

Vocational interventions for the unemployed

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COMMENTS

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The editorial style in the first and last chapters of this thesis follows the format prescribed by the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the North-West University.
- The references and page numbers in this thesis follow the format prescribed by the Publication Manual (6th edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA). This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology of the North-West University to use APA referencing style in all scientific documents.
- This thesis is submitted in the form of research articles. The editorial styles specified by the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology and South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences are used in the second and third chapters, respectively.

DECLARATION

I, Rachele Paver, hereby declare that “Vocational interventions for the unemployed” is my work and that the views and opinions expressed in this thesis are my own and those of the authors as referenced both in the text and in the reference lists.

I further declare that this work will not be submitted to any other academic institution for qualification purposes.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Rachele Paver', with a stylized, cursive script.

RACHELE PAVER

MARCH 2019

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“The task ahead of you is never as great as the power behind you.”

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NOTE

Within the international sphere interventions aimed at removing constraints to employment and enhancing the employability of jobseekers are identifiable by a wide range of terms, such as: active labour market programmes, employment interventions, job interventions, youth employment initiatives, youth initiatives, youth employment interventions, youth employment programmes and workforce development programmes (Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab (J-PAL), 2013; Cho & Honorati, 2014; European Training Foundation, 2014; Grimm, 2016; Holden, 2013; Independent Evaluation Group [IEG], 2013; International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2015; Kluve et al., 2014; Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2013; United Nations Capital Development Fund [UNCDF], 2015; United States Agency for International Development [USAID], 2013; World Bank, 2012).

Within the South Africa context similar programmes are referred to as active labour market programmes, employment programmes, employability enhancing services, employment-related interventions, labour market interventions, employment services, labour market programmes, employability programmes, youth employment program, youth employability interventions, and vocational education and training programmes, vocational interventions. (Centre For Social Development In Africa [CSDA], 2014, 2015, 2016; Development Bank of South Africa [DBSA], 2011; Human Sciences Research Council [HSRC], 2006; International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2011, 2014; Solutions for Youth Employment [S4YE], 2015; South African National Treasury, 2011; South African Public Employment Services, 2012; University of Johannesburg, 2015; World Bank, 2007).

The above terms are used to describe social expenditure which is aimed at the improvement of the beneficiaries' prospect of finding gainful employment or to otherwise increase their earnings capacity, including, but not limited to job creation, work opportunities, employment subsidy, support for self-employment, skills development, employability skills, job-search skills and counselling (mentoring and advisory services). Because no clear distinction has been made between the scope of these terms, throughout the thesis, some of the terms mentioned above are used interchangeably.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of tables	xi
List of figures	xii
Summary	xiii

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Problem statement	1
1.2	Research objectives	4
1.2.1	General objectives	4
1.2.2	Specific objectives	4
1.3	Research method	5
1.3.1	Literature review	
1.3.2	Empirical study	
1.3.2.1	Study 1: A review of labour market interventions to assist the unemployed in two townships in South Africa	6
	Research approach	6
	Research setting	6
	Sampling	6
	Research procedure and data collection methods	7
	Data analysis and reporting style	8
	Strategies employed to ensure data quality and integrity	8
1.3.2.2	Study 2: A systematic literature review of the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme: A suggested framework for South Africa	8
	Research approach	8

	Targeted body of literature	8
	Gathering the data	10
	Analysis and presentation of the data	10
	Assessment of methodological quality	12
1.3.2.3	Study 3: The implementation and evaluation of the South African adaptation of the JOBS programme	12
	Research approach	12
	Research participants and data collection procedures	12
	Intervention	13
	Measuring instruments	13
	Statistical analysis	15
1.4	Ethical considerations	15
	References	18
 CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH ARTICLE 1		
	References	48
 CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH ARTICLE 2		
	References	78
 CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH ARTICLE 3		
	References	120
 CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS		
5.1	Conclusions	127

5.2	Limitations	133
5.3	Recommendations	136
5.4	Contributions	139
	References	142
	Appendix A: Interview protocol	144
	Appendix B: Proposed framework	147

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Selected implementation and evaluation aspects of the JOBS programme	1
Table 2.	Framework for classifying types of interventions	38
Table 3.	Characteristics of participants and documents	
Table 4.	Table of findings	39
Table 5.	Reviewed implementation and evaluation aspects of the JOBS programme	61
Table 6.	An outline of the Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme	96
Table 7.	Characteristics of the experimental and control groups	98
Table 8.	Correlations matrix of dependent and intervention measures	105
Table 9.	Means and standard deviations on time 1, time 2, time 3, and time 4 for the experimental and control conditions	106
Table 10.	Main effects of the interventions	106
Table 11.	Mean and standard deviations of job-search self-efficacy for identified clusters of amotivation on time 1, time 2, and time 3.	110
Table 12.	Mean and standard deviations of amotivation for identified clusters of amotivation on time 1, time 2, and time 3.	111
Table 13.	Mean and standard deviations of self-esteem for identified clusters of amotivation on time 1, time 2, and time 3.	112

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.	Flow chart of study selection	60
Figure 2.	The switching replication design intervention study	94
Figure 3.	Estimated marginal means of job-search self-efficacy	107
Figure 4.	Estimated marginal means of amotivation	107
Figure 5.	Estimated marginal means of self-esteem	108
Figure 6.	Amotivation cluster mean changes on job-search self-efficacy	110
Figure 7.	Amotivation cluster mean changes on amotivation	111
Figure 8.	Amotivation cluster mean changes on self-esteem	112

SUMMARY

Topic: Vocational interventions for the unemployed

Keywords: Unemployment, interventions, psychosocial perspective; JOBS programme; South Africa.

South Africa has one of the highest unemployment rates in the world. Considering the serious consequences of being unemployed, there is an urgent need to intervene. The first objective of this PhD thesis is to provide an overview of existing employment interventions in two low-income communities in South Africa. Findings show that information regarding programmes for the unemployed was generally uncoordinated, unavailable, and difficult to access. Stakeholders functioned in isolation and were usually unaware of each other. An alarming finding was the lack of interventions driven from a psychosocial perspective, which leaves the unemployed without the necessary resources to cope with the challenges of unemployment.

One job-search intervention, called the JOBS programme, specifically aimed at developing personal resources and skills that promote re-employment, has been successfully implemented throughout the world. As a means of fulfilling the absence of psychosocial programmes in South Africa, the second aim of this study was to adapt and implement a South African version of the JOBS programme, the Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme. Based on previous international studies, a framework comprising implementation and evaluation best practices was developed to apply the programme effectively in South Africa. The most prominent suggestion made was the introduction of an entrepreneurial component to suit the South African context.

The last objective of this study was to adapt, implement, and evaluate the JOBS programme in the South African context. The intervention was carried out among a sample of 131 unemployed individuals, using a switched replication design. Integrity and randomisation were preserved. Repeated Measures ANOVAs provided support for the effectiveness of the intervention programme in terms of significantly enhancing participants' job-search self-efficacy and increasing their self-esteem, though not significantly. One-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) showed that the intervention programme had statistically significant

effects on the job-search self-efficacy and self-esteem of the experimental group (compared to the control group) between the pre-test and the post-test. Lastly, participants' levels of amotivation seemed to remain unchanged post-intervention. However, further analysis revealed that specifically, those scoring higher in amotivation benefitted considerably in terms of job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem.

Recommendations for future research were made.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis is about vocational interventions for the unemployed.

In Chapter 1, the problem statement is given. This is followed by a discussion of the research purpose, research method, ethical considerations and division of chapters.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Unemployment is a common affliction in the modern era. It is complex, and its nature, causes, and remedies have been in dispute for a long time. Now, more than ever, a need exists for innovative interventions to solve this complex dilemma (Groepe, 2015). However, unfortunately, many countries fail to address the plight of unemployment, as 192,7 million people are unemployed globally (International Labour Organisation, 2017). Unemployment has become a pandemic in both developed and developing nations. In developing countries, unemployment is even more challenging than in developed countries due to increased social exclusion, poverty and social and political instability. South Africa is no exception, as more than one-third of South Africans have been unemployed for much of the past 15 years, with the most recent expanded unemployment rate at 37,2% (Stats SA, 2018).

The purpose of this PhD is to contribute to the research and practice aimed at alleviating unemployment in South Africa, particularly from a psychological perspective. This study intended to identify possible gaps among labour market programmes as a means of selecting an appropriate programme aimed at helping the unemployed deal with the psychological burden of unemployment. To add value to existing literature and evidence-based practices, this study investigated the best practices and possible challenges of implementing a job-search intervention, the JOBS programme. Based on the results, a South African version of the JOBS programme was executed.

Countless interventions have been implemented to address unemployment and its consequences. Surprisingly, in South Africa, documented inventories on vocational

interventions are somewhat limited. While such inventories are available locally, they generally consist of an overview of larger-scale, national-level initiatives (see Graham et al., 2016; International Labour Organisation, 2011; Mayer et al., 2011). From these reports, it seems programmes aimed at enhancing employability, decreasing barriers to accessing the labour market, and creating work opportunities are widely available. Findings are not always generalisable, as some of the services implemented in metropolitan cities are not necessarily available or accessible in smaller low-income communities. To adequately address unemployment and assist those affected, a need exists to determine the stakeholders involved in implementing programmes for the unemployed as well as what these programmes entail. Valuable information, for both the beneficiaries and benefactors, can be obtained from conducting a review of existing programmes.

In documenting labour market interventions, it becomes evident that interventions including psychosocial aspects are limited. Moreover, for programmes to be of economic relevance, it had been suggested that undertakings not strictly linked to labour market outcomes, such as individual-level outcomes (psychosocial aspects), be omitted (Kluve et al., 2017). Research on the importance of psychology in unemployment is not a recent phenomenon (Hartley & Freyer, 1984; Warr, Jackson, & Banks, 1982). Ample research has previously been conducted on the topic; yet when it comes to practice, well-being is a neglected aspect. Similar results are evident in the existing inventories documenting employability programmes in South Africa (see Graham et al., 2016; Mayer et al., 2011). Considering the psychological and motivational consequences, for example, of depression, low self-esteem and motivation, reduced job-search efforts, and diminished well-being (De Witte, Rothmann, & Jackson, 2012; Kapuvári, 2011; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005; Paul & Moser, 2009; Warr, Jackson, & Banks, 2010), neglecting approaches from a psychological, behaviour-focused perspective is a concern (Du Toit, 2003; Van den Hof, 2015). Although economically focused interventions may have brought about change in a meta-analysis conducted by Liu, Huang, and Wang (2014), they established that programmes aimed at enhancing skills and motivational components were almost three times more likely to result in re-employment.

As a means of addressing this gap, the Michigan Prevention Research Center developed the JOBS programme (Caplan, Vinokur, Price, & Van Ryn, 1989). The JOBS intervention is an example of a psychologically focused programme guided by principles aimed at successful behavioural change (Caplan, Vinokur, & Price, 1997). The aim of the JOBS programme is

twofold. First, it helps participants to acquire job-search skills, promote job-search effort, and obtain employment. Second, the actual underlying mission of the programme is to use the content of the programme as a vehicle to drive the process of empowering participants (Curran Wishart, & Gingrich, 1999). The success of the JOBS programme relies greatly on self-esteem and confidence-boosting techniques, building participants' personal resources and preparing them to deal with possible setbacks encountered in the job-search process (Price & Vinokur, 2014). The JOBS programme holds numerous positive outcomes, such as higher motivation to persist in job-search efforts, more rapid and higher rates of re-employment, and reduction in mental health problems and psychological distress (Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur, Price, Caplan, Van Ryn, & Curran 1995). As a result, the JOBS programme has been disseminated to several other states and countries, such as Finland (Vuori, Silvonen, Vinokur, & Price, 2002), China (Price & Fang, 2002), California (Choi, Price, & Vinokur, 2003), Ireland (Barry, Reynolds, Sheridan, & Egerton, 2008), the state of Maryland (Lee & Vinokur, 2007), Israel (Shirom, Vinokur, & Price, 2008), and the Netherlands (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011).

Another major strength of the JOBS intervention is the rigorous research by means of which it has been validated (Price & Vinokur, 2014). Despite the appealing benefits of evidence-based practices (see Baker, 2000; Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, & Wuerml, 2010; Heckman, LaLonde, & Smith, 1999), intervention studies often lack evaluations and research-based measures (Baker, 2000). Central to the valid and reliable findings of the JOBS programme is the carefully designed protocols (Price & Vinokur, 2014). These protocols were not only designed to deliver the content, but also to display the techniques through which facilitators enhance feelings of competence and confidence of participants. Considering the complexity of developing an intervention, research-based protocols used in the JOBS protocols are invaluable to the successful dissemination of interventions.

While the experience of being unemployed may be similar, the contexts in which the JOBS programme have previously been implemented differ quite significantly from that in South Africa. In a South African study, an alarming percentage of unemployed (67,9%) described their experience of being unemployed as feeling either discouraged or desperate (Van der Vaart, De Witte, Van den Broeck, & Rothmann, 2018). Similarly, participants in another study associated unemployment with feelings of being ashamed, disappointed, and useless (Du Toit, De Witte, Rothmann, & Van den Broeck, 2018). While job seekers generally feel controlled by either external or internal forces, many unemployed in South Africa reported no motivation,

particularly when seeking employment (Van der Vaart, Van den Broeck, Rothmann, & De Witte, 2019). The JOBS programme aims to alleviate psychological consequences, such as depleted self-esteem, high levels of amotivation, and impaired job-search self-efficacy (Vinokur & Schul, 1997).

To address the lack of psychosocially focused interventions in South Africa, applying a programme such as the JOBS may deliver promising results. In order to successfully implement the JOBS programme in a South African context, it seemed worth studying the best practices of previously implemented and evaluated versions of the JOBS programme. Findings may be valuable in gaining a better understanding of what worked in what conditions as well as determining what necessary culturally appropriate changes would have to be made to implement the programme in South Africa effectively.

Specific research problems

From the above problem statement, several gaps in the literature exist. Apart from large-scale studies conducted on a national and metropolitan level, research related to interventions aimed at alleviating unemployment seems limited. A need exists to establish what programmes are accessible and available for the unemployed in their immediate environment. Furthermore, from the existing, but limited, inventories, it is evident that programmes using a psychosocial perspective to address unemployment are the exception. Due to the harsh psychological consequences of being unemployed, a need exists to seek and apply a programme aimed at addressing these needs to help the unemployed cope with their circumstances.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

To address the gaps in literature and practice, the general objective of this study is to determine whether there is a need for behavioural-driven vocational programmes. If so, a further objective is to identify and investigate an appropriate evidence-based intervention, aimed at helping the unemployed cope with unemployment, as a means of implementing such a programme in South Africa.

The specific research objectives of the study are:

- To investigate existing interventions that deal with unemployment and its effects in South Africa
- To develop a framework to assist with the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme in South Africa; and
- To investigate the effects of the South African version of the JOBS programme on jobseekers' levels of job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem.

1.3 RESEARCH METHOD

This PhD is presented in the form of three research articles, the first consisting of a systematic review of existing vocational interventions aimed at assisting the unemployed, the second comprising a systematic literature review of the JOBS programme, and the last being a literature review and empirical study comprising the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS intervention.

1.3.1 Literature review

The literature review focuses on relevant information regarding unemployment in South Africa. Articles relevant to the topic were obtained by doing searches through various databases, including the following: EBSCOhost, Google Scholar, Google Books, and ScienceDirect. Journals such as *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, *Journal of Employment Counseling*, *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *Personnel Psychology*, and *Social Dynamics* were consulted due to their relevance.

1.3.2 Empirical study

This thesis reports on three studies, each presented in the form of a chapter in article format. The research design, approach, and research methods for each of the studies are described below.

1.3.2.1 Study 1: Labour market interventions to assist the unemployed in two townships in South Africa

Research approach

To collect information regarding unemployment initiatives in the targeted communities, a qualitative design, specifically a documentary research design, was used. Documentary methods are described as a technique used to identify, classify, and interpret written documents (Payne & Payne, 2004). Sources of documentary research comprised academic articles, government documents, official reports, newspapers, and other unpublished documents. Structured interviews with individuals from government departments, civil society organisations and the private sector were used to obtain more information, where insufficient information was available in documents.

Research setting

During the investigation, townships in two geographical areas in Gauteng, namely, Orange Farm (Johannesburg) and Boipatong (Vanderbijlpark), were studied. These areas were chosen due to their accessibility, and to contribute to research previously conducted within the broader research project. These townships are well-known for their high unemployment rates. The first, Orange Farm, is one of the fastest-growing and most populated informal settlements in the country and is located about 45 km south of Johannesburg. Approximately 40% of Orange Farm residents are unemployed (Stats SA, 2011). The second geographical area, Boipatong in Emfuleni, is one of three local municipalities comprising the Sedibeng District and has the highest unemployment rate of these three townships (34,7%; Stats SA, 2011).

Sampling

Both documents and research participants were used based on a combination of purposive and convenience sampling. Purposive sampling is applicable, as documents are selected based on the inclusion criteria mentioned above. Documents and participants adhering to the inclusion criteria were also included depending on their availability (Struwig, Struwig, & Stead, 2001).

Research procedure and data collection methods

Before commencing with an overview of employment programmes, a literature review with a twofold aim was performed. Firstly, the literature was consulted to determine the main role players involved in executing vocational interventions. Secondly, the review was done to develop a framework according to which these interventions can be categorised. Based on the identified role players and intervention categories, an additional search was conducted to identify and categorise employment programmes in particular communities.

Documents containing information related to employment programmes implemented by the identified role players (government departments, civil society organisations (CSOs), and the private sector) were collected and studied. In cases where insufficient information regarding particular programmes was available (mostly occurred among CSOs), a contact person or someone related to the programme was contacted (via telephone or email) to participate in a structured interview regarding the programme.

A somewhat different approach was used to collect data from CSOs, due to the limitation of information. The Department of Social Development provided a list comprised of all the registered CSOs. Only CSOs that specifically aimed to help the unemployed were included. The contact persons were either called or emailed to obtain more information regarding the selected programmes. Included programmes had to adhere to the following inclusion criteria:

- They had to have an eligible outcome variable specifically focused on the unemployed.
- Programmes had to be implemented by the South African government (national, provincial, or municipal, or state-owned enterprises), civil society organisations, or the private sector.
- They had to be based in one of the identified regions (Orange Farm and Emfuleni); if not, they had to apply to the unemployed in the regions (that is, national incentive schemes).

Before conducting any structured interviews, permission was obtained from the Basic and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (BaSSREC) at the North-West University. Questions included in the structured interviews are available in Appendix A.

Data analysis and reporting style

An inductive approach was followed to identify stakeholders involved in working with employability programmes. In contrast, to categorise the employability programmes, a deductive approach was used. Two broad themes (demand and supply side) and various subthemes (categories of interventions) were identified. These themes were used to perform a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis was used as a means of identifying, analysing and reporting on selected themes in the collected documents (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The information found in the documents, supplemented with information obtained through the structured interviews, was assembled and tabulated according to the relevant themes.

Strategies employed to ensure data quality and integrity

Informal interviews were conducted with experts working in the field of unemployment to gain input on the included role players and employment categories. To ensure that data were accurately and reliably presented, an additional reviewer was consulted to assist with validating the data. Furthermore, in cases of uncertainty regarding the inclusion of particular programmes, deliberations were held, and the different viewpoints were considered as a means of deciding.

1.3.2.2 Study 2: A systematic literature review of the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme: A suggested framework for South Africa

Research approach

In the second study, a systematic literature review was done, which allowed the researcher to gain insight on the implementation, evaluation, and dissemination practices of the JOBS programme and variations of it. It confirmed the significant impact of the programme and its effects on participants. This systematic literature review was comprised of reliable and comprehensive evidence about best practices previously used and outcomes achieved.

Body of literature

Before commencing with the systematic literature review, the founders of the JOBS programme were contacted to obtain information regarding the programme and its dissemination.

Additional information was acquired from the web page of the Michigan Prevention Research Center (MPRC). Based on literature from the MPRC website, a search was conducted to see whether supplementary literature could be obtained. Electronic searches were conducted to allocate the already-mentioned as well as any other related articles. Databases such as Google Scholar and EBSCOhost (Academic Search Premier, Africa-Wide Information, American Doctoral Dissertations, PsycARTICLES, and PsycINFO) were utilised to find the relevant articles.

Search terms and selected criteria. Since all programmes were derived from the JOBS intervention, it was anticipated that the authors would refer to the JOBS programme in their papers. Therefore, a search was done for the different authors with the term ‘JOBS programme’ (for example, AUTHOR: Vuori; IN-TEXT: ‘JOBS program*’). Another programme called the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Program (JOBS) yielded additional results when searching for ‘Jobs Program*’. Therefore, it was necessary to also include the authors of the different JOBS programmes (as found on the MPRC dissemination page) in the search. The search string thus consisted of two search concepts joined by the Boolean operator AND; the second string contained a list of authors joined by the Boolean operator OR. The following search string was entered in the databases: [1] IN-TEXT: ‘jobs program*’ [2] AUTHOR: ‘Barry’, ‘Caplan’, ‘Choi’, ‘Kessler’, ‘Price’, ‘Schul’, ‘Van Ryn’, ‘Vinokur’ and ‘Vuori’.

To prevent the omission of relevant articles from the review, reference lists of included studies were reviewed to find more relevant articles. During this process, it became evident that there were indeed articles that did not refer to the JOBS programme in the content. Therefore, an additional search was conducted with the names of the different authors of the JOBS programme and each of the different JOBS variations (for example, AUTHOR: ‘Barry’, IN-TEXT: ‘Winning New Jobs’). The search string consisted of two search concepts joined by the Boolean operator AND; the first string contained a list of names for variations of the JOBS programme and the second a list of authors, with both strings joined by the Boolean operator OR. The following search string was entered in the databases: [1] IN-TEXT: Jobs in China Project, Job-search Intervention, Työhön Job Search Program, or Winning New Jobs [2] AUTHOR: ‘Akkermans’, ‘Blonk’, ‘Brenninkmeijer’, ‘Donaldson’, ‘Fang’, ‘Friedland’, ‘Shirom’, and ‘Turner’.

Criteria for including articles were as follows:

- Articles and chapters had to be peer-reviewed.
- Articles and chapters had to be written in English.
- Articles had to be about the JOBS programme or variations of it (JOBS in China Project, Job-search Intervention, Työhön Job Search Program, Winning New Jobs, and JOBS in the Netherlands).
- The study population had to be unemployed people.

Gathering the data

Papers and conference proceedings that were inaccessible were excluded. Price and Vinokur (2014) mention that the JOBS programme was also disseminated to Sweden and South Korea; however, literature seemed limited and unavailable. Furthermore, it was found that the JOBS programme had also been implemented in an organisational and school context. Considering the differences between the circumstances of the participants, these studies were omitted. The inclusion and exclusion criteria narrowed the scope of this review. Finally, 34 articles met all the inclusion criteria.

Analysis and presentation of the data

Monitoring the implementation and evaluation processes of a programme seems critical to identify possible areas of improvement. Such observations contribute to the validity and quality of programme delivery (Barry et al., 2008). Information obtained from the articles included in the literature review was tabulated according to the following two components:

Implementation is described as the process of putting a plan into action (Miller, Wilson, & Hickson, 2004). Studying the various components involved in executing a programme such as the JOBS programme was essential in replicating such an intervention. All aspects related to the process had to be identified, adapted (if necessary), and organised according to the specific context to successfully implement the programme (Barry et al., 2008).

Evaluation can be described as the ‘determination of a subject's merit, worth, and significance, using criteria governed by a set of standards’ (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 188). Evaluation

practices are a crucial component in the success of evidence-based programmes (Jané-Llopis, Barry, Hosman, & Patel, 2005). Since the JOBS programme was designed not only to measure the programme impact, but also to measure process components contributing to the success of the programme (Price & Vinokur, 2014), the process and impact evaluation of the programme was also examined. The following aspects of the studies included in the systematic literature review were studied (Table 1):

Table 1

Selected Implementation and Evaluation Aspects of the JOBS Programme

Implementation	Evaluation
<u>Context</u>	<u>Methodology</u>
<u>Participants</u>	Data collection method
Biographical characteristics	Research design and data collection intervals
<i>Gender</i>	<u>Process evaluation</u>
<i>Age</i>	Randomisation
<i>Education</i>	Integrity manipulation checks
<i>Duration of unemployment</i>	<u>Impact evaluation</u>
Population, sample size, and recruitment	Outcomes
<u>Programme</u>	<i>Prevention of poor mental health Promotion of reemployment</i>
Delivery	<i>Consequential outcomes</i>
Content	
Incentives	
Facilitators	
Duration of programme	
Group sizes	
Venue of training	
Stakeholders	

Assessment of methodological quality

To ensure research that adheres to acceptable quality and integrity, an additional reviewer was consulted. After duplicates had been removed, both the researcher and reviewer were involved in selecting studies to include in the systematic review based on their abstracts and full content.

1.3.2.3 Study 3: The implementation and evaluation of the South African adaptation of the JOBS programme

Research approach

A quasi-experimental research design, specifically a switching replication design, was used to attain this paper's research objectives (Thyer, 2012). In this design, participants are divided into two groups: an experimental group and a control group. During the first phase of this study, the first group played the role of the experimental group, while the second group represented the control group. In the second part of the study, the second group was the experimental group. The outcomes of the experimental group (the group that received the intervention first) were compared with the outcomes of the control group. The only difference between the two groups was the time of receiving the intervention. By assigning participants randomly to either the experimental or control group and also by applying strict intervention protocols, the researchers aimed to keep other factors consistent. This design was also chosen for ethical reasons to ensure that all participants benefitted equally from the programme.

Research participants and data collection procedures

Convenience sampling was used to reach participants, as this sampling method enabled us to include participants who were willing and available to participate (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché, & Delport, 2011). Self-administered questionnaires were used to collect the data. The experimental group completed the surveys on three occasions: once before starting with the intervention, *directly* after the intervention, and again four weeks after attending the programme. The control group completed the survey on four occasions: two weeks before the intervention, on the first and last day of the programme, and also at the four-week follow-up session. A hard copy of the questionnaire was given to the participants to complete. The context

and purpose of the study were explained to the participants before completing the questionnaires. The questionnaire took approximately 40 minutes to complete.

Although participants had to have a proper understanding of English to take part in the programme, the facilitators were available to assist participants with the completion of the survey, using structured interviews. In cases where participants preferred to be interviewed, the facilitators explained the survey questions without changing their meaning. A participation number was allocated to participants in order to identify them in the subsequent data collection rounds. Questionnaires, however, did not contain any confidential information. After the participants had completed the intervention, both groups were asked to complete the survey again on the last day of the programme to determine whether there were any changes in the measured constructs. Finally, a post-post-test was conducted with both groups four weeks after each group had completed the programme.

Intervention

The South African version of the JOBS programme is called Qhubekela Phambili, which is an IsiZulu phrase, meaning ‘moving forward’. The Qhubekela Phambili programme did not vary much from the JOBS programme, especially not in terms of methodological changes. Content-related changes included introducing an entrepreneurial component to the programme, as the creation of self-employment opportunities was deemed crucial in the South African context. The Qhubekela Phambili programme consisted of five four-hour sessions in one week, followed by one four-hour session four weeks after the programme. Workshop sessions took place in either the morning or afternoon. Two groups attended the workshop per week (one morning and one afternoon session), complemented by two control groups, to complete the research questionnaire. In total, the programme was executed over four weeks and included four experimental groups and four control groups ($n_{exp}=69$; $n_{contr}=62$).

Measuring instruments

Biographical information. A biographical questionnaire was used to assess age, gender, race, home language, level of education, duration of unemployment, and household status (marital and parental status).

Job-search self-efficacy. The Job-Search Self-Efficacy Measure was developed in earlier investigations of the JOBS programme ($\alpha = 0,93$; Vinokur & Schul, 1997; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1991). It consisted of six items. Participants were asked how confident they felt executing tasks related to finding a job (that is, “How confident do you feel about completing a good job application and CV?”). Items were rated on a five-point frequency scale, ranging from not at all confident (1) to a great deal confident (5).

Amotivation. The Self-Regulation Questionnaire – Job Searching Scale (Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, De Witte, & Deci, 2004) was used to measure motivational regulation, specifically amotivation, based on the motivational regulation types of the self-determination theory ($\alpha = 0,85$; Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, & Feather, 2005). The scale consisted of 10 items and was intended to measure individuals’ motives not to search for employment (that is, “I do not look for a job because I am tired of looking for a job”). Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

Self-esteem. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) was utilised to measure respondents’ positive and negative feelings about themselves (that is, “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself”). This scale consisted of 10 items and was measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). After analysing the reliability coefficient of the scales, one problematic item was identified. The loading of item 8 (“I wish I could have more respect for myself”) in the self-esteem scale was not significant and was, therefore, considered unsuitable for inclusion in further analyses.

Intervention indices. Participants’ experience and perception of the programme were measured to indicate the integrity and strength of the intervention. Trainer support was measured with five items and group support with five items. The trainers and other group participants were rated on their warmth, expertise, and helpfulness (1 = most negative rating; 5 = most positive rating). Both active learning and job-search skills were answered on a frequency scale that varied from 1 = not at all to 5 = a great deal and were measured with five items. Example items are “During the workshop, to what extent do you feel that you could share your experiences?” (active learning) and “During the workshop, to what extent do you feel that the trainers and other group members helped you to identify possible job opportunities?” (job-search skills). An example item of inoculation against setbacks is “Do you anticipate difficulties and setbacks during your job-search?”, which was answered from 1 = very few to 5 = very many and

measured with three items. Learning experience ranged from 1 (improved to a very small extent) to 5 (improved to a very great extent) and was measured with seven items (that is, “To what extent do you feel that the workshop has prepared you to conduct interviews?”).

Statistical analysis

The data were analysed using the SPSS version 25.0 platform (IBM Corp, 2017). Correlation coefficients were used to establish the relationship among the biographical, dependent (job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem), and intervention measures (trainer and group support, active learning, job-search skills, inoculation against setbacks, and learning experiences). The value was set at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$) to indicate statistical significance. The practical significance of the correlation coefficients was set at a cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect) and 0,50 (large effect, Cohen, 1988). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post hoc comparisons among groups (experimental, control, and dropout groups) was used to determine the randomisation of the groups at baseline. Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to compare changes within dependent variables (job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem) over three (four for the control group) intervals. Subsequently, the extent to which the dependent variables changed from the pre-test to the post-test between the two conditions (experimental and control) was examined using one-way repeated measures ANOVA. One-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to investigate whether the post-test means, adjusted for pre-test scores, differ between the two groups. To determine the integrity and strength of the intervention, mean scores of the programme indices were examined. Finally, K-means cluster analysis was used to cluster participants based on their reported levels of amotivation. By means of one-way ANOVAs changes in the identified amotivation groups’ job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem, over three intervals, were determined.

1.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The primary researcher had done several ethics and research integrity courses to ensure that research was conducted fairly and ethically. From the outset of this PhD, an unemployment research advisory board (URAB) was involved. URAB members were, among others, community leaders, young entrepreneurs, government employees, and community counsellors.

The advisory board contributed significantly to helping to make decisions from which the community, specifically the unemployed, would benefit the most.

Before commencing with the first research article, permission was obtained from the Basic and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (BaSSREC; NWU-HS-2017-0071). Data were collected by conducting structured interviews with individuals involved in programmes for the unemployed. Although the intention of the interviews was not to obtain sensitive information, some of the interviewees might have perceived some questions as relatively sensitive (e.g. information regarding the costs of the intervention, costs to society, and costs to beneficiaries, such as “Do you by any means measure the effectiveness or any possible impact of the programme? If yes, can you elaborate?” and “Do you by any means measure the costs involved in obtaining employment for participants? If yes, can you elaborate?”). However, interviewees were under no obligation to answer the questions posed and were informed in advance that the interview could be stopped at any time. Information gained from interviews was documented on paper; these documents were locked away in a locked cabinet, inside a safe, at the North-West University. Only the researcher and one fieldworker had access to the hard copies.

Before implementing the JOBS programme, the study was approved by the Humanities and Health Research Ethics Committee (HHREC; NWU-HS-2018-0006). After approval had been granted, the researcher was able to commence the study. Because unemployment has profound psychological effects on those affected, the purpose of this study was specifically to help these individuals cope with their circumstances. Despite their vulnerable condition, no harm was anticipated. It was expected that participants would benefit from the programme, as they were provided with valuable resources that might help them with their job-search journey.

The programme had several beneficial outcomes. Firstly, individuals from the broader community were selected as programme facilitators. Facilitators had the opportunity to be trained in the JOBS programme by an experienced and accredited facilitator. Programme participants gained in terms of incentives received for participating in the programme. During the workshops, participants were provided with job-search skills and information regarding available services in their communities. They also received transportation and food parcels every day of the programme, a ZAR 80 voucher, and an attendance certificate at the end of the workshop.

Throughout the data collection procedures, careful attention was paid to following fair, unbiased, and ethical practices. Such practices included doing no harm, voluntary participation (participants would not be pressured or forced to participate and were free to tell the research team that they did not want to participate), obtaining informed consent, maintaining participants' confidentiality (Salkind, 2009). Finally, documents from the first and third studies (consent forms and questionnaires) are required to be stored in a secure place for at least five years; the researcher will adhere to these requirements.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF THE CHAPTERS

The problem statement, research objectives, research methodologies, ethical considerations and a brief overview of the chapters of this thesis were presented in this chapter. In the following chapters, the findings of the research objectives are discussed in the form of several research articles. Finally, the last chapter deals with the conclusions, limitations, recommendations and contributions of this research study.

1.5.1 Chapter division

Chapter 1: Problem statement, objectives, methodologies, ethical considerations and a brief overview of the chapters

Chapter 2: Article 1 – Labour market interventions to assist the unemployed in two townships in South Africa

Chapter 3: Article 2 – A systematic literature review of the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme: A suggested framework for South Africa

Chapter 4: Article 3 – The implementation and evaluation of the South African adaptation of the JOBS Programme

Chapter 5: Conclusions, limitations, recommendations and contributions

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CHAPTER 2

ARTICLE 1

Paver, R., Rothmann, S., Van den Broeck, A., & De Witte, W. (2019). A review of labour market interventions to assist the unemployed in two townships in South Africa. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* (Manuscript accepted for publication).

Labour market interventions to assist the unemployed in two townships in South Africa

Abstract

Orientation: Given the absence of organised and accessible information on programmes relating to unemployment in South Africa, it may be difficult for beneficiaries to derive value from existing programmes; and for stakeholders to identify possible gaps in order to direct their initiatives accordingly.

Research purpose: The purpose of this study was to conduct a review of existing employment initiatives within two low-income communities in South Africa, with the aim of identifying possible gaps in better addressing the needs of the unemployed.

Motivation for the study: Unemployment in South Africa does not appear to be the result of a lack of initiatives or a lack of stakeholder involvement, but rather the result of the haphazard implementation of interventions. In order to intervene more effectively, addressing the identified gaps, organising and better distribution of information for beneficiaries is suggested.

Research approach/design and method: The data were collected via documentary research complemented with structured interviews. Relevant documents ($N = 166$) and participants ($N = 610$) were consulted during the data collection phase, using convenience and purposive sampling.

Main findings: A total of 496 unemployment programmes were identified. The government implemented most of the interventions. Vocational training followed by enterprise development and business skills training were the most implemented programmes. Less than 6% of programmes contained psychosocial aspects that are necessary to help the unemployed deal with the psychological consequences of unemployment. Finally, in general, benefactors involved in alleviating unemployment seem unaware of employment initiatives in their communities.

Practical/managerial implications: The compilation of an inventory of employment programmes may be valuable, as it will assist in identifying the most prominent needs of the South African labour market.

Contribution: This study adds to scientific knowledge regarding the availability of existing unemployment programmes, projects and interventions, and the need for specific interventions.

Keywords: Interventions; unemployment; government; civil society organisations; private sector; township; Gauteng.

Introduction

Unemployment has a detrimental effect on a nation's success, development and prosperity (Feather, 2018; Klehe & Van Hooft, 2018). In South Africa, several role players have started initiatives to deal with the detrimental effects of unemployment. Solely from a government perspective, 27% (ZAR 1.5 trillion) of the annual gross domestic product (GDP) was spent on but a few of the largest, best-funded employment programmes in 2018 (Ramaphosa, 2018). This amount does not include the cost of any other initiatives implemented by the government or other key stakeholders. Despite the significant efforts, expenditure and the considerable impact of these interventions, actions seem inadequate as the issue of unemployment remains unresolved and increasingly concerning.

From a report written by the Independent Evaluation Group, it seems that employment programmes, in general, are somewhat uncoordinated and functioning in isolation (Independent Evaluation Group; IEG, 2013). Given the absence of organised and accessible information on programmes relating to employment in South Africa, it may be difficult for stakeholders to identify possible gaps in order to direct their initiatives accordingly (National Treasury, 2011). Likewise, beneficiaries may also be unaware of (and may have limited access to) the available resources (Dieltiens, 2015a). Therefore, the problem with employment initiatives in South Africa does not appear to be a lack of initiatives or a lack of stakeholder involvement but rather the haphazard implementation of interventions. As a result, valuable time and money are invested, without a clear indication of the impact thereof (Cloete & De Coning, 2011).

This study aimed to identify existing interventions aimed at helping the unemployed in South Africa. A meaningful way to approach the task at hand is to determine the 'who' and 'what' regarding unemployment initiatives by studying current literature and available documentation. Relevant interventions will be clustered according to the involved role players ('who') and the types of programmes that have been implemented within the selected communities ('what'; based on the aim of the intervention).

To date, some inventories of employment initiatives in South Africa have been published (see Centre for Development and Enterprise [CDE], 2008a; Development Bank of Southern Africa, 2011; Economic of Regions Learning Network [ERLN], 2015; Graham et al., 2016;

International Labour Organisation [ILO], 2012). However, some limitations should be noted. South Africa has undergone a substantial economic and social change in the last couple of years. Therefore, reports older than 5 years may be considered obsolete. Furthermore, these reports mainly focus on large-scale interventions, whereas many employability programmes also operate on a smaller scale (Dieltiens, 2015b). Such smaller-scale programmes often deliver more hands-on services, such as providing information about jobs and looking and applying for jobs.

Another noteworthy observation from the documents mentioned above is that employability programmes are mostly driven from an economic perspective, neglecting the psychosocial aspects of being unemployed (Patel, Noyoo, & Loffell, 2004; Van den Hof, 2015). People generally take up work not only to be compensated (also referred to as a manifest function of employment; Jahoda, 1982) but also to benefit from other latent functions (time structure, social contact, common goals, status or identity and enforced activity) while being employed (Jahoda, 1982). Consequently, when people are (or become) unemployed, it leads to deprivation of both functions, which has been found to negatively impact one's psychological well-being (Jahoda, 1982). By applying interventions that solely focus on easing financial hardship, the psychological aspects, which may contribute to making unemployment bearable, are deliberately left out of the equation, which may result in the unemployed remaining in a state of joblessness.

In general, research regarding programmes aimed at alleviating unemployment within low-income communities is limited. Identifying existing employment interventions may not only be valuable in recognising the most prominent needs in the labour market but also to promote more focussed action, and make a significant contribution to rethink and redesign strategies in addressing employment encounters in South Africa. Based on the above research problem, the main aim of this study was to make an inventory of employment interventions in two South African townships. The specific objectives were:

- To determine the primary stakeholders involved in addressing unemployment in the involved communities
- To develop a framework to classify active labour market programmes

- To identify labour market programmes in Orange Farm and Emfuleni, implemented by included stakeholders, according to the framework, as a means of relieving unemployment; and
- To make recommendations for future research and practice.

Role players

Intervening to promote employment is regarded as a major challenge (IEG, 2013). Consequently, different role players execute initiatives. Organisations such as trade unions, banks, economic development agencies, universities and research entities have been found to be involved in addressing the issue of unemployment. While all the role players make valuable contributions, reports documenting labour market interventions consider the main role players to be the government, civil society organisations (CSOs – including international development organisations) and the private sector (CDE, 2008a; IEG, 2013; Mayer et al., 2011; National Treasury, 2011). Therefore, these role players are elaborated next:

South African government

Definition: Government is described as the people who have the authority to govern a country (Oxford Dictionary, 2017). *Form:* The South African government consists of three spheres, namely, national, provincial and municipal (local), as well as state-owned enterprises (SOE; Republic of South Africa, 1996). *Regulated by:* According to South Africa's latest macro policy, the New Growth Path, it aims to develop effective strategies to reduce poverty, inequality and unemployment, by means of making job creation the focal point of the policy. The government aims to create a million jobs by involving role players such as the private sector and trade unions (National Treasury, 2011). *Contribution to unemployment:* As a means of achieving the desired goals, the national government has implemented several job creation programmes, such as the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP; Department of Public Works, 2009), the Community Work Programme (CWP; Department of Cooperative Governance, 2011) and the Jobs Fund (CDE, 2016). Concurrent with the national policies and initiatives, both provincial and municipal governments have implemented numerous programmes and centres providing services such as skills training and entrepreneurship development, job placement services, career guidance and workplace readiness services. During the literature review, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) were also identified as a role

player. As both Orange Farm and Boipatong are located close to five relatively large institutions, who are all actively involved in community projects, HEIs seemed important to consider. Higher Education Institutions are classified as an SOE and were therefore included as government initiatives.

Civil society organisations

Definition: Civil society organisations can be defined as non-government organisations mainly established to help vulnerable interest groups (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] and United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2014). *Form:* CSOs come in various forms, such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations (CBOs) and faith-based organisations (FBOs). Because of the similar humanitarian nature, International Development Organisations have also been classified under this category. *Regulated by:* Although somewhat regulated by codes, such as the Non-Profit Organisations Act of 1997 (Non-Profit Organisations Act, 1997), these acts are unrelated to and have no impact on the purpose of CSOs' existence. Therefore, because of the voluntary, humanitarian nature of CSOs and international development organisations, they are under no obligation to perform certain duties. *Contribution to unemployment:* CSOs invest a great deal in the development of communities, which often include services for the unemployed, such as job training programmes, vocational rehabilitation, vocational counselling and guidance (Chitiga-Mabugu et al., 2013). Similar to CSOs, the purpose of international development organisations is to provide support to developing countries, by means of financial aid, usually aimed at human development, sustainability and alleviating poverty in the long term (Venter, 2015).

Private sector

Definition: The private sector refers to that part of an economy that is not ruled or owned by the government (Merriam-Webster, 2017). *Form:* The private sector comprises the Small, Medium and Micro Enterprise sector (SMMEs) and larger corporate enterprises. *Regulated by:* Labour market legislation such as the Employment Equity Act and the rise of Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment regulations, although initiated by the government, may impact private sector involvement. Furthermore, organisations may also become involved in community projects for the sake of their Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) reputation. However, according to the South African Companies Act, South African organisations do not have a legal obligation to engage in CSR projects (South African Companies Act, 61 of 1973).

Contribution to unemployment: There are various ways in which the private sector can contribute to the plight of unemployment. Firstly, it contributes funds for skills development and workplace training through the Skills Development Levy (Skills Development Act, 1998). Secondly, it employs workers and claims a tax allowance through recognised learnership and apprenticeship programmes (Levinsohn, Rankin, Roberts, & Schöer, 2014). These initiatives are essentially government initiatives; therefore, except for their involvement in these government initiatives and the odd CSR project, the private sector's participation in unemployment initiatives seems minimal and heavily underutilised (ILO, 2012).

Development of labour market intervention framework

There are different ways of categorising employment interventions. One of the objectives of the current study was to create a framework according to which the different types of employment interventions can be categorised.

Much of the available literature on labour market programmes distinguishes between 'active' and 'passive' labour market policies (see Kluve et al., 2016). The ILO describes passive labour market policies as generosity policies that replace labour income (ILO, 2010). Unlike other countries that offer unemployment grants, South Africa only has one such policy, the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF), which provides temporary relief to those who are financially distressed owing to losing their job (Bhorat, Goga, & Tseng, 2013). Whereas active labour market policies are strategies that emphasise labour market (re)integration, these policies focus on reducing unemployment by creating and improving employment opportunities and increasing the employability of the unemployed (National Treasury, 2011).

Furthermore, active labour market policies are often subdivided into labour 'demand' and 'supply' side. Demand-side initiatives are crucial in influencing economic growth, as they are primarily designed to create decent jobs and to incentivise the private sector by means of subsidies to create employment and training opportunities for the unemployed who are also inexperienced. It generally lies within the governments' responsibilities to manage and implement such macroeconomic policies (Altman & Potgieter-Gqubule, 2009; Ernst & Berg, 2009). The South African government has implemented a few programmes (e.g. EPWP, National Treasury's Jobs Fund and the youth wage subsidies) to serve as demand-side policy measures (Altman & Potgieter-Gqubule, 2009). Given the fact that South Africa has only one

passive labour market policy, and limited demand-side interventions, covering only a narrow scope of this study, it was omitted from the study. Most government interventions have been directed at the supply side (initiatives promoting and enhancing the employability of the unemployed; Levinsohn et al., 2014). Therefore, the emphasis of the study was mainly on active labour market policies focussing on supply-side interventions.

Quite a number of studies have been conducted as a means of compiling a comprehensive list of supply-side employment interventions (Betcherman, Godfrey, Puerto, Rother, & Stavreska, 2007; Bertrand et al., 2013; Burchell, Coutts, Hall, & Pye, 2015; Cho & Honorati, 2014; Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, & Wuermli, 2010; Dar & Tzannatos, 1999; Kluve, 2014; Kluve et al., 2014, 2016). However, within the South African context, these inventories are somewhat more limited (see CDE, 2008a; Development Bank of Southern Africa, 2011; ERLN, 2015; ILO, 2012). Based on both national and international literature, broad corresponding themes were identified. In most studies, three broad themes were noted: skills development programmes, business development opportunities and a variety of employment services.

According to the Economic of Regions Learning Network (2015), education and vocational training are crucial requirements to facilitate entry into employment (ERLN, 2015). Because many young people drop out of mainstream education, finding employment may be especially challenging (ERLN, 2015). One approach to enhancing their employability may be programmes that focus on education (Kluve et al., 2014). These programmes can be divided into formal and informal programmes. Generally, formal programme opportunities are offered to gain a formal education (also referred to as ‘second-chance programmes’), whereas informal programmes are designed to teach basic skills and/or cognitive abilities, specifically for school dropouts (e.g. literacy and numeracy programme; Betcherman et al., 2007; Dar & Tzannatos, 1999; Development Bank of Southern Africa, 2011; ILO, 2011). Another approach linking with education seems to be vocational training programmes. These programmes are generally aimed at equipping the unemployed with the necessary trade- or job-specific vocational skills and/or practical work (e.g. internships, on-the-job training, and apprenticeships; Kluve et al., 2014). The first broad category was therefore identified as *Education and Expertise Development*, comprising education and vocational training.

Another much-required skill, particularly within the South African context, where job opportunities are limited, is entrepreneurship (CDE, 2008a). Entrepreneurship programmes

cover a broad variety of skills aimed at empowering the unemployed to successfully establish and manage their own businesses (Kluve et al., 2014). These skills range from basic training on enterprise development (business plan writing and development) to business skills development (such as basic finance, marketing, sales and management programmes; Puerto, 2007). Programmes focussing on enterprise development may include financial support services (such as start-up loans or information regarding finance opportunities), mentoring and consultation services from experienced entrepreneurs. The second broad category was identified as *Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development* and consists of enterprise development, business skills training, financing and mentoring programmes.

Lastly, it seems that non-cognitive skills are required to deal with the challenges of the modern labour market. Although employers increasingly demand these skills, it is surprising that some inventories overlook programmes that are not strictly focussed on labour market activities (lessening economic hardship; see CDE, 2008a; Cho & Honorati, 2014; Dar & Tzannatos, 1999; ERLN, 2015; Godfrey, 2003; Grimm, 2016; Grimm & Paffhausen, 2014; Holden, 2013; IEG, 2013; ILO, 2012). Fortunately, other inventories regard initiatives aimed at increasing participants' non-cognitive skills, such as soft skills, life skills and behavioural skills, as important aspects for gaining employment (see Bertrand et al., 2013; Cunningham et al., 2010; ERLN, 2015; Goldin, Hobson, Glick, Lundberg, & Puerto, 2015; Kluve, Lehmann, & Schmidt, 2008; Kluve et al., 2014, 2016; Mayer et al., 2011; Puerto, 2007). A distinction is often made between services aimed at preparing the unemployed for the workplace, helping them to look for a job and teaching them necessary, non-technical, soft skills (e.g. interpersonal, time management and problem-solving skills). The last category was therefore labelled *Employment Services* and consists of workplace readiness, job-search assistance and soft skills development programmes.

Based on the combination of the different classifications of vocational interventions, a meaningful way to classify these employment programmes is summarised below:

Table 2

Framework for Classifying Types of Interventions

Type of Intervention	Description
Education and Expertise Development	<i>Programmes offering any form of developing the unemployed individuals' cognitive or technical skills.</i> Education (a) Formal: An opportunity to complete school, or gain any form of primary, secondary or tertiary education; (b) Informal: Literacy, numeracy, business, computer and skills training. Vocational training (trade- or job-related technical skills).
Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development	<i>Programmes and services focused on empowering the unemployed to start their own businesses.</i> Enterprise development – Assisting or accelerating the development, sustainability and financial independence of a business. Business skills training – Business skills and financial literacy training. Financing – Providing or facilitating access to start-up grants, financial capital or credit. Mentoring – Advisory services.
Employment Services	<i>Services rendered to make the labour market more accessible to the unemployed, while providing them with opportunities to become more employable.</i> Workplace readiness – Prepare for labour market (e.g. preparation of curricula vitae, interview skills, financial assistance for job search, information services, transport subsidy, career guidance). Job-search assistance – Services to assist the unemployed to look for / find / apply for a job (e.g. job search assistance, job matching services, job placement, providing information on jobs). Soft skills – a) Behavioural skills: interpersonal, communication, stress management, and time management; b) Psychosocial: Coping, motivation, resilience, and self-efficacy.

Source: Authors' own work.

Method

Research approach

A systematic review methodology consisting of documentary research was used to collect the data for this article. Documentary methods in social research involve the systematic collection of data about a particular social phenomenon to find and understand patterns and regularities in it (Nieuwenhuis, 2010). Furthermore, documentary research is described as a technique used to identify, classify, investigate and interpret written documents (Payne & Payne, 2004). Sources of documentary research include academic articles, official reports, governmental records, newspapers and other unpublished documents. In cases where limited information was available, structured interviews were conducted with individuals from the identified government departments, CSOs and private sector organisations, which were used to complement information found in the documentary search.

Research setting

Behaviour such as lack of motivation, withdrawal from the labour market and discouraged behaviour resulting from high unemployment rates is common in South African, particularly in townships (Van der Vaart, De Witte, Van den Broeck, & Rothmann, 2018). However, two townships in the Gauteng Province are particularly well known for their high unemployment rates and lack of resources. The first township, Orange Farm, falls within the municipal area of the City of Johannesburg. The community has a population of 76 767 people, of which approximately 40% are unemployed (Stats SA, 2012). Because South African metros (such as the City of Johannesburg) dominate economic activities and job creation (CDE, 2008a), the unemployed are gradually moving to these areas. Although it may be true that job creation efforts are easier to implement and have a better chance of success in metropolitan areas, the increase in people relocating there makes addressing unemployment an increasingly daunting task.

In contrast, the second township, Emfuleni, has a population of 721 663 people, and is located in a non-metropolitan municipality (Stats SA, 2012). It is one of the three local municipalities constituting the Sedibeng district and has the highest unemployment rate of the three (34.7%;

Stats SA, 2016). Although Emfuleni is largely urbanised, is strategically located and has a lot of potential for economic development, non-metropolitan areas are often greatly neglected. Labour market interventions should therefore be aimed at accommodating the needs of these communities and should regard them as equally important.

Data collection method

Based on the preliminary identified role players and framework developed from the literature review, an *additional* search was conducted to identify further employment programmes that exist in particular communities. The search was executed by collecting and studying strategic documents (annual reports, development plans, budget reports and policy documents) from government departments, international development organisations and the private sector. Where insufficient information was available from the documents, the involved departments/entities/organisations were contacted (via telephone and email) to make appointments to conduct structured interviews, as a means of gaining more information regarding the programmes. In total, 467 calls were made, the majority to CSOs, followed by the government. Also, a total of 426 emails were sent, with a general response rate of 27.7%, with the lowest from CSOs (22.6%).

Because of the nature of CSOs, specifically regarding their limited access to the internet, and availability of information on the internet, a somewhat different approach was used to collect data. A list with all registered CSOs was requested from the National Department of Social Development in South Africa. Inclusion was based on the CSO's objective; the aim of the CSO had to be focussed on services aimed at assisting the unemployed (e.g. youth services, adult education, employment and training services). Examples of categories that were excluded are: Services to animals, children, the disabled and the elderly, and HIV prevention and education and housing services – these CSOs were removed from the list. The remaining ($n = 389$) CSOs were contacted to schedule a meeting with the founder of the CSO. Of these, 62.9% were unreachable (called three times, no answer; no contact details; number did not exist; phone was switched off; wrong number). Another 17.7% of the programmes had indicated in documentation that they focussed on activities related to employment, but when asked about the aim of the programme, it appeared to be different than stated. Of those who could be reached, 4.6% indicated that they were not in practice anymore, or had not yet been established, owing to financial constraints. Finally, of the initial 389 CSOs, only 26 (6.7%) CSO founders

were interviewed. The interview questions used in structured interviews are available in Appendix A.

Identified programmes had to adhere to the following inclusion criteria:

- They must have an eligible outcome variable specifically focused on the unemployed;
- They must be implemented by the South African government (national, provincial, municipal or SOEs), CSOs or the private sector.
- They must be based in one of the identified regions; if not, they should apply to the unemployed in the regions (i.e. national incentive schemes).

Documents dated within the past 10 years that could be relevant to the study were obtained by searching general academic databases as well as specialised databases. Academic databases included the Academic Search Premier, Business Source Premier, EbscoHost, Emerald Insight, Google Books, Google Scholar, JSTOR, ProQuest, PsycInfo, Sabinet, SACat, SAePublications, Science Direct, Scopus and Web of Science Government website. Specialised databases included Parliamentary Monitoring Group (PMG), Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab (J-PAL), Evaluation and Publication Database, African Development Bank, Campbell Collaboration, Chamber of Commerce, Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), Development Bank of Southern Africa, Innovations for Poverty Action (IPA), ILO, Local Economic Development, Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), South African Department of International Relations and Cooperation (DIRCO), Development Cooperation Management and Information System (DCMIS), South African Department of Social Development database of non-profit organisations (NPOs), South African Local Government Association (SALGA), South African Regional Poverty Network, Statistics South Africa (Stats SA), World Bank Poverty Impact Evaluations and the Youth Employment Inventory (YEI).

Key terms that were used to obtain academic literature and non-academic document searches included employment interventions, unemployment, employability programmes, labour market initiatives, active labour market programmes/policies, passive labour market programmes/policies, youth interventions, employment inventory, directory, government programmes, national government, parastatals, state-owned entities, government departments, Sector Education Training Authority (SETA), provincial government, provincial programmes,

provincial departments, provincial-owned entities, municipal government, municipal programmes, municipal departments, municipal-owned entities, NPOs, NGOs, FBOs, CBOs, private sector, international development organisations, skills development programmes, vocational training, life skills, education programmes, adult-learning, entrepreneurship, enterprise development, bursary, financial assistance, community programmes, CSR, economic development strategy, integrated development plan, annual report, budget, growth and development strategy, policy, Emfuleni, Orange Farm, City of Johannesburg and South Africa.

Strategies employed to ensure data quality and integrity

After the role players were identified and the classification framework was developed, a list of people knowledgeable about employment programmes in the two communities and nearby areas were contacted. Informal interviews were held with identified experts. The purpose of the interviews was to get participants' input regarding the identified stakeholders and developed framework. After these interviews were conducted, the role players and the framework were finalised.

Furthermore, to ensure that data are accurately and reliably presented, an additional reviewer was consulted to assist with validating the data. After the framework was developed, the identified programmes had to be categorised according to the framework. In cases of uncertainty regarding the inclusion or categorisation of the selected programmes, deliberations were held and the different viewpoints were considered as a means of deciding. One researcher captured the data to ensure consistency. The additional reviewer reassessed the collected data.

Data recording

The development of the role player and categorisation frameworks were documented and continuously changed, until the final versions were decided on. Minutes of informal interviews held with experts were kept and referred to during the development of the frameworks. All documents pertaining to employment programmes that were accessed throughout the data collection phase were kept and documented in an excel sheet. Additional information gained from structured interviews were added to the excel sheet.

Data analysis

Possible stakeholders were identified using an inductive approach, whereas a deductive approach was used to develop the labour market intervention framework. Themes (demand and supply side) and subthemes (category of intervention) were identified, which were used to conduct a thematic analysis. Thematic analysis was applied as a means of identifying, analysing and reporting on themes within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Existing programmes implemented by selected stakeholders in the selected regions were categorised according to the relevant category within the developed framework.

Reporting style

The study aimed to present an overview of the current employment initiatives in Orange Farm and Emfuleni. Findings were reported according to the identified role players and the developed framework. Such a presentation of the findings may enable the researcher to identify possible gaps in the literature and in practice.

Research participants and sampling methods

A combination of purposive and convenience sampling was utilised to identify and include interventions. Purposive sampling seemed applicable as documents were selected based on specific previously mentioned inclusion criteria. Furthermore, the researcher also held interviews and included interventions based on the access and availability of documentation and participants (Struwig, Struwig, & Stead, 2001). A total of 610 participants and 166 documents were consulted in this study; characteristics are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Characteristics of Participants and Documents (Participants: $n = 610$; Documents: $n = 166$)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Role players contacted ($n = 556$)	Government – National	36	5.9%
	Government – Provincial	27	4.4%
	Government – Municipal	44	7.2%
	Government – State-owned enterprises (SOE)	59	9.7%
	Civil Society Organisations	408	66.9%
	Private sector	36	5.9%
Documents viewed ($n = 166$)	Government – National	35	21.1%
	Government – Provincial	14	8.4%
	Government – Municipal	19	11.4%
	Government – State-owned enterprises (SOE)	32	19.3%
	Civil Society Organisations	53	31.9%
	Private sector	13	7.8%

Source: Authors' own work.

Most of the participants contacted to obtain data were from the CSOs (66.9%), followed by the government (27.2%). Participants were contacted mainly via email and telephone. In some cases, unsolicited visits (where no prior contact was made with participants) were used to get hold of them. Not all participants' responses led to findings. Where limited information was gained from documents, structured interviews were conducted. Documents from CSOs (31.9%) yielded the most information, followed by the national government (21.1%).

Results

In total, 496 unemployment programmes were identified. It should be noted that the number of participants contacted and documents viewed does not necessarily reflect the number or distribution of the included employment interventions. In Table 4, the selected employment interventions, as implemented by the various stakeholders, as well as the distribution among the different types of programmes, are presented.

Table 4

Findings of the Study (n = 496)

			Supply-side Labour Market Interventions									
Stakeholders	Number of Interventions	Number of Components	Education and Expertise Development		Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development				Employment Services			
			Education	Vocational Training	Enterprise Development	Business Training	Skills	Financial Support	Mentoring	Workplace Readiness	Job-search assistance	Soft skills
National Government	183 36.9%	294 37.5%	5 0.6%	92 11.7%	33 4.2%	29 3.7%		11 1.4%	7 0.9%	18 2.3%	9 1.1%	6 0.8%
Provincial Government	66 13.3%	132 16.8%	3 0.4%	40 5.1%	27 3.4%	25 3.2%		2 0.3%	3 0.4%	5 0.6%	5 0.6%	2 0.3%
Municipal Government	114 23.0%	122 15.5%	2 0.3%	28 3.6%	19 2.4%	15 1.9%		4 0.5%	6 0.8%	15 1.9%	9 1.1%	7 0.9%
State-owned Enterprises	65 13.1%	300 38.2%	25 3.2%	52 6.6%	47 6.0%	52 6.6%		9 1.1%	18 2.3%	9 1.1%	12 1.5%	7 0.9%
Civil Society Organisations	55 11.1%	114 14.5%	6 0.8%	28 3.6%	7 0.9%	10 1.3%		2 0.3%	13 1.7%	12 1.5%	15 1.9%	16 2.0%
Private Sector	13 2.6%	22 2.8%	0 0.0%	9 1.1%	1 0.1%	2 0.3%		0 0.0%	2 0.3%	2 0.3%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%
Total	496	785	41 5.2%	249 31.7%	134 17.1%	133 16.9%		28 3.6%	49 6.2%	61 7.8%	51 6.5%	39 5.0%
Overall Total:			36.9%		43.8%				19.3%			

Source: Authors' own work.



High frequency

Low frequency

Table 4 shows that a total of 496 interventions were ultimately included in the study. To gain a better understanding of the results, it is essential to take into account that each of the included interventions consists of various components. For that reason, the ‘Number of Interventions’ column refers to the number of programmes implemented by each stakeholder, whereas the ‘Number of Components’ column refers to the total number of components the included programmes consist of. The percentages provided in the shaded columns indicate the distribution of the components across the different role players and the various intervention categories. Different shades are used to indicate the frequency of the number of components.

Referring to the number of interventions implemented per role player, it is evident that the majority of the programmes were implemented by the national government (36.9%), followed by the municipal government (23.0%). A noteworthy finding may be that 86.3% of the interventions are implemented by the government (national, provincial, municipal and state-owned entities), compared to 11.1% by CSOs and 2.6% by the private sector.

A closer look at the distribution of the components that the interventions consist of reveals that 43.8% of components are directed towards enterprise and entrepreneurship development, followed by 36.9% aimed at education and expertise development, with only 19.3% focussed on employment services. In line with these findings, the subcategories yielded results showing that interventions consist mostly of vocational training (31.7%), followed by (to a lesser extent) enterprise development (17.1%) and business skills training (16.9%) components. However, significantly fewer components (5.0%) concentrate on soft skills development.

A further investigation of the subcategories has shown that within the education and enterprise development category, a major difference exists between the number of components aimed at education (5.2%) and vocational training (31.7%). It also seems that the subcategories enterprise development (17.1%) and business skills training (16.9%) are almost equally represented in the entrepreneurship and enterprise development category. However, quite a large difference is evident when compared to financial support (3.6%) and mentoring services (6.2%). Lastly, no major differences between the employment services subcategories are evident; however, it is again evident that the soft skills component is the least focussed on (5.0%), compared to workplace readiness (7.8%) and job-search assistance (6.5%).

It is apparent from the shaded columns that the focus of all three government spheres – national, provincial and municipal – seems to be on vocational training (11.7%, 5.1% and 3.6%, respectively), followed by enterprise development (4.2%, 3.4% and 2.4%, respectively) and business skills development (3.7%, 3.2% and 1.9%, respectively). In contrast, only 2% of components of government interventions, combined, are directed at soft skills development, and even less (1.3%) on education. State-owned enterprises, in general, have similar findings to the other government bodies; however, skills development and business skills training are equally focussed on (6.6%), followed by enterprise development (6.0%). It is, however, evident that SOEs, compared to other government spheres, place considerably more emphasis on education (3.2%).

Finally, as the shaded columns indicate the overall distribution of the components, it seems that the employment services components of the programmes implemented by CSOs are relatively equally distributed compared to other stakeholders. This finding has led to further exploration, which yielded some interesting findings. When comparing the distribution workplace readiness, job-search assistance and soft skills development components, CSOs focus considerably more on these services (10.5%, 13.2% and 14.0%, respectively) compared to national government (6.1%, 3.1% and 2.0%, respectively) and municipal government (12.3%, 7.4% and 5.7%, respectively). If the same comparison is done with the private sector's focus on vocational training, it is indicated that 40.9% of the components of the private sector's programmes focus on skills development, compared to the national (31.3%) and provincial (30.3%) governments.

Discussion

Outline of the results

The main aim of this paper was to identify labour market programmes in Orange Farm and Emfuleni, implemented by selected role players, according to the developed framework (Table 2). Three broad categories were identified as education and expertise development, entrepreneurship and enterprise development, and employment services. Based on the identified role players and categories of labour market interventions used in the framework, a total of 496 interventions, located in Orange Farm and Emfuleni, were included in the study.

The first noteworthy finding, specifically regarding the role players' involvement in implementing unemployment interventions, is that 86.3% of the interventions were implemented by the government (national, provincial, municipal and SOEs combined). This finding should come as no surprise as the National Development Plan clearly states that employment is a key priority to all government departments (National Planning Commission, 2011). Despite these efforts, South Africa is still burdened with a high level of unemployment. Such an elevated unemployment rate may indicate that although the majority of programmes are initiated and implemented by the government, the problem does not necessarily lie in a shortage of good policies and strategies but rather the lack of proper execution (Zagotta & Robinson, 2002). Consequently, owing to the lack of an execution plan from higher levels, uncertainty may be caused for other role players (including lower government spheres) regarding their roles and responsibilities in this undertaking. Not only are role players unaware of endeavours by other role players but they are also uninformed of programmes initiated by their own departments.

Civil society organisations are constantly faced with obstacles such as insufficient funding and the lack of necessary resources and proper systems coordinating funding and ensuring effectiveness. Despite these challenges, the results show that CSOs, in relation to other role players, are considerably more involved in providing employment services to the unemployed in the communities. Therefore, given the nature of CSOs, it is a remarkable finding that they are responsible for executing 11.1% of all the employment programmes. This involvement may be because it seems like a less expensive approach to have *some*, albeit limited, impact, or because of their first-hand experience in understanding the needs of the unemployed in the community. Regardless of the motive, the reality is that despite CSOs' hands-on approach in the communities, less attention is given to smaller-scale programmes, and the desired impact of their efforts seems limited.

In contrast to the government, only 2.6% of interventions were implemented by the private sector. These results are supported by a study conducted by the International Development Organisation (2011), in which it was found that the private sector seems uninvolved in employment initiatives (ILO, 2012). Although it was found that some organisations are involved in community programmes, these programmes were generally aimed at scholars, and limited to larger corporate organisations. It seems that CSR is considered a prerogative of corporate organisations, just because smaller businesses may not be able to afford such

expenses (Perrini, Russo, & Tencati, 2007). Also, the global economic collapse in 2008 has caused devastating job losses in the private sector. Thus, many organisations are forced to implement cost-cutting initiatives, causing the limited CSR initiatives to either be scaled down, or stopped. Because of the lack of devotion from the private sector, the benefits that may be reaped by the labour market, and ultimately by the unemployed, seem limited (ILO, 2012).

To have a sustainable impact on unemployment, the role players should ideally collaborate. Notwithstanding the efforts of the government in driving current initiatives to address South Africa's unemployment crisis, there seems to be a lack of guidance from higher spheres of government to engage more with the CSOs, private sector and other government departments. Because of a lack of coordination, efforts and investments seem to be scattered, failing to achieve the anticipated outcomes.

When exploring the content of programmes, the current study showed that interventions are mainly driven from an *economic perspective*. The results show that role players focus their time and money mainly on programmes that provide resources and that equip the unemployed with entrepreneurial and business development skills (43.8%), education and expertise development (36.9%), compared to only 19.6% on employment services.

Results indicating that entrepreneurship and enterprise development are accentuated are fortunate. However, in a country such as South Africa, it is quite understandable. Considering the shortage of job opportunities, it is crucial for people to create self-employment opportunities (Cho & Honorati, 2014), hence the strong emphasis on providing the unemployed with these types of resources (DBSA, 2011). Although financial support contributes only to 3.3% of the components, various other resources, such as developing business plans, business management skills training and consultation services, are put in place to help the unemployed develop and maintain stable enterprises. It is, however, unfortunate that the success of these initiatives may once again be put into jeopardy owing to a lack of information or a lack of dissemination of the information.

In a similar vein, this study proposes a prominent focus on the education and expertise development category (36.9%) in the included programmes. More specifically, from the vocational training subcategory, it was found that 31.7% of programmes have a component aimed at providing the unemployed with the required skills and preparing them for the

workplace. Similar findings suggesting that approximately one-third of labour market programmes are aimed at skills development are not uncommon (see CDE, 2008b; ILO, 2012; Kluve et al., 2014). Therefore, on the one hand, these results are expected. On the other hand, perhaps a less anticipated finding is the much-neglected focus on educational attainment for school dropouts (5.2%). Given the youth unemployment problem in South Africa (see ERLN, 2015; ILO, 2011), it is alarming how little is done to reintegrate these people into the system. This evidence suggests a lack of awareness and a lack of a sense of urgency of the severity of the unemployment matter (DBSA, 2011).

From the literature, it is evident that employment services are often neglected in labour market interventions (Bertrand et al., 2013; Kluve, 2014). In this study, it was found that 19.6% of elements of programmes comprise either workplace readiness, job-search assistance and/or soft skills development. A hindsight discovery is that many of these programmes (particularly those implemented by the CSOs) mainly consist of providing the unemployed with basic life skills, such as youth recreation, HIV and family reproduction services, with few programmes focussing on employment services. Although it was known from the outset that, compared to expertise and entrepreneurship development, employment services are a neglected component in labour market interventions, finding that even less than 19.6% truly contribute to providing these services is a concern.

In a study done by Van der Vaart et al. (2018), it was found that 68% of unemployed people in the sample were classified as either ‘desperate’ or ‘discouraged’, indicating that they felt unmotivated and hopeless. Granting the impact of all the previously mentioned programmes, when considering the consequences of being unemployed, programmes focussing on skills such as being resilient, effective coping mechanisms and problem-solving seem crucial in helping the jobless deal with unemployment. In an experimental study conducted by Campos et al. (2017), microenterprise owners ($N = 1500$) were assigned to either a business or personal initiative training programme or a control group. Participants assigned to the personal initiative training programme managed to increase their firm’s profits by 30% over two years, compared to 11% achieved by their counterparts (Campos et al., 2017). As suggested by the current study, it seems that the absence of psychosocial driven programmes may be a much-neglected approach to solving unemployment (Patel et al., 2004).

Finally, some informative qualitative findings are worth mentioning to enhance our understanding of the context of the unemployed, particularly in Orange Farm and Emfuleni. The most time-consuming tasks of this study were to find documents containing relevant information and to get hold of available stakeholders who are knowledgeable about the topic. Firstly, in the process of searching for relevant documents, it was evident that information regarding programmes was not readily accessible. It was challenging to find this information online, in hard copy or in correspondence with stakeholders, as responses to enquiries about information regarding employment programmes and government expenditure on these programmes indicated that not much information was available. Secondly, getting hold of stakeholders was a significant barrier in the study. The average response rate, calculating all stakeholders and different approaches used to make contact, was less than 30%, and the majority could not provide any relevant information.

Findings also suggest that, in most cases, stakeholders themselves had limited knowledge of employment programmes, indicating that, even for them, information is not widely distributed. Role players' inability to provide this information is particularly concerning, as the mere purpose of their programmes is to assist those who need this information most. In order to conduct this research, ample resources (phone lines, vehicle, unlimited internet, research funding and a research assistant who was familiar with these communities) were available, and yet it was a daunting task. Considering the lack of resources and circumstances of the unemployed, an obstacle such as the absence of information makes an already challenging undertaking nearly impossible. Although substantial efforts to implement employment programmes cannot be doubted, without proper documentation and dissemination of information to stakeholders and beneficiaries, achieving the desired effects will remain difficult.

Limitations and recommendations for future research

The first limitation, and perhaps the most important, is that although the present study aimed to provide a comprehensive, broad representation of employment programmes in two communities, the list is not exhaustive. Relevant information was often unavailable, which automatically excluded some programmes.

Likewise, another limitation may be that the study was conducted only in two geographical areas in the Gauteng Province. As a result, findings cannot be generalised to other South African communities. The selected role players were limited to the government, CSOs and the private sector. These results may not be applicable to other organisations such as trade unions, banks, economic development agencies, universities and research entities. Given that a meaningful way to solve unemployment is an integrated, multi-sectoral, and multi-stakeholder approach, it is unfortunate that the study did not include other role players. It is therefore suggested that future studies broaden the scope and include a wider variety of role players.

In a similar vein, convenience sampling was used to collect data. Consequently, participants and documents included were based on their availability. Owing to the lack of response from participants and the unavailability of documents, collecting relevant and necessary information was quite a challenging endeavour. Because a response rate of less than 30% was obtained (although supplemented with documentation), an accurate reflection of what was intended to be reviewed may not have been achieved. Findings may, as a result, give a false representation of employment interventions, as well as role player involvement, again impacting on the generalisability of the results.

Information regarding evaluations and cost-effectiveness of programmes was difficult to access. Therefore, some interesting avenues that future research could consider may be to explore evaluation approaches of the employment programmes. Information regarding the number of programmes that implement evaluative measures, the financial costs involved in implementing the programme and the impact of the programme may lead to some valuable findings in the effectiveness and success of employment interventions.

In conclusion, the findings provide evidence that the intended objectives of the study have been achieved. Even though some limitations have been identified, the outcomes of this study hold practical implications for role players involved in addressing unemployment, and for future studies.

Conclusion

Although many programmes exist to assist the unemployed, these programmes are uncoordinated. Consequently, neither the involved role players nor beneficiaries are aware of the numerous available programmes. The compilation of an inventory of employment programmes may be valuable as it will assist in identifying the most prominent needs to the South African labour market (for the role players). Once the employment constraints have been recognised, interventions to assist the desired population to overcome those barriers can be identified and implemented (Cunningham et al., 2010). Such a comprehensive document not only promotes concerted action but also encourages and empowers stakeholders and possible policymakers to learn from one another, make informed decisions regarding further initiatives and reform misaligned strategies. As a means of addressing this gap, this paper explored existing unemployment programmes, projects and interventions implemented in two Gauteng Province townships: Orange Farm and Emfuleni.

It was clear that there is a lack of programmes focussed on psychosocial aspects of being unemployed. Finally, the findings suggest a lack of not only cooperation between role players but also communication and structures providing resources and information to the supposed beneficiaries, the unemployed. It seems that efforts need to be directed to creating systems where role players, and the unemployed, can be informed of the existing programmes.

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CHAPTER 3

ARTICLE 2

Paver, R., De Witte, W., Rothmann, S., Van den Broeck, A., & Blonk, R. W. B. (2019). A systematic literature review of the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme: A suggested framework for South Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences* (Manuscript submitted for publication).

Implementation and evaluation of the jobs programme: A suggested framework for South Africa

Abstract

Background: South Africa is challenged with high levels of unemployment, consisting of many people with low levels of education and people who have never held a job before. Despite having many helpless participants, interventions aimed at the unemployed generally exclude psychosocial training and are methodologically weak.

Aim: The JOBS programme, a scientifically sound intervention, has been developed specifically to help people affected by unemployment to cope with the psychological effects. As a means of applying such a programme in South Africa, this study aimed to develop a framework based on the insights gained on the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme.

Methods: The study comprised a systematic review of literature regarding the JOBS intervention and its derivatives ($n=34$).

Results: The results revealed that populations similar to the unemployed in South Africa had benefitted significantly regarding re-employment and mental health outcomes.

Conclusion: Suggestions derived from the literature included aiming the programme at the most vulnerable unemployed in South Africa: the youth and long-term unemployed. Furthermore, expanding the programme by adding an entrepreneurial component may yield positive results, considering the lack of employment opportunities in South Africa.

Key words: JOBS programme, employment interventions, systematic literature review, unemployment, South Africa.

Introduction

South Africa is facing an unemployment crisis: currently, 6.2 million (27.5%) people in South Africa are jobless (Stats SA, 2018). While statistics may indicate the magnitude of the problem at hand, they fail to depict the nature and severe impact of unemployment. Unemployment is not only associated with societal and economic ramifications; it also has serious psychological consequences for those who are unemployed (see Strandh, Winefield, Nilsson, & Hammarström, 2014; Wanberg, 2012).

Numerous interventions have been implemented to alleviate unemployment (McCarthy, 2008; Independent Evaluation Group; IEG, 2013). Despite the benefits of evidence-based practices (see Heckman, Lalonde, & Smith, 1999; Ravallion, 2008), it is startling to see that most vocational interventions are consensus-based – implying that the interventions are based on what the stakeholders *think* is necessary, without the supporting evidence to *prove* what is really needed (Marais & Matebesi, 2013). Considering the urgency of unemployment, the shortage of evidence-based practices in South Africa is a concern.

One profound example of a scientifically sound employment initiative is the JOBS programme (Caplan, Vinokur, Price, & Van Ryn, 1989). The JOBS intervention seeks to enhance the employability of jobseekers by equipping them with the necessary job-search, social, and problem-solving skills to support them in their job-search efforts. Several factors contribute to the achieved outcomes. Two of the strengths of the programme are its strong theoretical foundation and empirically tested evidence (Vinokur & Price, 2015). Likewise, the comprehensive protocol guiding the programme contributes significantly to successful dissemination undertakings (Curran, Wishart, & Gingrich, 1999). Extensive evidence of the effectiveness of the JOBS programme has previously been reported (Price & Vinokur, 2014).

Due to the encouraging results, several JOBS derivatives have been implemented in other countries. These programmes include the Työhoön Job Search Programme in Finland (Vuori, Silvonen, Vinokur, & Price, 2002), the Jobs in China programme (Price & Fang, 2002), the Job-Search programme in Israel (Shirom, Vinokur, & Price, 2008), the Winning New Jobs (WNJ) programme in Ireland (Barry, Reynolds, Sheridan, & Egerton, 2006), and the JOBS intervention in the Netherlands (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011). Although these programmes

have proven to be reliable in different economic contexts (Vinokur, Price, Caplan, Van Ryn, & Curran, 1995), they have been implemented mainly in developed countries, except for China. The lack of evidence-based practices in South Africa, together with the successful replication of the JOBS programme, creates an opportunity to explore whether such an intervention can be tailored to suit the South African context.

Much effort has been devoted to developing materials that explicitly explain the procedures and dynamics of the JOBS programme (Curran et al., 1999). Yet investigating literature pertaining to the execution and subsequent outcomes of the JOBS programme may assist further dissemination. A greater understanding of typical components of an intervention – implementation and evaluation – can be used to serve as guiding principles for application and assessment in the South African context. Based on the above problem statement, the objectives of this study were:

- To review literature regarding the implementation (context and process aspects) and evaluation (promoting and impeding effects) of the JOBS programme and variations of it
- Based on the previous findings, to develop a framework to assist with the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme in South Africa; and
- To make recommendations for future research and practice.

Method

Research approach

A systematic literature review was done to achieve the objectives of this study. A systematic review identifies the main scientific contributions relevant to a specific topic by conducting extensive literature searches of unpublished and published studies (Tranfield, Denyer, & Smart, 2003). This review aimed to identify literature containing information about the JOBS programme and variations of it. Transparent and reproducible procedures were used to enhance the quality and outcomes of the review process.

Targeted body of literature

Before starting with the review, the founders of the JOBS programme and the web page of the Michigan Prevention Research Center were consulted to obtain information regarding the JOBS programme and its dissemination. Electronic searches were undertaken to allocate articles identified on the webpage. Next, a search was conducted to ascertain whether possible articles were excluded. Databases such as Google Scholar and EBSCOhost (Academic Search Premier, Africa-Wide Information, American Doctoral Dissertations, PsycARTICLES, and PsycINFO) were utilised to find the relevant articles.

Search terms and selected criteria

It was anticipated that the articles worth including in the review would refer to the JOBS programme in the articles themselves. Therefore, numerous searches were conducted by including the authors involved (as obtained from the dissemination page) with the term JOBS programme (for example, AUTHOR: Vuori; IN-TEXT: 'JOBS program*'). Because another programme, called the Job Opportunities and Basic Skills Program (JOBS), yielded additional results when searching for 'Jobs Program*', it was necessary to include the various authors. The search string consisted of two search concepts joined by the Boolean operator AND; the second string contained a list of authors joined by the Boolean operator OR. The following search string was entered in the databases: [1] IN-TEXT: 'jobs program*' [2] AUTHOR: 'Barry,' 'Caplan'; 'Choi'; 'Kessler' 'Price'; 'Schul'; 'Van Ryn' 'Vinokur' and 'Vuori.'

To prevent the omission of essential articles, a complementary search was performed. Reference lists of the selected articles were reviewed for more relevant publications. During the process, it became evident that there were indeed articles that did not refer to the JOBS programme in their content. Therefore, an additional search was conducted using the authors involved from the different variations of the JOBS programme and each of the different JOBS variations (for example, AUTHOR: 'Barry'; IN-TEXT: 'Winning New Jobs'). The second search string again consisted of two search concepts joined by the Boolean operator AND; the first string contained a list of names for variations of the JOBS programme and the second a list of authors, with both strings joined by the Boolean operator OR. The following search string was entered in the databases: [1] IN-TEXT: Jobs in China Project, Job-search Intervention,

Työhön Job Search Program, or Winning New Jobs [2] AUTHOR: ‘Blonk’, ‘Brenninkmeijer’, ‘Choi’, ‘Donaldson’, ‘Fang’, ‘Friedland’, ‘Ling’, ‘Shirom’, and ‘Turner’.

Criteria for including articles were as follows:

- Articles and chapters had to be peer-reviewed.
- Articles and chapters had to be written in English.
- Articles had to be about the JOBS programme or variations of it.
- The study population had to be unemployed people.

Gathering the data

Conference proceedings and papers to which access was limited or where no full-text papers were available were excluded. Price and Vinokur (2014) mention that the JOBS programme has previously been executed in Sweden and South Korea; however, the literature seemed limited and unavailable. Furthermore, the JOBS programme has also been implemented in organisational and school contexts. Considering that the circumstances of the participants are not the same, these studies were omitted. The inclusion and exclusion criteria narrowed the scope of this review. Finally, 34 articles¹ met all the inclusion criteria (Figure 1).

¹ Indicated with an asterisk (*) in the reference list.

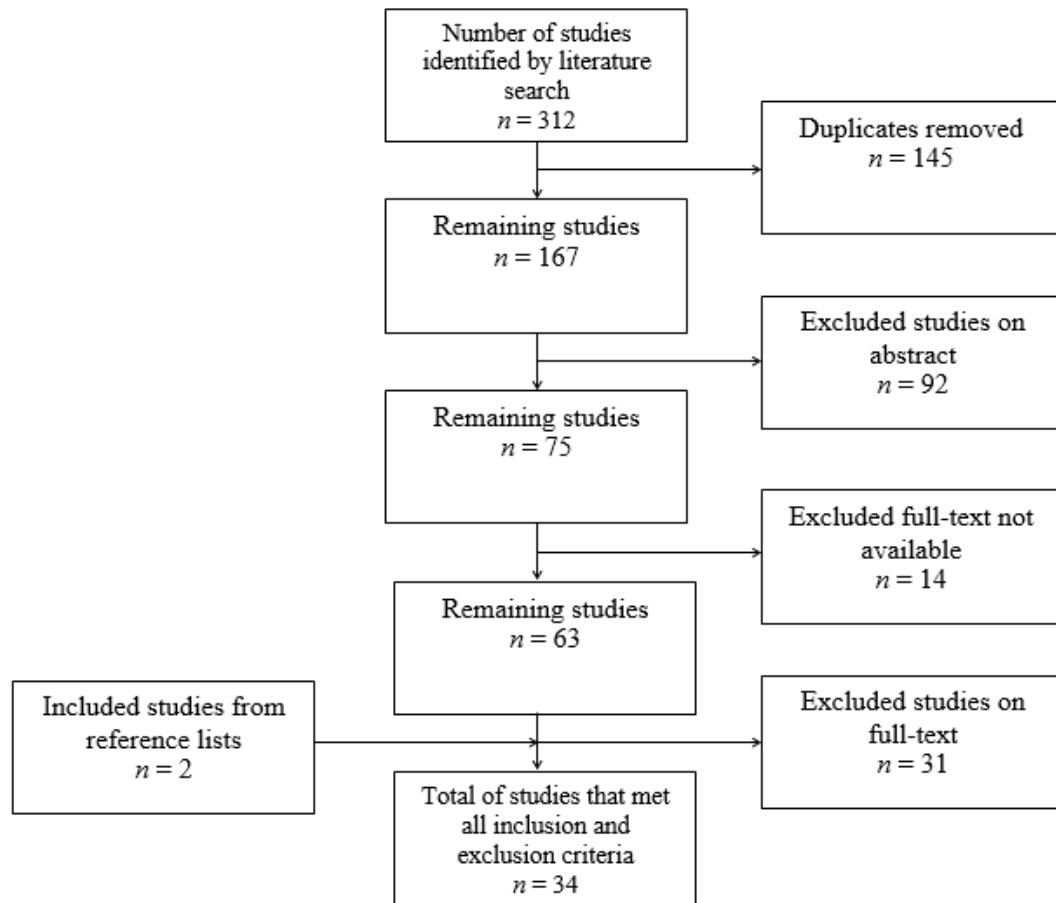


Figure 1. Flow chart of study selection.

Analysis and presentation of the data

Implementation and evaluation aspects were studied to gain a better understanding of the JOBS programme and its derivatives.

Implementation is described as the process of putting a plan into action to achieve objectives (Miller, Wilson, & Hickson, 2004). To ensure sufficient programme fidelity and to effectively replicate the JOBS, it seemed necessary to study the various components involved in executing such a programme. *Evaluation* can be described as the determination of the merit, worth, and significance of an area of interest using criteria directed by specific standards for purposes of decision-making (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Evaluation practices are a crucial component in the success of evidence-based programmes (Jané-Llopis, Barry, Hosman, & Patel, 2005). To develop a framework aimed at guiding the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS

programme in South Africa, the following aspects of the papers included in the systematic literature review were studied (Table 5):

Table 5

Reviewed Implementation and Evaluation Aspects of the JOBS Programme

Implementation	Evaluation
<u>Context</u>	<u>Methodology</u>
<u>Participants</u>	Data collection method
Biographical characteristics	Research design and data collection intervals
<i>Gender</i>	
<i>Age</i>	<u>Process evaluation</u>
<i>Education</i>	Randomisation
<i>Duration of unemployment</i>	Integrity manipulation checks
Population, sample size, and recruitment	<u>Impact evaluation</u>
<u>Programme</u>	Outcomes
Delivery	<i>Prevention of poor mental health Promotion of reemployment</i>
Content	
Incentives	<i>Consequential outcomes</i>
Facilitators	
Duration of programme	
Group sizes	
Venue of training	
Stakeholders	

Assessment of methodological quality

An additional reviewer – a researcher involved in the broader project – was consulted to ensure methodological quality. After the duplicates had been removed, both the researcher and reviewer were involved in selecting studies to remain in the systematic review based on their abstracts and full content.

Results

The literature review comprised 34 studies. The predetermined criteria, as per Table 5, guided the systematic review. The main aspects regarding the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme and variations of it were tabulated². The summarised findings are reported below.

Implementation

This section contains information about the context in which the various programmes were implemented as well as participant and programme specifics.

Context

The JOBS programme has been implemented in numerous states and countries, in all of which the context has differed to some degree. The unemployment rates, as reported in the studies included, varied from 4% to 20% (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Vuori et al., 2002). Additionally, the unemployed seemed to be supported by welfare benefits, also safeguarding them against severe financial hardship. Unemployment grants differed, depending on the social policies of the countries involved (Vinokur & Price, 2015).

Participants

Biographical variables

According to Vinokur and Price (2015), benefits of the JOBS programmes did not seem to be distributed equally to all the participants. Some findings are reported below; yet it should be noted that only a few of the studies included mentioned the impact of demographic variables on the intended outcomes. Findings regarding participants' demographic variables were not always consistent and sufficient to substantiate these relationships. Compared to other demographic variables, education had the strongest impact on the outcomes of the job-search interventions.

² The summary table can be requested from the first author.

Gender. Female participants seemed to suffer greater economic losses and to experience more difficulties regaining employment (Vinokur, Schul, Vuori, & Price, 2000). Yet women generally benefitted more from the programme than their male counterparts (Michigan Prevention Research Center; MPRC, 2003). They were more likely to 1) obtain employment six months after the intervention (Shirom et al., 2008), 2) score higher on participant engagement (Caplan et al., 1989), 3) experience positive group participation (Vuori, Price, Mutanen, & Malmberg-Heimonen, 2005), and 4) participate voluntarily (Vuori et al., 2002).

Age. Unemployed people between the ages of 16 and 65 were generally the targeted population. The mean age of participants in the studies included was 36 ($SD = 9$). Vuori et al. (2005) state that younger participants were usually more positive and found employment more easily than older participants, but showed a higher tendency of non-participation (Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur et al., 2000; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1991). The training programme seemed to also have a positive impact on older participants regarding improved job-search skills and increased self-confidence (Choi, Price & Vinokur 2003).

Level of education. The majority of participants in the programmes involved had a secondary level of education (equivalent to 12 years of schooling; mean of all the studies: 40,65%). Participants with higher levels of education more often gained in terms of obtaining re-employment (MPRC, 2003), increases in job-search self-efficacy (Choi et al., 2003), a lower likelihood of major depressive episode diagnosis (Vinokur et al., 2000) and non-participation (Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 2000), and higher levels of voluntary participation (Vuori et al., 2002). Despite these positive findings, in some other studies, it was evident that the programme also clearly yielded mental health benefits and economic benefits for those less educated and most disadvantaged in terms of the job market (Choi et al., 2003; Vinokur, Price, & Schul, 1995).

Duration of unemployment. The JOBS programme was originally designed to prevent further deterioration in mental health among the unemployed and was not specifically intended to deal with potential problems associated with long-term unemployment (Caplan et al., 1989). Therefore, the majority of the initial studies included only those who had been unemployed for less than 13 weeks (Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 1991a; Vinokur et al., 1991b; Price et al., 1992; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur et al., 1995a; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1996; Vinokur & Schul, 1997; Vinokur et al., 2000). However, because the long-term unemployed

were reported as the most vulnerable, more recent developments included participants who had been unemployed for longer periods (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Choi et al., 2003; Malmberg-Heimonen & Vuori, 2005; Reynolds, Barry, & Gabhainn, 2010; Vuori et al., 2005).

Population, sample size, and recruitment

Population. Eligibility criteria required individuals to be aged between 16 and 65. Prospective screening questionnaires were used in some studies to determine participants' risk score for poor mental health (Vinokur et al., 1995b). However, those who showed major signs of mental illness, serious psychosocial problems, or behavioural problems or who scored extremely high on depression symptoms were omitted from the study (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Vinokur & Price, 1995a).

Sample size. Most of the studies included were conducted as a part of large-scale field experiments, ranging from 1 087 to 3 402 participants. Smaller-scale studies ranged from 125 to 672 participants. Sample sizes did not seem to influence the results achieved or the sustainability of the programmes. It was rather the use (or lack) of effective methods that seemed to have an impact on the outcomes (Price & Vinokur, 2014).

Recruitment. The primary method used to recruit participants was through recruiters who approached individuals eligible for employment benefits while collecting grants at employment offices. In studies including an experimental and control group, participants were told about the two programmes on job-seeking methods. One programme was described as a workshop consisting of five half-day sessions (the experimental condition); the other, as a self-guided programme, in which participants received a booklet with job-search information (the control condition). To prevent biases, participants had to show no preference for a type of intervention (experimental or control condition; Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 1995a).

Voluntary or enforced participation. Participants from some programmes had to participate in the job-search workshop to qualify for welfare benefits (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Lee & Vinokur, 2007). When studying the impact of voluntary or enforced participation, a Finnish study showed that enforced participation failed to increase re-employment, and it compromised the positive mental health effects of the programme. It was also found that enforced participation in job-search workshops decreased re-employment among the longer-term jobseekers (Malmberg-Heimonen & Vuori, 2005).

Dropout rates. In the US programmes, on average, 59% (varying by 5%) of participants failed to show up for the intervention (Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 1995a). Consequently, dropout rates could be anticipated, and therefore, twice as many participants were recruited and allocated to experimental groups in the Israeli study (Shirom et al., 2008). In the Malmberg-Heimonen and Vuori (2005) study, it was surprising to find that response rates did not differ much among the enforced, voluntary, and control group (94%, 92%, and 91%, respectively).

Programme

The information presented below was derived from the JOBS training manual (Curran et al., 1999).

Delivery

The JOBS programme entails two main processes. On the one hand, job-search skills (the actual content of the programme) are taught to participants, while, on the other hand, empowerment of the participants, by applying the programme's underlying principles in the method of delivery, is the true underlying mission of the workshop. The following aspects guided the method of delivery used by the trainers:

Referent power. Moderate self-disclosures shared by facilitators create an environment in which participants feel safe to reveal their concerns and experiences. These also contribute to creating an atmosphere of unconditional acceptance and to enhancing feelings of being normal and valued.

Guiding behaviour. Specific positive feedback is given to participants to reinforce positive behaviour. Strategies used to generate positive feedback include active listening, observation, and reflecting on what participants have shared as a means of showing participants that they are valued.

Inoculation against setbacks. The group is encouraged to identifying potential setbacks and difficulties in the job-search process. Strategies are developed to overcome the identified challenges, and consequently, participants realise that their problem(s) can be solved. Participants are asked to commit themselves to action by selecting and vowing to undertake a solution most appealing to them.

Social support. Social support forms an integral part of the underlying processes, as exercises are specifically designed to create opportunities for facilitators and participants to support each other. An environment where participants are unconditionally accepted is created. Such a safe environment contributes to participants feeling comfortable to express their opinions and reveal their feelings.

Active leaning. The learning process relies greatly on participants' knowledge and skills. Participants acquire job-search skills by using active learning methods, elicited using group discussions and brainstorming sessions.

In contrast to traditional top-down, trainer-focused training methods, the JOBS programme relies heavily on its individual-focused approach. The delivery principles mentioned above contribute to the strong individual-focused approach. Principles are continuously applied and integrated and form the basis on which the content is delivered.

Content

Session 1. During the first session, participants discover their job skills. They are encouraged to critically reflect on their abilities, personal strengths, and skills. The versatility of their talents and attributes is explored and aligned with possible job interests. However, the underlying aim of the first session is to build a safe and supportive environment. Also, activities are accompanied by positive reinforcement, which communicates to participants that they are competent and empowered.

Session 2. The second session focuses on dealing with obstacles related to employment. Participants are encouraged to identify perceived obstacles and barriers in finding employment, generate solutions to overcome these challenges, and commit themselves to action. Because the participants identify the challenges and solutions themselves, repeatedly, in a safe environment, the process offers them a high degree of personal relevance (learning), while enhancing perseverance. Facilitators also continue to build on participants' feelings of competence and confidence and provide social support.

Session 3. The purpose of the third session is to introduce participants to some job-search techniques. The techniques include activities such as recognising possible networks and job leads opportunities and practising informational interviewing. During this session, emphasis is

placed on increasing participants' self-efficacy in job-search skills. It is also notable that participants are less dependent on the facilitators' reinforcement, as they rely more on support gained from other participants.

Session 4. On the fourth day, topics covered include CV writing and general interview questions. Participants are also prepared to find job leads and contact potential employers in order to get interviews. At this stage of the programme, a sense of group identity and camaraderie have formed. Activities are further aligned to increase participants' self-efficacy and feelings of empowerment.

Session 5. Participants rehearse skills acquired throughout the week. Much attention is also paid to preparing them for potential setbacks that may occur after the programme has finished. The workshop concludes with a certificate ceremony, during which facilitators boost participants' confidence by highlighting their strengths and skills and providing each participant with a sincere and inspiring message.

The JOBS protocol describes the programme processes meticulously. Yet these processes are flexible and can be altered, depending on the needs of the groups, without losing the intended effects of the programme. The majority of the disseminated versions of the JOBS programme were implemented strictly according to the protocol. The content differed in terms of minor language, cultural, procedural, and scheduling changes to suit different contexts. To maintain the standard of the JOBS programme, all materials were piloted and approved. It is worth mentioning that, when the protocol was somewhat neglected, it was reported that the programme was less successful in achieving the intended outcomes (Shirom et al., 2008).

Duration of the programme

Some of the findings yielded by the original JOBS trial encouraged the revision of the programme, which consequently led to the development of the JOBS II intervention (Vinokur et al., 1995a). The first version (the JOBS I programme) spanned eight three-hour sessions, over a two-week period (four mornings per week; Caplan et al., 1989). To increase programme efficiency and the attendance of participants, meeting hours were reduced by 30%, delivered over five four-hour sessions in a one-week period in the JOBS II (Vinokur et al., 1995a). The majority of disseminated versions of the JOBS programme continued to apply the programme following the JOBS II protocol. In some groups, the Finnish programme was delivered over

four days, as the first day was used to deal with recently laid-off workers' negative emotions (Vuori et al., 2002) – an illustration of how the programme can be altered to meet the needs of the group, without affecting the outcomes.

Incentives

Participants were rewarded monetarily for participation and/or each returned questionnaire (varying between \$5,00 and \$15,00, depending on the currency of the country). In cases where questionnaires were not returned, an additional amount was issued on the completion of their questionnaires. This incentive was reported to result in a substantial increase in response rates (about 20%; Shirom et al., 2008). Participants in the JOBS programme and Netherlands JOBS programme also received a certificate of participation for completing the programme (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Caplan et al., 1989).

Researchers obtained higher response rates when offering incentives: in cases with relatively high dropout rates, no mention of rewards or incentives was evident (Barry et al., 2006; Reynolds et al., 2010; Shirom et al., 2008). The same finding was, however, not true in the WNJ California studies, which managed to retain approximately 70% of their participants, seemingly without the use of incentives (Choi et al., 2003).

Facilitators

Pairing. Teams consisting of one male and one female trainer are prescribed by Curran et al. (1999) to complement each other well. An untested assumption existed that a pair of trainers reduced deviation from the principles of the JOBS programme. However, the assumed benefits of having male-female pair facilitators have not yet been tested. Benefit-cost research could determine whether the cost of using two trainers, rather than one, is outweighed by the benefits that are generated (Price, Friedland, Choi, & Caplan, 1998).

Prerequisites. Facilitators were generally social workers, labour advisors, educational counsellors, or high school teachers. It was suggested that facilitators ought to be skilful in working with people (public speaking and communications backgrounds). Because trained individuals (that is, mental health professionals, such as counsellors or clinicians) might execute strongly embedded techniques not necessarily consistent with unemployment-related counselling methods, professional training was not a prerequisite (Caplan et al., 1989).

Programme-related training. Facilitators had to undergo extensive formal training. The content of the training covered understanding of group processes, theoretical foundations of the programme, and extensive rehearsal in the form of pilot studies. The duration of training varied from six to 30 days (48 to 240 hours). The reason for the extensive training was that facilitators were not only conveyors of information, but also experts in guiding group processes, who has the ability to connect with the participants and facilitate group interactions (Price & Vinokur, 2014). To promote conformity, trainers' performance was evaluated by trained supervisors.

Group sizes

Guidelines of the JOBS programme suggest groups consisting of 12 to 20 participants (Curran et al., 1999). There were exceptions, where the groups ranged from three to 110 participants per group (median = 11; Malmberg-Heimonen & Vuori, 2005). Although only a few studies reported on the impact of group sizes, larger groups seemed to have more negative experiences than smaller groups (Vuori et al., 2005).

Venue of training

Venues such as community centres, school classrooms, churches, and union halls, easily accessible to participants, were mostly used. Venues had to be large enough to accommodate 25 people and furnished with movable chairs, arranged in a semicircular layout. Such a layout was reported to be most effective in delivering the group intervention (Curran et al., 1999).

Stakeholder involvement

Crucial to the success of the Winning New Jobs programme in Ireland was that the developers of the original JOBS programme were involved from the outset and contributed to obtaining buy-in from strategic stakeholder agencies. Despite substantial initial investments of resources neither the Winning New Jobs in California nor the JOBS in China project continued beyond their initial stages, as commitment of resources for continuation were not offered by the government or other stakeholders. Therefore, the success of programme dissemination depended considerably on the involvement of, and support received from, stakeholders (Vinokur & Price, 2015).

Evaluation

This section is comprised of information regarding evaluation of the processes and the impact of the JOBS programme.

Methodology

Data collection method

Self-administered questionnaires were used to assess participants' attitudes, intentions, various behavioural components, and experience of the workshop (Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992). In cases of unreturned questionnaires or where participants failed to show up for the workshop, telephonic interviews were conducted (Barry et al., 2006).

Research design and data collection intervals

Randomised field study designs were used to investigate the intervention effect between experimental and control conditions (Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 1995a; Vuori et al., 2002). Programmes that made use of a randomised field study design had three to four interval times, namely, pre-intervention (two weeks before the programme), post-intervention (directly after the programme), post-post-intervention (between two and six months after the programme), and long-term follow-ups, varying from 12 to 32 months after the intervention (Barry et al., 2006; Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Vinokur et al., 1991a). Other programmes only tested pre- and post-intervention to determine the impact of the programme (Lee & Vinokur, 2007; Shirom et al., 2008).

Process evaluation

To determine the internal validity and the strength and integrity of the JOBS programmes, two types of analyses were generally conducted. These process measures consisted of testing the integrity of randomisation and strength of the programme (Vinokur et al., 1995a).

Effectiveness of randomisation

The first check to determine the validity of the programme was to determine whether the statistical analyses were conducted on a randomised (true) experimental design. This was established by comparing the demographic and other tested variables of the experimental and

control conditions at baseline to identify possible differences. In cases where differences were found, these variables were controlled for in further analyses (Vinokur et al., 1995a).

Manipulation checks, integrity, and strength of the intervention

The second test was to test the strength and integrity of the intervention through self-reported questionnaires at the end of each session. Participants were asked to evaluate their experience of facilitators and the programme. These evaluations were used to determine whether various intervention elements had been implemented and had operated as designed (Vinokur et al., 1995a). Participants who scored high on these measures also reported higher levels of internal control and job-seeking self-efficacy (Choi et al., 2003), decreases in depression and anger, and increases in self-esteem and quality of life (Caplan et al., 1989). Also, trainer skills (one of the evaluated variables) exhibited during group interactions contributed to increased re-employment, even at the 12-month follow-up (Reynolds et al., 2010).

Two additional methods were used to ensure the quality of the programme and a high level of trainer adherence to the protocol. Firstly, members of the research team frequently observed programme trainers: after each session, constructive feedback was given to trainers. Secondly, the facilitators met weekly to discuss skill-related topics they encountered during their sessions (Vinokur et al., 1995b).

Impact evaluation

Outcomes

The positive outcomes of the JOBS programme were documented amply. Below are some of the most prominent findings related to the two core objectives of the JOBS programmes: Prevention of poor mental health and promotion of reemployment, and other post-hoc outcomes.

Prevention of poor mental health. Participation in the intervention resulted in increased self-esteem, self-efficacy and social assertiveness among participants, consequently, participants also showed improved psychological and mental health and well-being (Lee & Vinokur 2007; Reynolds et al., 2010). Furthermore, long-term effects of the programme revealed that participants experienced lower symptoms of depression (Price et al., 1992; Vuori & Silvonen, 2005), improved self-esteem (Reynolds et al., 2010), and an enhanced ability to deal with

setbacks. A noteworthy finding is that participants screened for showing higher risk for depression seemed to benefit the most in terms of mental health and re-employment outcomes (Vinokur et al., 1995b).

Promotion of reemployment. Several programmes demonstrated increased rates of re-employment, ranging between an average of 46% after the intervention, compared to the control group, ranging between an average of 18% (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Caplan et al., 1989; Donaldson, 2012; Shirom et al., 2008; Vuori et al., 2005). Programme participants also showed higher motivation to persist in job-search efforts (Caplan et al., 1989), were employed in better jobs (in terms of earnings and job satisfaction (Vinokur et al., 1991b), were employed faster, had less recurring episodes of unemployment (Vinokur & Price, 2015) and experienced reduced economic hardship after being employed (Barry et al., 2006). Results remained over time, as long-term effects of the programme revealed that participants, compared to their counterparts, experienced higher re-employment (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011). Another crucial finding is that both the Työhön and the Netherland's JOBS programmes confirmed the effectiveness of the intervention to help even the more vulnerable long-term unemployed gain employment (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Vuori et al., 2002).

Consequential outcomes. Finally, the JOBS programme demonstrated substantial cost-benefit effectiveness because the higher earnings led, on average, to higher tax revenues and decreased welfare grants for governments (Vinokur et al., 1991b).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to review literature regarding the JOBS programme and variations of it with the intention of developing a framework that could guide the successful implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme in the South African context. To gain a better understanding of the components related to the implementation of the JOBS programme, the contexts in which the programme have previously been implemented, the targeted population, as well as aspects regarding the programme, were studied. Based on the findings of the systematic review, as well as context-specific matters, Appendix A presents a proposed framework for the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme in the South African context.

In terms of contextual differences between developed countries (where the JOBS programme has previously been implemented), and developing countries (e.g. South Africa), some differences have to be considered when implementing an employment programme, such as the JOBS intervention. While the unemployment rates of the developed countries involved averaged 12%, more than 27% (37.3% when including those who have stopped looking for employment; Stats SA, 2018) of South Africans are currently unemployed. Moreover, it has been reported that 69% of these individuals have been unemployed for longer than a year (Stats SA, 2018). In South Africa, unlike the other countries, unemployment grants safeguarding people from financial hardship are not available. Also, the unemployed are generally located in rural areas and are isolated from major economic activity. With limited job opportunities, jobseekers feel discouraged and deprived of a chance to compete in the labour market (Du Toit, De Witte, Rothmann, & Van den Broeck, 2018). Fortunately, the JOBS programme is specifically designed to deal with such conditions, yet it remains important to be cognisant of the impact of contextual factors on potential participants' state of mind.

With regard to participant-related matters, the reviewed literature showed that young and old, educated and less educated participants had previously benefitted from the JOBS interventions. However, it is important to note that South Africa has a youth unemployment rate of 52% (aged between 15 and 24; Stats SA, 2018); 62% of the unemployed population have never even held a job before (Stats SA, 2017); and 57% of South Africans have an education of less than matric (Grade 12). Therefore, although the unemployed in general could benefit from the programme, it is suggested to target vulnerable populations, such as younger, less educated and long-term unemployed individuals, as it may yield promising results.

Furthermore, participants from previous studies were reached at employment services offices. Because unemployment grants are not available in South Africa, participants cannot be reached on a large scale in a similar way. Therefore, different strategies of reaching the intended population should be considered. Suggestions include making use of newspaper and radio advertisements, government agencies working with jobseekers, or working with youth and community leaders. One programme in particular tested the effectiveness of forced versus voluntary participation. Findings revealed that enforced participation failed to increase re-employment and reduced the positive mental health impact of the programme (Malmberg-Heimonen & Vuori, 2005). Giving participants the autonomy to participate voluntarily in the programme seems to yield more positive benefits. This may be an important finding for

policymakers, as a precondition for receiving unemployment grants is often enforced attendance of a job-search programme. Yet responsibility also rests with workshop trainers to be particularly devoted in creating an environment to which participants *choose* to return.

Considering the possibility that participants who show a preference to participate in employment programmes may be somewhat more intrinsically motivated, at the same time, those who show a higher risk of depressive symptoms may benefit more (Vinokur et al., 1995a). Thus, careful attention should be paid to recruitment measures, ensuring that both the motivated and those who may be at risk of depressive symptoms are reached through recruitment methods, as they are equally important in achieving the intended programme outcomes. Similarly, some programmes made use of screening questionnaires to identify participants at risk of poor mental health (Vinokur et al., 1995b). Those who scored exceptionally high on depression symptoms or showed major signs of mental illness were omitted from the programme (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011). As previously mentioned, given that many of the unemployed in South Africa may be severely discouraged, it is recommended to refrain from screening participants to identify high-risk cases, as it may result in the exclusion of participants who may benefit from the programme.

The next implementation aspect investigated related to programme-related matters. In line with previous adaptations of the JOBS programme, it has been suggested that the content of the manuals and activities be tailored to better suit the context and to increase cultural acceptability (Barry et al., 2006; Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011). Due to slow economic growth and the lack of skills in specific disadvantaged populations, changes in conditions of obtaining a job may be difficult (Vinokur & Price, 2015). A solution that may fill both of these voids could be to consider fostering an entrepreneurial mindset among programme participants. People working in the informal sector often have a lower education level (although not lower wages) compared to those employed in the formal sector (Kim, 2002), which may be a suitable solution in the South African context.

Furthermore, the ability to facilitate and understand group processes, build feelings of competence, and create an environment of unconditional acceptance was an essential requirement for facilitators. Yet the education levels of the facilitators were not reported to be particularly important. Due to the great demand for social work in South Africa, a shortfall of qualified social workers exist, which often results in employing people at social services offices

who are less skilled and experienced (Collins, 2017). Failure to grasp the importance of, and means of executing, the principal components of the programme may be problematic for its successful execution. Consequently, involving trainers who are knowledgeable and experienced in this area, while at the same time having the ability to relate to participants, should be considered. These may typically include individuals with higher degrees, coming from a similar background, who can also serve as role models for participants. Additionally, trainers should have the ability to adopt an individual-focused training approach, aimed at the enhancement of active learning among participants, instead of taking on the traditional role of teacher.

A noteworthy lesson was that the success of the programmes lies largely in the adherence to the designed protocols, as less of the anticipated outcomes were achieved when the protocol was neglected (Shirom et al., 2008). The majority of workshops included between 12 and 18 participants per group, as it was effective and economical. Ideally, delivery was guided by two training facilitators, as two were more capable of monitoring the behaviour and reactions of participants (Vinokur & Price, 2015). Also, five half-day sessions, compared to longer two-week sessions, seemed to be more effective to keep participants engaged. A vital lesson could be learned from the Finnish study that allowed for a debriefing day. During this session, former appointed employees had an opportunity to deal with negative emotions caused by their dismissals (Vuori et al., 2005). Providing participants with such a venting opportunity may have made them more receptive to the programme.

Lastly, the founders of the JOBS programme strongly advised involving an effective champion, advocating for the programme at the policy level from the outset. It was also suggested to include service delivery agencies that were open to applying innovative initiatives. Furthermore, a continuous flow of resources and funding seemed fundamental to the success and sustainability of large-scale programmes (Price & Vinokur, 2014). In the South African context, economic development departments in local governments supported by training providers could act as champions of the JOBS programme.

This study also explored three elements (methodology, process and impact) related to the evaluation of the JOBS programme. The investigated studies were either conducted with a randomised field or quasi-experiment design as the chosen methodology, with self-reported questionnaires as the main data collection method. Considering the effectiveness of these

designs in reporting the effectiveness and changes over time, it has been suggested to use a similar approach. Furthermore, attrition was a pervasive problem experienced by most of the studies. However, offering incentives and recruiting more participants due to anticipated dropouts yielded higher attendance rates (Caplan et al., 1989; Shirom et al., 2008).

Aspects contributing to the process evaluation of the intervention included randomisation and manipulation checks of the studies included. To ensure internal validity, comparisons between the control and experimental groups' demographic and other variables were tested for possible bias. Furthermore, the strength and integrity of the various interventions were assessed by means of self-reported questionnaires at the end of each workshop. Several advantages can be gained from delivering a valid and reliable programme. Firstly, as mentioned earlier, adhering to programme protocols is strongly recommended, as the intended outcomes are achieved through reliable practices. Secondly, ensuring that participants experience the programme positively has previously been shown to increase engagement and, consequently, has led to other outcomes, such as decreased depression and anger, increased internal control, job-seeking self-efficacy, and self-esteem (Vinokur et al., 1995a; Vinokur & Schul, 1997).

With regard to the impact of the JOBS programmes, one of the most significant findings was the beneficial re-employment outcomes for those who had been unemployed for a moderate length of time (longer than a year; Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Vuori et al., 2002). Likewise, findings from examined literature also showed beneficial mental health and re-employment outcomes, particularly for high-risk participants (Vinokur & Schul, 1997). These findings are valuable, as it was found in a South African study that approximately 70% of the unemployed population was categorised as desperate or discouraged (Van der Vaart, De Witte, Van den Broeck, & Rothmann, 2018). The unemployed in both clusters generally came from poor socio-economic backgrounds, had relatively low levels of education, had limited opportunities for odd jobs or temporary employment, and were quite pessimistic. Given the ability of the JOBS programme to produce significant outcomes for high-risk participants, it appears that it could hold valuable outcomes, also for those who have been unemployed for long periods and may be truly discouraged.

Limitations and recommendations

Some limitations of this study need to be considered. Firstly, only peer-reviewed articles and book chapters that were written in English were included in the current study. Since the JOBS programme has been implemented in the Netherlands, Israel, Finland, and China, which have other official languages, the possibility of excluding potential articles exists. Secondly, access to some articles (Jobs in China project and Työhön trainers' manual) was limited or unavailable, resulting in their omission from the review (that is, Fang & Ling, 2001; Mäkitalo, Tervahartiala, & Saarinen, 1997; Price, 2001). Thirdly, due to the nature of intervention studies, it is possible that only studies yielding significant results were published. Although all versions of the JOBS programme known to the developers were reported, it is possible that there may be unpublished efforts. Consequently, meaningful lessons that could have been learnt from these papers were not available. However, much effort was invested in systematically searching for and including all possible studies. Lastly, the study did not include articles where the JOBS programme had been applied in work-to-school and organisational contexts. Although these programmes may have yielded valuable findings, these studies were omitted, as the aim of this study was specifically to focus on the most effective methods to assist the unemployed.

Conclusion

This study reviewed literature about the JOBS programme as a means of extending our knowledge of applying such a job-search intervention in a South African context. Therefore, core aspects with regard to the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme and variations of it were investigated. Specifically, implementation features, such as contextual factors, participant characteristics, and programme aspects, were studied, while evaluation features included impact and process evaluation components.

Evidently, the success of the JOBS programme largely depended on following the protocol. Thus, studying the previously performed methods and outcomes of the JOBS programme, in various contexts, may serve as a valuable guideline to prescribe possible best practices. The integration of included literature and important aspects regarding the South African context produced a framework that could be valuable in the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme in South Africa.

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CHAPTER 4

ARTICLE 3

The implementation and evaluation of the South African adaptation of the JOBS programme

Abstract

No validated intervention that specifically addresses the psychosocial needs of unemployed people exists in the South African context. This study intends to evaluate an evidence-based job-search programme, called the JOBS intervention, that is aimed at the self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem related to participants searching for jobs. A switching replication research design was used. Convenient samples were taken of unemployed individuals from two low-income communities ($N = 131$; experimental group = 69; control group = 62). The Qhubekela Phambili programme, which is based on the JOBS programme, was adapted for the South African context and was implemented over six four-hour sessions. Data collection took place before starting with the intervention, after the intervention, and four weeks after the intervention. Repeated Measures ANOVA analysis was used to analyse the data. Those who had undergone the intervention showed statistically significantly higher levels of job-search self-efficacy. This study contributes to the limited research on psychosocial interventions specifically among the unemployed, in the South African context.

Key words: Job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, self-esteem, job-search intervention, JOBS programme, Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme, unemployed, township, South Africa

Introduction

Unemployment has various adverse consequences for people, such as decreased self-esteem, a loss of personal control, diminished coping behaviours and reduced (or no) job-search efforts (McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005; Paul, Hassel & Moser, 2018; Paul & Moser, 2009). Considering the undesirable effects of unemployment, the absence of solutions sought from a psychosocial perspective is worrying (Cobb-Clark 2015).

Labour market interventions generally focus on job creation, subsidised employment opportunities and providing the unemployed with resources and services, such as vocational training, entrepreneurial skills, and employment services (Kluve et al., 2017). While these programmes undoubtedly assist in removing some constraints to obtain employment, a much-neglected approach to solving the employment challenge may be from a psychosocial perspective (Patel, Noyoo, & Loffell, 2004; Van den Hof, 2015). In a meta-analysis evaluating job-search interventions, Liu, Huang, & Wang (2014) found that programmes aimed at strengthening participants' self-efficacy, encouraging proactive and goal-orientated behaviour, and providing them with social support were more effective than interventions that did not include such components. Also, interventions that combined skills development with a motivational component were found to be most successful in facilitating job-search success (Liu et al., 2014).

Previously conducted research agrees on the fact that unemployment should be seen within a social, more humane context and not solely as an economic burden (Donaldson & Weiss, 1998). In fact, the latent deprivation model (Jahoda, 1982) suggests that a job fulfils both manifest (remuneration) and latent functions (time structure, social contact, common goals, status or identity, and enforced activity). Likewise, Donaldson and Weiss (1998) state that employment increases people's self-esteem and provides them with a sense of identity. Consequently, when people lose their jobs, they do not only experience a loss of income, but also a loss of these essential latent functions, which may negatively impact one's psychological well-being (Jahoda, 1982). Therefore, based on these views of the importance of work, it should be considered that economic and psychological deprivation are so closely intertwined that the one aspect cannot be affected without impacting the other (Møller, 1991). By applying labour market programmes that solely focus on easing financial hardship, psychological

aspects, which may contribute to making unemployment (un)bearable, are deliberately left out of the equation.

Even though South Africa has one of the highest unemployment rates in the world (World Bank, 2018), programmes implemented to assist the unemployed lack the psychosocial aspects required to have a sustainable impact (Paver, Rothmann, Van den Broeck, & De Witte, 2019a). One intervention designed specifically for this purpose is the JOBS programme (Caplan, Vinokur, Price, & Van Ryn, 1989). Overwhelmingly positive results have been obtained by this empirically robust preventive intervention in various studies (Caplan et al., 1989; Price, Van Ryn, & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1991a; Vinokur, Van Ryn, Gramlich, & Price, 1991b; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur & Van Ryn, 1993; Vinokur, Price, Caplan, Van Ryn, & Curran, 1995; Vinokur, Price, & Caplan, 1996; Vinokur & Schul, 1997, 2002; Vinokur, Schul, Vuori & Price, 2000).

This study is aimed at adapting the JOBS programme to the South African context and evaluating the effects of the programme on individuals' psychological resources, including job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem.

The JOBS programme

Underlying principles of the JOBS programme

The general aim of the JOBS programme is to provide jobseekers with job-search skills. The instilled skills, however, operate as a vehicle to build participants' competence and confidence, making the true underlying goal of the programme to empower them by focusing on their emotional and motivational needs and helping them to cope with their circumstances (Curran, Wishart, & Gingrich, 1999). A crucial element of the programme is therefore to involve the participants on a personal level. This is accomplished through the trainers' ability to facilitate the process in which the participants acquire the intended skills, while applying the underlying principles of the programme. These processes are created to provide participants with an opportunity to delve into their motivational and coping resources (Price, Vinokur, & Friedland, 2002). The programme comprises five underlying principles:

Referent power – Facilitators share their experiences and practice moderate self-disclosure as a means of showing that they can relate to the participants and also so that participants can relate to them. Facilitators also create opportunities in which they help participants to realise that their accomplishments are entirely due to their own hard work and talents. The impact of facilitators depends on how participants perceive them. Admired and respected facilitators are often more influential (Curran et al., 1999).

Guiding behaviour – Facilitators have the responsibility to demonstrate effective and positive behaviour to participants. They provide participants with specific positive feedback and steer them away from any ineffective or negative actions. The behaviour of facilitators is often contagious, and participants almost effortlessly adopt similar behaviour.

Social support – Fragile participants are put at ease by creating a supportive environment that encourages unconditional acceptance by facilitators and other participants (Michigan Prevention Research Center, 2003). This entails building trust and reducing the social distance by treating participants with respect and offering positive feedback. Generating such a safe and supportive environment creates an opportunity to destigmatise unemployment and remove other associated negative connotations (Vinokur & Price, 2015). Consequently, as the group becomes more familiar and comfortable with each other, they rely more on their peers for support as opposed to the facilitators.

Inoculation against setbacks – Participants are urged to anticipate possible barriers in the job-seeking process. Once possible challenges and obstacles have been identified, problem-solving skills are required to generate and evaluate possible solutions to overcome these setbacks. Participants are also encouraged to choose a solution that is most applicable to them and to commit to action (Curran et al., 1999).

Active learning – The JOBS programme relies strongly on active learning techniques, as opposed to didactic passive methods (Caplan, Vinokur, & Price, 1997). Active learning methods are incorporated through group activities such as brainstorming sessions, group discussions, problem-solving, and role-playing exercises (Curran et al., 1999). Facilitators refrain from providing solutions and rather foster an environment where the participants are encouraged to apply their knowledge and experience as part of the learning process (Caplan, et al., 1997). The active learning process has been found to increase participants' confidence

in their capability to perform job-search undertakings (Bandura, 1986), to foster an internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966), and to boost their self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965).

The above-mentioned principles are the essence of the JOBS programme. Because participants actively participate and greatly rely on their own knowledge and experience throughout the programme, they tend to take ownership of their situation. Likewise, by asking the participants to suggest solutions, they are actively involved in the problem-solving process. The more it is repeated, the more natural the process becomes. The unconditional positive regard and support provided by the facilitators and the other participants also contribute to a space where participants can share experiences for others to relate to (Curran et al., 1999). Finally, the facilitators play a crucial role in the example they portray to participants. The effective facilitation and incorporation of the principles are critical in achieving the anticipated beneficial outcomes of the programme.

Underlying theories of involved constructs

The earliest version of the JOBS programme is referred to as the JOBS I intervention. Findings from the original JOBS intervention demonstrated that some components of the programme contributed more prominently to the positive outcomes achieved (Vinokur et al., 1995). This led to the development of the JOBS II intervention. One of the components that inspired the changes made in the revised programme was an overarching term – sense of mastery – comprising job-search self-efficacy, personal control, and self-esteem (Vinokur et al., 2000). Similarly, previous research has provided evidence that the JOBS programme had a profound impact, particularly on people with lower levels of self-esteem or self-efficacy, or an with an internal locus of control (Brockner, 1988; Eden & Aviram, 1993). Because the overarching component sense of mastery played such a prominent role in the JOBS I intervention, the current paper aims to determine the effectiveness and the role of the various components it is comprises of (job-search self-efficacy, personal control, and self-esteem).

Job-search self-efficacy. Bandura describes self-efficacy as a person's belief that they can be successful (Bandura, 1986). Because self-efficacy is generally context-specific, job-search self-efficacy refers to refers to individuals' confidence in their ability to perform job-seeking activities in order to obtain employment (Saks & Ashforth, 1999; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). Successfully obtaining a new job largely depends on an individual's ability to apply job-search

strategies effectively (Price et al., 2002). The JOBS programme enhances the perceptions of competency by teaching and providing exposure to new skills and by embedding newly taught behaviours through consistent positive reinforcement from the facilitators. One of the most important goals of the JOBS programme is to develop participants' job-seeking skills while simultaneously using the principles of the programme to increase their confidence and ability to cope with the job-search process and the challenges faced when searching for a job.

Personal control. The degree to which people feel in control of their lives is usually distinguished between an internal and external locus of control – people believing that life's outcomes are due to their own efforts, and people believing that outcomes are due to external factors, respectively (Rotter, 1966; Seligman & Maier, 1967). In a recent study conducted in South Africa it was found that many unemployed (32%) are neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated, but rather considered as being amotivated (Van der Vaart, Van den Broeck, Rothmann, & De Witte, 2019). Amotivation is described as the belief that one's actions and behaviours are in no way associated with the consequences thereof (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Amotivation is also explained as a lack of control often compared to learned helplessness. The conceptual framework for inoculation against setbacks deals with such learned helplessness, in that it aims to develop an ability among participants to anticipate potential setbacks, come up with possible solutions to overcome the setbacks, and acquire the necessary skills to deal with the setbacks (Caplan et al., 1989).

Self-esteem. Research distinguishes between global self-esteem (psychological well-being) and specific self-esteem (behaviour; Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). Self-esteem in the current study, refers to global self-esteem. Within this context, self-esteem captures the extent to which one's attitude is favourable or unfavourable toward him- or herself (Rosenberg, 1965). The JOBS intervention protocol relies heavily on confidence boosting techniques and empowering participants by giving them opportunities to become aware of, display, and build their personal resources (Price & Vinokur, 2014). Support obtained from the facilitators and other participants establishes a sense of belongingness, diminishes negative affect, and also enhances participants' self-esteem (Caplan et al., 1989).

Job-search self-efficacy, personal control, and self-esteem, both independently and collaboratively, have been shown to have a positive impact on those who are jobless. Job-search self-efficacy has previously been found to have a direct impact on successful job-search

endeavours (Vuori & Vinokur, 2005) and mental health and re-employment outcomes (Lee & Vinokur, 2007; Vuori & Vinokur, 2005). Furthermore, it has been found that the loss of personal control is linked to financial strain, lower probabilities of re-employment, longer unemployment durations following job loss, and elevated symptoms of depression (Lee & Vinokur, 2007; Price, Choi, & Vinokur, 2002). Similarly, low self-esteem has been associated with impeded job-seeking activities (Feather & O'Brien, 1986).

Within the context of the JOBS programme, the intended positive and socially supportive group processes brought upon increased job-search self-efficacy, inoculation against setbacks and self-esteem (Vinokur & Schul, 1997). Findings from the JOBS II field experiment showed that the combination of job-search self-efficacy, personal control, and self-esteem (sense of mastery) seems to be essential in reducing participants' risk for depression (Vinokur et al., 1995) and has a significant impact on re-employment and easing financial strain (Vinokur & Schul, 1997). The increased levels of a sense of mastery seem to have a lasting effect, as the experimental group reported higher levels of a sense of mastery, compared to the control group, even two years post-intervention (Vuori & Silvonen, 2005).

Unemployment is often accompanied by humiliation and feelings of inferiority and incompetence (Curran et al., 1999). Studies showed that providing jobseekers with coping resources, such as the confidence and ability to effectively seek for employment, overcoming feelings of helplessness, and building their self-esteem can be vital in their search for employment (see Price & Vinokur, 2014; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur et al., 1995; Vinokur et al., 2000). The acquisition of these resources is accomplished through the empowerment of participants to confidently and persistently engage in job-seeking undertakings (Vinokur et al., 2000). The JOBS intervention is specifically designed to maximise the job-search skills of the job seekers and to enhance and maintain their motivation (Price & Vinokur, 2014), building their confidence to seek employment. Therefore, the following hypothesis is formulated:

Hypothesis 1. Participants in the JOBS programme will report higher levels of job-search self-efficacy, relative to their control group counterparts.

Even though JOBS II was implemented in considerably more challenging economic conditions than JOBS I, it yielded strong evidence demonstrating its efficacy and robustness. These

findings suggested that JOBS II is suitable in a variety of labour market conditions and that findings can be generalised to other settings and economic environments (Vinokur et al., 1995). As a result, the JOBS programme has been replicated and successfully applied in other countries such as Finland, China, Ireland, Netherlands, and Israel (Barry, Reynolds, Sheridan, & Egerton, 2006; Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Price & Fang, 2002; Shirom, Vinokur, & Price, 2008; Vuori, Silvonen, Vinokur & Price, 2002). South Africa, like these countries, is burdened by unemployment and needs intervention.

The contexts in which the JOBS programme has been implemented consist mainly of Western countries and differ quite significantly from the South African context. One major difference may be the prolonged periods of unemployment experienced by job seekers. Unemployment, but perhaps even more so long-term unemployment, may contribute to people feeling discouraged about re-entering the labour market (Van der Vaart, De Witte, Van den Broeck, & Rothmann, 2018). This discouragement intensifies feelings of helplessness and loss of personal control (Curran et al., 1999). A fundamental component of the JOBS programme is inoculating participants against setbacks. This entails that participants anticipate potential challenges or difficulties (in any situation) and generate possible solutions to overcome these obstacles or barriers (Vinokur & Schul, 1997). What is essential is that these are the participants' own solutions. Thus they are cultivating personal control, which empower participants to take ownership of their situation (Curran et al., 1999). A loss of personal control may be common among unemployed persons, but perhaps more uncommon is the fact that 32% of the unemployed in South Africa have been identified as being amotivated (Van der Vaart et al., 2019). This implies that they are neither intrinsically nor extrinsically motivated and may experience the relative absence of motivation (Rotter, 1966; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

It seems reasonable to ascertain that these unemployed individuals, who are particularly prone to being amotivated, may benefit from an intervention such as the JOBS programme. Therefore, the second hypothesis is as follows:

Hypothesis 2. Participants in the JOBS programme will report lower levels of amotivation, relative to their control group counterparts.

To successfully seek new jobs, it is crucial for the unemployed to realise what resources they possess (such as job skills and work experience). In line with the Conservation of Resources

Theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989), the unemployed attempt to protect their existing resources, find new resources, or replace them with alternative resources. The JOBS programme provides job seekers with an understanding of the nature of the exchange relationship involved in developing their personal resources (Vinokur & Price, 2015). It is expected that the same mechanisms used to obtain increased levels of job-search self-efficacy and lower levels of amotivation will contribute to increased levels of self-esteem. Finally, the third hypothesis derives as follows:

Hypothesis 3. Participants in the JOBS programme will report higher levels of self-esteem, relative to their control group counterparts.

In conclusion, there is considerable evidence that has shown that higher levels of job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem have led to positive outcomes for those who are unemployed. Considering the severity of unemployment in South Africa and the lack of psychosocial interventions aimed at helping the unemployed, this study aims to implement the JOBS programme in the South African context.

Method

Research design

To evaluate the impact of the JOBS intervention, a switching replication design was used (Vonk & Thyer, 1999; Thyer, 2012). Participants were divided into two groups. During the first part of the investigation, the first group acted as the experimental group while the second group represented the control group. During the second phase, the intervention was repeated and the roles were switched: The first group became the control group while the second group became the experimental group. The outcomes of the experimental group (the group that received the intervention first) were compared with the outcomes of the control group, to ensure that these differences can be ascribed to the intervention instead of to other factors. The only difference between the two groups was the time of receiving the intervention. By assigning participants randomly to either the experimental or control group and also by applying strict intervention protocols, the researchers aimed to keep other factors consistent. This design was chosen for ethical reasons and to ensure that all participants benefit equally.

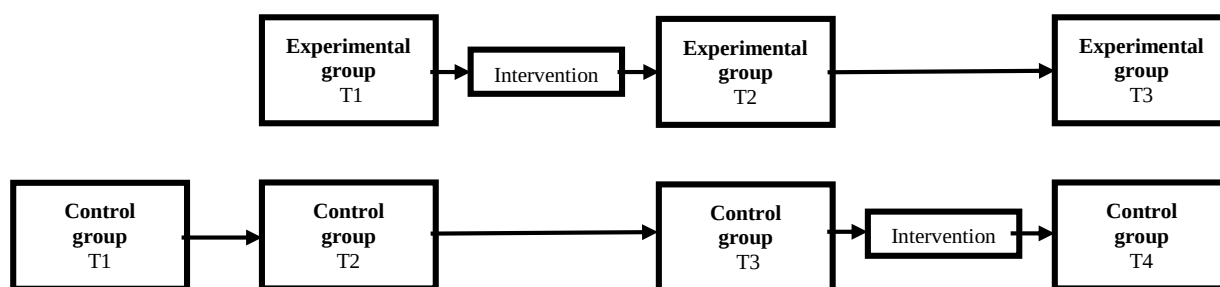


Figure 2. The switching replication design intervention study

Intervention

Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme

To better understand the mechanisms of the JOBS programme and its effects, Paver, De Witte, Rothmann, Van den Broeck, and Blonk (2019b) conducted a literature review of the JOBS programme and variations thereof. The current study is executed based on their suggestions on how to effectively implement and evaluate the JOBS programme. The name of the South African version of the JOBS programme is Qhubekela Phambili, which means “moving forward” in IsiZulu. The Qhubekela Phambili programme consisted of five four-hour sessions in one week with a return day four weeks after the programme. Workshop sessions took place in either the morning or afternoon. Two experimental groups attended the workshop per week. At the same time, two control groups were asked to complete the research questionnaire. The intervention programme was executed over four weeks and included four experimental groups and four control groups.

The participant workbook is available at the following link: <https://goo.gl/nS8y33>. The facilitator protocol is available at the following link: <https://goo.gl/u6kFxs>.

Content

Striking a balance between maintaining fidelity to evidence-based practices and adapting the programme to suit local circumstances can be problematic (Price & Vinokur, 2014). Although some content-related changes were made, none of the changes influenced the theoretical foundation of the programme. Due to slow economic growth and limited job opportunities in the labour market, paid employment is not always a feasible option (Price & Vinokur, 1995). Also, the lack of means to travel from their communities to a job that unemployed people

experience makes it challenging. Therefore, a critical element that was incorporated into the Qhubekela Phambili programme was a self-employment/entrepreneurial component.

Training of facilitators

The first author who led and co-ordinated the project was trained in the JOBS programme in the Netherlands. This was done to ensure that the programme will be delivered at an acceptable standard and to ensure the reliability and validity of the JOBS intervention. Additionally, an international trainer⁴ with vast experience in conducting the JOBS programme was invited to present a train-the-trainer workshop to selected facilitators in South Africa.

Six facilitators were trained in the programme. These candidates were selected on the premise that they have a background in psychology, social work, industrial psychology, or a related field. Facilitators also had to be experienced in working with people in similar conditions and possess good facilitation skills, such as speaking and listening skills, giving feedback, facilitating, and understanding group processes and dynamics, and dealing with conflict constructively (Price & Vinokur, 1995). The train-the-trainer programme was conducted over five eight-hour sessions. Practical exercises were integrated into these sessions so that trainees had the opportunity to practice the relevant skills. The aim of these sessions was to ensure that the facilitators were comfortable with the content, as well as the underlying processes of the programme. It was also an opportunity for the facilitators to get to know their co-facilitator better. Constructive feedback was given to facilitators throughout and at the end of the train-the-trainer sessions to provide adequate preparation for the actual programme. During the Qhubekela Phambili programme, facilitators met daily to share their experiences and to deal with topics and possible issues that may have surfaced during the sessions (Price & Vinokur, 1995).

⁴ Professor Roland Blonk – TNO, Tilburg University

Table 6

An Outline of the Qhubekela Phambili Career-enhancement Programme

Topics	Duration
Session 1: Who am I, and what am I good at?	
Introduction (includes time for questionnaire)	140 minutes
What do I stand for?	50 minutes
What am I good at?	40 minutes
Conclusion	15 minutes
Session 2: Exploring my passions, my values, and my future	
Welcome	15 minutes
What are my passions?	30 minutes
What are my values?	75 minutes
Distinguishing between employment and entrepreneurship	40 minutes
Linking my attributes to my career	35 minutes
Conclusion	15 minutes
Session 3: Exploring opportunities and finding ways to realise them	15 minutes
Welcome	45 minutes
Identifying possibilities applicable to me	50 minutes
My future	90 minutes
Developing my career	15 minutes
Conclusion	
Session 4: What resources do I have?	15 minutes
Welcome	125 minutes
My network plan	30 minutes
Resources in my community	15 minutes
Conclusion	
Session 5: Resources within myself	15 minutes
Welcome	40 minutes
Communication skills and professional conduct	50 minutes
My goals	20 minutes
What is holding me back?	105 minutes
Conclusion (includes time for questionnaire)	15 minutes
Closing ceremony	
Session 6: Return day	35 minutes
Welcome and looking back	60 minutes
My goals/commitments	105 minutes
Conclusion (includes time for questionnaire)	

Participants

Unemployed individuals from townships in two geographical areas in Gauteng, namely Orange Farm and Boipatong, were approached to participate in the study ($n_{exp} = 69$; $n_{contr} = 62$). Orange Farm, an informal settlement, is located approximately 45 kilometres south of Johannesburg. Being one of the least integrated regions of Johannesburg (City of Johannesburg, 2018), this metropolitan township is considered spatially and economically marginalised, resulting in its high levels of unemployment. Boipatong is a township located close to Vanderbijlpark. ArcelorMittal, a large steel company in the area, has been a major source of employment to the residents of Boipatong. However, due to retrenchments caused by instability in the steel industry, many of these residents have lost their jobs (Maloma, 2005).

Several inclusion criteria were used to select participants. Participants had to be unemployed South African citizens, aged between 18 and 55. They had to reside in either Boipatong or Orange Farm. They also had to show an adequate understanding of English. However, the majority of the facilitators were comfortable in several other languages. The characteristics of the participants are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7

Characteristics of the Experimental (N = 69) and Control Groups (N = 62)

Characteristics	Experimental group		Control group	
	Total	%	Total	%
Gender				
Male	27	39%	26	38%
Female	42	61%	32	46%
Age				
Below 20	1	1%	3	4%
20 – 29	36	52%	27	39%
30 – 39	23	33%	19	28%
40 – 49	6	9%	10	14%
50 – 59	2	3%	3	4%
Race				
Black	69	100%	60	97%
White	0	0%	0	0%
Indian	0	0%	0	0%
Coloured	0	0%	2	3%
Education level				
Less than Grade 12	21	30%	25	36%
Grade 12	37	54%	26	38%
National Certificate	10	14%	5	7%
National Diploma / Degree	1	1%	6	9%
Duration of unemployment				
Less than 3 months	9	13%	3	5%
3 – 5 months	5	7%	7	11%
6 – 11 months	5	7%	4	6%
1 – 2 years	8	12%	16	26%
2 – 5 years	27	39%	15	24%
More than 5 years	15	22%	17	27%

Note. Where percentages do not sum to a 100, it is due to missing values

T-tests were computed on the mean differences between the overall condition groups (before excluding those who dropped out); experimental group ($n = 74$) and control group ($n = 79$). A significant difference between the level of amotivation of the two conditions (experimental and

control) and the dropout group ($n = 5$ and $n = 12$ respectively) was found ($F(2) = 4,566$, $p = 0,01$). Those in the condition group scored lower ($M = 2,46$; $SD = 0,75$), compared to those who dropped out ($M = 3,02$; $SD = 0,76$). Those who dropped out of the programme were excluded from further analyses, due to the lack of data at time 2. Consequently, the integrity of randomisation of the experimental and control groups was only partially preserved. Further analyses between the remainder of the participants in the experimental ($n = 69$) and control group ($n = 62$) yielded no significant differences regarding gender, age, level of education, duration of unemployment, or dependent variables (job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem) at baseline. Likewise, no significant differences were found between time 1 (two weeks prior to the programme) and time 2 of the control group.

Measuring instruments

Biographical information. A questionnaire to determine the biographical characteristics of the participants was used. Characteristics such as gender, age, race, level of education, and duration of unemployment were asked in this questionnaire.

Job-search self-efficacy. The job-search self-efficacy measure was developed in earlier investigations of the JOBS programme ($\alpha = 0,93$; Vinokur & Schul, 2002; Vinokur et al., 1991a). It consists of six items. Participants were asked how confident they felt executing tasks related to finding a job (i.e., “How confident do you feel about completing a good job application and CV?”). Items were rated on a five-point frequency scale ranging from not at all confident (1) to a very confident (5). The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for this index was $\alpha = 0,75$ (time 1) and $\alpha = 0,71$ (time 2).

Amotivation. The self-regulation questionnaire job-searching scale (Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, De Witte, & Deci, 2004) was used to measure amotivation, based on the types of motivational regulation types of the self-determination theory ($\alpha = 0,85$; Vansteenkiste, Lens, De Witte, & Feather, 2005). This scale consists of 10 items and intends to measure individuals’ motives not to search for employment (i.e., “I do not look for a job because I am tired of looking for a job”). Items were measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The scale showed acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = 0,83$, time 1; $0,85$, time 2).

Self-esteem. The Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965) was utilised to measure respondents' positive and negative feelings about themselves (i.e., "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself"). This scale consisted of 10 items and was measured on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). After analysing the reliability coefficient of the scales, some problematic items were identified. The loading of item 8 ("I wish I could have more respect for myself") in the self-esteem scale was not significant and was therefore deemed not suitable for inclusion in further analyses. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for this scale was 0,67 (time 1) and 0,71 (time 2).

Intervention indices. Participants' experience and perception of the programme were measured to indicate the intervention's integrity and strength. The measure consisted of six multi-item indices, rated on a five-point scale. The following aspects of the intervention were included: Trainer support was measured with five items and group support with five items. The facilitators and other group participants were rated on their warmth, expertise, and helpfulness (1 = most negative rating; 5 = most positive rating). Both active learning and job-search skills were answered on a frequency scale that varied from 1 = not at all to 5 = a great deal and were measured with five items. Example items are "During the workshop, to what extent do you feel that you could share your experiences?" (active learning) and "During the workshop, to what extent do you feel that the trainers and other group members helped you to identify possible job opportunities?" (job-search skills). An example item of inoculation against setbacks is "Do you anticipate difficulties and setbacks during your job-search?", which was answered from 1 = very few to 5 = very much and measured with three items. Learning experience ranged from 1 (improved to a very small extent) to 5 (improved to a very great extent) and was measured with seven items (i.e. "To what extent do you feel that the workshop has prepared you to conduct interviews?"). The reliability of these scales ranged from 0,70 to 0,85.

Data collection procedures

After ethical clearance had been obtained from the Humanities and Health Research Ethics Committee (HHREC; NWU-HS-2018-0006), the implementation of the programme commenced. Convenience sampling was used to reach participants. Convenience sampling is described as a sampling method where those who are easiest to reach are included in the sample (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2011). As a means of showing appreciation to the participants who have previously participated in the broader research project (Du Toit, De

Witte, Rothmann, Van den Broeck, 2018; Van der Vaart et al., 2018), contact information of participants who agreed to participate in future studies was obtained. From the 867 participants previously involved in a quantitative study (Van der Vaart et al., 2018), only 354 met the inclusion criteria of the current study. An additional 60 people, who were previously involved in the qualitative study, as well as others who assisted with fieldwork or data collection (Du Toit et al., 2018; Van der Vaart et al., 2018) were approached to participate. However, only two of the former field workers participated in the programme. The identified people were contacted (via telephone) by one of the programme facilitators. The facilitator was provided with a protocol that was used during the telephone calls to ensure that similar information was provided to all potential participants. During each call the facilitator explained the purpose of the programme. They also provided the potential participant with basic information such as the dates, time, duration, and location of the programme. Based on the potential participants' adherence to the inclusion criteria and their willingness to participate they were divided into two groups randomly – an experimental and a control group.

Initially, 414 people, selected from previous studies, were invited to participate in the workshop. However, among both groups some participants who had agreed to participate failed to show up. Attrition of participants in social interventions is also unavoidable (Vinokur et al., 1991a). In some cases, the percentage of “no shows” was up to 75% of the group. In these cases, community leaders who work with the unemployed were approached for additional participants. Although the inclusion criteria were communicated to leaders, non-compliant participants were still invited. The requirement the majority did not meet was the completion of Grade 12. It did not seem to have any impact on the process. There were two cases where participants were not able to speak English fluently. Although facilitators could communicate with them in other languages, completing the questionnaires seemed to be a barrier. They were therefore omitted from the study.

Data was collected using self-administered questionnaires on three (four for the control group) occasions. The purpose of the study was explained to participants prior to being invited to participate in the programme. Questionnaires were completed with pen and paper and took approximately 40 minutes. In cases where participants had difficulty understanding the survey questions, the facilitators explained them, without changing the meaning of the questions. A participation number was allocated to ensure anonymity and to identify them in the subsequent data collection rounds. Both groups (experimental and control) were asked to complete a pre-

test survey on the first day of the programme, a post-test survey on the last day of the programme, and another post-post-test survey four weeks post-intervention. The control group had an additional interval two weeks prior to attending the programme.

Furthermore, facilitators were asked to take note of their experiences and the observed behaviours of the participants after each session. The facilitators and the main researcher met daily to discuss their experiences. All notes and observation were used as qualitative information to be referred to in the explanation of the findings.

Statistical analysis

To analyse the data, SPSS version 25.0 (IBM Corp, 2017) was used. Firstly, Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed to establish the internal consistency of the constructs (Clark & Watson, 1995). Secondly, correlation coefficients were used to determine the relationship between biographic and intervention variables. The cut-off value for statistical significance was set at ($p \leq 0.05$). Cut-off values of 0,30 (medium effect), and 0,50 (large effect; Cohen, 1988) were set for practical significance of correlations. To determine the integrity and strength of the intervention mean scores of the programme's indices were examined. Additionally, one-way ANOVAs with post hoc comparisons between groups (experimental, control, and dropout groups) were used to determine the randomisation of the groups at baseline. The extent to which the dependent variables changed from the pre-test to the post-test between the two conditions (experimental and control) were examined, using Repeated Measures ANOVA. One-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to study whether the post-test means, adjusted for pre-test scores, differ between the experimental and control groups. K-means cluster analysis was used to determine whether participants could be clustered according to amotivation scores. One-way ANOVAs were conducted to compare changes in dependent values of the identified amotivation groups (job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem) over three intervals.

Ethical considerations

Unemployment has profound psychological effects on those affected by it. Therefore, the purpose of this study is specifically to help those individuals cope with their situation. Despite their vulnerable circumstances, no harm was anticipated. It was expected that participants

would benefit from participating in the study, as they are provided with valuable resources that may help them in their job-search journey. Much attention and effort were paid to ensure a programme that is as accessible and resourceful as possible for the participants. The programme was presented at a venue at the university. Participants were transported by bus from townships to the university and back. The Flemish Interuniversity Board, the funding agency for the project, paid the costs of the transport. The venue provided for a conducive atmosphere that promotes capacity building. Furthermore, participants received food parcels on each day of the workshop, a gift voucher of ZAR80 and an attendance certificate. An Unemployment Research Advisory Board (URAB) was also appointed as a part of the larger project. The advisory board was approached to get input related to the content of the programme and other practical arrangements. With regard to the content, the URAB members were asked to evaluate the relevance of the existing content and whether changes should be made to better suit the South African and specific community.

Results

Manipulation checks, integrity, and strength of the intervention

The intervention process is aimed at building trust among the facilitators and participants, as well as between the participants. Participants are also granted an opportunity to actively practice the skills they are taught (such as job-search skills and coping skills that teach them to deal with potential setbacks). After the workshop, participants are asked to evaluate the programme based on the extent to which they feel the aspects mentioned above were focused on during the workshop. This evaluation gives an indication of the integrity and strength of the intervention. The means of these measures ($N = 131$) participants ranged from 4,58 ($SD = 0,68$; trainer support), 4,57 ($SD = 0,75$; group support), 4,48 ($SD = 0,59$; active learning), 4,58 ($SD = 0,49$; job-search skills), 3,96 ($SD = 0,65$; inoculation against setbacks), and 4,49 ($SD = 0,55$; learning experience), measured on a five-point scale. These means suggest that the participants perceived the programme as being psychologically and socially positive (Vinokur et al., 1991a).

Correlations

The correlation matrix was generated of the dependent and intervention measures (reported in Table 8). Several relationships are worth mentioning. Firstly, dependent variables (self-esteem, job-search self-efficacy, and amotivation) are positively related (with medium effect) to their follow-up constructs at other intervals. Trainer support showed a significant relationship with group support (with large effect). Active learning seems to be positively correlated to group support, job-search self-efficacy time 1 (T1), job-search skills, learning experience and self-esteem time 3 (T3; all with medium effect). A positive correlation was also found between job-search skills and learning experience (large effect), inoculation against setbacks, self-esteem T3, and job-search self-efficacy T3 (medium effect). Learning experience showed a statistically significant (medium effect) correlation with inoculation against setbacks and job-search self-efficacy T3. Finally, self-esteem T3 and job-search self-efficacy T3 were also positively correlated (medium effect).

Table 8

Correlations Matrix of Dependent and Intervention Measures

Construct	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. SE T1	3,91	0,58	$\alpha=,69$														
2. JSSE T1	3,88	0,77	0,21**	$\alpha=,79$													
3. AMOT T1	2,53	0,77	-0,22**	-0,12	$\alpha=,82$												
4. SE T2	4,06	0,56	0,36**	0,19*	-0,04	$\alpha=,74$											
5. JSSE T2	4,10	0,72	0,10	0,47**	0,05	0,38**	$\alpha=,86$										
6. AMOT T2	2,41	0,80	-0,28**	-0,13	0,44**	-0,38**	-0,07	$\alpha=,85$									
7. TS T2	4,59	0,68	-0,01	-0,16	0,01	0,02	-0,10	-0,05	$\alpha=,78$								
8. GS T2	4,58	0,74	0,10	-0,08	-0,01	0,13	-0,05	-0,14	0,73**	$\alpha=,91$							
9. AL T2	4,48	0,59	0,28**	0,30**	-0,14	0,17	0,06	-0,16	0,27**	0,41**	$\alpha=,74$						
10. JSS T2	4,58	0,49	0,13	0,11	-0,11	0,20*	0,24**	-0,19*	0,09	0,13	0,35**	$\alpha=,77$					
11. INOC T2	4,50	0,65	0,11	0,20*	0,10	0,12	0,12	0,11	0,02	0,09	0,15	0,31**	$\alpha=,66$				
12. LE T2	4,50	0,55	0,20*	0,22*	-0,09	0,15	0,28**	-0,17	0,01	0,05	0,39**	0,66**	0,39**	$\alpha=,79$			
13. SE T3	4,14	0,65	0,46**	0,17	-0,20*	0,48**	0,14	-0,24*	0,16	0,25**	0,36**	0,30**	0,11	0,28**	$\alpha=,68$		
14. JSSE T3	4,19	0,74	0,09	0,41**	-0,10	0,22*	0,41**	-0,10	-0,04	-0,12	0,26**	0,40**	-0,22*	0,35**	0,23*	$\alpha=,85$	
15. AMOT T3	2,40	0,85	-0,26**	-0,10	0,44**	-0,23*	-0,01	0,47**	-0,11	-0,16	-0,17	-0,15	-0,08	-0,13	-0,35**	-0,12	$\alpha=,84$

T1 – Time 1; T2 – Time 2; T3 – Time 3; SE – Self-esteem; JSSE – Job-search self-efficacy; AMOT – Amotivation; TS – Trainer support; GS – Group support; AL – Active learning; GS – Group support; JSS – Job-search skills; INOC – Inoculation against setbacks; LE – Learning experiences.

** = $p < 0,01$ statistically significant; * = $p < 0,05$ statistically significant.

$r < 0,30$ is practically significant (medium effect); $r < 0,50$ is practically significant (large effect).

Repeated Measures ANOVA with measurement moments effects

To examine the interaction between the condition (experimental and control groups) and the interval variables (T1 versus T2 versus T3), Repeated Measures ANOVA was used. The fourth interval of the control group was excluded from analyses as the interaction effects of only the first three intervals could be compared. The means and standard deviations of the job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem measured at the various intervals for both the experimental and control groups are shown in Table 9. The F-values and the corresponding p-values for the main effect of both the experimental and control conditions as well as the main effect of the measurement moment and the interaction between condition groups are reported in Table 10.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations on Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 for the Experimental and Control Conditions

	Experimental group (n = 67)						Control group (n = 61)					
	T1		T2		T3		T1		T2		T3	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
JSSE	3,80	0,81	4,22	0,55	4,12	0,74	3,93	0,69	3,90	0,86	4,26	0,75
Amot	2,53	0,67	2,52	0,75	2,46	0,66	2,38	0,82	2,40	0,85	2,34	1,01
SE	3,88	0,59	4,10	0,48	4,11	0,53	3,91	0,63	3,95	0,64	4,20	0,65

JSSE: Job-search self-efficacy; Amot: Amotivation; SE: Self-esteem

Table 10

Main Effects of the Interventions

	Main effect experimental group	Main effect control group	Interaction conditions * Time
Job-search self- efficacy	$F(1,84)=8,79$ $p=0,00$	$F(1,87)=8,33$ $p=0,00$	$F(1,98)=6,66$ $p=0,00$
Amotivation	$F(1,96)=0,29$ $p=0,75$	$F(2,00)=0,14$ $p=0,87$	$F(2,00)=0,03$ $p=0,97$
Self-esteem	$F(1,92)=7,72$ $p=0,01$	$F(1,99)=4,69$ $p=0,01$	$F(1,98)=2,12$ $p=0,12$

$F(df) = F\text{-ratio}, p = \text{sign}$

Repeated measures ANOVAs revealed that the mean job-search self-efficacy differed statistically significantly between intervals ($F(1,87) = 8,33, p < 0,01$). Post hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction revealed that the intervention elicited a slight change in both amotivation

and self-esteem levels from the pre- to post-test. However, neither were statistically significant ($p = 0,97$; $p = 0,12$, respectively). It can therefore be concluded that the Qhubekela Phambili programme elicits a statistically significant increase in job-search self-efficacy, four weeks post-intervention.

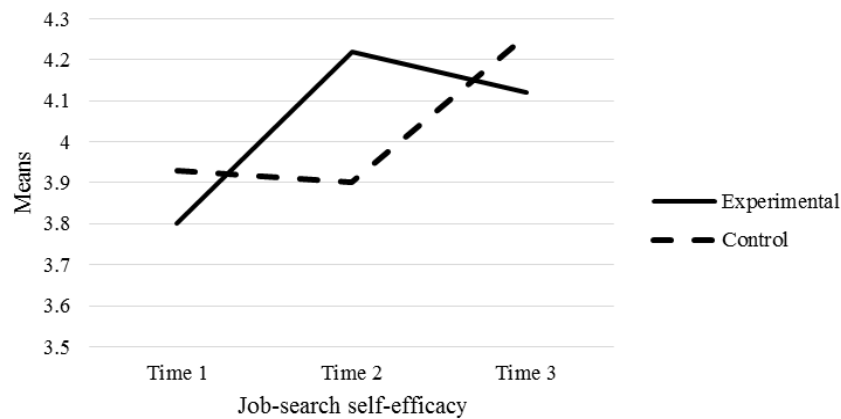


Figure 3. Estimated marginal means of job-search self-efficacy

The first hypothesis was that participants in the Qhubekela Phambili programme will report higher levels of job-search self-efficacy relative to their control group counterparts and that the control condition will show similar results. A significant difference in job-search self-efficacy levels was found when studying the interaction effects ($F(1,87) = 8,33$, $p < 0,01$). Therefore, hypothesis 1 can be confirmed.

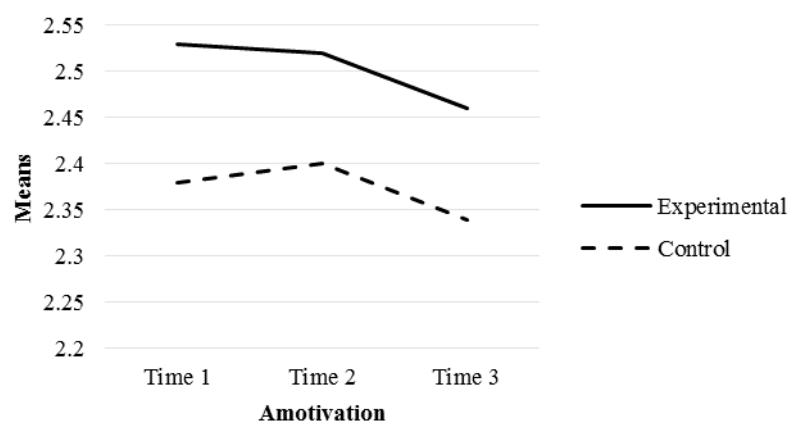


Figure 4. Estimated marginal means of amotivation

The second hypothesis was that participants in the Qhubekela Phambili programme will report lower levels of amotivation relative to their control group counterparts and that the control condition will show similar results. A non-significant difference in amotivation levels was found when studying the interaction effects ($F(2,00) = 0,03, p = 0,97$). As a result, hypothesis 2 cannot be confirmed.

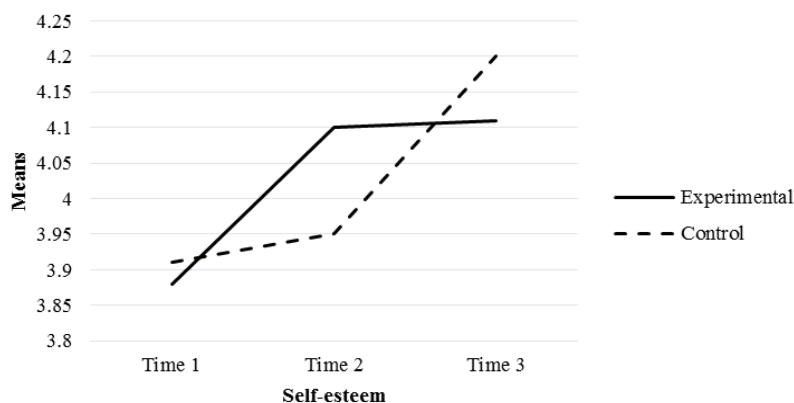


Figure 5. Estimated marginal means of self-esteem

The last hypothesis was that participants in the Qhubekela Phambili programme will report increased self-esteem relative to their control group counterparts and that the control condition will show similar results. Again, a non-significant difference in self-esteem was found when studying the interaction effects ($F(1,98) = 2,12, p = 0,12$). Consequently, hypothesis 3 was not confirmed.

One-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)

A correlation matrix of the three dependent variables, i.e. job search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem) scores at time 1 (T1) showed a statistically significant correlation ($p < 0,01$) for only two of the dependent variables. Therefore, it was decided to use ANCOVA rather than MANCOVA to test the significance of the differences between the pre- and post-tests of the experimental and control groups. The ANCOVA has many advantages, including parsimony and sensitivity to group differences (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). According to Field (2013), there are two assumptions for ANCOVA. Repeated measures ANOVA answers the question of whether the mean change in the outcome from pre- to post-test differed in the experimental and control group. The ANCOVA answers the question of whether the post-test means,

adjusted for pre-test scores, differ between the two groups. In the ANCOVA approach, the focus is on whether post-test differences result from the intervention and are not left-over effects of pre-test differences between the groups. It accounts for variation around the post-test means that comes from the variation in where the participants started at the pre-test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014).

Given that ANCOVA is a linear model, sources of potential bias include outliers, whether data is normally distributed, independence of the covariates and the effects of the intervention, and the homogeneity of treatment effects (Field, 2013). The results showed that there were six outliers on one dependent variable (during the post-test). Furthermore, the Shapiro-Wilk tests were statistically significant ($p < 0,01$) for both the experimental and control group on all three post-test dependent variables. An inspection of the Q-Q plots and histograms of the post-test scores on the three dependent variables showed some deviations of normality. Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution (see Field, 2013).

Results of the ANCOVA showed that the mean JSSE score was statistically significantly higher in the experimental group at Time 2: $F(1, 112) = 17,28$; $p = 0,01$; $\eta = 0,13$. The ANOVA showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the pre-test JSSE scores of the experimental and control groups ($F(1, 131) = 0,77$; $p = 0,38$). The Levene's test of equality of error variances was statistically significant [$F(1, 113) = 4,14$; $p = 0,04$], indicating that the group variances were not equal. Furthermore, the results of the ANCOVA showed that the mean AMOT score was not statistically significantly higher in the experimental group at Time 2: $F(1, 112) = 0,01$; $p = 0,94$. The ANOVA showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the pre-test AMOT scores of the experimental and control groups ($F(1, 131) = 0,56$; $p = 0,45$). The Levene's test of equality of error variances was not statistically significant [$F(1, 113) = 0,00$, $p = 0,96$], indicating that the group variances were equal. Lastly, the results of the ANCOVA showed that the mean SE score was statistically significantly higher in the experimental group at Time 2: $F(1, 112) = 7,65$; $p = 0,01$; $\eta = 0,06$. The ANOVA showed that there were no statistically significant differences between the pre-test SE scores of the experimental and control groups ($F(1, 131) = 0,18$; $p = 0,48$). The Levene's test of equality of error variances was not statistically significant [$F(1, 113) = 3,02$; $p = 0,09$], indicating that the group variances were equal.

One-way ANOVA

Since no significant differences were found on amotivation, K-means cluster analysis was used to determine whether different clusters of amotivation exists and whether the groups experienced the programme differently. Four groups were identified. For the analyses, participants' pre-intervention (T1), post-intervention (T2) and four weeks post-intervention (T3) scores were compared with one-way ANOVAs. Groups varied from low (Group 1) to high (Group 4) levels of amotivation.

Table 11

Mean and Standard Deviations of Job-search Self-efficacy for Identified Clusters of Amotivation on Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3.

	T1		T2		T3	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Group 1	4,27	0,74	4,29	0,87	4,54	0,79
Group 2	4,02	0,84	4,31	0,51	4,36	0,56
Group 3	3,63	0,85	4,07	0,80	4,03	0,67
Group 4	3,84	0,66	4,01	0,67	4,11	0,78

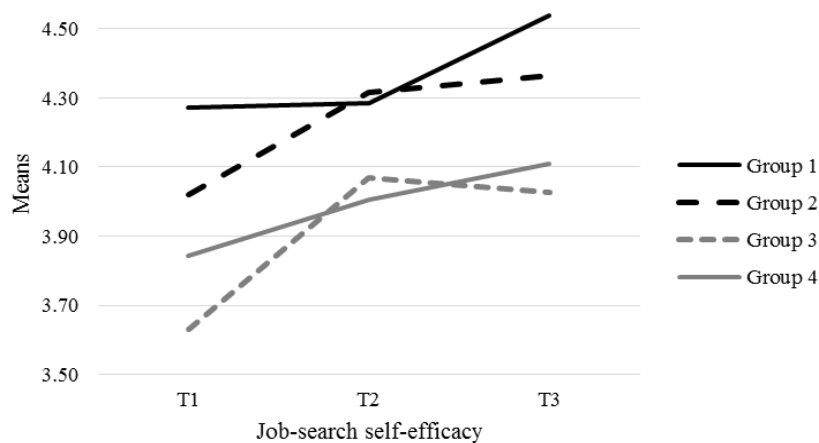


Figure 6. Amotivation cluster mean changes on job-search self-efficacy

A significant difference in the score for job-search self-efficacy between groups at time 1 was found ($F(3,144) = 3,68, p < 0,01$). While non-significant findings were found at time 2 ($F(3,124) = 1,39, p = 0,25$) and time 3 ($F(3,111) = 2,26, p = 0,09$). It is important to note that

while increase in job-search self-efficacy of Group 2 and 3 gradually declined, Group 4 (high amotivation) consistently continued to experience increased job-search self-efficacy after the intervention.

Table 12

Mean and Standard Deviations of Amotivation for Identified Clusters of Amotivation on Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3.

	T1		T2		T3	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Group 1	1,26	0,25	1,80	0,93	1,69	0,62
Group 2	3,71	0,23	2,95	0,76	2,76	1,14
Group 3	3,01	0,20	2,77	0,75	2,82	0,69
Group 4	2,27	0,23	2,30	0,61	2,33	0,73

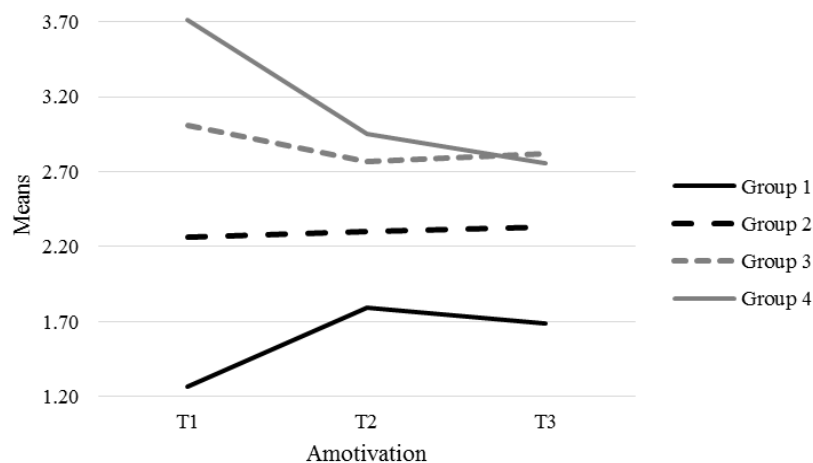


Figure 7. Amotivation cluster mean changes on amotivation

There was a significant difference in the score for amotivation between groups over all three intervals (T1; $F(3,144) = 522,82, p < 0,00$), (T2; $F(3,124) = 5,82, p < 0,00$), (T3; $F(3,111) = 8.47, p < 0,00$). It is important to note the noteworthy decrease in amotivation reported by Group 4 (high amotivation).

Table 13

Mean and Standard Deviations of Self-esteem for Identified Clusters of Amotivation on Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3.

	T1		T2		T3	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Group 1	4,21	0,61	4,08	0,71	4,38	0,57
Group 2	3,90	0,59	4,12	0,54	4,16	0,47
Group 3	3,79	0,62	3,97	0,58	3,95	0,60
Group 4	3,89	0,53	4,07	0,51	4,15	0,72

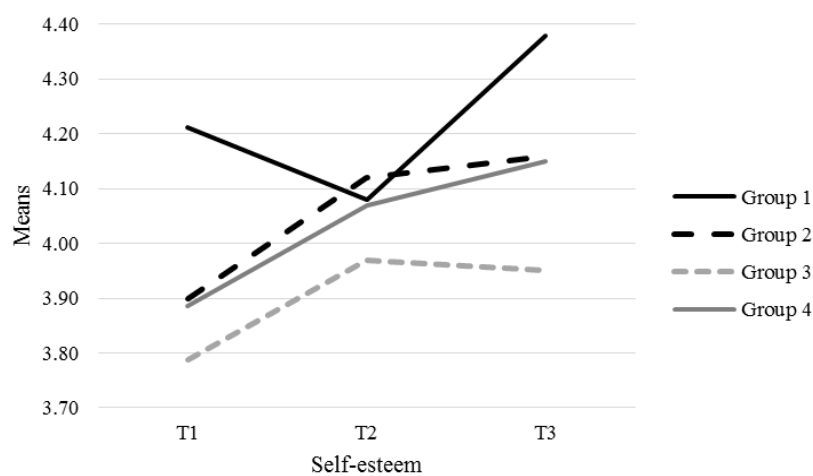


Figure 8. Amotivation cluster mean changes on self-esteem

There was a significant difference in the score for self-esteem between groups at time 1 ($F(3,144) = 2,632, p < 0,05$). Non-significant differences were found at time 2 ($F(3,124) = 0,30, p = 0,82$) and time 3 ($F(3,111) = 1,51, p = 0,22$). Even though Group 1 (low amotivation) reported the highest levels of self-esteem, pre- and post-post-intervention, the overall increase in self-esteem is the highest for those in Group 2 and 4.

Discussion

To date, much research has been conducted on the psychological consequences of being unemployed. Yet, when it comes to practice, employability interventions seldom include crucial psychosocial aspects to assist the unemployed. One programme addressing the gap in literature and practice is the JOBS intervention. This paper intended to apply a South African version of the JOBS programme, called the Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement

programme. Suggestions pertaining to the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme made in Paver et al (2019b), were adhered to.

In order to meaningfully compare the findings of this paper with the findings of previous studies of the JOBS programme, this study included many of the same evaluation measures. The first objective of this study was to ensure that the Qhubekela Phambili programme adhered to the research-based principles of the JOBS programme. To determine the validity and reliability of the programme, two aspects, randomisation of intervention conditions and strength and integrity of the programme, were considered. Randomisation of the experimental and control groups was only partially preserved, while the strength and integrity of the programme was fully preserved.

An in-depth analysis pertaining to the working elements of the JOBS programme revealed that a sense of mastery, comprising job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem, is one of the most predictive elements of positive outcomes (such as re-employment and mental health benefits) in the JOBS programme (Vinokur & Price, 2015; Vinokur & Schul, 1997). Therefore, the second aim of the paper was to establish whether the Qhubekela Phambili intervention impacted participants' levels of a sense of mastery. Firstly, one of the most significant findings to emerge from this study was that the Qhubekela Phambili intervention succeeded in increasing the job-search self-efficacy levels. Experimental group participants scored significantly higher in job-search self-efficacy, compared to their control group counterparts. Yet, after undergoing the intervention, the control group experienced a similar increase. This finding is consistent with previous empirical studies reporting that the JOBS programme has the capacity to enhance participants' job-search self-efficacy. Increases in job-search self-efficacy is a crucial finding, as it has previously been related to sustained job-search efforts, despite repeated disappointments (Choi, Price, & Vinokur, 2003; Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992). Findings also revealed that the differences obtained between pre- and post-test were as a result of the intervention, and because of other pre-test differences between the groups. Hypothesis 1 can therefore be confirmed.

The next empirical objective was to determine if participants experienced lower levels of amotivation after the Qhubekela Phambili workshop. Results revealed that participants indeed reported slightly lower levels of amotivation. However, the finding was not significant. This finding may be somewhat concerning, as the only variable to significantly differ between the

condition and dropout groups was amotivation. Possible explanations for this finding may be found in the literature. It has previously been noted that the negative effects of unemployment on mental health are larger among the long-term unemployed than the short-term unemployed (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). Bearing in mind that 75% (18% longer than a year, 31% between 2 and 5 years, and 26% longer than 5 years) of the current study's sample have been unemployed for longer than 12 months, severe feelings of discouragement, hopelessness, and a lack of personal control may occur. A qualitative study conducted among the unemployed in South Africa testified that due to abundant unsuccessful job-search efforts, the unemployed often develop a passive attitude and a sense of learned helplessness (Du Toit et al., 2018).

Earlier literature found that amotivation is negatively related to job-search efforts, due to the jobseekers' lack of motivation to persist (Vansteenkiste et al., 2004). Considering that feelings of helplessness may be so deeply embedded, perhaps a need exists to foster an intrinsically-inclined motivation among participants. While much attention is given to inoculating participants against possible setbacks, to truly change such behaviour, using the same principles to emphasise the importance of taking ownership of one's reality may deliver promising results.

Further analyses were conducted to determine if different clusters, based on participants' amotivation scores, could be established and whether some of these groups were more susceptible to the programme than others. An expected finding was that participants scoring lower on amotivation would benefit from the Qhubekela Phambili programme. Due to the fact that participants who dropped out of the programme generally scored higher on amotivation, an unanticipated outcome was that the programme would also be as beneficial, or even more beneficial, for participants with higher levels of amotivation. Findings revealed that the programme was indeed successful by continuously increasing the job-search self-efficacy and self-esteem of these participants and considerably decreasing their levels of amotivation. This is an important finding considering the fact that it was previously reported that, in a sample of unemployed individuals, 32% reported to be amotivated (Van der Vaart et al., 2018).

The final aim of the study was to determine if the Qhubekela Phambili programme demonstrated the capability to increase participants' self-esteem. Contrary to the expectation, Repeated Measures ANOVA showed no significant effect between the pre- and post-test of the two conditions, despite the fact that self-esteem is a central component of the programme.

While the study did not reveal significantly increased levels of self-esteem, somewhat higher scores were reported post-intervention. Albeit a non-significant finding, it should be noted that the data indeed suggest a difference in the right direction. The results of the ANCOVA also reported that 6% of the obtained difference can be ascribed to the intervention. As this is an unexpected, perhaps the small sample size may have contributed to the non-significant findings.

Although not an official objective of the study, an important contribution of this study is the introduction of an entrepreneurial component to the JOBS programme. In the current study, 8% of participants indicated that they have started their own initiative/business within four weeks of attending the programme. Although the number is less than anticipated, it remains a valuable outcome of the programme, as such initiatives may not only result in participants uplifting themselves, but it may also cause a snowball effect, impacting their communities.

Some qualitative findings

The study offers some important insights that were not explored through quantitative methods, but rather from field notes made by facilitators and researchers.

Initially, the programme was aimed at jobseekers aged between 18 and 35, with an education of at least Grade 12. It seems that the participants were so adamant to participate in the programme, many jobseekers who were older (31% of participants) and less educated (36% of participants) also arrived on the first day of the programme. Due to their desperation and willingness to participate, they were also included in the study. An important finding was that, on the return day, participants were asked to commit to at least one action that will enhance their chances of employment. Those who did not have Grade 12, committed to finish school. Consequently, it shows that the programme can also be useful to those who dropped out of school.

With regard to group sizes and group dynamics, some observations are worth mentioning. Smaller groups participated more actively, and social support was more prominent than in larger groups. As a result, it was easier for facilitators to explore and develop realistic career goals. Facilitators also reported that the majority of participants in smaller groups were more inclined to participate in inoculation exercises, which perhaps prepared them better for possible setbacks, although no statistical differences were found. In larger groups, the general group

processes and dynamics, and active participation were less evident. Further analyses from quantitative data support this finding, as participant engagement was higher for those in smaller groups. This finding is also evident in the literature. It has previously been found that larger groups had more negative experiences than smaller groups (Vuori, Price, Mutanen, & Malmberg-Heimonen, 2005).

One group in particular consisted mainly of older people. Some notable differences, compared to other groups, were reported. Older participants seemed to have more difficulty grasping activities and engaging in general. In exercises where participants were asked to provide possible barriers and solutions to enter the labour market, participation was exceptionally limited. Social support among participants was also considerably less than was experienced in other groups. As a result, much of the underlying principles, such as creating a safe environment, active learning, and inoculation against setbacks were considerably more difficult to achieve. Although one of the inclusion criteria of the Qhubekela Phambili programme was an adequate understanding of English, it may be that these participants, due to their age, were not as comfortable engaging and expressing themselves. Yet, surprisingly, no significant differences were found when analysing the data.

Additionally, participants in the control groups were recruited and asked to complete a survey two weeks prior to the intervention. On the day of the programme, in some groups, up to 90% of the recruited participants failed to show up. Similar to previously suggested recruitment methods (Paver et al., 2019b; Vinokur et al., 1995), it is strongly advised that more participants are recruited to ensure a group of at least 12 participants.

Finally, facilitators were changed during one of the workshops. The initial facilitators were proficient in languages other than English. Consequently, the programme was presented in these other languages. When the facilitators changed, the new facilitator could speak only English, resulting in the workshop having to be presented in English. Feedback obtained from participants and the observations of facilitators were that participants engaged significantly less for two reasons: Participants felt less comfortable speaking English and shared that the new trainer felt like an intruder. Although already a requirement of the JOBS programme, it is strongly suggested that facilitators not be changed throughout the process, as the violation of the principles greatly impacts group processes and leads to reduced effectiveness.

Conclusion

Unemployment is considered one of the South African government's top priorities (Ramaphosa, 2019). Although unemployment is a much-researched and timely topic, addressing the matter from a psychosocial perspective is often neglected. Considering the severe repercussions of unemployment, an urgent need exists to intervene on a psychological level. This is the first study to undertake a longitudinal analysis of the JOBS programme within the South African context. The primary purpose of this paper was to implement the JOBS programme in two low-income communities in South Africa.

The present study provided evidence to support the effectiveness of the JOBS programme in a vast variety of contexts. Overall, the Qhubekela Phambili programme provided evidence to demonstrate the programmes' ability to enhance the job-search self-efficacy and, to a lesser extent, the self-esteem of participants. An overall sense of mastery can thus also not be confirmed. Contrary to expectations, the programme did not succeed in decreasing the levels of amotivation experienced by participants, which may reveal another valuable finding. Since the amotivated believe that their actions will not yield desired outcomes (Vansteenkiste, et al., 2004), perhaps emphasis should be placed helping the unemployed overcome such perceptions. Fostering beliefs of personal control may contribute greatly to coping with and overcoming unemployment. Finally, this paper demonstrates the benefits associated with a psychosocial approach in addressing unemployment.

Limitations and recommendations

Although valuable conclusions can be derived from this study, several limitations need to be acknowledged. The first potential limitation of the study lies in the common criticism against the use of self-report measures. While self-report measures are considered the most appropriate for assessing perceived behavioural constructs, efforts to study such constructs more objectively may yield important findings.

It was not possible to investigate the measurement invariance of the measures of the three dependent variables in this study. Cheung, Van de Vijver, and Leong (2011) pointed out that measures of personality functioning which were developed in one context might be biased or

lack equivalence in other contexts. It was clear that the measure of self-esteem used in this study was problematic, at least for two items. The sample size was too small to assess invariance of the measures for use in South Africa. Future research could focus on the configural, metric and scalar invariance of these measures in the South African context.

In social interventions non-participation is a common reality (Vinokur et al., 1991a). In previous studies pertaining to the JOBS programme to preserve the integrity of a randomised experimental design, dropout participants were kept in the experimental group – it is believed to allow for stronger conclusions. Yet, it is reported that such a design yields conservative estimates of the achieved effects (Caplan et al., 1989). Due to the fact that follow-up data from dropout participants in the current study was not available, the integrity of randomisation was not fully preserved.

Another potential weakness in this investigation may be the number of no-show (54%) and dropout (14%) participants. As previously-mentioned, those who participated in the first round of surveys and then did not return, reported significantly higher levels of amotivation, compared to participants in the experimental conditions. Though previous research has shown that the people who need the intervention the most were indeed the ones who participated (Price et al., 1992), this is perhaps not the case in the current study. It begs the question of what the programme could have achieved if targeted at this possibly more vulnerable group. Therefore, a need exists to explore improved recruitment strategies in future endeavours. Likewise, it was noted that an effective recruitment method involved community leaders. However, again the possibility exists that those who may not be actively involved in the community and perhaps need the intervention more, may be excluded from being the study.

At the four-week follow-up sessions 25% of participants reported to have obtained some form of employment, for example, started their own business initiative (8%); undertook an internship, learnership, or any part-time job (6%); or found a full-time job (11%). Albeit a remarkable finding, due to the fact that the control group had undergone the training before the experimental group attended the follow-up session, the absence of comparable data from the control group at the follow-up interval did not allow for a conclusive inference.

According to Price, Van Ryn, and Vinokur (1992), participants with a higher risk of depression were more likely to benefit from the intervention. Consequently, a prospective screening

mechanism was used to identify potential participants. Considering the fact that 69% of the unemployed have been unemployed for longer than a year (Stats SA, 2018) and that approximately 70% have reported to experience unemployment as feeling desperate or discouraged (Van der Vaart et al., 2019), for ethical reasons it was difficult to discriminate on grounds of psychological aspects. Therefore, lastly, but perhaps most noteworthy, the limitation is that mental health and depressive symptoms were not studied in the current paper and could be considered in future research.

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CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

The conclusions presented in this chapter stem from the general and specific objectives of this thesis. The limitations of this research are discussed, followed by recommendations for future research and practice, as well as the contributions made to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

5.1 Conclusions

Given the considerable strain that changing economic conditions have put on labour markets over the last few decades, interventions to deal with unemployment have become an urgent priority in South Africa. The purpose of this study was: a) to investigate what interventions currently exist to support the unemployed in South Africa and to determine possible gaps in intervening; b) to identify and adapt a programme aimed at addressing the gap in psychosocial interventions, and c) to implement the programme and to assess its effectiveness.

The first objective of this thesis was to compile an overview of existing vocational programmes in two low-income communities in South Africa. To reach this objective, the role players were identified as the government, civil society organisations (CSOs), and the private sector. Next, unemployment programmes were categorised into three broad categories, namely, education and expertise development, entrepreneurship and enterprise development, and employment services.

While much attention was given to the plight of the unemployed, findings revealed that role players' efforts often happen in isolation or unaware of some of their own endeavours as well as those of other role players. Even more concerning is the fact that, considering the purpose of these efforts, the supposed beneficiaries of these programmes are also left uninformed and remain vulnerable and unassisted. In the majority of cases, it is not the lack of effort, but rather the inability to successfully apply, organise, and integrate efforts.

With regard to the content of the programmes, it is evident that numerous programmes focus on providing skills development and training opportunities. A significant drawback of such programmes is the shortage of opportunities to gain workplace experience. Although the government mainly drives the idea of vocational training programmes, it is government policies that hinder role players, such as the private sector, from becoming more involved. Private-sector organisations can contribute significantly toward providing work experience. Despite benefits that can be gained from corporate social responsibility involvement and government tax exemption incentives, legislation may add to the private sector's limited involvement.

Other than the skills developed and training opportunities, workplace experience is accompanied by time structure, social contact, collective purpose, status, and activity, described by Jahoda as unintended by-products of employment (collectively known as latent functions; Jahoda, 1982). These latent functions are considered to be just as important as financial compensation (referred to as manifest functions; Jahoda, 1982). For that reason, CSOs are underutilised, as is the private sector. Opportunities to work, whether it is voluntary or not, provide people with skills development, work experience, and satisfaction of latent functions (with the exception of the manifest functions in the case of voluntary work). The snowball effect of projects aimed at providing the unemployed with workplace exposure may result in potential community and personal upliftment, possible financial gain, and grooming people for the labour market. Therefore, when private-sector organisations and CSOs are less involved, potential employees are deprived of such opportunities.

Empirical findings reveal that a third of the included programmes focus on entrepreneurship and business development. A significant amount of money is allocated for entrepreneurship development, business skills training, mentorship, and funding opportunities. However, many of these initiatives are organised from and located in larger metropolitan cities (e.g. the City of Johannesburg). Given the fact that many of those who would be interested in such opportunities come from low-income communities, are segregated from economic activity and business hubs, such logistic restrictions limit not only participation but also involvement in these programmes. While considerable attention is paid to develop entrepreneurs and small businesses, people from low-income communities – those who are still willing and motivated try to make a difference – are left even more discouraged due to unpropitious planning, ineffective systems and delays in processes.

Other content-related findings revealed that many programmes focus on preparing the unemployed for the workplace, assisting with developing job-search and other soft skills. Though job-search skills may certainly help jobseekers to obtain employment, the taught job-search skills often focus on quantity and not quality (Van Hooft, Wanberg, & Van Hoyer, 2013). It is suggested that job-search endeavours should be seen as a self-regulated process, focused on the quality of the product instead of the intensity and efforts (Van Hooft et al., 2013). Also, these programmes seldom, if at all, have a psychological component, helping the unemployed cope with the harsh circumstances that accompany being unemployed.

Finally, determining which vocational programmes exist may assist in identifying the most prominent needs of the South African labour market. Once possible gaps have been recognised, solutions can be developed accordingly (Cunningham, Sanchez-Puerta, & Wuermli, 2010). Two critical matters derived from the first study. First, the overview that dealt with existing employment interventions provided in this study may promote concerted action. This summary may empower stakeholders and policymakers to make informed decisions regarding further initiatives and may reform misaligned strategies. Such collaborations and integrated approaches between role players may yield important positive outcomes. Second, a much-neglected approach when dealing with jobseekers is intervening from a psychosocial perspective.

Based on the most prominent gaps as identified by the first study, it is evident that a lack of validated psychosocial interventions exists. The JOBS intervention, a job-search programme, driven from a psychological perspective, was identified as an intervention that may help the unemployed deal with the psychological consequences of being unemployed. The JOBS programme was designed to provide participants with social support and a learning environment, with the aim of enhancing their self-efficacy, preparing them against the common setbacks, accompanied with the job-seeking process, and ultimately to increase their employability. Objectives are achieved through facilitators applying to the underlying principles of the programme. These principles include stimulating participants to create their own solutions (active learning); assisting participants with identifying possible challenges they could be faced with, coming up with solutions, and having them commit to action (inoculation against setbacks); showing empathy and enhancing supportive behaviour among participants (social support); giving specific positive feedback (guiding behaviour); and reducing the social distance by displaying moderate self-disclosure (referent power). Therefore, the next objective

was to study aspects of the implementation and evaluation of the JOBS programme with the aim of applying it in the South African context.

Aspects regarding the implementation of the JOBS programme that were considered comprised of context-, participant-, and programme-related matters. When studying the various contexts, the most prominent contextual difference was the particularly discouraged and vulnerable unemployed population South Africa is confronted with (Du Toit, De Witte, Rothmann, & Van den Broeck, 2018; Van der Vaart, De Witte, Van den Broeck, & Rothmann, 2018).

The literature revealed that younger, lower-educated, and long-term unemployed persons are more susceptible to the programme. Therefore, in the theoretical overview, it was suggested to include participants between the ages of 15 and to 35, with a Grade 12, who have been unemployed for longer than a year. Participation was further limited to English-speaking participants. Screening participants to determine high-risk individuals was decided against, as it may have led to the exclusion of many vulnerable participants. Other participant-related suggestions were to recruit participants through newspapers, radio advertisements, government agencies, and youth and community leaders. From the previous programme, it was also evident that enforced participation was less effective in achieving the intended programme outcomes, and therefore, voluntary participation was suggested. Because of the number of dropout participants that were seen previously, recommendations were to recruit more people than were anticipated to turn up.

One of the biggest programme-related changes made was the introduction of an entrepreneurial component to the content. This addition aimed to encourage self-employment since job opportunities in the specific communities are limited and the physical distance between the unemployed and the labour market is also a factor. However, the majority of other programme components remained unchanged. As it was found that incentives significantly increased participation, similar incentives were suggested. Facilitators comprised of male-female pairs, working within the social fields of study. In line with the previous versions of the JOBS programme, it was suggested that the programme should be delivered over five half-day sessions, with the addition of a follow-up day, as in the Netherlands programme (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011). Further recommendations were to use groups consisting of between 12 and 20 participants and use venues that are easily accessible to participants. A consistent finding shown to impact the success of the programme was the involvement of the

government and other role players. Engagement with key stakeholders is strongly emphasised to achieve sustainable results (Price & Vinokur, 2014).

In order to deliver a valid and reliable intervention, the developers of the JOBS programme have provided standard guidelines to evaluate it. Although a suggested research methodology was not explicitly prescribed, methods used in the programmes were generally similar. For example, the majority of the studies utilised randomised field designs and collected data using self-reported questionnaires. Intervals were pre-, post-, and post-post-intervention, with some studies with another interval at 12 and 24 months post-intervention (Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2011; Malmberg-Heimonen & Vuori, 2005; Vuori, Price, Mutanen, & Malmberg-Heimonen 2005).

With regard to evaluating the process, the JOBS programmes consistently reported on certain measures. These measures include the randomisation of participation and participants' self-report feedback (referred to as integrity manipulation checks; Caplan et al., 1989). While it is possible to report positively on the validity and reliability of the programme according to the measures mentioned above, it is still possible not to achieve the intended outcomes. This may be because the JOBS programme provides the opportunity to make alterations (at own discretion), according to requirements of various settings – ultimately making violations of the protocol possible. Consequently, the programme may be less successful in achieving its intended outcomes (see Shirom, Vinokur, & Price, 2008). To obtain the intended outcomes of the JOBS programme, it has been repeatedly emphasised and strongly recommended by the developers to adhere to the protocol (Caplan, Vinokur, Price, & Van Ryn, 1989; Vinokur, Price, Caplan, Van Ryn, & Curran, 1995).

The last empirical objective was to determine whether the JOBS programme will deliver results, similar to previous studies, in the South African context. *Qhubekela Phambili*, which means 'moving forward' in IsiZulu, is the name of the South African version of the JOBS programme. The first aim of the Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme was to ensure that a valid and reliable programme was delivered. To accomplish these aims, the adaptations made to the programme to suit the South African context, were made under the guidance of an experienced JOBS facilitator⁵. Also, while much attention was given to

⁵ A heartfelt thank you to Professor Roland Blonk for his guidance and support throughout the process.

developing suggestions regarding the implementation and evaluation processes in the second study, some aspects were deviated from in the third study. However, to ensure valid and reliable results, programme guidelines and recommendations were adhered to as far as possible.

During the implementation of the Qhubekela Phambili programme, the community leaders involved who assisted with recruitment did not limit participation to the suggested inclusion criteria (youth, Grade 12, long-term unemployed), due to participants' desperation to participate. Therefore, at the time of the study, it was decided not to limit participation based on demographic differences. However, the decision not to screen for high-risk participants remained. Programme-related suggestions, such as how it is to be delivered, training of facilitators, use of incentives, duration of the programme, suggested venues, and group sizes, were implemented according to the JOBS protocol. The only major exception was the inclusion of the entrepreneurship component. Furthermore, evaluation guidelines were followed as participants were randomly selected to prevent any bias, and they were finally asked to evaluate the programme based on their experiences. Results revealed that participants experienced the programme and facilitators positively. These evaluative measures are standard practice reported on in the JOBS programme (Vinokur et al., 1995). Adherence to the prescribed protocol is believed to enhance the validity and reliability of the programme. Therefore, the first aim was achieved.

The next aim of the Qhubekela Phambili programme was to determine whether the programme will be effective in changing participants' job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem. To accomplish these aims, the Qhubekela Phambili career-enhancement programme was implemented among a sample of unemployed persons. Similar to former research (Vinokur, Schul, Vuori, & Price, 2000), it was found that the programme succeeded in increasing participants' job-search self-efficacy. Likewise, it was found that when participants feel more capable of seeking employment, their self-esteem will increase. To explain these occurrences, the Conservation of Resources (COR) theory could be considered. The COR theory suggests that people are constantly striving to obtain new personal resources, while retaining and protecting their existing resources (Hobfoll, 1989). Therefore, in order for individuals to expand and accumulate new resources, it is necessary to capitalise on their existing resources (Hobfoll, 2002).

On the contrary, it was anticipated that the programme will lower participants' levels of amotivation. Yet, contrary to expectation, no difference was found when analysing the group as a whole. However, further investigation revealed that those individuals scoring high on amotivation were the ones who benefitted the most in terms of job-search self-efficacy, self-esteem, and amotivation. This finding is significant, as it was also found that participants from the condition groups (experimental and control groups) and those who dropped out (scoring high on amotivation), differed only in terms of their levels of amotivation.

Finally, one of the context- and content-specific aspects of the South African version of the JOBS programme was the introduction of an entrepreneurship component. It was expected that such skills will promote proactive, self-regulated behaviour. To determine whether the change made a positive contribution to the programme, it is worth mentioning that, at the four-week follow-up, 8% of participants indicated that they had begun some initiative. Further refining is proposed.

In conclusion, based on the findings of the first study, it was found that interventions aimed at assisting the unemployed to deal with the psychological consequences of being unemployed are particularly limited in South Africa. The JOBS programme was identified as a programme with the potential of addressing this gap. After the implementation and evaluation aspects of the JOBS programme aspects were studied, and the recommendations were used to implement a South African version of the JOBS programme. Results revealed that the programme is capable of increasing participants' job-search self-efficacy and self-esteem, however, not their levels of amotivation.

5.2 Limitations

To the best of our knowledge, an intervention such as the Qhubekela Phambili programme is the first of its kind to be implemented in the South African context. However, this study is not without limitations.

This is the first study focussed specifically on employment programmes supported and organised by the government, CSOs, and the private sector. The first limitation was the exclusion of other role players, such as economic development agencies, banks, and trade

unions. In order to make the task at hand more manageable, a literature review, based on international as well as South African literature, was conducted to determine the most prominent role players involved in initiating and contributing to employment programmes. Throughout the review, the author remained open to the idea that other role players may still be identified. Consequently, public higher education institutions and international development organisations were also included, but categorised as government and CSO programmes, respectively. While it may be that the excluded role players contribute to unemployment, their contributions may be less tangible and have a less direct impact on the unemployed, as it was found that their involvement (providing development funds) mostly may take place at a higher level.

Furthermore, documents and participants considered in the overview were included based on availability and convenience. Relevant information was not left out deliberately, but rather as a result of information being inaccessible. Consequently, some important information was unintentionally excluded. Since it is often accepted that a higher response rate leads to more accurate findings (Rea & Parker, 1997), the average response rate of 30% (counting all stakeholders, and different approaches used) may be considered a limitation. Possible explanations for the low response rate may be that the programmes no longer exist, but that the information regarding the programme/service is still available; or that the programmes still exist, but as a supposed client-oriented programme/service, the failure to respond to inquiries, make the programme/service less effective in reaching the intended population and purpose. As a result of the low response rate, generalisability of the results may be less possible. Despite the low response rate, a systematic scientifically sound approach was followed throughout the data collection to ensure that results are as reliable and valid as possible. Given the fact that abundant resources were available to conduct this research study, and the best possible effort was made to provide a comprehensive list of programmes and services available in the specific regions, the list is still only an overview that may have unintentionally omitted essential programmes. Nevertheless, collecting the data was a challenging task, as getting hold of the stakeholders and intended information was a significant barrier during the process. Taking into account the limited resources the unemployed have at their disposal, consideration should be given to how this information can be made easily accessible to them.

Another limitation of the study is that it included employment programmes that were restricted to specific regions. These two involved communities were regarded as ideal in which to

conduct the broader research project. Both communities are located in an urban area with many vulnerable people challenged by poverty and unemployment and who are segregated from economic hubs. With the aim of applying the intended intervention, it was necessary to determine the status quo of existing initiatives in these specific communities. As a result, the findings of the first study cannot be generalised to other areas and should be interpreted with caution. Furthermore, ethical clearance to release the collected data was not obtained. Such information may be valuable to distribute to jobseekers.

Several limitations regarding the systematic literature review of the JOBS programme are worth mentioning. The JOBS programme and its derivatives have been implemented in many countries such as the US, Finland, China, Ireland, Netherlands, and Israel. Consequently, some training manuals and articles were available in languages other than English and were omitted (Mäkitalo, Tervahartiala, & Saarinen, 1997). Additionally, some publications (Fang & Ling, 2001; Price, 2001) mentioned on the dissemination page of the JOBS programme (see Michigan Prevention Research Center (MPRC), 2013) were unavailable, even after many attempts to get hold of it. Furthermore, it has also been mentioned by Price and Vinokur (2014) that the JOBS programme has been implemented in Sweden and South Korea, but no further information or reasons for the discontinuation could be found. As existing JOBS literature reports mainly on large-scale, successfully implemented programmes, perhaps the Swedish and South Korean programmes were less effective. Therefore, valuable lessons may have been learned regarding potential pitfalls to be wary of.

Limitations regarding the implementation of the Qhubekela Phambili intervention include the use of a convenience sampling method to reach the programme participants. As a result, the participants were limited to only two geographical locations. Future research could consider participants from multiple locations. Another limitation was the use of self-report questionnaires. The first concern regarding self-report questionnaires is the chance of participants providing socially desirable answers, especially when measuring easily influenced behavioural factors. Second, while much attention was given to ensure that participants had a good command of English and understood the questions, a common criticism against self-report measures is how the variation in participants' understanding and interpretation of the questions affect their response. Lastly, participants may lack the introspective ability to provide accurate responses to questions posed when measuring their own behaviour. Although, the

means of addressing this problem are restricted (Salkind, 2009), more objective or alternative measures validated for the South African context, could be considered.

Furthermore, measurement invariance of the three dependent variables was not investigated. It has previously been found that measures developed for a specific context may be biased or lack equivalence in other contexts (Cheung, Van de Vijver, & Leong, 2011). As the sample size of the current study was too small to assess invariance of the measures, results should be interpreted with caution. A suggestion for future research would be to determine the configural, metric and scalar invariance of the involved measures within the South African context.

Previous studies on the JOBS programmes screened participants in order to identify high-risk respondents, based on their combined scores on depressive symptoms, financial strain, and low assertiveness at the pre-test. These variables are prominent risk factors for poor mental health and continued unemployment. However, due to a large number of discouraged jobseekers in South Africa, it was decided not to screen participants before participating in the programme (Paver, De Witte, Rothmann, Van den Broeck, & Blonk, 2019).

One neglected aspect, strongly emphasised by the JOBS programme founders, is the involvement of government and other role players to make further continuation and dissemination possible. This may be a limitation of the current study, and it is recommended that it be considered in future research endeavours. Despite the limitations mentioned above, the results support the objectives of the research and hold valuable implications for practice and future studies.

5.3 Recommendations

Recommendations for issues identified in the current study

Notwithstanding the efforts of the government to drive current initiatives to address unemployment in South Africa, a lack of direction from higher spheres of government has resulted in provincial and mainly local government being unsure of what functions to prioritise (Rogerson, 2009). Suggestions to intervene in higher policy levels may lead to better regulation

of the co-ordination of existing efforts – guiding and encouraging the involvement of other role players in addressing unemployment.

Furthermore, there is no doubt that many programmes and services aimed at the unemployed are available. However, proper documentation and the distribution of a comprehensive inventory, containing information of these initiatives may be a valuable resource to the beneficiaries (and benefactors). A perhaps rudimentary suggestion may be to make an information leaflet (inventory) available at larger-scale programmes, community centres, and churches. Another idea may be to develop an application or website aimed at channelling the specific needs of the jobseekers toward a particular service provider. Not only will beneficiaries gain from such a resource (application or website), but it may also be a valuable source for benefactors.

Constructs studied in the Qhubekela Phambili programme were limited to job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem. It would be interesting also to investigate other predictive elements of positive outcomes, as well as other measurable outcomes (such as re-employment and mental health benefits) in future studies. Participants were asked during the follow-up session to report on their job-search/enhancement activities⁶ over the last four weeks. Even though positive outcomes were reported, because the follow-up measures for the experimental group were gathered before the control group had received the intervention, no comparable results from the control group were available. While we do not know whether the employment-related outcomes can be attributed to the intervention, it was found that the differences in job-search self-efficacy and self-esteem was a result of the programme. We therefore, presume that results may partially be an outcome of the intervention. A suggestion will be to ensure that the experimental group complete the entire intervention, before taking in the control group for the programme.

From the total number of participants ($n = 151$), 14% dropped out throughout the programme. A remarkable finding, and perhaps an aspect that deserves attention, is the fact that the only difference between condition and dropout participants was their higher score on amotivation. It is plausible that unemployed persons who are more engaged and committed to finding

⁶ Networked with people; attended training opportunities; applied for a job; gone for an interview; started a small business; written a business proposal; found employment.

employment may be more willing to participate as opposed to those who are not. This may, as a result, create a false representation of the overall job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem levels of the participants. It was found that those scoring higher on amotivation indeed benefitted more from the programme. Consequently, recommendations for future research include exploring different recruitment strategies, to target such individuals – bringing about another challenge particularly. The current study recruited participants through community leaders; however, it may be that the amotivated may be less inclined to be actively involved in the community, making their accessibility somewhat more difficult.

Prior to the Qhubekela Phambili programme it was decided not to screen participants to determine high-risk possibilities, as many unemployed may be severely discouraged. Different typologies of unemployed have previously been identified and found that almost 70% of the unemployed were classified as being either desperate or discouraged (Van der Vaart et al., 2018). In hindsight, such a measure (screening for high-risk participants) may have not only indicated the number of high-risk (vulnerable) participants the sample was comprised, but also if the programme assisted in changing these participants' experience of being unemployed. More research is required to determine the effectiveness of the programme to help those identified as high-risk participants.

Finally, as previous studies done on the JOBS programme conducted cost-analyses, future research could consider determining the utility of the programme through cost-benefit analyses.

Recommendations for future research

Previous research has shown that results achieved by the JOBS programmes and its variations were still evident two years post-intervention. The first recommendation for future research is, therefore, to conduct follow-up studies to determine if the sustainable outcomes have been achieved. If it is found that results were indeed less evident after a 12-month follow-up, endeavours to alter the programme to achieve such outcomes could be considered.

Furthermore, this research may serve as a basis for future studies. The JOBS programme holds the potential to be applied in a variety of settings. One suggestion is to further build on the findings of this study by working closely with the government and the private sector. This could be done by integrating skills development and training opportunities (e.g. Services Sector

Education and Training Authority; SETAs) with a motivational component, as provided in the JOBS programme. Furthermore, it was initially decided only to include participants with an education of Grade 12 and higher, as illiteracy could have been a challenge. Yet, it was found that participants who were literate, but had not passed Grade 12, benefitted equally from the programme. Another suggestion is therefore to target school dropouts as a means of encouraging them to complete school. Similarly, considering the high levels of illiteracy in South Africa, exploring avenues to expand the programme also to accommodate the less educated may yield useful results.

Finally, much attention is generally paid to reducing the distance between the unemployed and the labour market from a supply-side perspective (e.g. making the unemployed more employable). Another important topic for further research is to consider closing the distance by bringing the labour market closer to the people. A key policy priority should therefore be for the private sector, specifically human resource practitioners, to take up the responsibility to become more involved in solving the plight of unemployment. If the debate is to be moved forward, a better understanding of what such a role should entail, needs to be developed. Examples of such involvement may include the industry being more open to providing opportunities for entry-level employees. Sustained interaction between industry, academic research, and policymakers is a much-neglected aspect that deserves much more attention.

5.4 Contributions

Scientific contributions

The current study aims to make theoretical contributions to the previous empirical literature. Specifically, this study contributes to scientific knowledge with regard to programmes and services offered to the unemployed in South Africa. Although some inventories of large-scale programmes and services exist, information on smaller-scale relevant information for those segregated from metropolitan cities seem to be lacking. This study intends to address this gap by investigating programmes specifically relevant to the unemployed in two low-income communities. The investigation highlights the need for proper documentation of employment programmes, collaboration between role players, distribution of the information, and the monitoring and evaluation of existing employment programmes.

In the overview of employment interventions, it was found that a lack of psychosocial interventions exists. The current study addresses the issue by thoroughly studying the JOBS programme and disseminated variations as a means of adapting the programme to the South African context. Knowledge obtained from investigating the JOBS programme resulted in the ability to deliver a programme that is scientifically sound and also offers a framework and thorough description that can be used to implement the programme in similar settings.

The present study confirms previous findings of the JOBS programme and contributes additional evidence that suggests that despite economic differences, the JOBS programme remains successful in helping individuals not only to cope with being unemployed, but also to take ownership of their vulnerable situation as well acting to improve it. The programme was also effective in achieving two of its intended outcomes: increasing job-search self-efficacy and boosting self-esteem. More evidence of the well-thought-through content processes of the programme can be seen in secondary outcomes, such as participants using their networks to find job opportunities, obtaining job-search skills, preparing for job interviews, finding temporary or permanent employment, and starting their own initiatives, that were evident at the four-week follow-up. Likewise, value was obtained from findings indicating a focal point for future studies – focusing on individuals scoring high in amotivation, as they were the ones dropping out, but also, when retained, were the ones who benefitted the most from the programme.

Practical contributions

While employment interventions may not be limited, research on the topic, and evidence-based employment interventions are. Because it is common to intervene purely by offering programmes aimed solely at skills and enterprise development and some workplace readiness skills, which neglects psychological aspects of being unemployed, this research is on a timely and vital topic.

Besides the intended outcomes of the Qhubekela Phambili intervention (job-search self-efficacy, amotivation, and self-esteem), the content of the programme is of such a nature that other outcomes, such as personal development, self-discovery in terms of strengths, talents, interests, development critical thinking, and problem-solving skills, are also achieved.

Similarly, the underlying processes of the programme also hold positive outcomes. For example, the message communicated by voluntary participation is that the decision to make a difference, lies with each one of the participants. It contributes to cultivating a sense of responsibility and an awareness of the consequences of their own decisions. Furthermore, trainers are merely the facilitators (as opposed to instructors/teachers) of the programme. Participants are therefore expected to rely on their own experiences and knowledge to contribute. These active learning methods help participants to create their solutions to barriers that have been identified and prevent them from obtaining employment. This method is useful, as it shows participants that they are capable of coming up with answers to their problems and also that they are not facing the problem alone. Consequently, participants are empowered by first-hand experience in learning to cope with being unemployed. The self-determination theory (SDT) provides a theoretical framework, that can be used to explain the above-mentioned findings. According to the SDT people have three basic psychological needs: the need for relatedness, the need for competence, and the need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When these needs are satisfied it leads to people being more intrinsically motivated. Therefore, when participants are provided with social support, as in the JOBS programme, feelings of acceptance are promoted – particularly from others sharing experiences similar to their own. Likewise, feelings of competence are enriched by the skills acquired in the programme, and a sense of autonomy is encouraged through activities throughout programme. Altogether, the principles of the JOBS programme are designed to satisfy participants' psychological basic needs, fostering the tendency among participant to be more proactive (intrinsically motivated) as opposed being passive in their job-search journey.

Over and above developing these skills, further opportunities are created through the content of the programme. Participants are asked either to identify possible needs within their communities or scarce skills in the labour market that could lead to possible job opportunities. These potential opportunities are aligned with the strengths, interests, and work values of participants and are further developed into an action plan. As a result, participants are equipped with an executable programme to either start their initiative or to find temporary or permanent jobs. This, in turn, may cause a snowball effect, positively impacting their families and the broader community.

Finally, capacity building took place among the programme facilitators as well. Considering that the facilitators were chosen based on the fact that they work within social sciences (varying

from social workers, lecturers, and researchers to psychologists), the skills obtained from the training is not limited only to this particular programme but can also be useful in a variety of other settings.

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APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Name of programme:

Inclusion criteria:

	Yes (mark with X)	No (mark with X)
Does the programme focus <u>strictly</u> on helping the unemployed?		
Is the programme implemented by either the government, private sector, or a civil society organisation?		
Is the programme based in Orange Farm or Emfuleni? (If not, is it applicable to the unemployed in Orange Farm or Emfuleni?)		

(The answer to all three questions should be “yes” in order to continue, use own discretion)

1. What is the goal of the programme?

	Primary goal (mark with X)	Secondary goal (mark with X)
Education and expertise development		
Education		
Vocational training		
Entrepreneurship and enterprise development		
Business skills training		
Mentoring		
Financing		
Employment services		
Career development		
Workplace readiness		
Job search		
Non-technical / behavioural skills		

2. Description of programme (in case of an overlap in question 1).
3. Who are the involved stakeholders?

	Primary goal (mark with X)	Secondary goal (mark with X)
- Government		
National		
Provincial		
Municipal		
Parastatal		
Higher Education Institution		
- Civil Society Organisation		
Non-government organisation (NGO)		
Non-profit organisation (NPO)		
Community-based organisation (CBO)		
Faith-based organisation (FBO)		
International Development Organisation		
- Private Sector		

*In some cases programmes are driven in collaboration with another. Indicated primary and secondary stakeholder.

4. In what year was the programme implemented/registered?
5. Who are the beneficiaries of this programme (age and gender)?
6. How do you recruit these participants?
7. Is this programme aligned with specific government policies? If yes, can you elaborate?
8. Do you by any means measure the effectiveness or any possible impact of the programme?
If yes, can you elaborate?
9. Do you by any means measure the costs involved in obtaining employment for participants? (General information on costs of the intervention, specific information on costs to society, specific information on costs to beneficiaries) If yes, can you elaborate?
10. As you most probably know, such a project has various phases, such as planning, development, implementation, and evaluation. Did you experience any problems during the planning phase of the programme? How did you address these problems / how would you suggest solving these problems?

11. What were the positive aspects during the planning phase of the programme?
12. Did you experience any problems during the development phase of the programme? How did you address these problems / how would you suggest solving these problems?
13. What were the positive aspects during the development phase of the programme?
14. Did you experience any problems during the implementation phase of the programme (either with content of the programme, or with the procedure in setting up and guiding unemployed through the process and reaching targets)? How did you address these problems / how would you suggest solving these problems?
15. What were the positive aspects during the implementation phase of the programme?
16. (Determine if applicable). Did you experience any problems during the evaluation phase of the programme? How did you address these problems / how would you suggest solving these problems?
17. What were the positive aspects during the evaluation phase of the programme?
18. Contact number:
19. Email address:
20. Organisation website:
21. Physical address:
22. Are you aware of any other programmes in Emfuleni or Orange Farm that is focused on assisting the unemployed? If yes, can you elaborate?

APPENDIX B: PROPOSED FRAMEWORK

Programme components	Description
Implementation	
<u>Context</u>	Growing distance exist between the unemployed and the labour market in South Africa. Suggestions to overcome these matters include empowering people through the JOBS programme by providing them with the necessary job-search, social, and entrepreneurial skills to uplift not only themselves, but also their communities.
<u>Participants</u>	
Biographical characteristics	Generally, younger, lower-educated, and long-term unemployed benefitted the most from the programme. Thus, it seems that the youth (15 to 35 years of age), with a minimum level of education of Grade 12, and the long-term unemployed will gain the most from the programme.
Population, sample size, and recruitment	Recommended inclusion criteria are a minimum education level of Grade 12, being English-speaking, and being between 15 and 35 years of age. No suggestion regarding the sample size is made. Prospective screening questionnaires are not suggested, as it may lead to the exclusion of many vulnerable participants. Suggested recruitment methods are through newspaper and radio advertisements, and government agencies working with jobseekers, or working with youth and community leaders. Voluntary participation yielded more positive results, therefore, refraining from enforced participation is suggested. Because the number of dropout participants can be anticipated in advance, it is suggested that more participants be recruited.
<u>Programme</u>	
Delivery	Programme were implemented strictly according to the JOBS protocol.
Content	Minor changes were made to suit different contexts. A suggestion is to include an entrepreneurial component to encourage self-employment.

Incentives	The majority of programmes used monetary incentives. Although the incentives differed, what was evident was that the use of incentives significantly increased participation. Similar incentives are suggested.
Facilitators	
<i>Pairing</i>	The majority of studies reported having used two trainers, generally male-female pairs.
<i>Prerequisites</i>	Facilitators were generally social workers, labour advisors, educational counsellors, and high school teachers, with well-developed social skills and emotional intelligence.
<i>Training</i>	The suggested duration of training is 48 hours (12 days). Regardless of the duration, emphasis was placed on ensuring that facilitators had the required skills and that they were comfortable with, and capable of, following the protocol.
Duration of programme	Programme was generally delivered over five half-day sessions, in a one-week period.
Group sizes	Groups consisting of between 12 and 20 participants were reported as ideal to achieve the intended outcomes.
Venue of training	Based on availability and convenience, venues located near participants and large enough to accommodate 25 people were generally used.
Stakeholders	It was consistently shown that when government and other essential parties were involved to advocate for the programme, support and resources provided by such parties made it possible to expand and sustain the programme.
Evaluation	
<u>Methodology</u>	
Data collection method	Data were generally collected using self-administered questionnaires.
Research design and collection intervals	Randomised field study designs were used most frequently. However, due to ethical reasons, both experimental and control groups should benefit equally from the study. Therefore, a quasi-experimental design is recommended. Data were collected at pre-

, post-, and post-post intervention intervals. Similar intervals seem suitable.

Process evaluation

Randomisation

It is suggested that participants be randomly selected and assigned to either the control or experimental group.

Integrity manipulation checks

A method that worked effectively seems to be participant evaluation surveys as well as the use of independent observers to assess the programme.

Impact evaluation

Outcomes

The programme was the most beneficial for participants with a high-risk for depression and the long-term unemployed.
