

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, GENDER,
AGE AND MENTAL HEALTH OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN THE MAHIKENG
AREA.**

**NWU
LIBRARY**

MMATEBANG BETTY MOTLHAJWA

2013

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, GENDER,
AGE AND MENTAL HEALTH OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN THE MAHIKENG
AREA.**

Mmatebang Betty Motlhajwa

16695240

**Mini-dissertation (article format) submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree in Masters of Social Sciences in Clinical Psychology at the North-West
University (Mafikeng Campus)**



M060072533

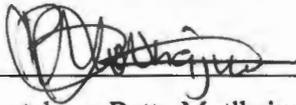
Supervisor: Prof. E. S. Idemudia

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Page no
DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
SUMMARY	iv
PREFACE	vii
LETTER OF CONSENT	viii
INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS	ix
MANUSCRIPT	xv
TITLE PAGE	xvi
ABSTRACT	xvii
INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND	4
AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	8
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	9
HYPOTHESES	9
METHODOLOGY	22
Design	22
Sample and characteristics	22
Instruments and Psychometric properties	23
GHQ-28	23
SSQ	24
Procedure	24
RESULTS	25
DISCUSSION	30
CONCLUSION	36
RECOMMENDATIONS	36
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	37
DECLARATIONS	37
REFERENCES	38

DECLARATION

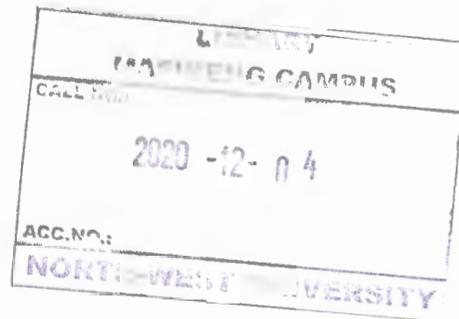
I, the undersigned Mmatebang Betty Motlhajwa hereby declare that the work presented in this mini-dissertation is my own original work and has not been submitted to any other university before, for the purpose of obtaining a degree. All sources of information I have used and consulted are, as far as is humanly possible, recognised as such.



Mmatebang Betty Motlhajwa

20/09/2013

Date



DEDICATION

This study is dedicated in loving memory of my caring and loving late mother

Dikobe Johanna Motlhajwa

and

my family

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank the Almighty God for his divine protection, unconditional love, favour, wisdom and strength.

- I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people and institutions for their support and assistance:
- Professor E.S. Idemudia, my supervisor, for your guidance, support, patience, dedication, kindness and encouragement. Thank you for being a great mentor. Without your support I would not have made it.
- Prof. Serumaga-Zake, Philip, for his assistance in statistical data analyses.
- North West University for awarding me a Post Graduate Bursary.
- The participants for taking part in the study.
- Field workers, for your assistance in collecting the data. You have played a significant role in the success of this study.
- My husband, Kagiso Mothami, for your unconditional love, support, understanding and words of encouragement and your prayers. Your love and support is immeasurable. I thank God for you; you are a blessing in my life.
- My siblings, Naniki Moserwa, Polena, Moipone and Nthabiseng Motlhajwa, for your support and love.
- My aunt, Martha Motlhajwa, for your support, love and words of encouragement. You are a blessing in my life.
- My friends, Faith Mpete and Grace Mashudu, for your support, love and care. Faith Mpete, the role you played in my studies is enormous and I thank God for the presence of both of you in my life.

SUMMARY

The Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS) has defined the unemployed as people who do not have a job, having actively looked for work in the previous four weeks, and are currently available for work. People who have temporarily been laid off and are waiting to be called back to that job are also counted as unemployed. In recent times, many South Africans, across racial divides, have reported experiencing unemployment and concomitant poverty as a serious national and personal problem in their lives (Kingdom & Knight, 2001). However, it is mainly black South Africans who are affected the most, with household poverty at 95% and those who have income spend it primarily on food (Zuern, 2011).

Official report has shown that during Quarter 4 of 2010 and Quarter 1 of 2011, the rate of unemployment increased and more job losses were experienced in most provinces except Gauteng, Western Cape and Mpumalanga, which remained virtually unchanged. However, the biggest job losses were recorded in Limpopo, where 22 000 jobs were lost, followed by North West with 18 000 job losses and Northern Cape with 17 000 job losses (Statistic South Africa, 2011). Stankunas, Kalediene, Starkuviene and Kapustinskiene (2006) also added that the long-term unemployed have been found to have more episodes of depression.



The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of the unemployed in Mahikeng area in the North West Province. The study was anchored on four hypotheses: (1) the unemployed will more likely experience poorer mental-health than their employed counterpart; (2) there will be a significant difference between social support and mental health, (3) there will be gender difference in mental health among the unemployed and (4) there will be age difference in

mental health among the unemployed. The study utilized a questionnaire with three sections- A, B and C. Section A contained demographic items, section B contained the General Health Questionnaire-28 (GHQ-28) which measures mental health with four subscales – somatic complaints, anxiety and insomnia, social dysfunction and severe depression, and section C contained a Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ) which measures (a) perceived amount of social support and (b) the satisfaction with social support. Psychometric properties of all the scales used are valid and reliable. Written consent was obtained from participants after ethical approval (NW-00044-12-A9). Using a cross-sectional survey design, data was collected from 202 randomly selected males and females using a table of random numbers of ‘yes’ or ‘no’ in the Mahikeng Area. Participants were 20 years or older with ages ranging between 20-50 years. Unemployed were males= (44) and females= (54) and the employed were males= (57) and females= (46). The t-test independent of means was used to test hypothesis 1, while a 2 x 2 x 4 ANOVA was used to test for hypotheses 2, 3 & 4. Findings showed that (Hypothesis 1) unemployed persons have poorer mental health than persons who are employed on all the subscales of the GHQ 28, Somatic Complaints (GHQ A) $t = (181) = 2.92, p < .05$, Anxiety and Insomnia (GHQ B) $t = (179) = 4.51, p < .05$, Social Dysfunction (GHQ C) $t = (191) = 3.71, p < .05$, Severe Depression (GHQ D) $t = (193) = 3.80, p < .05$ and Total GHQ $t = (158) = 4.47, p < .05$. The results of the analysis (Hypothesis 2) show that there is a significant difference between social support and mental health ($F = 1,101 = 3.94; P < .05$), while Hypotheses 3 & 4 showed no significant gender and age difference on mental health among the unemployed.

The study thus showed that employment status and social support affect mental health and it is recommended that government should put in place policies that will generate job creation, empowerment of citizens to embark on entrepreneurial initiatives, while mechanism

for social support should be strengthened. If these are done, then the amount of money expended on medical care will be reduced and the excess could be channelled into other areas of national need.

PREFACE

Article format

For the purpose of this mini-dissertation, which is part of the requirements for the professional master's degree, the article format described by the General Regulations A.7.51.6 of the North West University was chosen

Selected journals

The target journal for submission of the current manuscript is the Journal of Psychology. For the purpose of examination, tables are included in the text.

Letter of consent

The letter of consent from the co-author, in which permission is granted for the manuscript, "the relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of the unemployed in the Mahikeng area", to be submitted for the purposes of mini-dissertation, is attached.

Page numbering

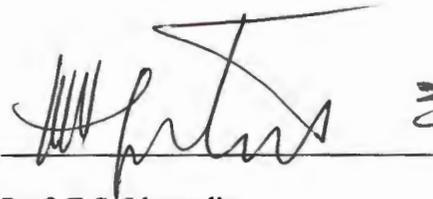
In the dissertation, page numbering is from the first page to the last. For submission to the above-mentioned journal, the manuscript is numbered according to the requirements of the Journal of Psychology. Therefore, page numbering starts on the title page of the manuscript.

Referencing

In the dissertation, the referencing is done according to the instructions of the Journal of Psychology.

LETTER OF CONSENT

I, the undersigned, hereby give consent that Mmatebang Betty Motlhajwa may submit the manuscript entitled "The relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of the unemployed in Mahikeng area" for the purpose of a thesis in fulfillment for the degree of Masters of Social Sciences in Clinical Psychology.



30-09-2013

Prof. E.S. Idemudia

SUPERVISOR

JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES: INSTRUCTIONS TO CONTRIBUTORS

ONLINE: Full Text available ON LINE (Visit our website: www.krepublishers.com)

AIM: The *Journal of Social Sciences (J SocSci)* is designed for the prompt publications of original and important articles related to contemporary society.

EDITORIAL POLICY: It contains original papers on current research and practical programmes, short notes, news items, book reviews, reports of meetings and professional announcements. Constructive critiques and discussions of published papers and letters, which are of relevance and of interest to the readership, are published at the discretion of the *Editor*. The journal is published in English; spelling and usage conforms to the Oxford English Dictionary; for consistency and simplicity in style because for many subscribers English is a second language. Place names should be spelled in the form officially used in the country under discussion; where this differs from the commonly known name of the English-language name, the other name should be written in parentheses. For practical purposes, accents may be omitted on non-English names.

FREQUENCY: There shall be twelve issues, four volumes per year

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPT: For the initial submission of manuscripts for consideration, submit a hardcopy with disk to the Administrative Editor, B-2 (Ground Floor), South City II, Gurgaon 122 018, Haryana, India or e-mail to: kre@airtelmail.in. Prepare the manuscript as per style of the Journal. Manuscripts, which do not fully confirm to Journal style, will be returned to the Authors.

FORMALITIES: The contributors may send the papers to the Administrative Editor. The paper will be screened only (not reviewed) by the Members of the Editorial Board for its suitability to be considered for publication and If it is observed suitable then the Corresponding Author is asked to complete the initial formalities as follow:

1. Review of Paper: The contributors may provide the names of at least three Referees in the field of specialisation as the subject of the paper demands, to whom we may request for review of the paper (Please provide separate List of Referees for each paper) The Referees should be other than the Members of Editorial Board of the Journal, who are known to you and aware of the research activities of your Department/Institute, but are not from your Department/Institute (Please provide their postal & e-mail address and field of specialisation). The possible exceptions are in the case of occasional invited papers and editorials, or where a partial or entire volume is devoted to a special theme.

2. Processing Fee: Pay the processing fee of the paper and for Black and White and Coloured Photographs, if any in the paper (Not for Line Drawings/Graphs in Black and White only), which is mandatory. Please check that the payment of Processing Fee (PF) is not a guarantee that the paper may be accepted as it is.

ACCEPTED PAPER: After final acceptance, the disk along with the final and exactly matching printed versions with the underlining clearly marked should be submitted or e-mail the text to kre@airtelmail.in. Acceptance of paper will be acknowledged via e-mail.

DISK: We can accept files created by MS Word. The disk label must contain the information — your name and name of text file(s) containing your submission. Footnote text should be placed as endnotes following the last page to text.

AUTHORISATION AND DECLARATION: Authors must accept full responsibility for the content of their articles. The Members of the Editorial Board and the Publisher of the journal are not responsible for the statements and opinions expressed by the authors in their articles/write-up published in the journal. It is also for the authors to seek the permission whose copyrighted material they may use in preparation of their manuscript. While submitting the paper the author (s) must give a declaration that, “the article has not been published or sent for publication elsewhere”.

SIZE: An article should not generally exceed twelve printed pages (18 double spaced typed pages of MS Word). The authors would be charged for additional pages, even if a longer article is accepted for publication. Reporting of frequency data may be accepted in the form of small report. Such reports should generally not exceed four pages, including tables/figures.

TITLE: The paper title, author's name, affiliation, complete address, Fax number, and e-mail address should appear on the first page of the article. When there is more than one author, the correspondence will be sent to the first author, unless otherwise requested.

RUNNING HEAD: Not more than 40 characters (including spaces) should be identified on the title page.

ABSTRACT: Not exceeding 250 words.

KEYWORDS: Not exceeding six should accompany the manuscript.

TABLE: Each table should be typed separately and marked in the text in numerical order.

ILLUSTRATION: It should be clear, concise, and good for reproduction (maximum size for illustrations is 120 x 180 mm/80x160mm). All illustrations are referred to as Figures.

PHOTOGRAPH: Photograph should be sharp for reproduction (maximum size for photographs is 120 x 180mm/80x160 mm). The cost of the reproduction of black and white and coloured photographs will be borne by the author(s).

LIST: A separate list of tables, figures, and illustrations with captions should accompany the manuscript.

METRIC SYSTEM: The metric system should conform to the International System of Units (S. I.).

REFERENCES: These should be listed at the end of article, arranged alphabetically according to the surnames of the authors and then chronologically. Following are examples of the proper reference style of various sources:

Journals: Bhasin V 1996. Caste dynamics in transhumant society. *J Hum Ecol*, 7(2): 77-94.

Books: Bhasin MK, BhasinVeena 1995. *Sikkim Himalayas: Ecology and Resource Development*. Delhi: Kamla-Raj Enterprises.

Sections of Books: Cohen CP 1998. United Nations convention on rights of the child: relevance for indigenous children. In: DK Bhera (Ed.): *Children and Childhood in Contemporary Societies*. Delhi: Kamla-Raj Enterprises, pp. 173-187.

Newspaper / Magazine: BhasinVeena 1982. Ecology and Gaddi Culture. *Hindustan Times, Weekly*, August 29, 1982, P. 9.



Radio/Television Talk: BhasinVeena 1986. Radio Talk - Gaddis of Himachal Pradesh. *All India Radio 'YuvVani'* - 1st July, 1986.

Meeting Paper: Bhasin V, Bhasin MK, Singh IP 1978. Some problems in the education of Gaddis of Bharmour, Chamba District, Himachal Pradesh. *Paper presented in Seminar on Education and Social Change in Himachal Pradesh (H.P.)* in H.P. University, Shimla, November 13 to 16, 1978.

Report: UNESCO 1974. Report of an Expert Panel on MAB Project 6: Impact of Human Activities on Mountain and Tundra Ecosystems. *MAB Report Series No. 14*, Paris: UNESCO.

Thesis / Dissertation: BhasinVeena 1981. Ecological Influence on the Socio cultural System of the Gaddis of Bharmour Sub-Tehsil, Chamba District, Himachal Pradesh. Ph. D. Thesis, Unpublished. Delhi: University of Delhi.

Work "in press": BhasinVeena 2004. Economic pursuits and strategies of survival among Damor of Rajasthan. *J Hum Ecol*, (in press).

Website: Official Home Page of Work and Income New Zealand.

<http://www.workandincome.govt.nz> (Retrieved March 18, 2004)

Where there are more than five authors, use et al. in place of rest of the authors.

REFERENCES IN THE TEXT: Reference citations in the text should be in parentheses and include author name(s) and year of publication. Text citations of two or more works at the time should be given in chronological order. When citing a paper written by three or more authors, write the name of the first author plus “et al”. (However, all authors must be given in the Reference section). Where there are two or more papers by the same author in one year, distinguishing letter (a, b, c....) should be added to year. All references should be carefully crosschecked; it is the author’s responsibility to ensure that references are correct.

PROOFS: A single set of page and illustration proofs will be sent to the corresponding author for correction of typographical errors only; alterations other than correction of printer errors will be charged to the author. All corrections should be marked clearly, directly on page proofs.

OFFPRINT: These may be ordered at prices shown on the order blank accompanying proofs. No free reprints are supplied, but any number in excess of 100, with or without covers, may be purchased. The order, along with payment, for reprints and extra printed pages (if paper exceeds twelve printed pages) should be sent with the corrected hard copy of the galley proofs.

SPECIAL ISSUE/VOLUME: Scholars are welcome to edit an entire Special Issue/Volume of *the journal* in their field of specialisation as a Guest Editor. For details write to the Administrative Editor, B-2 (Ground Floor), South City II, Gurgaon 122 018, Haryana, India or e-mail to: kre@airtelmail.in

COPYRIGHTS ©: Submission of a manuscript implies: that the work described has not been published before (except in the form of an abstract or as part of a published lecture, or thesis) that it is not under consideration for publication elsewhere; that if and when the manuscript is accepted for publication, the authors agree to automatic transfer of the

copyright to the publisher. © Kamla-Raj Enterprises. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced in any form or by any means, without the prior written permission of the publisher. Requests to the Publisher for permission should be addressed to The Administrative Editor, B-2 (Ground Floor), South City II, Gurgaon 122 018, Haryana, India or e-mail to: kre@airtelmail.in

SEND SUBSCRIPTIONS AND BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE TO: Kamla-Raj Enterprises, Post Box No. 1120, Delhi G.P.O., Delhi 110 006, India

MANUSCRIPT

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, GENDER,
AGE AND MENTAL HEALTH OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN THE MAHIKENG
AREA.**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, GENDER,
AGE AND MENTAL HEALTH OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN THE MAHIKENG
AREA.**

Motlhajwa, Mmatebang Betty*, Idemudia, Sunday, Erhabor

Correspondence to:

Ms. M.B. Motlhajwa

Prof. E.S. Idemudia

School of Social Sciences,

North West University (Mafikeng)

Private Bag X 2046, Mmabatho, 2735

South Africa

Bettymotlhajwa@yahoo.com

Sundayidemudia@yahoo.com

Cell: 072 795 3933

Tel: 018 389 2425

ABSTRACT

This study was an investigation of the relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of the unemployed in Mahikeng Area of the North West Province in South Africa. A cross-sectional research design was employed and data was collected from 202 randomly selected males and females in Mahikeng Area who were 20 years and above. The General Health Questionnaire 28 (GHQ 28) authored by Goldberg (1972) (Cronbach alpha-reliability value: 0.82–0.86) and the Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ) by Sarason, Levine, Basham, & Sarason (1983) with a test-retest reliability ($r = 0.90$) and high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.97$) were administered on the participants, having obtained written informed consent and ethical approval (NWU-00044-12-A9). The t-test independent of means was used to test Hypothesis 1; while a $2 \times 2 \times 4$ ANOVA was used to test for hypotheses 2, 3 & 4. Results of the analysis showed that (Hypothesis 1) unemployed persons have poorer mental health than persons that are employed on all the subscales of the GHQ 28, Somatic Complaints (GHQ A) $t = (181) = 2.92, p < .05$, Anxiety and Insomnia (GHQ B) $t = (179) = 4.51, p < .05$, Social Dysfunction (GHQ C) $t = (191) = 3.71, p < .05$, Severe Depression (GHQ D) $t = (193) = 3.80, p < .05$ and Total GHQ) $t = (158) = 4.47, p < .05$. The results of the analysis also indicated that (Hypothesis 2) there is a significant difference between social support and mental health ($F = 1,101 = 3.94; P < .05$), while (Hypotheses 3 & 4) showed no gender and age different in mental health among the unemployed. The study thus showed that employment status and social support affect mental health and it is recommended that employment opportunity should be provided by the government while mechanism for social support should be strengthened.

Keywords: Perceived Social Support, Gender, Age, Mental health, Unemployed people

INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Research has shown that reasons for unemployment differ across countries; similarly the impact thereof on people varies across nations regardless of the permanence or temporality of unemployment. Thus, financial pressures in many countries have resulted in many companies having to cut down on employees so as to either increase their competitive advantages or to put into practice any strategy they can, in order to ensure that their companies continue operating (Rosenburg & Pehler, 2011). Therefore, unemployment is considered one of the leading and problematic global socio-economic factors that wreak havoc in the lives of nations. This phenomenon exists in every society, regardless of social status, background, belief or class (Mchunu, 2003).

“Unemployment” is defined by the U. S. Bureau of Labour Statistics (2009) as a situation in which people do not have a job, actively looked for work in the previous four weeks, and are currently available for work. People who were temporarily laid off and are waiting to be called back to that job are also counted as unemployed. The unemployment picture in South Africa between 2010 and 2011 is as follows: during Quarter 4: 2010 and Quarter 1: 2011, the rate of unemployment increased and more job losses were experienced in most provinces except Gauteng (46 000), Western Cape (12 000) and Mpumalanga, which remained virtually unchanged. However the biggest job losses were recorded in Limpopo where 22 000 jobs were lost, followed by North West with 18 000 job losses and Northern Cape with 17 000 job losses (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

The unemployment rate of the North West Province from 2006 to 2011 (first quarter) has been reported to be fluctuating and presented as follows: 29.7%, 24.1%, 27% and 25.0% in the years 2006, 2007, 2009 and 2011 (Statistic South Africa, 2011).

Many South Africans, across racial divides, report experiencing unemployment and concomitant poverty as a serious national and personal problem in their lives (Kingdom & Knight, 2001). However, it is mainly the black South Africans who are affected the most, with household poverty at 95% and those who have income spend it primarily on food (Zuern, 2011).

There is evidence enough to support the hypothesis that job loss has a damaging consequence on mental health, and unemployment can be regarded as a stressful life event which aggravates mental health problems (Ford, Clark, McManus, Harris, Jenkins, Bebbington, Brugha, Meltzer & Stansfeld, 2010). In a study done in Germany by Kroll and Lampert (2009), it was reported that the unemployed suffer more frequently and longer from physical complaints, psychological complaints and health-related restrictions in their daily activities than those who are employed. The unemployed use health services more often, as they are mostly affected by sleep disorders, depression, anxiety disorders, addictions, and commit suicide more frequently. Stankunas, Kalediene, Starkuviene and Kapustinskiene, (2006) also added that, long-term unemployed have been found to have more episodes of depression.

In a study done in Sweden, it was found that unemployed women were more likely than men to be afflicted with poorer physical and mental health (Hammarström, Gustafsson, Strandh, Virtanen & Janlert, 2011). Therefore, literature indicates that when comparing men and women on general gender-related roles, gender-distress relationship is positive. Thus, it can be stated that women are more stressed over social and family events, whereas men are more stressed over work issues.

According to Ibarra-Rovillard and Kuiper (2011), it is now generally accepted that the shortage or lack of social support increases the risk for poor mental health. However, processes or mechanisms that may be involved are still not well understood. The perspective proposed is that increased social support helps lessen the negative effects of stressful life events on well-being, through facilitating coping. The general hypothesis is that safeguarding effects can take place via the strengthening of protective factors and/or a reduction in the negative impact of stressful events. These protective effects may change perceptions of negative events, transfer coping resources, or facilitate changes in health-related behaviours (Wills & Shinar, 2000).



According to Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir (2003), the type and context of social support has a significant outcome on an individual's well-being. Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir further pointed out that, there is significant cross-cultural evidence of emotional support counteracting the outcomes of joblessness on psychological distress. Close relations with spouse, friends and relatives have been found to be able to reduce distress in various groups of unemployed people. Kroll and Lampert (2009) add that, the unemployed who receive social support from their partners, relatives, or friends and acquaintances are affected by such complaints less frequently. Although social support increases the ability to cope better with unemployment, its health related consequences cannot be completely discarded.

A study conducted in the United Kingdom comparing age difference in joblessness indicated that older employees are not bothered by joblessness consequences as compared to younger and middle-career labourers (Hofacker, 2010). Affirming Hofacker's (2010) findings, Kulik (2001) conducted a study and tested the consequences of joblessness across three age samples (25, 26-35 and 36-52 years) and reported that the middle-aged experienced

a greater reduction in health due to their unemployment status. Dockery (2006) explains what could be reasons for the decline in mental health of the unemployed middle-aged individuals as compared to their younger and older counterparts by stating that, the middle-aged have greater monetary responsibilities (a sense of responsibility as 'breadwinners') and that being employed still plays a significant role on their self-concept. While individuals close to retirement age are likely to experience psychological symptoms (anxiety or stress) related to joblessness due to the reason that they can accept being out of work more easily and have fewer responsibilities. On the other hand, Reine, Novo and Hammarstrom (2004), urge that, for the youngsters, a sense of individuality is greatly linked with employment as it is a sign of conversion from childhood into adulthood, while adults are more secure and more experienced in their work identity.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Jahoda's deprivation model (1982)

One of the approaches taken to explain the decline in well-being experienced by the unemployed is the latent deprivation perspective (Jahoda, 1982). The central notion in Jahoda's model is that unemployed people experience psychological distress because they are deprived of certain benefits of employment that sustain well-being. Jahoda argued that employment provides the latent benefits, which fulfill certain psychosocial needs and is important to well-being. In support of Jahoda's deprivation model, Muchinsky (2006) added that being employed presents an individual with psychological advantages and these advantages are lost when one becomes unemployed.

Jahoda (1982) referred to these as the latent benefits which are not deliberately planned, but fulfill certain psychosocial needs that are important to well-being. The latent benefits

include social contact, time structure, status/identity, collective purpose, and enforced activity. Employment provides opportunities for individuals to have contact with people outside of their families. Therefore, deprivation of employment leads to deprivation in both manifest and latent benefits, but it is the loss of the latent benefits that impacts negatively on psychological well-being. In support of Jahoda's theory, Gordo (2006) reports that being employed increases a person's overall well-being through an elevation in social status, financial independence, including social support and recognition from others, all of which have shown satisfactory links to positive health outcomes such as life satisfaction, high self-esteem and happiness

Jahoda (1982) argued that individuals have deep-seated needs for structuring their time use and perspective, for enlarging their social horizon, for participating in collective enterprises where they can feel useful, for knowing they have a recognized place in society, and for being active. However, when unemployed this need is deprived. Jahoda also argued that the psychological impact of job loss was largely due to the loss of these critical functions. She observed that in other societies, where formal employment as an institution did not exist, these same psychological functions were fulfilled through community activities, rituals, and religious practices that provided a sense of shared purpose and identity to those who participated in them (Jahoda, 1982; Feather, 1982). Thus, for Jahoda, the psychological needs met by employment were central to an understanding of the psychological impact of job loss.

There is a great deal of recent literature supporting Jahoda's deprivation perspective. Just to mention a few: Paul and Moser (2009) reported that the unemployed are twice as likely as their employed counterparts to experience psychological problems such as despair,

uneasiness, psychosomatic symptoms, low subjective well-being and poor self-esteem. In agreement with these findings, Forret, Sullivan and Mainiero (2010) noted that, job loss has been associated with physical and mental consequences such as self-doubt, submissiveness and social withdrawal. Muchinsky (2006) reported that the unemployed undergo physical symptoms as a result of unemployment as a stressor. Unemployed people also have been found to display signs of being defencelessness (being powerless, helpless or more vulnerable and unable to take action), lowered self esteem and amplified despair. In addition, Moylan (2009) also reported that the unemployed are at a greater risk of developing depression. Brooks (2011) also supports the fact that depression is a common factor among the unemployed. Additionally, while searching for employment, many find that their skills are becoming obsolete and this impact on their mental health. These current authors' research findings support Johada's theory by reporting that being employed has positive results, however being unemployed has a negative impact on physical and mental health.

Stress and Coping Social Support Theory (Cohen & Wills, 1985)

The study was conceptualized within the Cohen and Wills' Stress-buffering hypothesis. The hypothesis states that social support has an indirect and stress-reducing effect by buffering the negative consequences of different life events (Cohen & Wills, 1985). When stress has been experienced, social support may reduce the affective reaction to the traumatic event, therefore decreasing the importance of the event, leading to improved coping mechanism (Reeset, Gorin, Jobe, Stein, Medforth & Goswami, 2010). Therefore, from Cohen & Will's hypothesis, social support acts as a shield against different types of life stressors.

In support of the stress-buffering hypothesis, Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir (2003) also maintain that social resources have a particularly marked effect on how well individuals cope with unemployment. Berkman and Glass (2000) also reported that support from family and other significant social relations plays a vital role in reducing the difficulties and uneasiness of being unemployed. When an unemployed individual is surrounded by supportive family, friends and the community, the unemployed will display happiness and will be physically healthy. On the other hand, the one who is without a satisfying support system will experience destruction of mental and physical health. In support of Berkman and Glass (2000) findings, Sheng, Huyhn-Nhu and Perry (2010) reported that positive relations with well-being have been observed with satisfaction with social support.

Gender Role Theory by Gove & Tudor (1973)

Gender role perspectives highlight exposure to the different types of stressors that men and women face. Gove and Tudor (1973) argued that women have higher levels of distress than men because women's roles are more distress provoking. Women's gender roles tend to be more nurturing, whereas men's roles are more instrumental (Gilligan, 1982; Gove & Tudor, 1973). Thus, women typically are in social roles that require them to provide more support to others, to be more empathetic, and to extend their concern to a wider range of people in ways that increase stressors, which ultimately lead to distress (Gove, 1978).

Research into more acute life events also provides suggestive evidence that the gender-distress relationship is mediated by role-related stressors. Conger, R., Conger, K., Elder, Lorenz, Simons and Whitbeck (1992) showed that women are more distressed over events in the family and that men are more affected by work events. In agreement with the above view point, McFadyen-Ketchum, Bates, Dodge and Pettit (1996) suggested that masculinity is

often linked to having a job. Therefore when a man becomes unemployed, his masculine identity as a breadwinner is threatened and his status as a worker and provider for the household is taken away from him. On the other hand, women often suffer less from unemployment because domestic life offers them a sense of identity and purpose (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990). Contrary to the above findings, Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) urges that, due to the increase in labour market participation of women, and males still earning disproportionately more than females, it might be expected that contemporary women would report higher levels of financial strain than men.

Aim of the study

To investigate the relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of the unemployed in the Mahikeng Area.

Objectives of the study

1. To determine the difference in mental health between the unemployed and the employed.
2. To determine the significant difference between social support and mental health.
3. To determine gender difference in mental health among the unemployed.
4. To determine age difference in mental health among the unemployed.



Significance of the study

The results of the study will provide valuable information in terms of the mental health status of the unemployed individuals within Mahikeng. The results will also provide a significant research data to the local government and business people to enable them to plan better when creating poverty alleviation projects in order to decrease the rate of unemployment and improve the unemployed people's mental health.

The results of the study can also be used as a research venture into other researches, with the intention to study different interventions with regard to reducing the high levels of unemployment in Mahikeng or interventional strategies in moderating the effects of unemployment and the creation of better coping skills for those who are unemployed. At the community level, the results of this study can be used to inform the community of the importance and benefits of social support when dealing with life stressors.

Hypotheses of the study

1. The unemployed will likely experience poorer mental health than their employed counterpart.
2. There will be a significant difference between social support and mental health.
3. There will be gender difference in mental health among the unemployed,
4. There will be age difference in mental health among the unemployed.

MENTAL HEALTH AND UNEMPLOYMENT

According to Butterworth (2003), “Mental health refers to a person’s ability to function and undertake productive activities, to develop and maintain meaningful relationships and to adapt to change and cope with adversity”. Mental health underlies a person’s ability to interact with others and their environment. It represents an individual’s sense of wellbeing and competence and their ability to realise their full potential.

An individual’s health and economic well-being are intimately connected: changes in health can alter economic circumstances while changes in economic circumstances can impact personal health. Among other variables in this study, the focus is also on mental health, as Theodossiou (1998) cited in Mandal and Roe (2008) pointed out that, mental health affects social behaviour, morale, as well as work productivity. Weakened mental health can result in deteriorating physical health and give rise to the possibility of suicide. In addition, decrease in mental health may negatively influence the well-being of other household members (Siegel, Bradley, Gallo & Kasl, 2004).

Being employed increases a person’s overall well-being through an elevation in social status, financial independence, including social support and recognition from others, all of which have shown a satisfactory link to positive health outcomes such as life satisfaction, high self-esteem and happiness (Gordo, 2006). A number of studies have noted that being employed is associated with better health among both men and women. Muchinsky (2006) added that, being employed presents an individual with a few psychological advantages and these advantages are lost when one becomes unemployed. Thus unemployment has been found to relate to poor health (Janlert & Hammarström, 2009; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg & Kinicki, 2005). On the other hand, Ahn, Jimeno and Ugidos (2004) bring in a positive

viewpoint, by stating that being unemployed does not only present individuals with negative experiences but also with opportunities to do other activities such as attending workshops, going to the gym and household duties.

Hald (2009) reported that research has shown that the unemployed experience an increased risk of suffering from negative psychological outcomes, although the effects appear to differ, depending on life situation and individual characteristics. Unemployment not only increases the likelihood of illness, but it can greatly affect one's mental health, leading to depression and decreased self-esteem. In addition, one can distance oneself from family and friends or feel alienated oneself which can result in lack of support in one's life. Muchinsky (2006) reported that the unemployed undergo physical symptoms as a result of unemployment as a stressor. Unemployed people have also been found to display signs of being powerless, lowered self esteem and amplified despair.

In Weinberg and Cooper's (2012) view, the individual's level of insight in terms of the severity of their financial problems can have a significant impact on their mental health. Paul and Moser (2009) reported that the unemployed are twice as likely as their employed counterparts to experience mental health problems such as despair, uneasiness, psychosomatic symptoms, low subjective well-being and poor self-esteem. In agreement with these findings, Forret et al., (2010) noted that job loss has been associated with physical and mental consequences such as self-doubt, submissiveness and social withdrawal.

Moylan (2009) also reported that, the unemployed are at a greater risk of suffering from depression. Brooks (2011) also supports that depression is a common factor among the unemployed. Additionally, while looking for a job, many people find that their skills are

becoming outdated and this impact on their mental health. Fryer (2010) as cited by Holland (2012) wrote that financial independence provides individuals with a source of control, meaningful experiences, roles and social interaction. In a study conducted by Waters and Moore (2002), it was found that financial deprivation was a significant contributor towards negative self-esteem. Unemployment does not only affect an individual's self esteem but can result in what Leon and Matthews (2010) call "success-fearers". This is described as the inability to move forward in the re-employment realm due to unconscious self-sabotaging behaviour.

Research findings by Gunnell, Platt and Hawton (2009) indicated that the unemployed are two to three times more at risk of death by suicide as compared to fully employed people. In support of these findings, a study done by Chang, Gunnell, Sterne, Lu and Cheng (2009) on the impact of the Asian economic crisis on suicide in Japan, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore and Thailand showed a sharp rise in suicide mortality in some, but not all, of these countries. This sharp increase in suicide was most closely associated with the increase in joblessness. Similarly, a study of 26 European Union countries by Stuckler, Basu, Suhrcke and McKee (2009a) reported that a fast and large increase in unemployment was associated with short-term rise in suicide (and homicide) in working-age men and women. Financial strain related to unemployment and its impact on family stability may result in depression and somatoform disorder. At times, the unemployed blame themselves for losing their jobs and this increases stress, feelings of despair and feelings of failure.

According to Mayo Clinic (2011), as cited in Holland (2012), when people become unemployed and stressed out, they are not only affected financially and emotionally but their physical well-being also becomes strained. These physical symptoms may be mild to severe.

One might experience headaches, muscle tension or pain, chest pain, fatigue, change in sex drive, upset stomach, sleep or many other symptoms. Additional research has explored the relationship between unemployment and physical concerns and found that the participants who were experiencing emotional distress were also experiencing physical distress. In addition, Rosenberg and Pehler (2011) noted that increased worry about being unemployed gives rise to concerns, sleep problems, body tension and headache. However, Artazcoz, Benach, Borrell and Cortès (2004) highlighted that not every unemployed person is vulnerable to experiencing the same risk of mental ill health.



PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, MENTAL HEALTH AND UNEMPLOYMENT

One of the first definitions was put forward by Cobb (1976) who defined social support as 'the individual belief that one is cared for and loved, esteemed and valued, and belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligations'. Social support has also been defined as any process whereby social relationships increase health and well-being (Cohen, Gottlieb & Underwood, 2000). Different types of social relationships that have been studied include romantic partners, friends and family members. Deficits in social support have been found to affect a variety of mental health constructs, including depression (Lahey & Cronin, 2008).

Research during the last three decades has well documented the fact that social support is one of the most important psychosocial factors influencing physical health outcomes (O'Donovan & Hughes, 2008; Uchino, 2004), health-related behaviour (Anderson, Winett & Wojcik, 2007) and mental health (Helgeson, 2003; Kafetsios & Sideridis, 2006). It has also been reported that social support can often uphold one's self esteem during periods of joblessness.

Research has shown that women are at a greater advantage of accessing support and therefore have higher self-esteem as compared to most men (Fryer, 2010 as cited by Holland, 2012). Bruchon-Schweitzer (2002) also reported that social support provided by close relations and professionals plays a protective role and alters the impact of strain on physical and mental health.

The results of a study done by Guarino and Sojo (2011) indicated that perceived social support acts as a shield in predicting better general health, lowering somatization in the unemployed and acting as a defence during longer periods of unemployment over these health indexes. The perceived availability of social support, in particular emotional support, has generally been found to be positively associated with subjective well-being (Kettmann & Altmaier, 2008; Bloom, Stewart, Johnston, Banks & Fobair, 2001). Helgeson (2003) also reported that emotional support has been shown to be the most significant form of social support with respect to overall well-being. Furthermore, positive relations with well-being have been observed with social support (Sheng et al., 2010).

Some studies have also shown positive associations between received support and subjective well-being (Pakenham, Chiu, Bursnall & Cannon, 2007), whereas in other studies, non significant or negative relations have been found (Reinhardt, Boerner & Horowitz, 2006). Moreover, the association between received support and well-being has been found to vary with the type of support. For instance, positive associations have been reported for emotional support (Kleiboer, Kuijer, Hox, Jongen, Frequin & Bensing, 2007) but negative relations for practical support (Reinhardt et al., 2006). In a study done in Germany by Kroll and Lampert (2009), it was found that most unemployed persons suffer physical, emotional and functional impairments more commonly than the employed persons. As a result,

unemployed men and women with little social support are more likely to be impaired in those three areas.

Weinberg and Cooper (2012) noted that, when one is unemployed or faced with a major life crisis, it should be considered that regardless of whether social support is received or perceived, people should take stock of the mutual expectations and the nature of their relations because this can help set the scene for recovery. Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir (2003) also maintain that social resources have a particularly marked effect on how well individuals cope with unemployment. The people affected by the loss of their jobs cope more successfully if they have satisfying social support networks and do not feel alone. Bamba (2010) agrees with Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir's findings and states that social support, especially marital satisfaction, is an important shield against the negative consequences of being without a job. While social support can often safeguard one's self esteem during periods of unemployment, research has shown that women's chances of receiving social support are higher during unemployment times; women appear to be more confident as compared to their male counterparts.

Clark (2003) reported that the negative psychological impact of one's unemployment status is reduced by higher regional unemployment levels and by the number of the unemployed people within one's family. In Clark's words, "unemployment always hurts, but it hurts less when there are more unemployed people around". Powdthavee (2007) in South Africa also provided support for the protective effect brought by regional unemployment and reported that when more people are unemployed in a particular area it tended to lower the effects of unemployment because now people were in cohesion. Dooley and Prause (2004) reported that being married is another protective factor during periods of unemployment.

Berkman and Glass (2000) reported that support from family and other significant social relations plays a vital role in reducing the difficulties and uneasiness of being unemployed. When an unemployed individual is surrounded by supportive family, friends and the community, and is satisfied with that support, the unemployed will show happiness and will be physically healthy. On the other hand, the one who is without a satisfying support system will experience destruction of, and harm to, his/her mental and physical health. In support of Berkman and Glass's (2000) findings, Sheng et al., (2010) reported that positive relations with well-being have been observed with satisfaction with social support.

Supportive social relationships, including those that provide instrumental and emotional support, have been found to be protective of mental health and life satisfaction among the unemployed (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). In contrast, "undermining" by members of the social network (i.e., directing anger, criticism, or dislike toward the unemployed individual) or lack of social support was found to be significantly related to worsened mental health among the unemployed (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). In addition, Loue and Sajatovic (2012) reported that the unemployed are at risk of ill health due to financial strain and limited social support networks.

GENDER, MENTAL HEALTH AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Considering the fact that, since the recession, the role of the primary income earner has often shifted to the women in the family, it can be stated that gender plays a major part in how one would be affected by and deal with being unemployed (Boushey, 2009). Unemployed males and females might differ in their approaches in dealing with joblessness due to their life experiences, attitude and behaviours for various reasons. For example, males might be more predisposed to experiencing joblessness negatively as a result of the gender

role stereotypes that regard males as breadwinners. On the other hand, females might find it more difficult to find employment due to gender discrimination, which could affect their effective experiences (Wanberg, 2012).

Waters and Moore (2002) reported that the role identity is the most important contributor to lowered self-esteem. In addition, if one is able to find a non-employment related role, one's overall self-esteem may not be as affected by unemployment. In most cases, the non-employment related role may take place around the household and more nurturing roles. Therefore, many of these roles are considered domestic and more women are suitable to assume these in their lifestyle during periods of joblessness as compared to the unemployed male. As a result, self-esteem may be lower in men than in women (Fryer, 2010 in Holland, 2012). In addition, Boushey (2009) reported that women may ease into unemployment more easily due to the fact that they are more accepting of traditional roles than men.

Forret et al., (2010) reported that adjustments that families make to a husband's joblessness result in his sense of importance and self-respect declining. Forret et al., (2010) also believe that, people differ in their approach to coping with seasonal, short-term or chronic unemployment. Because of the cultural emphasis on productive work, people are likely to experience guilt about being unemployed. Moreover, joblessness disrupts the self-concept of the traditional definition of adult males as the breadwinners for their families. Therefore, as a result of guilt, shame and anger, men may find it hard to direct their energy towards creative solutions to life problems. In agreement, Broman, Hamilton and Hoofman (2001), reported that, when men are unemployed, their identities become threatened, thus

they become more psychologically affected. The pressure presented by unemployment is not only financially based, but also affect men's identity as "providers".

In comparing research results on unemployed men and women from the past and present times, it was found that joblessness causes a decrease in mental health in both genders; however, men experience unemployment in a more negative way, while women tend to have a more positive experience (Rosseel, 1982). Carroll (2007) confirmed these findings by showing that unemployed women reported a lower life satisfaction in 35% of the cases while unemployed men did so in 63% of the cases. In addition, while unemployed women show a faster recovery in mental health, unemployed men feel lonelier and experience more mental and physical health problems (Artazcoz et al., 2004; Paul et al., 2006). An explanation for these findings might be found in the fact that women more frequently choose to be voluntarily unemployed, while this is not true for men. Carroll (2007) pointed out that the getting involved with meaningful alternative activities such as home-keeping leads to a lower distress among women not formally employed.

From the World Development Report (2012) on the decline of the breadwinner: 'Men in the 21st Century', it was reported that "The man is a conqueror, which is why he always needs to conquer something: a title, a woman, social status, a job." Most men are aware that the common social norms in the community prescribe the dominant roles they should perform. The main role for men is the one of primary income-earner and breadwinner in the family. In all 19 countries in the study, income generation for the family was the first and most likely mentioned definition of a man's role in the family and of a good husband. The report also indicated that across different counties and cultures, men's reliance on

employment to assess their identity and self-worth puts them at greater risks of financial volatility.

Unemployment can contribute to reduced life expectancy. In a longitudinal study in which the employment, earnings, and work histories of high-seniority male workers were tracked during the 1970s and 1980s, death rates in the year after job loss were 50 to 100 percent higher than would otherwise have been expected. The effect on mortality risk declined sharply over time, but even 20 years after these men had lost jobs, elevated risk of death was found among those who had lost jobs earlier, in comparison to the stably employed (Sullivan & von Wachter, 2009).



Early research on the impact of unemployment focused almost exclusively on men, although today women are equally likely to be included. In a study by Kessler, House and Turner (1987), women were part of a subgroup of respondents who appeared to experience no unpleasant health consequences regardless of being unemployed for significant periods of time. In particular, single mothers of young children and women married to men who were the chief family breadwinners seemed to be protected from the negative health effects of unemployment. Married women had financial security from their working husbands and single mothers with small children received social security benefits. Similarly, in Paul et al., (2009), meta-analysis of studies published between 1963 and 2004, men were more distressed than women by joblessness. In contrast, McKee-Ryan et al., (2005) review of studies published between 1985 and 2002 found that unemployed women reported poorer mental health and lower life satisfaction than did unemployed men. With over 70% of United States' women now having formal employment and heterosexual married women earning 36% of the income in two-parent families, future researchers may find that women's responses to

underemployment and unemployment are increasingly similar to those of men. This will likely be the case among female-headed households in which women are the sole or primary earners.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) indicated that, with increasing number of females getting employed and males still earning excessively more than females, it might be expected that contemporary women would report higher levels of financial strain than men. The results of a study comparing men and women who were both breadwinners and had child rearing responsibilities indicated that males were more likely to view joblessness as a defeat, whereas females view unemployment as an opportunity (Forret et al., 2010). Contrary, Creed and Macintyre's (2001) research findings reported no differences between males and females on financial strain or well-being.

According to Mclean, Carmona, Francis, Wohlgemuth and Mulvihill (2005), research has had a prevailing focus on unemployed men. There is popular belief that women do not show psychological distress to the same degree as men because of lower levels of attachment and identification with work. Though some studies have found no significant relationship between unemployment and psychological distress, others have found that for single women the relationship between mental health and unemployment is similar to that for men. Waters and Moore (2002) found that women reported more financial strain than men, but men more than women were negatively impacted by financial deprivation associated with unemployment. The research suggests that it is what the money represents for men that results in the lowered self-esteem.

AGE, MENTAL HEALTH AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Rosenbery and Pehler (2011) reported that age predicts how the individual will deal with being out of work; therefore older individuals who have a longer employment history are more negatively affected by unemployment. This is because, for them, job loss is viewed as breaking off a lifelong profession. On the other hand, unemployment can be defeating for the young people as they may not have enough resources to assist them during extended joblessness and they may be challenged with the house or car payments or childrearing costs, for which they have little savings to address.

In another study done in Israel, Kulik (2001) tested across three age samples (up to 25, 26-35 and 36-52 years), and reported that the middle-aged experience a greater reduction in health due to their unemployment status. In agreement, Dockery (2006) reported that, unemployment is harder on middle-aged men than on youth and this is because the middle-aged have greater monetary responsibilities (a sense of responsibility as 'breadwinners') and that being employed still plays a significant role on their self-concept. Individuals close to retirement age are likely to experience psychological symptoms (anxiety or stress) related to joblessness due to the reason that they can accept being out of work more easily and have fewer responsibilities. On the other hand, Reine, Novo and Hammarstrom (2004) urge that for the youngsters, a sense of individuality is significantly linked with work as it is an indication of transition from childhood into adulthood, while adults are more secure and more experienced in their work identity. Thus, unemployment is a serious issue facing young people as they have a need to become independent

Reine et al., (2004) reported that family state of affairs and financial necessities are somewhat different from that of youngsters and those that live alone. Young people's

position of not having family responsibilities, relying on parents and others for help and lessened financial boundaries puts them at a better advantage of not worrying about finances as compared to adults. Studies done by Broomhall and Winefield (1990); Winefield, Tiggemann, Winefield & Goldney, 1993) found similar results, stating that adolescents who fail to engage in full-time employment after leaving school do not suffer psychological ill-health to the same extent as adults. Warr and Jackson (1984) added that older unemployed persons are also less negatively affected. In contrast, Broomhall and Winefield (1990) also tested across two groups (15-30 years and 40-62 years) and reported poorer mental health and less life satisfaction among the older group.

METHODOLOGY

Study design

This study used a cross-sectional research design. The variables are perceived social support, gender, age and mental health. A T-Test was used to test hypothesis 1 to check for mean differences on mental health between the unemployed and the employed. Hypothesis 2, 3 & 4 were tested using a 2 x 2 x 4 ANOVA, testing the significant difference of social support, gender and age on mental health.

Participants

The participants who met the inclusion were randomly selected using a table of random numbers of 'Yes' and 'No' from different areas in Mahikeng, North West Province. Those who picked 'Yes' took part in the study and those who picked 'No' were excluded from the study. Unemployed participants were 98 (males = 44, females=54) and employed participants

were 103 (males= 57, females= 46). The age of participants was categorized into four categories (20 – 28, 29 – 39, 40 – 49 & 50 and above).

Measuring Instruments

General Health Questionnaire

The General Health Questionnaire 28 (GHQ 28) by Goldberg (1972) is a self-administered screening questionnaire designed to be used as an indicator of psychological well-being and thus resembles the psychological dimension of quality of life (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979; Sanderman & Stewart, 1990). The GHQ-28 incorporates four subscales items which measure the following: 7 items of Somatic Symptoms (SS), 7 items of Anxiety and Insomnia (AI), 7 items of Social Dysfunction (SD) and 7 items of Severe Depression (DS). The original questionnaire consists of 60 items from which shorter versions of 30, 28, 20 and 12 items were developed. The existence of four subscales permits analyses within the subscales and this is an additional advantage of the GHQ-28 scale over the other versions (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979).

In the GHQ-28, the respondent is asked to compare his recent psychological state with his usual state. For each item, four answer possibilities are available (1-not at all, 2-no more than usual, 3-rather more than usual, 4- much more than usual). In the study, the Likert scoring procedure (1, 2, 3, 4) is applied and the total scale score ranges from 28 to 112. The higher the score, the poorer is the psychological well-being of the patient (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) and the GHQ 28 has a Cronbach alpha-reliability value of 0.82–0.86 (Goldberg, Gater, Sartorius, Ustun, Piccinelli, Gureje & Rutter, 1997). In a Setswana-speaking sample in South Africa, Thekiso (1999) reported a Cronbach alpha of .91 for the total scale.

Social Support Questionnaire

Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ) by Sarason, Levine, Basham and Sarason (1983) is a 27 item self-administered scale and The SSQ measures (a) perceived number of social supports and (b) the satisfaction with social support. Each item involves two parts: respondents are asked to list the individuals who are available to them for help in specific situational circumstances, and how satisfied they are with the support available. Each situational circumstance allows a participant to list up to nine individuals (who are identified through their initials and relationships with the respondent) (Sarason, Levine, Basham & Sarason, 1983). Support Questionnaire (SSQ) was developed to measure the number of social support as well as satisfaction with social support (the degree of perceived support from one's family and friends) (Sarason et al., 1983). Sarason et al., (1983) reported good test-retest reliabilities ($r = 0.90$) and high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.97$). SSQ has been used in South Africa by various researchers (Edwards & Besseling, 2001; Moller, Fouladi, McCarthy & Hatch, 2003; Pretorius, 1996; 1997). Pretorius and Diedricks (1994) reported good test-retest reliabilities and high internal consistencies (both $r = 0.95$) with a sample of South African students. Both of the measuring instruments used in this study are reliable and valid as they are already standardised.

Procedure

The researcher obtained permission from the Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology in the North West University (NWU-00044-12-A9) to conduct the study. Following the granting of permission, the researcher held a one day workshop to train research assistants who were going to assist in collecting the data. Secondly, they were trained on how to obtain informed consent, the content of the questionnaires and a discussion was held about items on the questionnaire in Tswana and in Afrikaans, so that the research

**NWU
LIBRARY**

assistants would be able to assist the non-English speakers in completing the questionnaires. However all questionnaires were in English and not translated in Tswana or Afrikaans. Then, informed consent was obtained from participants who were randomly selected. For the purpose of confidentiality and anonymity, all participants were requested not to write their names on the questionnaires. All participants were provided with instructions in a language that was understood by them. Participants were also informed on voluntary participation, confidentiality and participants were informed of their right to withdraw from the study at any time, if they so wish.

RESULTS

Demographic variables:

In this section the results of the data are presented along the lines of the hypotheses stated.

Table 1.0: Summary of the demographic characteristics of the unemployed participants.

Characteristics	Levels	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	44	44.9
	Female	54	55.1
Age	20 – 28	39	39.8
	29 – 39	39	39.8
	40 – 49	11	11.2
	50 >	8	8.2
	Missing system	1	1.0

Marital Status	Married	21	21.4
	Widowed	3	3.1
	Single	64	65.3
	Cohabiting	7	7.1
	Divorced	2	2.0
	Others	1	1.0
Education	Primary	9	9.2
	Secondary	55	53.1
	Tertiary	32	32.7
	None	5	5.1
Ethnicity	Black	95	96.9
	White	1	1.0
	Coloured	1	1.0
	Indian	1	1.0
Employment Status	Unemployed	98	100.0
Children	Yes	55	56.1
	No	9	9.2
	Missing system	34	34.7

Table 1.1: Summary of the demographic characteristics of the employed participants.

Characteristic	Levels	Frequencies	Percent
Gender	Male	57	55.3
	Female	46	44.7
Age	20 – 28	18	17.5
	29 – 39	42	40.8
	40 – 49	35	34.0
	50 and above	8	7.8
Marital Status	Married	26	25.2
	Widowed	4	3.9
	Single	61	59.2
	Cohabiting	4	3.9
	Divorced	6	5.8
	Others	1	1.0
Education	Primary	8	7.8
	Secondary	46	44.7
	Tertiary	47	45.6
	None	2	1.9
Ethnicity	Black	95	92.2
	White	1	1.0
	Coloured	7	6.8

Employment status	Employed	103	100
Children	Yes	74	71.1
	No	20	19.4
	Missing system	9	8.7

Hypothesis 1:

Hypothesis 1 stated that the unemployed will more likely experience poor mental health as compared to their employed counterpart. Results in Table 2.0 showed that there is a significant difference in the score of participants on the somatic symptoms subscale (GHQA). On the GHQ, the unemployed scored higher than the employed ($t = -2.92$; $df = 181$; $p < .05$). On the anxiety and insomnia subscale (GHQB) the unemployed scored significantly higher than the employed ($t = -4.51$; $df = 179$; $p < .05$). Also, on the social dysfunction subscale (GHQC) the unemployed participants scored higher than the employed participants ($t = -3.71$; $df = 191$; $p < .05$). For the severe depression subscale (GHQD) the unemployed scored significantly higher than the employed ($t = -3.80$; $df = 193$; $p < .05$). Lastly, the results showed that on the composite GHQ scale (GHQT) the unemployed again scored significantly higher than the employed, $t = -4.47$; $df = 158$; $p < .05$.

Table 2.0. *Summary of T-tests of Independent Means Showing Employment Status Differences on the Sub-Scales of General Health Questionnaire-28.*

Scale	Employed				Unemployed				
	Mean	N	SD	df	Mean	N	SD	t	p
GHQA	12.61	97	4.50	181	14.60	86	4.75	2.92	<.05
GHQB	11.86	93	4.86	179	15.30	88	5.37	4.51	<.05
GHQC	12.80	99	3.81	191	14.97	94	4.31	3.71	<.05
GHQD	10.45	102	4.84	193	13.22	93	5.32	3.80	<.05
GHQT	46.96	84	16.30	158	58.49	76	16.26	4.47	<.05

Hypotheses 2, 3 & 4:

Hypothesis 2 stated that there will be a significant difference between social support and mental health. Hypothesis 3 stated that there will be a gender difference in mental health among the unemployed, while hypothesis 4 stated that there will be age difference on mental health. Results in Table 3.0 below indicate that, (Hypothesis 2) there is a significant difference in social support and mental health ($F = 1,101 = 3.94; P < .05$), while hypotheses 3 & 4 show no significant gender and age difference on mental health among the unemployed.

Table 3.0 Summary of a 2 x 2 x 4 ANOVA Showing the Effects of Social Support, Gender and Age on Mental Health.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Corrected model	3583.975	8	447.997	1.453	.184
Intercept	43688.064	1	43688.064	141.672	.000
Social Support	1216.447	1	1216.447	3.945	.050
Gender	1.728	1	1.728	.006	ns
Age	1396.491	3	465.497	1.510	ns
Satisfaction1 * Gender	.000	0	.	.	ns
Satisfaction1 * Age	.000	0	.	.	ns
Gender* Age	974.498	3	324.833	1.053	ns
Satisfaction1 * Gender* Age	.000	0	.	.	ns
Error	31145.743	101	308.374		
Total	327921.000	110			
Corrected Total	34729.718	109			

Note: *p < .05

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated the relationship between perceived social support, gender, age and mental health of people who are unemployed in the Mafikeng area of North West Province in South Africa. The study was anchored on four hypotheses and thereby (1) the unemployed will more likely experience poorer mental health than their employed counterpart, (2) there will be a significant difference between social support and mental

health, (3) there will be gender difference in mental health among the unemployed and (4) there will be age difference in mental health among the unemployed.

The findings of hypothesis 1 showed that the unemployed people have poorer mental health than their employed counterparts on somatic symptoms, anxiety & insomnia, social dysfunction, severe depression and on the composite mental health. These findings find support in the work of Kroll and Lampert (2009) in a study conducted in Germany; the authors reported that there were higher occurrences of recurrent physical and psychological complaints, as well as health-related restrictions by those who were unemployed. In a related study, Stankunas et al., (2006) found that unemployed people suffer from depressive episodes, anxiety disorder and are more prone to committing suicide. All these are pointers to the fact that the state of joblessness is a source of worry to individuals who are jobless, thereby precipitating negative physical and psychological consequences.

Similarly, Paul and Moser (2009), in a study found that the unemployed are twice as likely as their employed counterparts to suffer from bouts of depression, psychosomatic illnesses, compromised subjective well-being and low self-esteem. All of these may be as a result of financial strain brought about by lack of gainful employment with the result that the individuals become stressed because of their inability to satisfy basic financial and material needs to meet societal expectations. Weinberg and Cooper (2012) confirmed this thinking when they reported that individuals' perception of the severity of their money problems can have a big impact on their psychological health. Studies have also shown that in extreme situations, the unemployed have a higher tendency to commit suicide as compared to people who are fully employed (Chang et al., 2009; Gunnell et al., 2009). This assertion was further confirmed by the findings of Stuckler et al., (2009) that in Europe, rapid and large rises in

unemployment have been significantly associated with short-term rises in suicides and homicides among working-age men and women. It thus becomes obvious that the state of unemployment is not just harmful to physical and mental health of the unemployed, but it also constitutes a danger to society at large and a great risk to the significant others, like wives and children who will, in most instances, bear the brunt of the negative consequences of unemployment

The findings of this study indicated that (hypothesis 2) there is a significant difference between social support and mental health. The more the social support available for an individual, the better the mental health appears to be. This was supported by the work of Wills and Shinar (2000) that the protecting effects of social support may alter perceptions of negative events, transfer coping resources, or facilitate changes in health-related behaviours. Similarly, Kroll and Lampert (2009) asserted that the unemployed who receive social support from significant others are less affected by complaints of depression, anxiety and debilitating health and suicide tendency. Ibarra-Rovillardand and Kuiper (2011) affirmed that increased social support helps reduce the negative effects of stressful life events on the mental health of individuals.

Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir (2003) have documented evidence that showed considerable cross-cultural evidence of emotional support from friends and relatives counteracting the effects of psychological distress among the unemployed. Similarly, Mmusi (2003) also reported that the negative or positive consequences of unemployment strongly depend on how well or bad the relationships within families and friends were before unemployment.

Studies have shown that there exist positive associations between received support and subjective well-being of individuals (Pakenham et al., 2007; Kleiboer et al., 2007); this is an indication that unemployed individuals with adequate social support will experience better mental health than unemployed persons without social support. Bjarnason and Sigurdardottir (2003) maintained that social resources have a marked effect on how well individuals cope with unemployment; those with social support will cope better and more positively than those without social support.



The results of this study showed (Hypothesis 3) no significant gender difference on all subscales of the GHQ among the unemployed. Contrary to the findings of this study, the literature reports various findings with regard to gender difference and mental health among the unemployed. Some studies reported that males are more psychologically affected as they are bread winners; others reported that contemporary women are more at risk of negative psychological effects as they are single parents and heading families also whereas others reported no gender difference at all. A study by Rosseel (1982) found that unemployment causes a decrease in psychological well-being in both genders; on the other hand, men experience unemployment in a more negative way, while women tend to have a more positive experience. Carroll (2007) stated that unemployed women reported a lower life satisfaction in 35% of the cases while unemployed men did so in 63% of the cases. In addition, while unemployed women show a more rapid recovery in psychological well-being, unemployed men feel far lonelier and experience more mental and physical health problems (Artazcoz et al., 2004; Paul & Moser, 2006).

Carroll (2007) pointed out that getting involved with meaningful alternative activities, such as home-keeping, leads to a lower distress among unemployed women. According to

Forret et al., (2010), due to the cultural emphasis on productive work, people are likely to experience guilt about being unemployed, more so for men than women, and joblessness disrupts the self-concept of the traditional definition of the adult males as breadwinners for their families. Therefore, as a result of guilt, shame and anger, men may find it hard to direct their energy towards creative solutions to life problems. Broman, Hamilton and Hoofman, (2001) support Forret et al., (2010) by stating that, when men are unemployed, their identities become threatened, thus they become more psychologically affected. Thus, the pressure presented by unemployment is not only financially based but also affects men's identity as "providers".

Contrary to the above findings, Australian Bureau of Statistics (2002) indicated that, with increasing number of females being employed and males still earning excessively more than females, it might be expected that contemporary women would report higher levels of financial strain than men. Creed and Macintyre's (2001) research findings reported no differences between males and females on financial strain or well-being. From the results of this study and the literature, it can be noted that the effect of unemployment on gender is a significant factor. As reported above, different studies report contrasting results with regard to unemployment, mental health and gender. However across different countries and cultures, the literature still clearly points out that, unemployed males are at a greater risk of experiencing poorer mental health as compared to their female counterparts. However, with contemporary women becoming more involved in the labour market, and women being sole breadwinners in other households, it can be expected that with time the effects of unemployment on women will start to surface more.

The results of this study indicated (hypothesis 4) no age difference in mental health among the unemployed. The results of this study are contrary to other findings in the literature. The literature also report different results in terms of age differences in mental health among the unemployed. Hofacker (2010) reported that older employees are not bothered by the consequences of joblessness as compared to the younger and middle-career labourers. Affirming Hofacker (2010) findings, Kulik (2001) conducted a study and tested the consequences of joblessness across three age samples (25, 26-35 and 36-52 years) and reported that the middle-aged experience a greater reduction in health due to their unemployment status. Dockery (2006) gave an explanation that the decline in mental health among the unemployed middle-aged individuals as compared to their younger and older counterparts could be because the middle-aged persons have greater monetary responsibilities (a sense of responsibility as 'breadwinners') and that being employed still plays a significant role in their self-concept. Individuals close to retirement age are likely to experience psychological symptoms (anxiety or stress) related to joblessness due to the reason that they can accept being out of work more easily and have fewer responsibilities.

Contrary to the above findings, Broomhall and Winefield (1990) also tested across two groups (15-30 years and 40-62 years) and reported poorer mental health and less life satisfaction among the older group. On the other hand, Reine et al., (2004) urge that for the youngsters, a sense of individuality is greatly linked with employment as it is a sign of conversion from childhood into adulthood, while adults are more secure and more experienced in their work identity. Reine et al.,'s (2004) findings relate to mental health consequences of unemployment, as they have report points out that employment is an important aspect in young people's personal growth and identity development while breaking away from parental care and support. Thus when a young person is unable to get employed

this might affect their sense of worth and individuality, whereas adults they have a sense of identity.

CONCLUSION

In this study the following conclusions were made:

- Hypothesis 1, the unemployed reported more psychological symptoms than their employed counterparts.
- Hypothesis 2, there is a significant difference between social support and mental health.
- Hypothesis 3, reported no gender difference in mental health among the unemployed.
- Lastly, Hypothesis 4 also reported no age difference in mental health among the unemployed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations made by the study are that: the government has already started implementing community projects; however, there is the need for more farming projects that would enhance the community's financial independence. In these projects, communities could be involved in learning how to grow crops and take care of livestock as a means of financial sustenance. The government and the business sector could engage with communities to find out from the communities' perspective what could help fight unemployment.

More business opportunities for people who have interest in entrepreneurship should be implemented in order to assist them to become financially independent. Efforts to strengthen the culture of social support at the family and societal level should be made. Further studies should be conducted in order to explore different coping skills that the unemployed can use in

dealing more effectively with joblessness, in order to reduce the negative effects of unemployment.

LIMITATIONS

The limitation of the study includes the fact that the study used self-report measures and the tendency to appear either faking good or faking bad may have affected response behaviour, since some of the participants thought participating was a way of finding employment and others wrote their contact details on the questionnaires, despite being told not to do so by the researcher for confidentiality and anonymity reasons.

Acknowledgements

The authors are very thankful to all those that participated.

Declarations

The authors have no financial disclosures or conflicts of interest to report.

REFERENCES

- Ahn, N., Jimeno, J. F., & Ugidos, A. (2004), "Mondays in the sun: Unemployment, time use and consumption patterns in Spain", in Hamermesh, D.S and Pfann, G. A. (Eds) *Time Use in Economic*, Amsterdam: Elsevier, forthcoming.
- Anderson, E.S., Winett, R.A., & Wojcik, J.R. (2007). Self-Regulation, Self-Efficacy, Outcome Expectations, and Social Support: Social Cognitive Theory and Nutrition Behavior. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, 34(3), 304–312.
- Artazcoz, L., Benach, J., Borrell, C., & Cortès, I. (2004). Unemployment and mental health: Understanding the interactions among gender, family roles, and social class. *American Journal of Public Health*, 94, 82–88.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2002). Labour force, Australia. Duration of unemployment: Recent definitional changes. Canberra: Australian Government.
- Bambra, C. (2010). Yesterday once more? Unemployment and health in the 21st century. *J Epidemiology and Community Health*, 64, 213-215.
- Berkman, L. F., & Glass, T. (2000). *Social integration, social networks, social support, and health*. Oxford :University Press.
- Bjarnason, T., & Sigurdardottir, T. J. (2003). Psychological distress during unemployment and beyond: Social support and material deprivation among youth in six northern European Countries. *Social Science & Medicine*, 56 (5), 973–985.
- Bloom, J. R., Stewart, S. L., Johnston, M., Banks, P., & Fobair, P. (2001). Sources of Support and the Physical and Mental Well-Being of Young Women with Breast Cancer. *Social Science & Medicine*, 53(11), 1513–1524.
- Boushey, H. (2009). *Women Breadwinners, Men unemployed*. Retrieved on 2012-12-26 from http://www.americanprogress.org/issues/2009/07/breadwin_women.html.
- Broman, C. L., Hamilton, V. L., & Hoofman, W. S. (2001). *Stress and distress among the*

unemployed: Hard times, vulnerable people. New York: Kluwer Academic/ Plenum
Publisher.

Broomhall, H. S., & Winefield, A. H. (1990). A comparison of the affective well-being of
young and middle-aged unemployed men matched for length of unemployment. *British
Journal of Medical Psychology*, 63, 43-52.

Brooks, D. (2011). *Where the jobs aren't*. Retrieved on 2012-12-26 from
<http://www.nytimes.com>.



Bruchon-Schweitzer, M. (2002). *PsychologiedelaSante' . Mode` les, Concepts et Me` thodes*.
Paris, Dunod.

Butterworth, P. (2003). Estimating the prevalence of mental disorders among income support
recipients: Approach, validity and findings, Policy Research Paper No. 21, Department

Carroll, N. (2007). Unemployment and psychological well-being. *Economic Record*, 83, 287–
302.

Chang, S. S., Gunnell, D., Sterne, J. A., Lu, T. H., & Cheng, A. T. (2009). Was the economic
crisis 1997-1998 responsible for rising suicide rates in East/Southeast Asia? A time-trend
analysis for Japan, Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore and Thailand. *Social
Science & Medicine*, 68(7), 1322-1331.

Clark, A. E. (2003), 'Unemployment as a social norm: psychological evidence from panel
data', *Journal of Labor Economics*, 21(2), 323–51.

Cobb, S. (1976). Social Support as moderator of life stress. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 38,
300-314. PMID: 981490.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T.A. (1985). Stress, Social Support, and buffering hypothesis.
Psychological Bulletin, 98, 310- 357.

Cohen, S., Gottlieb, B. H., & Underwood, L. G. (2000). Theoretical and historical
perspectives. In S. Cohen, L. G. Underwood, & B. H. Gottlieb (Eds.), *Social support*

- measurement and intervention* (pp. 3–25). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Conger, R. D., Conger, K. J., Elder, G. H., Lorenz, F. O., Simons, R. L., & Whitbeck, L. B. (1992). A family process model of economic hardship and adjustment of early adolescent boys. *Child Development*, *63*, 526–541.
- Creed, P. A., & Macintyre, S. R. (2001). The relative effects of deprivation of the latent and manifest benefits of employment on the wellbeing of unemployed people. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *6* (4), 324–331.
- Dockery, A. (2006). Mental health and labour force status: Panel estimates with four waves of HILDA. *Centre for Labour Market Research Discussion Paper Series*. 06/1.
- Dooley, D., & Prause, J. (2004). *The social costs of underemployment: Inadequate employment as disguised unemployment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Edwards, D., & Besseling, E. (2001). Relationship between depression, anxiety, sense of coherence, social support and religious beliefs. *South African Journal of Psychology*, *31*, 4–62
- Feather, N. (1982). Unemployment and its psychological correlates: A study of depressive symptoms, self-esteem, protestant ethic values, attributional style, and apathy. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, *34*, 309–323.
- Forret, M. L., Sullivan, S. E., & Mainiero, L. A. (2010). Gender role differences in reactions to unemployment: Exploring psychological mobility and boundary less careers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*(5), 647–666.
- Ford, E., Clark, C., McManus, S., Harris, J., Jenkins, R., Bebbington, P., Brugha, T., Meltzer, H., & Stansfeld, S. A. (2010). Common mental disorders, unemployment and welfare benefits in England. *Public Health*, *124*, 675–681.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Goldberg, D. (1972). *The Detection of Psychiatric Illness by Questionnaire*. Oxford, UK:

Oxford University Press.

- Goldberg, D. P., & Hillier, V. F. (1979). A scaled version of the General Health Questionnaire. *Psychology and Medicine*, 9, 139-45.
- Goldberg, D. P., Gater, R., Sartorius, T. B., Ustun, T. B., Piccinelli, M., Gureje, O., & Rutter, R. (1997). The validity of two versions of the GHQ in the WHO study of mental illness in general health care. *Psychology and Medicine*, 27, 191-197.
- Gordo, L. R. (2006). Effects of short- and long-term unemployment on health satisfaction: evidence from German data. *Applied Economics*, 38, 2335 - 2350.
- Gove, W. R., & Tudor, J. E. (1973). Adult sex roles and mental illness. *American Journal of Sociology*, 98, 812-835.
- Gove, W. R. (1978). Sex differences in mental illness among adult men and women: An evaluation of four questions raised regarding the evidence on the higher rates of women. *Social Science and Medicine*, 12, 187-198.
- Guarino, L. & Sojo, V. (2011). Social support as moderator of the stress on unemployed people's health. *Universitas Psychologica*, 10 (3), 867-879.
- Gunnell, D., Platt, S., & Hawton, K. (2009). The economic crisis and suicide. *British Medical Journal*, 338, 1891.
- Hald, A. S. (2009). *Dealing with unemployment: Program effects on psychological and labour market outcomes*. PhD Dissertation. University of Copenhagen.
- Hammarström, A., Gustafsson, P. E., Strandh, M., Virtanen, P., & Janlert, U. (2011). It's no surprise! Men are not hit more than women by the health consequences of unemployment in the Northern Swedish Cohort. *Scandinavian journal of public health*, 39 (2), 187-93.
- Haralambos, M., & Holborn, M. (1990). *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*. London: Harper-Collins.
- Helgeson, V. S. (2003). Social Support and Quality of Life. *Quality of Life Research*, 12 (1),

25– 31.

Hofacker, D. (2010). *Older workers in a globalizing world: An international comparison of retirement and late-career patterns in Western Industrialized Countries*. London: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Holland, K. (2012). "Effects of Unemployment on Health and Mental Health Based on Gender". *Master of Social Work Clinical Research Papers*. Paper 38. Retrieved on 2012-12-26 from http://sophia.stkate.edu/msw_papers/38

Ibarra-Rovillard, M. S., & Kuiper, N. A. (2011). Social support and social negativity findings in depression: Perceived responsiveness to basic psychological needs. *Clinical Psychology Review, 31*, 342–352.

Jahoda, M. (1982). *Employment and Unemployment*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Janlert, U., & Hammarström, A. (2009). Which theory is the best? Explanatory models of the relationship between unemployment and health. *BioMedical Centre Public Health, 9*, 235.

Kafetsios, K., & Sideridis, G. D. (2006). Attachment, Social Support, and Well-Being in Young and Older Adults. *Journal of Health Psychology, 11*, 6, 863–876.

Kessler, R. C., House, J. S., & Turner, J. B. (1987). Unemployment and health in a community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 28*, 51-59.

Kettmann, J. D. J., & Altmaier, E. M. (2008). Social Support and Depression among Bone Marrow Transplant Patients. *Journal of Health Psychology, 13*(1), 39–46.

Kingdom, G., & Knight, J. (2001). Unemployment in South Africa: The Nature of the Beast, *CSAE Working Paper No. WPS/2001.15*, Centre for the Study of African Economies, Oxford.

Kleiboer, A.M., Kuijer, R.G., Hox, J.J., Jongen, P.J.H., Frequin, S.T.F.M., & Bensing, J.M.

- (2007). Daily Negative Interactions and Mood among Patients and Partners Dealing with Multiple Sclerosis (MS): The Moderating Effects of Emotional Support. *Social Science & Medicine*, 64(2), 389–400.
- Kroll, L. E., & Lampert, T. (2009). Unemployment, Social Support and Health Problems: Results of the GEDA Study in Germany. *Deutsches Aerzteblatt International*, 108(4), 47-52.
- Kulik, L. (2001). Impact of length of unemployment and age on jobless men and women: a comparative analysis. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 38(3), 15-27.
- Lakey, B., & Cronin, A. (2008). Low social support and major depression: Research, theory, and methodological issues. In K. S. Dobson, & D. J. A. Dozois (Eds.), *Risk factors in depression* (pp. 385–408). San Diego, CA: Elsevier.
- Leon, L. & Matthews, L. (2010). Self Esteem Theories: Possible explanations for poor interviewing skills for those experiencing unemployment. *Journal of Rehabilitation*, 76, 441-50.
- Loue, S., & Sajatovic, M. (eds). (2012). *Encyclopedia of immigrant health*. New York: Springer.
- Mandal, B., & Roe, B. (2008). Job loss, retirement and mental health of older Americans. *The Journal of Mental Health Policy and Economics*, 11, 167-176.
- McClean, C., Carmona, C., Francis, S., Wohlgemuth, C., & Mulvihill, C. (2005). *Worklessness and health –what do we know about the causal relationship?. Evidence Review Summary (1st edition)* London: Health Development Agency.
- McFadyen-Ketchum, S. A., Bates, J. E., Dodge, K. A., & Pettit, G. S. (1996). Patterns of change in early child aggressive-disruptive behavior: Gender differences in predictors from early coercive and affectionate mother–child interactions. *Child Development*, 67, 2417–2433.

- Mchunu, R. (2003). *The Impact of Unemployment on Men Living in an Informal Settlement of Orange Farm*. B.A (Social Work) Dissertation. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.
- McKee-Ryan, F., Song, Z., Wanberg, C. R., & Kinicki, A. J. (2005). Psychological and physical well-being during unemployment: A meta-analytic study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 53–76.
- Mmusi, F. I. (2003). *Psycho-Social Effects of Unemployment among Young Adulthood Men and Women in Eldorado Park Community*. B. A (Social Work) Honours Dissertation. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.
- Moller, N. P., Fouladi, R. T., McCarthy, C. J. & Hatch, K. D. (2003). Relationship of Attachment and Social Support to College Students' Adjustment Following a Relationship Breakup. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 81*(3), 354.
- Moylan, M. (2009). Minnesota Public Radio. *Mental Health Stress and Concern among unemployed*. Retrieved on 2009-12-23 from <http://www.nyaprs.org/e-newsbulletins-8354.cfm>
- Muchinsky, P. M. (2006). *Psychology of applied work* (8th ed.). USA: Wadsworth.
- O'Donovan, A., & Hughes, B.M. (2008). Access to Social Support in Life and in the Laboratory: Combined Impact on Cardiovascular Reactivity to Stress and State Anxiety. *Journal of Health Psychology, 13*(8), 1147–1156.
- Pakenham, K. I., Chiu, J., Bursnall, S., & Cannon, T. (2007) Relations between Social Support, Appraisal and Coping, and Both Positive and Negative Outcomes in Young Carers. *Journal of Health Psychology, 12*(1), 89–102.
- Paul, K. I., & Moser, K. (2006). Incongruence as an explanation for the negative mental health effects of unemployment: Meta-analytic evidence. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*, 595–621.



- Paul, K. I., & Moser, K. (2009) 'Unemployment impairs mental health: Meta-analyses', *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 74(3), 264–82
- Powdthavee, N. (2007). Are there geographical variations in the psychological cost of unemployment in South Africa?, *Social Indicators Research*, 80, 629–652.
- Pretorius, T.B. (1996). Gender health-sustaining and stress reducing (buffering) functions of social support: a *South African study*. Support systems can help you cope with stressful events in many ways. *Journal of Social Behaviour & Personality*, 11(5), 193.
- Pretorius, T. B. (1997). The quality of dyadic relationships and the experience of social support. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 27(3), 171.
- Pretorius, T. B., & Diedricks, M. (1994). Problem-solving appraisal, social support and stress-depression relationship. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 24, 86-90.
- Reeset, G., Gorin, S., Jobe, A., Stein, M., Medforth, R., & Goswami, H. (2010). *Safeguarding Young People: Responding to young people aged 11 to 17 who are maltreated*. London: The children's Society.
- Reine, I., Novo, M. A., & Hammarstrom, N. (2004). Does the association between ill health and unemployment differ between young people and adults? *Journal of the Royal Institute of Public Health*, 118, 337–345.
- Reinhardt, J.P., Boerner, K., & Horowitz, A. (2006) Good to Have but Not to Use: Differential Impact of Perceived and Received Support on Well-Being. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 23(1), 117–129.
- Rosenberg, C. M., & Pehler, S. R. (2011). *The encyclopedia for family health*. USA: SAGE.
- Rosseel, E. (1982). Werkloosheidsbeleving. Bevindingen van en bemerkingen bij een onderzoek van een representatieve steekproef van Belgische werklozen. [Unemployment experience. Findings and observations in a study of a representative sample of Belgian unemployed.] *Tijdschrift voor Sociologie*, 3, 117–136.
- Sanderman, R., & Stewart, R. (1990). The assessment of psychological distress:

- Psychometric properties of the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ). *International Journal of Health Science*, 1, 195-202.
- Sarason, I. G., Levine, H. M., Basham, R. B., & Sarason, B. R. (1983). Assessing social support: the Social Support Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44, 127-139.
- Sheng, X., Huyhn-Nhu, L., & Perry, D. (2010). Perceived Satisfaction with Social Support and Depressive Symptoms in Perinatal Latinas. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, 21(1), 35 – 44.
- Siegel, M., Bradley, E., Gallo, W., & Kasl, S. (2004). The effect of spousal mental and physical health on husbands' and wives' depressive symptoms, among older adults: longitudinal evidence from the Health and Retirement Survey. *Journal of Aging Health*, 16, 398-425.
- Stankunas, M., Kalediene, R., Starkuviene, S., & Kapustinskiene, V. (2006). Duration of unemployment and depression: a cross-sectional survey in Lithuania. *Public Health Journal*, 6, 174.
- Statistics South Africa (2011). Quarterly 1 Labour Force Survey. South Africa: Statistics South Africa.
- Stuckler, D., Basu, S., Suhrcke, M. & McKee, M. (2009a). 'The health implications of financial crisis: A review of the evidence', *Ulster Medical Journal*, 78(3), 142–145.
- Sullivan, D., & von Wachter, T. (2009). Job displacement and mortality: An analysis using administrative data. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 124, 1265-1306.
- Thekiso, M. S. (1999). *The psychometric properties of scales measuring psychological well-being in a Setswana speaking group*. Unpublished Masters Dissertation, PU for CHE, Potchefstroom.
- Uchino, B. (2004). *Social Support and Physical Health: Understanding the Health Consequences of Relationships*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2009). *Labor force characteristics*. Retrieved on the 22-11-2010 from <http://www.bls.gov/cps/lfcharacteristics.htm#unemp>.
- Wanberg, C.R. (2012). The individual experience of unemployment. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 63, 369-396.
- Warr, P. B., & Jackson, P. R. (1984). Men without jobs: Some correlates of age and length of unemployment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 57, 77-85.
- Waters, L. E., & Moore, K. A. (2002). Reducing latent deprivation during unemployment: The role of meaningful leisure activity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75, 15-32.
- Weinberg, A., & Cooper, C. (2012). *Stress in Turbulent Times*. Hampshire, UK: Palgrave-Macmillan.
- Winefield, A.H., Tiggemann, M., Winefield, H.R., & Goldney, R.D. (1993). *Growing up with unemployment: A longitudinal study of its psychological impact*. London: Routledge.
- Wills, T. A., & Shinar, O. (2000). Measuring perceived and received social support. In S. Cohen, L. G. Underwood, & B. H. Gottlieb (Eds.), *Social support measurement and intervention* (pp. 86–135). New York: Oxford University Press.
- World Development Report. (2012). *The decline of the breadwinner: Men in the 21st century*. Retrieved on the 19-12-2012 from <http://www.worldbank.org/wdr-2012-12-19>
- Zuern, E. (2011). *The politics of necessity: Community organizing and democracy in South Africa*. England: The University of Wisconsin Press.