been studied in relation to Probabilistic Orientation among the postgraduate students in a University setting. The findings of the study revealed that a combination of any two of the three personality types (Rajas and Tamas, Tamas and Sattwa or Rajas and Sattwa) has a significant negative relationship with Probabilistic Orientation. Independently, Tamas and Sattwa do not have any relationship with Probabilistic Orientation. But rajas was found to be negatively correlated to Probabilistic Orientation (Mary, 1988).
A comparison of unemployed and entrepreneur on a host of personality variables found in the CPI along with Probabilistic Orientation has shown that the unemployed, compared to the entrepreneur, has less Probabilistic Orientation (Radhakrishnan, 1993).

Conclusion

A review of the various studies presented in the preceding pages of this chapter have lucidly brought out the psychological effects of unemployment, as well as studies relating to values and Probabilistic orientation. The many studies on unemployment have attempted to explain the psychological disturbances accompanying unemployment. Emphasis of many of these studies have been to observe the motivational resultants of unemployment or job loss. The impact of prolonged unemployment on the personality characteristics has been another important subject of many of these investigations. However, the social background affecting unemployment has not gained much attention from investigators. While studying the motivational characteristics, many investigators have failed to look into the impact of attitudes or values of the unemployed individuals affecting their job search activity. Moreover, though many studies dwell with the need deprivations elaborated by Jahoda and Warr, there seems to be no evidence in literature to understand the emotional security of the unemployed. Also the
appropriateness of Warr contentions of need deprivation in the Indian context needs in-depth analysis. Almost all studies seem to give emphasis to the resultant personality of the unemployed and not understand his basic personality characteristics. In this context, it is important to understand the motivational and personality characteristics of the unemployed in a more detailed manner.

There are very few studies available in literature investigating the unemployed's values patterns. The studies reviewed in this chapter therefore have dealt with values being considered as moderating variables affecting either personality or behaviour in various settings and hence are very limited in number. Similarly, the role of the personality variable, probabilistic orientation as a moderator variable has been brought out through the studies conducted on varied populations. Hence the inclusion of the same to study the unemployed is justified. It is a maiden attempt to use the Oriental personality constructs of Tamas, Rajas, and Sattwa in studying the unemployed since typology based understanding of individuals would be more useful in understanding the problems associated with the individuals - in this case the unemployed, which would be greatly useful in the help process.