THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RESILIENCE AND COPING IN A SAMPLE OF

UNEMPLOYED WOMEN IN THE ETHEKWINI REGION

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTERS (HEALTH PROMOTION) IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
HOWARD COLLEGE CAMPUS
DURBAN

BY

JUNIEA S. ORTELL-PIERCE

SUPERVISOR: C. J. PATEL

DECLARATION

I declare that this is my original work, it has not been submitted before for any other degree at any university. All references from previous works have been acknowledged.

_____   _____

JUNIEA SHERIDAN ORTELL-PIERCE   DATE

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to my mother Sophia Cathleen Ortell.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To the last and most important person, Jesus: It is good to dwell in the secret place of the Most High.

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between resilience and coping in a sample of 120 unemployed women living in the Ethekwini region. Participants completed two instruments: the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) (Connor & Davidson, 2003) and Ways of Coping (WCQ) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1985) scale as well as a short demographic questionnaire. Results indicated high resilience as well as coping levels in this sample of unemployed women. Two of the resilience factors, **trusting instincts** and **positiveness**, were positively related to coping strategies like **distancing, problem-solving** and **positive reappraisal**. The latter subscale contains elements of spirituality and religiosity. In addition, most of the unemployed women reported being highly religious. The results confirm that specific factors of resilience and certain coping methods, as well as the role of religion, need to be considered when designing interventions for unemployed women.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Work appears to be the basis of social integration and the main reference for men and women in their everyday organisation of life (Jahoda, 1982; Kingdon & Knight, 2005; Lazarsfeld, 1933). When this central reference is taken away, the individual experiences deprivation of socially defined necessities that is associated with increased psychological distress (Whelan, 1992). This distress is caused by reduced access to the manifest and latent benefits that jobs provide. These include regular activity and structured time. Unemployment is considered one of the potential sources of adversity in adulthood, denying a person the advantage of a job: economic resources, social contact of co-workers, personal growth and identification (Moorhouse & Caltabiano, 2007). Unemployed people have to cope with the loss of tangible and non-tangible benefits that jobs provide, including secure incomes, social contact with people outside the family, social status and structured time activity. As financial resources decline so subjective well-being also decline. Unemployed people experience an increase in hostility, depression, anxiety, stress and negative physical health outcomes such as headaches and sleep problems (Jahoda, 1982). According to Erasmus (1999), the unemployed can use "dependence" as a means of coping by depending on others for survival. These could include someone in the household, namely a spouse, sibling, or parent who receives an old age pension or grant to support unemployed members. Others receive remittance on child grants, support from churches and NGOs.

In the past a great deal of research focused on these negative consequences of unemployment (Jin, Shah & Svoboda, 1997; Strom, 2003). The focus was on adversity and

its negative impact while losing sight of a person's coping abilities (Echterling & Steward, 2008). Recently a conceptual shift has been noted in the field of positive psychology. Psychologists and counsellors in this field are attempting to empower clients to discover, develop and exercise their own strengths, talents, wisdom and resilience during trying times like unemployment. They encourage clients to use their untapped resources and pursue their dreams in times of unemployment. In terms of empirical research, however, this field remains relatively untapped. While there have been attempts to investigate sense of optimism (Lai & Wong, 1998), sense of coherence (Almedom, Tesfamichael, Mohammed, Mascie-Taylor & Alemu, 2007), resilience and development (Masten, Best & Gamezy, 1990), the research on coping strategies and resilience of the unemployed is sparse. Given the high rate of unemployment and the number of unemployed single mothers in this country, the present study hopes to focus on the relationship between resilience and coping in a sample of South African women. In the absence of research on these variables of coping and resilience, the present study was designed to examine their association in a sample of unemployed South African women. It is hoped that by directing attention to women's strengths in this context we may assist health care workers to reduce the negative consequences of unemployment.

1.2 History

According to Beall, Crankshaw and Parnel (2000), South Africa's poor economic growth can firstly be attributed to its macro-economic policy during the 1960s and 1970s. The aim of this policy was to maintain the apartheid government whose concern was the needs of the white workers. Strategies that would require skill among black workers were excluded. The strategy of import-substitution industrialisation was reliant on capital goods

2

imports. The export market was not considered because it required skilled black workers therefore creating an inefficient manufacturing sector. At the end of 1970, government changed to export-led strategy which did not increase economic growth. It reduced government expenditure by allowing free operation of the domestic market and by controlling inflation. The control of inflation led to the restriction of money supply which led to high interest rates. This had a negative effect on manufacturing and commercial companies. Government relaxed control of foreign investment with the result that foreign investors withdrew their capital. Anti-apartheid sanctions also contributed to the slow economic growth. Beall et al. (2000) continue that domestic policies are a second factor which contributed to slow economic growth. Education and training was and still is a barrier to productivity and economic growth in South Africa, resulting in high unemployment.

1.3 Unemployment

Statistics South Africa (2010) declared an unemployment rate of 25.3% in comparison to the 2003 unemployment rate of 28.2%. Although a decrease is observed, unemployment is still high and a major cause of poverty and suffering for millions of South Africans. Two different concepts of unemployment are used in South Africa: the strict (narrow) and the expanded (broad) definition. The narrow definition refers to people who actively sought work in a 4-week period while the broad definition accepts as unemployed those who did not search for work in a 4-week reference period but who report being available for work and say they would accept if a job was offered. In 1998, the narrow definition of unemployment was declared the "official' definition. For the South African labour market, it has been argued by policy makers that the broad measure

of unemployment is a more accurate reflection of joblessness than the narrow measure. The broad definition includes people who are discouraged by factors such as low prospective returns, costs of job-search (for example, transportation costs) and poverty. Some people have become unemployable because of a lack of employment experience, long periods of unemployment and lack of skills (Kingdon & Knight, 2005). The economy is unable to absorb all the current labour force. From 1995 to 2003, the narrow labour force grew by 4.6 million and the broad labour force grew by 6.3 million while wage employment grew only by 1.3 million (1.8% per annum), self-employment grew by 0.7 million and narrow and broad unemployment grew by 2.6 and 4.3 million respectively. In this period the unemployment rate rose from 17 to 28% on the narrow definition and from 29 to 42% on the broad definition (Kingdon & Knight, 2005).

1.4 Women

On the broad definition of unemployment, 47.8% of women were unemployed compared to 35.7% of men. In the Report of the Expert Group Meeting (2008), the global female unemployment rate in 2007 was 6.5% compared to 5.7% for men. The report states that women more often than men are involved in unpaid care work. It is resource-intensive and is performed on inflexible schedules. It imposes constraints on women, limiting potential for participating in income-generating activities, taking up jobs and being able to care for themselves and having leisure time. Furthermore, women are more likely to be unemployed than men. They are often concentrated in what is typically assumed as "female" occupations with low wages. Employers consider women's care-related domestic responsibilities as an obstacle to their performance and therefore are reluctant to employ

women. The unemployed therefore are more likely to be poorly educated, unskilled and female (Bhorat & Leibbrandt, 1996).

Government budget on social security is targeted to reach only the poorest and most vulnerable like the elderly, children and disabled, who are seen as the only ones "deserving". In 2004, parental allowance was removed. These were almost exclusively accessed by mothers. People between the age of 14 and 60 are excluded from the social entitlement system. This age group constitutes 60% of the poor, of which the majority are women. This figure is estimated at 11.8 million of the poorest 23.8 million in 2004 (Hassim, 2005). Nearly 80% of South African women (8.5 million) between the ages of 20 and 50 are mothers. Of these, 3 million mothers are not economically active while a further 2.6 million are unemployed, according to the official definition. Twenty-eight percent of South African women are single mothers (Statistics South Africa, 2009).

1.5 Survival strategies

As may be argued by psychologists and researchers promoting the positive psychology approach, unemployment does not always lead to passivity and despair. Many authors cited in Jackson and Walsh (1995) confirm that some individuals are able to counteract many of the psychological costs of unemployment by engaging in activities such as hobbies, further education and voluntary work as a means of achieving personal goals (Julkunen, 2001). In the South African context, engaging in such activities is not always an option as the majority of the unemployed are not adequately skilled and barely have the means to survive from day to day. Positive psychology would argue that even in the most adverse situation, people are able to see opportunities for survival and growth.

Given that so many South Africans are unskilled and have limited employment opportunities, the informal sector has grown rapidly in recent years expanding beyond just townships. Considering that the average duration of unemployment is 2.2 years, the informal sector can be described as a residual sector into which the unemployed move while searching or hoping to find formal employment. In 2002, the informal sector absorbed only 18.8% of the workforce who were unable to secure jobs in the formal sector (Kingdon & Knight, 2005).

Women constitute half of the informal workforce. Women often head households and use problem-focused coping in managing unemployment by engaging in informal work. This is referred to as a 'survivalist' strategy (Mutwa, 1995, as cited in Beall et al., 2000). It includes any form of work that would secure an income such as recycling, hawking, spaza shops, selling on the streets or selling from home. It also involves baking, dressmaking, childcare and hairdressing. Women carry the major burden of poverty and the responsibility of caring for families and communities without remuneration. Their problems are further compounded by the HIV prevalence rate of 21.2% which is higher than the 16% for men (Statistics South Africa, 2008). This means that the burden of caring for the afflicted falls on women. Many of the unemployed depend on livelihood strategies where they employ a sharing coping strategy which entails bulk buying, transport arrangements, informal saving (stokvels) and peace garden initiatives. Social support as a form of emotion-focused coping can have positive psychological effects. It can lead to positive acceptance of change and secure relationships (Onwumere, Holttum & Hirst, 2002) and may include problem-solving coping strategies associated with lower perceived levels of stress irrespective of economic situation (Mantler, Matejicek, Matheson & Anisman, 2005). These point to a sense of resilience in that there is a tendency to adjust

despite significant adversity (Alim et al., 2008). They often seem to have the ability to find positive meaning in this adverse situation and this helps regulate negative emotions (Tugade & Frederickson, 2004). This ability to maintain good functioning after a stress exposure appears to be more common than previously thought (Bonanno, 2004).

People often turn to religion when they have reached their own human limitations and especially when religion is 'available and accessible' (Pearce, 2005). The social connections one experiences in becoming a member of a religious organisation makes people feel secure and protected (Mantler et al., 2005). This form of meaning-focused coping allows a person to draw on his/her beliefs which motivates and sustains coping and well-being during difficult times (Folkman, 1997). Research shows that South Africans in general are very religious. Eighty-three percent indicated that they belong to a religion (Rule, 2002).

The above demonstrates that people tend to use a range of strategies in dealing with change in their living circumstances. As Lazarus and Folkman (1984) theorise, these strategies could entail problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping and/or meaning-focused coping. Positive emotions which are generated by meaning-focused coping could play a significant role in facilitating resilience in women, giving meaning to their everyday lives. In the absence of research on these variables of coping and resilience, the present study was designed to examine their association in a sample of unemployed South African women. It is hoped that by directing attention to women's strengths in the context we may assist health care workers to reduce the negative consequences of unemployment.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

For many years mainstream Psychology has been concerned with the negative aspects of human life. Resources were poured into learning about and treating illness and psychopathology (Boniwell, 2009) while losing sight of a person's coping abilities. Recent studies show a changing trend towards positive psychology which presents an opportunity for researchers to examine the more positive aspects of social reality (Echterling & Steward, 2008). Positive psychology is defined as the scientific study of optimal human functioning that aims to discover and promote the factors that allow individuals and communities to thrive. It is an umbrella term for the study of positive emotions, positive character and enabling institutions. Its aspiration is to bring solid empirical research into areas such as well-being, flow, personal strengths, wisdom, creativity, psychological health and characteristics of groups and institutions (Seligman, 2002). For example, instead of emphasising the negative implications of unemployment, researchers are now studying how people can develop their potential, discover new resources, enhance their coping skills that they may have overlooked and flourish under fire (Echterling & Steward, 2008). The present chapter contains a discussion of the main theoretical framework undergirding the study.

2.1.1 Stress and Coping

The formulations of the theory of stress and coping have undergone several changes over the years. It started with Richard Lazarus's (1968) seminal work which focused on the psychological effects of stress. Stress can be defined as a negative experience accompanied by predictable biochemical, physiological, cognitive and

behavioural changes that are directed either towards altering the stressful event or accommodating it (Baum, 1990). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) agree that when coping is appropriate, the stress may be minimal. Coping can be conceptualised as a transactional, reciprocal process between the individual and the environment which comprise of two components - appraisal and coping. Appraisal involves the cognitive, perceptive and evaluative processes in reaction to a stressful event. The individual applies a coping-process-oriented approach which facilitates description of the process of coping in a given encounter, such as unemployment, and includes the particular situational demands, resources and constraints that affect it. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) describe two types of coping: problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. Their theory was later advanced by Folkman (1997) by adding a third type, meaning-focused coping and positive emotions. The three types of coping and their usage in the stress process will be discussed in detail further on.

2.1.2 Resilience

The roots of the concept of resilience are found in psychological aspects of coping and the physiological aspects of stress. The definitions of resilience have varied across studies (Alim et al., 2008) making it difficult to pinpoint. Some early theorists of resilience conceptualised it as a personality trait while others see it as a complex, reciprocal process (Echterling & Steward, 2008).

2.1.2.1 Resilience as a trait

Resilience as a personality trait, according to Wagnild and Young (1993), identifies personality characteristics which appear to aid in positive adjustment to loss. It

consists of two components of resilience. The first component is personal competence which includes self-reliance, independence, determination, mastery, resourcefulness and perseverance. The second component is acceptance of self and life which includes adaptability, flexibility and a balanced life perspective, irrespective of circumstances. Jeanne and Jack Block (1980) agree that resilience is a personal trait. It reflects general resourcefulness, sturdiness of character, and flexibility of functioning in response to environmental circumstances. It does not presuppose exposure to substantial adversity. Resilience as a trait in stressful life transitions has given much attention to the idea that a combination of physical and psychological characteristics including body chemistry and personality factors give individuals the skill to be resilient (Jacelon, 1997). Resilience therefore is viewed as an adaptive, stress resistant personal quality that permits a person to thrive in spite of an adversity such as unemployment.

2.1.2.2 Resilience as an acquired skill

On the other hand, Rutter (1985) proposed a continuum with vulnerability and resilience at either end. He states that developing resilience can reduce vulnerability. He describes it broadly as 'the phenomenon of overcoming stress or adversity'. Resilience is positioned interdependently from adversity. Rutter (1993) also maintained that resilience is not a fixed characteristic (trait) of individuals but one that changes with developmental life experience and is dependent on risk factors, adversity and the social environment. People can only become resilient in the presence of an adversity like unemployment and this dynamic process tends to vary in different contexts, making resilience an acquired skill. Gillespie, Chaboyer and Wallis (2007) concur that resilience is a process of struggle against hardship and can be learned at any age. More recently, however, it has been

recognised as a dynamic process among factors that mediate between an individual, his or her environment and an outcome (Ahern, Ark & Byers, 2008).

The term 'resilience' has also been used interchangeably with Aaron Antanovsky's construct 'Sense of Coherence'. For example, Almedom et al. (2007) used a 'Sense of Coherence' scale to measure resilience in a displaced Eritrea sample. The three subscales used were termed comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. Comprehensibility is the extent to which one makes cognitive sense of stimuli/stressors. Manageability is the extent to which one believes that available resources are sufficient to manage the stimuli, while meaningfulness is the extent to which one assesses that demands are worthy of positive engagement and commitment and hold some sense of meaning. While there is some overlap, the present study favours Connor and Davidson's (2003) formulation based on S.C. Kobasa's hardiness, M. Rutter's taking responsibility with confidence, having clear goals, and a sense of humour backed by stable social support, G.R. Lyon's patience and competence in managing stress and lastly E. Shackleton's significance of faith and spirituality (cited in Connor & Davidson, 2003).

2.1.3 The Coping and Resilience relationship

There exists a lack of clarity around the definitions of resilience and coping and the two concepts seem to overlap. Connor and Davidson (2003), in describing Richardson's model of resilience, conclude that resilience may also be viewed as a 'measure of successful stress-coping ability' (p.77) and in some instances they appear to measure different things. There are complex definitions of these terms and they are sometimes used interchangeably. For example, Vaishnavi, Connor and Davidson (2006) describe the different ways in which resilience has been defined.

This study is an attempt to explore the similarities as well as how the differences compliment each other in the sample of unemployed women.

2.1.3.1 Primary appraisal, secondary appraisal and risk factors

Folkman (1984) maintains that when individuals are confronted with a new or changing environment (such as unemployment), they would first engage in a primary appraisal process, which determines whether the event is harmful or threatening. Unemployment may be seen as a threat because its main consequence, especially in the South African context, is poverty (Whelan, 1992). This process causes stress to the individual. The primary appraisal process is followed by the secondary appraisal process which determines whether the individual's coping abilities and resources are sufficient to overcome the threat of unemployment posed by the event (see Figure 1). According to Masten et al. (1990), the threat or challenge is called a risk factor. Because of its negative associations, unemployment may be a risk factor that could lead to pathology or maladjustment. Poor job search skills, long periods of unemployment, financial hardships and low job availability could have additive risk effects (Garmezy, 1991). In instances where a situation is resolved favourably (such as finding employment), positive emotions like happiness, relief or pride appear (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

2.1.3.2 Problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping and protective factors

In the current study, the primary process determines unemployment as a negative event and its consequences as harmful or threatening. Research on coping has generally focused on broad categories involving problem-focused strategies where efforts are directed at doing something constructive such as planning, seeking information, and taking

action, while emotion-focused strategies are concerned with regulating the emotions

arising from the situation which includes emotional expression, emotional containment,

self- or other-blame, and denial (Folkman,1984).

While problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping are attempts to change

or manage the stressful situation, protective factors as described by resilience studies,

mediate the individual's response to adversity (Garmezy, 1991) (see Figure 1). Protective

factors are resources that promote resilience (Friborg, Hjemdal, Rosenvinge &

Martinussen, 2003). They include personal resources like hardiness (Folkman &

Moskowits, 2000) and social support, effective regulation of emotional arousal and

problem-solving abilities (Masten & Reed, 2002), as well as adjustment and competence,

which mitigate against the effects of adversity (Garmezy, 1991). Protective factors help

individuals achieve a positive outcome regardless of risk (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004).

2.1.3.3 Meaning-focused coping and positive emotions

In situations where problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping have been

used and the outcome is unfavourable (see Figure 1) and the process repeats itself,

conditions of chronic stress is the result. This is when the revised model (Folkman, 1997)

introduces a new category of coping, positive emotions and meaning-focused coping. It is

found that positive emotions together with negative emotions co-occur during intensely

stressful experiences. Unemployment could be strongly characterised by negative

emotions. Positive emotions have important adaptative significance and are generated by

identifiable coping processes.

Meaning-focused coping is less situation-specific, unlike both problem-focused

and emotion-focused coping (Folkman, 1997). It is appraisal-based coping in which the

person draws on his/her beliefs, for example, religious or spiritual values and existential goals like purpose in life, to motivate and sustain coping and well-being during difficult times. Meaning-focused coping **generates** positive emotions and their underlying appraisals, and these emotions and appraisals influence the stress process by restoring coping resources and providing the motivation needed in order to sustain problem-focused coping over a long time-period. Based on a model of three components, Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis and Gruen (1986) developed the Ways of Coping (WCQ) scale made up of 66 items, with each item measuring these different aspects of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping methods. Their factor analysis of the items administered to a community sample of seventy-five married couples yielded eight factors which are used as subscales of the study.

Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) as well as Bonanno (2004) agree that positive emotions could assist in **building** resilience and provide a buffer against life adversity. Positive emotions broaden a person's initial thought-action inventory, increasing thoughts and possible actions that come to mind when faced with an adverse situation. It stimulates adaptation that helps the individual develop a greater range of resources which increases personal resilience. These resources include: seeing positive aspects and potential benefits of a situation, rather than being negative and cynical; maintaining social relationships and participating in activities; and having a belief system which provides existential meaning, a cohesive life narrative and an appreciation of the uniqueness of oneself.

The process of generating positive emotions occurs through meaning-focused coping, with resilience is viewed as an outcome. It is an adaptive stress resistant personal quality (Echterling & Steward, 2008), while coping manages and/or overcomes threats through cognitive and behavioural efforts (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). As stated by

Echterling and Steward (2008), many people who have been through trauma cope actively

by being resilient. It is hoped that this study would provide the stimulus for a more in-

depth examination of the main variables through an analysis of their predictive potential.

Below is a diagram depicting the revised stress and coping model from Folkman

(1997) with resilience as an added ingredient.

Figure 1

Revised stress and coping model (Folkman, 1997) with resilience

| Appraisal primary & secondary | Coping | Event outcome | Emotion outcome |

Unemployment

Problem-focused

Emotion-focused

Protective factors

Favourable

Positive

Threat/ risk factor e.g. no income

Unfavourable

Distress

generate Positive emotions

Restores Resources

Meaning-focused coping

build Resilience

sustain Coping

Positive emotions

Negative emotions
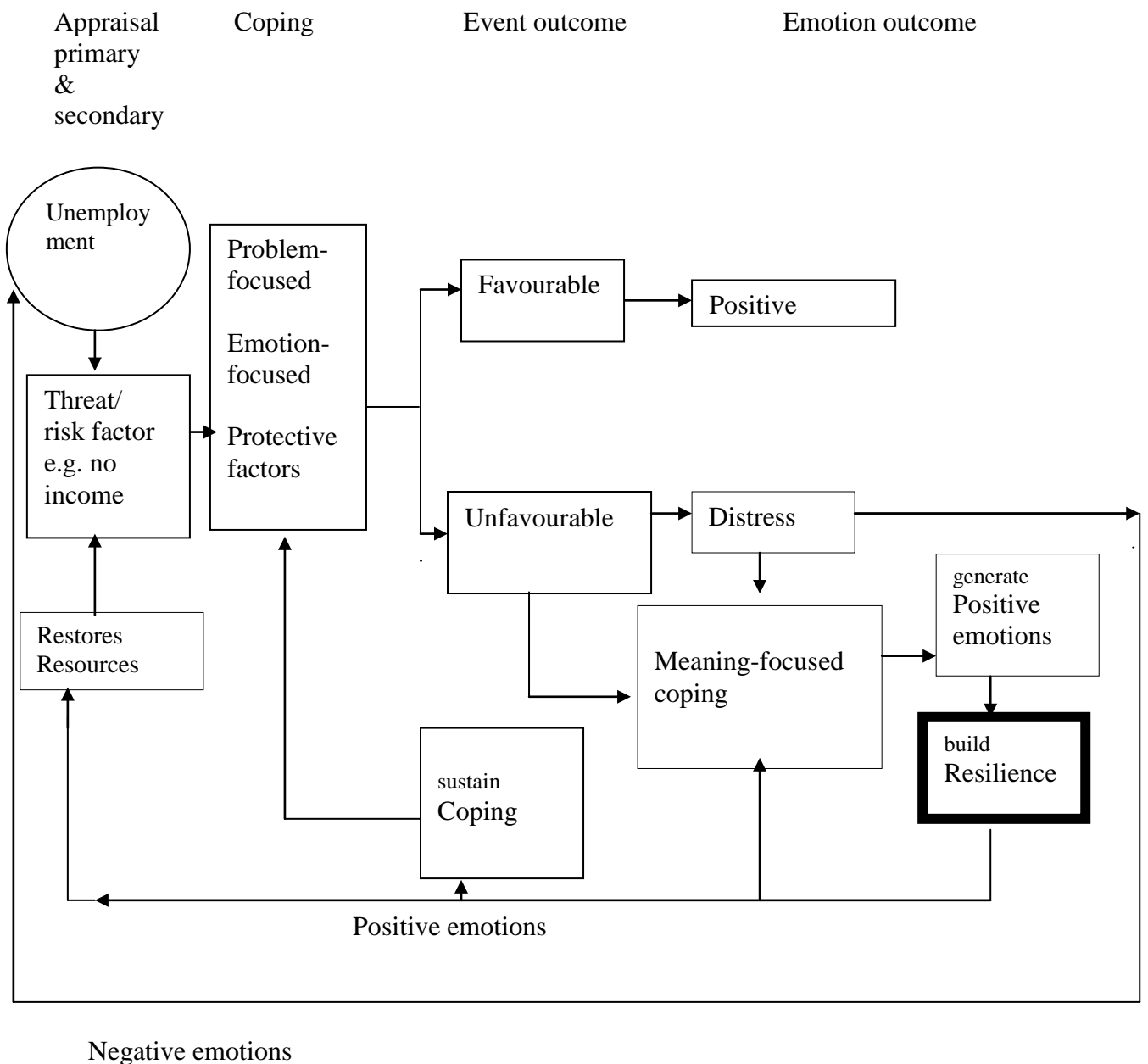
2.2 Empirical research

Unemployment is usually associated with poor mental health as a result of the absence of non-financial benefits provided by jobs. These benefits include social status, self-esteem, physical and mental activity and the use of one's skills (Artazcoz, Benach, Borrell & Cortes, 2004). Given the recent emphasis on a strengths-based approach the questions that this study hopes to address are: What are the coping strategies of women who are unemployed? What are the levels of their resilience? This review as far as possible will focus on the main variables of coping and resilience in the context of unemployment.

As pointed out in the previous chapter, Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory has been influential in our understanding of stress and coping. Some studies reviewed here follow this model while others use different models and definitions of coping. Research studies on coping focus mainly on the psychological problems of adolescents (Julkunen, 2001; Magaya, Asner-Self & Schreiber, 2005; Mates & Allison, 1992). Examples of studies conducted with adults have been carried out in the context of psychological distress (Cassidy, 2001), coping and emotional distress (Grossi, 1999), the influence of gender on job loss (Malen & Stroh, 1998) and coping with threatened identities (McFadyan, 1995).

Resilience in adults has been understudied. Much of the research has been conducted on children, for example, Garmezy (1991), Garmezy, Masten & Tellegan (1984), Howard & Johnson (2000), Luthar (1991) and Masten, Herbers, Cutuli and Lafavor (2008). Very little is known about how resilience operates in adulthood and more specifically in the context of unemployment. Irrespective of this gap in the resilience literature there is growing evidence that despite high levels of exposure to potentially traumatic events during their lifetime, most adults do not develop severe distress or

psychopathology (Campbell-Sills, Cohan & Stein, 2006). These studies mainly consider the competence and protective factors that enable children and adolescents to overcome adversity. The same factors could apply to adults at risk. The following section contains a discussion of resilience and coping under different themes namely context, gender and coping, religiosity, resilience and positive emotions, and social networks. Owing to the limited number of studies focusing exclusively on unemployment, the discussion includes research on the variables of resilience and coping in other settings of adversity as well.

2.2.1 Context

Factors influencing the unemployment experience are societal and cultural conditions, household composition, material resources and education (Julkunen, 2001). In focusing on different patterns of coping strategies among unemployed youth in six Northern European countries, Julkunen (2001) shows that coping with unemployment is generated and shaped by different societal contexts and cultures. Unemployment seems to be a dynamic situation, which is coped with in different ways, depending on the resources, social capital and orientation of the individual. In the study, coping patterns vary according to societal and individual conditions. The unemployment experience was least distressing in countries with high levels or longer experience of unemployment (Finland) and good employment possibilities (Denmark). Cassidy (2001) agrees that where unemployment levels are high and unemployment is the norm, some psychological consequences are reduced. The unemployment experience was most frustrating in countries with low levels of unemployment and high work ethic (Norway and Iceland). Scotland was different to other countries, in that the young people were neither frustrated nor active, but seemed to form a group of drifters. Economic exclusion was highest among them. Material factors

provide an important mediating factor in explaining the different experiences of the Scottish youth. Material resources formed a strong explanatory determinant of mental health for all the unemployed people in the study (Julkunen, 2001). The analysis of the study suggests that the tools and sources for successful coping centre around educational attainment, household composition, unemployment duration and material conditions.

Culture plays a determined role in the way people cope with stressors. In a study on stress and coping among Zimbabwean adolescents (Magaya et al., 2005), it was found that adolescents use emotion-focused coping more than youth in Western societies. Unlike in Western societies where adolescents are expected to be fully responsible young adults at the age of 18, Zimbabwean adolescents are considered their parents responsibility until they get married. They defer to a more senior, respected and powerful person to address problem situations. To avoid confrontation, adolescents cope with stress through wishful thinking, self-blame, distancing and keeping to themselves, which are emotion-focused strategies. This is characteristic of a collectivistic society versus an individualistic one, where members appear to have a preference for accommodation and negotiation in conflict situations rather than confrontation and arbitration. Similar dynamics could apply in the South African context.

The study conducted by Beck, Wagener and Grix (2005) on Eastern German women's tenacity in staying in the job market is shown in a variety of other strategies: participation in job creation schemes, retraining in order to take up a second profession and accepting a level of demotion rather than not work. South African women use similar strategies in order to cope with unemployment (Mantler et al., 2005; Mutwa, 1995, as cited in Beall et al., 2000; Onwumere et al., 2002). However, further education with the aim of obtaining a second profession is not an option for most South African women. Unlike East

German women, most women in South Africa do not have the educational foundation, skill or finances to pursue a profession. However, women who cope best are engaged in purposeful activity and maintain regular contact with people outside the nuclear family (Julkunen, 2001).

While the basic meaning of resilience seems to be the same in different cultures, there may be slight variations in the underlying components that make up our broad conceptualisations of resilience. For example, Yu and Zhang (2007) examined the psychometric properties of the Chinese version of Connor and Davidson's Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) and from their exploratory factor analysis they found a 3-factor structure instead of the original 5-factor structure of CD-RISC obtained with the American sample. The 3-factor solution seems more meaningful to their Chinese sample. It includes Tenacity (factor 1) which involves hardiness, control and commitment. It implies that a resilient Chinese person consciously integrates behaviours of controlling, goal-setting and decision-making when he/she is drawn into a situation of frustration or setback. The second factor, Strength, suggests that resilient people usually regard change as a normal part of life rather than as threat to life; they would not only rebound to a previous life state, but also to achieve new integration and further growth positively after striving against adverse experiences. Optimism (factor 3) represents the individual's general positive attitude towards and faith about adverse situations and risk events. In addition to that, in the Chinese version of the CD-RISC, the original factor 4 (Control) and factor 5 (Spiritual influences) do not emerge as independent factors. The reasons could be related to endorsement of individual independence where the meaning of control to Chinese people differs to the meaning of control for Americans. Chinese people seem to be less religious, therefore the original factor 5 (Spiritual influences) is not an independent factor in the

Chinese sample. However, spirituality appeared repeatedly as one of the pancultural dimensions in the United States, Germany, Venezuela, Japan and Hong Kong, where people have a stronger religious tradition than China. It seems crucial to consider a person's culture in order to understand resilience in adverse situations.

Moorhouse and Caltabiano (2007), in their article on resilience and unemployment, indicate that resilient people have the capacity to cope successfully with the adversity of unemployment as demonstrated by assertive job search behaviours and positive mood state. Resilient qualities such as personal competence and attitudes are assumed to be responsible for positive outcomes which moderate the adverse effects of unemployment considering that resilience is a process. The negative impact of long term unemployment on job search assertiveness would be lessened for people with resilient qualities. They will be more assertive in their behaviour. According to Tugade and Fredrickson (2004), every person has resilient potential, but its level is determined by individual experiences, qualities, the environment and by each person's balance of risk and protective factors. Protective factors help individuals achieve a positive outcome regardless of risk because it mediates the individual's response to adversity. Personal resources, among others, hardiness and social support mitigate against the effects of adversity. Development skills aid in being more resilient and better able to cope and protect oneself from the effect of adversity, as observed in a study by Jackson, Firtko and Edenborough (2007) on nurses dealing with workplace adversity. Findings suggest that resilience can be applied to building the strengths of individuals as well as collectively.

Overall, research has shown that those who use active coping strategies are young people, individuals with high education, married people with children and people with short periods of unemployment (Colbjornsen, 1993). Since most South Africans do not fall

into this category, it becomes important to consider those that do not fit this profile – those with lower levels of education, and single mothers with a range of unemployment experiences.

2.2.2 Gender and coping

The exclusive use of women as participants in this study was driven by two reasons. Firstly, South African women, as mentioned previously, are more likely to be unemployed than men (Report of the Expert Group Meeting, 2008). There are 5.6 million unemployed/under-employed mothers in South Africa (Census, 2000 check this ref, not in your ref list) of whom 28% are unmarried (All Media Products Survey, 2008 check this ref, not in your ref list). Secondly, research in the area of unemployment has been fundamentally about the psychology of men (Jackson & Walsh, 1995). Women in the literature featured only as the wives of men and the mothers of such men's children (Kelvin & Jarrett, 1985). Artazcoz et al. (2004) concur that many studies focusing on unemployment have included only men. In their study of gender differences on the effects of unemployment on mental health, it was found that unemployment had a higher impact on married men's mental health than on married women's mental health. Their findings suggest that marriage can be a source of serious financial strain for unemployed men in lower social class categories, particularly when they are the breadwinners. On the other hand, marriage for unemployed women acted as a buffer. Women have their economic needs guaranteed by their husband's income and can replace the rewards formerly provided by their job with the nurturing family role. Women who are unsupported by partners seem to experience greater practical problems and have a greater need for help outside the family (Jackson & Walsh, 1995). Many women in South Africa are single

mothers (28%) and have to assume the responsibility of breadwinner, providing economic security and still be the nurturer of families.

The ways in which men and women cope when unemployed are different (Leana & Feldman, 1991). Jackson and Walsh (1995) observe that unemployed men's primary motivation for purposive activity was to find a substitute for paid work like running a fishing group for unemployed men. Domestic routines and family obligations did not appear to meet psychological needs which were previously met by paid employment. By contrast, women's purposive activity involved constructing something in a setting of continuing family dependency, such as providing a free crèche. In a Danish study conducted by Christensen, Schmidt, Kriegbaum, Hougaard and Holstein (2006), educational attainment and coping strategies of unemployed women and men were examined. It was found that both women and men with low educational attainment use problem-solving coping less often than women and men with high educational attainment. High avoidant coping was associated with low educational attainment among men, while high avoidant coping was used by women with low and high education attainment. According to Leana and Feldman (1991), women use symptom-focused coping, such as seeking social support, whereas men relied on problem-focused activities such as job-seeking. Women are both emotionally and practically involved in meeting family expectations and needs (Jackson & Walsh, 1995). The ability to provide for the sustenance of the household becomes a paramount factor in survival for women. In contrast to Leana and Feldman's finding, South African women who are the breadwinners seem to use problem-focused coping. They garner income by any means possible (Mutwa, 1995, as cited in Beall et al., 2000). Informal work is often the only practical option when the high unemployment rate for women (47.8% on the broad definition) is considered.

According to Lai and Wong (1998), unemployment is a relatively severe and uncontrollable stressor, and utilisation of problem-focused strategies such as actively searching for new jobs by Hong Kong Chinese women in their study may not be effective in eliminating the source of stress in the long run. Continual use of problem-focused strategies after repeated failure would only lead to more distress and is not adaptive. The only option remaining for these stressed women may involve 'escape' coping strategies so as to comfort themselves emotionally. This explains why the women in their study fared better by being psychologically healthy when they used more escape strategies. Meaning-focused coping is used when women draw on their values where they feel that they matter as human beings (Jackson & Walsh, 1995). By connecting socially in becoming members of religious organisations (Mantler et al., 2005), they draw on their religious beliefs.

2.2.3 Religiosity

Research shows that women are generally more religious than men (Beit-Hallahmi & Argule, 1997; Paloutzian, 1996). The on-going support of family, friends, prayer and church activities provide an effective coping mechanism as indicated in a study by Meisenhelder and Marcum (2009). Positive religious coping methods reflect a secure relationship with God, a belief that there is a greater meaning to be found in life and a sense of spiritual connectedness with others. People tend to be more religious when religious beliefs and practices are a larger part of their general orientation to the world and when they perceive religion to be a compelling source of solutions to problems such as unemployment. They integrate religion into their definition of themselves and their social roles, and they draw more fully on their religious resources in times of stress (Pargament, Tarakeshwar, Ellison & Wulff, 2001). Pearce (2005) agrees that people are particularly

ready to rely on religion when they have reached their own human limitations (for example in times of unemployment) and when religion is 'available and accessible'. A belief system provides existential meaning, a cohesive life narrative and an appreciation of the uniqueness of oneself, according to Tugade and Fredrickson (2004). The role of faith and a belief in benevolent intervention are important factors in survival (Connor & Davidson, 2003). Both coping and resilience subscales have a spiritual factor emphasising the importance to turn to a Higher Power when faced with severe stress.

Mbiti (1989) states that Africans are 'notoriously religious', and that all levels of life are imbued with religion. South Africans in general are very religious, as 83% indicated that they belong to a religion (Rule, 2002). It would therefore be expected that unemployed women would turn to their faith in trying times, or use it as a protective mechanism in dealing with this change in circumstance.

In a study that examined whether the relationship between religious coping and well-being were moderated by the salience of religion of clergy, elders and members , it was not surprising to find that clergy reported higher levels of positive religious coping than elders, who, in turn, indicated more religious coping than members. When the findings are generalised, it indicates that religious people cope better because religion is a large part of their orientating system, a more available resource for coping and a more compelling source of solutions to life's major problems. It appears that religion has significant effects for those whose roles and identities are more closely tied to religion. People who view religion as more central to their social roles and identity seem to cope better (Pargament, Koenig & Perez, 2000). It is possible for unemployed women who invest much in their religion and religious resources to cope better.

Pargament et al. (1990) explain that religion may play a significant role in the problem-solving process. It may serve an important function in helping people understand and cope with life events by offering guidance, support and hope. Religious beliefs and practices may guide individuals in the process of selecting solutions to problems. It provides emotional support throughout the problem-solving process, particularly during the stressful period. Religion and levels of religiosity appear to provide guidance for the selection of solutions to problems. The current study therefore includes religiosity as a variable.

2.2.4 Resilience and positive emotions

Religious people experience more positive emotions than people who are not religious (Pargament, Steele & Tyler, 1979). Research has shown that some people are able to experience positive emotions from their negative life circumstances by allowing themselves to find benefits within adversity. A study conducted by Tugade and Frederickson (2004) predicted that resilient people use positive emotions to rebound from, and find positive meaning in, stressful encounters. Participants in the study were asked to describe their most current problem and both high and low resilient individuals reported equal levels of frustration. Differences emerged in reports of positive emotions. High-resilient individuals reported higher levels of positive mood. They reported feeling more eagerness, excitement, happiness and interest amidst their high level of frustration, compared with low-resilient individuals. Finding positive meaning in a situation is important to well-being. It gives distressed individuals the needed psychological lift to help them continue and move forward in their lives. Moreover, coping benefits are likely to accrue because the broadening effects of positive emotions increase the likelihood that

individuals find positive meaning in stressful circumstances. Positive meaning and positive emotion are a reciprocal process. Finding positive meaning not only triggers positive emotion, but also positive emotion because it broadens thinking should increase the likelihood of finding positive meaning in subsequent events.

The literature indicates that religiosity plays an important role by giving meaning to individuals dealing with a stressful situation. Women who turn to their faith use emotion-focused coping constructively by being distracted from the stressful situation (Endler & Parker, 1994, as cited in Mantler et al., 2005) and by finding meaning (Folkman, 2008) through experiences of positive emotions, as well as interacting with other people (Magaya et al., 2005) by forming social networks.

2.2.5 Social networks

Other protective factors may be identified in a person's experience of unemployment. Social support modifies the potential negative effects of stress caused by unemployment either by reducing the stress itself or by facilitating the individual's efforts to cope (Magaya et al., 2005). In a study of unemployed East German women it was found that they rely on the support of solid social networks and family ties (Beck et al., 2005). These networks are informal, involve no bureaucracy, are easily mobilised and provide a sense of solidarity. The network centres are meeting points for the unemployed where contacts are made and free time and energy invested, courses are offered and information of job offers are shared. In the long term, it alleviates isolation and the possible negative effects for the wider society. Most importantly, unemployed women cherish the opportunity to talk to other women or exchange opinions and concerns. Experts state that men experience more problems in dealing with unemployment as they felt personally

disrespected and did not know what to do at home. Women compensate for the lack of unemployment better because they utilise multi-layered systems of friendships, contacts and social interaction as building blocks of their identity (Beck et al., 2005).

Since most South Africans are religious as mentioned, is it assumed that they spend time in religious settings. According to Krause, Ellison, Shaw, Marcum and Boardman (2001), religion is an inherently social phenomenon. People worship together in groups and social relationships tend to thrive in such settings. These interpersonal ties are bolstered by basic tenets of religious faith that encourage people to help each other. It seems only natural that when people are faced with adversity, they seek out the opinions of like-minded others in order to identify and pursue the best plan of action. The input of others may be especially important. Since religious institutions promote religious solutions to problems and provide strategies to manage the emotions associated with them, it follows that members should be especially inclined to encourage the use of religious coping methods. Spiritual support from members may be more efficacious because these significant others are likely to have the same demographic characteristics, attitudes and beliefs as the support recipient. Similarity promotes acceptance of ideas and recommendations. Moreover, the level of intimacy and acceptance that permeates informal social ties in religious settings may foster uninhibited questioning of coping recommendations and the expression of any reservations about them.

It is evident from the literature in this chapter that the risk factors such as the high percentage of single mothers, low education, economic climate and limited resources have a severe effect on unemployed women. However, religion and social connectedness provide protection that sustains women during such times. Women's coping methods differ from the coping methods of men because of their (women's) innate nurturing

predisposition. Women use problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping and meaning-focused coping in order to care for themselves and their families when faced with long periods of unemployment, financial hardships and low job availability. It is possible that their response to adversity, their personal resources, their faith in God and social support sustain them against the effects of unemployment. Very little research has been undertaken on women's level of resilience in the context of unemployment in South Africa. Resilience research has been carried out in the context of "Resilience revisited" by Atkinson, Martin & Rankin (2008); "The adaptational theory of well-being" by Diener, Lucas and Scollon (2006); "Mother's stress" by Margalit and Kleitman (2006) and "Sport performance" by Mummery, Schofield and Perry (2004). Since it appears as if resilience is associated with better coping, the present study hopes to explore this relationship through further research.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODLOGY

3.1 Methodological approach

A quantitative, survey approach was used in this study. More specifically, a correlation design to examine the relationship between resilience and coping. The goal of correlational research is to identify predictive relationships by assessing the co-variation among naturally occurring variables (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1994).

3.2 Sample

A purposive sampling technique was used where, according to Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, (1994), the individuals selected may be either those judged to have certain special characteristics or those who are likely to provide the most useful information for the purposes for which the study is being done. The sample (N = 120) comprised mainly (95%) unemployed women applying for and accessing unemployment funds at the Department of Labour in Durban. The other 5% was collected through snowball sampling. The age group of the women was between 23 and 55 years old. The educational level of the women ranged from grade nine to tertiary level. The number of dependents, previous employment and length of unemployment were included in the demographic section of the questionnaire (see Table 2). Most of the participants (70%) were unmarried.

Table 2

Demographic details

	Number	Percentage
Education level		
Grade 9, 10, 11	41	34.2
Grade 12	74	61.7
Tertiary	4	3.3
other	1	0.8
Dependents: Number	Number	Percentage
0	15	12.5
1 or 2	58	48.3
3 or 4	30	25
5 or 6	9	7.5
other	8	6.7
Period employed: Number of years	Number	Percentage
1	23	19.2
2	18	15.0
3	15	12.5
4-10	40	30.9
15	2	1.7
other	22	20.7
Unemployed		Percentage
One month	22	18.3
Three months	21	17.5
Six months	27	22.5
Longer than a year	46	38.3
other	4	3.4

3.3 Instruments

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of four sections. It included the consent form, demographic data, coping questionnaire and the resilience questionnaire, with a single question related to religiosity. The religiosity question states, 'Do you consider yourself religious? The questionnaire carries a 4-point range of responses which are as follow: Not at all, Rarely, Sometimes and Very.

The two questionnaires administered were:

- The Ways of Coping (WCQ) by Lazarus and Folkman (1985). It is a 66-item scale containing a wide range of thoughts and acts that people use to deal with the internal and external demands of specific stressful encounters. In this instance it measures coping processes, not coping dispositions or styles, with higher scores reflecting better coping processes. Subjects respond on a 4-point Likert scale (0- does not apply and/or not used; 3-used a great deal). The scale offers eight empirically derived subscales based on the three types of coping: Problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping and meaning-focused coping. Confrontative, seeking social support, distancing and planful problem-solving are related to problem-solving efforts, whereas self-control, distancing, accepting responsibility and escape are related to emotion-focused efforts. Positive reappraisal is related to meaning-focused coping. The scale has adequate to good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.82 for seeking social support to 0.88 for problem-focused coping (Stern & Zevron, 1990).

- The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) by Connor and Davidson (2003). It is a 25-item scale which carries a 5-point range of responses, as follows: not true at all(0), rarely true (1), sometimes true (2), often true (3), and true nearly

all of the time (4). Factor analysis conducted by Connor and Davidson (2003) in a general population sample yielded five factors whose eigen values were, respectively, 7.47, 1.56, 1.38, 1.13 and 1.07. These factors can be interpreted in the following manner:

Factor 1 Competence, which includes personal competence, high standards and tenacity.

Factor 2 Perseverance, which includes trust in one's instincts, tolerance of negative affect and strengthening effects of stress.

Factor 3 Positiveness, which includes positive acceptance of change and secure relationships.

Factor 4 Control.

Factor 5 Spiritual influences.

The ratings are based on how the subject has felt over the past month with higher scores reflecting greater resilience. The reliability, validity and factor analytical structure of the scale was evaluated and reference scores for study samples were calculated. Test-retest reliability was assessed in subjects from two groups and no clinical change was observed from time 1 (Mean = 52.7) and time 2 (Mean = 52.8) which demonstrate a high level of agreement with an interclass correlation coefficient of 0.87. The CD-RISC has sound psychometric properties and distinguishes between those with greater and lesser resilience (Connor & Davidson, 2003). When correlated with the Perceived Stress Scale, the CD-RISC showed a significant negative correlation (Pearson r -0.76, $p<.001$), indicating that higher levels of resilience correspond with less perceived stress.

3.4 Procedure (Ethical issues)

In order to conduct the study, ethical clearance was sought and granted by the University of KwaZulu-Natal. After permission was granted by the director at the Department of Labour, the instruments were administered to participants sitting and waiting in queues. The questionnaires were administered personally by myself and the instructions were explained in English so that any misunderstandings could be clarified before the participants completed the forms. It took the participants about 40 minutes to complete the questionnaires. Ethical considerations were taken into account by stating in the consent form, attached to the questionnaire, that the participants' assistance and consent was being sought for the completion of the questionnaire and that all information given would be confidential. Also, participants' names were not indicated anywhere on the questionnaires, thus assuring anonymity. It was stressed that participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw from the survey at any time without being disadvantaged or suffering any form of prejudice. The questionnaires were collected by the student as the participants completed the forms. The data was collected over a two week period.

3.5 Analysis

The first aim of the study was to describe the levels of resilience and coping. The study conducted descriptive analysis using means and standard deviations on the scale scores. In accordance with the second aim, the study correlated resilience, coping and religiosity to determine relationships. The Pearson r was used to examine these relationships.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study in relation to its aims and objectives. The first aim was to describe the levels of resilience and coping as defined by Connor and Davidson (2003) and Folkman et al. (1986) respectively in a sample of unemployed women. The second aim was to examine the relationship between resilience and coping. The study found high inter-item consistency for both resilience and coping, with the CD-RISC alpha at 0.939 and the WCQ alpha at 0.932.

4.2 Descriptive statistics: CD-RISC and WCQ

In accordance with the first aim, the study conducted descriptive analysis using means and standard deviations on the scale scores. The total scale scores are presented below.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of CD-RISC and WCQ

Total	Mean	Std. Deviation	Range
Resiltot	91.32	17.70	50.10 - 120
Coptot	112.03	30.62	65.10 - 191.10
Religious	3.53	.68	

Resiltot = Resilience Total   Coptot = Coping total

The mean score (M = 91.32; SD = 17.70) obtained from the CD-RISC suggests high resilience when compared to the highest possible score (120). The study measured

greater and lesser resilience in the sample using Connor and Davidson (2003) subscales. The subscale mean results are presented in Table 4.

The mean score (M = 112.03; SD = 30.62) obtained from the WCQ suggests adequate coping when compared to the highest possible score of 191.10. The lowest score is 65.10. The study measured the sample's ways of coping using Folkman et al.'s (1986) subscales. The item means for the resilience and coping subscales are presented below.

Table 4

Item means

Descriptive Statistics for CD-RISC, WCQ-revised and Religiosity Levels

	Min	max	No of items	Item means	Std deviation	Skew-ness	Posi-tion	α
Resilience subscale								
Competence	1.40	4.00	8	2.92	.95	-.75	2	.92
Trusting Instincts	1.29	5.00	7	2.31	.90	.13	5	.82
Positiveness	1.75	6.25	5	2.64	.92	-.42	4	.78
Control	3.00	7.50	3	2.88	.90	-.67	3	.68
Spirituality	1.00	5.00	2	2.95	1.0	-.87	1	.66
Coping subscales								
Social support	.00	3.00	6	1.71	.70	-.17	5	.69
Escape-avoidance	.00	6.00	8	2.90	.66	-.36	1	.70
Confrontative	.00	3.00	6	1.37	.63	-.01	8	.52
Distancing	.17	3.00	6	1.66	.68	-.16	7	.65
Self-controlling	.00	3.00	7	1.72	.63	-.04	4	.67
Accept responsibl	.00	3.00	4	1.68	.81	-.29	6	.64
Planful probl. sol	.17	3.00	6	1.90	.65	-.57	3	.66
Positive reapprais	.14	3.00	7	2.16	.65	-.66	2	.77
Religiosity				3.53	.68			

In the analysis, the item means were used because each subscale contained a different number of items. Item means facilitated comparison of the subscales.

Competence was defined by 8 items while spirituality was defined by 2 items each. The resilience subscale with the highest item mean position is spirituality (2.95) while trusting instincts (2.31) occupies the lowest item mean position. The coping subscale with the highest item mean is escape-avoidance (2.90), while confrontative (1.37) has the lowest item mean.

In this study the skewness of the scores of both resilience and coping subscales are reasonably normally distributed, with most scores occurring in the centre, tapering out towards the extremes. All the scores, except for trusting instincts, are negatively skewed. Spirituality showed the highest score of -.87, which is not an extreme score.

4.3 Religiosity

A single question was used to assess religiosity. Ninety five percent of the present sample indicates that they are religious.

4.4 Test of relationship

In accordance with the second aim, the study correlated resilience, coping and religiosity to determine relationships. Results are presented in the tables below.

Table 5

Interrelationship of resilience subscales

	Competence	Trusting Inst	Positiveness	Control
Trusting Inst	.679**			
Positiveness	.707**	.755**		
Control	.855**	.650**	.693**	
Spirituality	.726**	.570**	.738**	.680**

**p<0.01

      The findings that the subscales of resilience (see Table 5) correspond with one another are not surprising.

      The same is found for coping (see Table 6) with the exception of escape-avoidance and positive reappraisal. This result could be a matter of chance or because of the small sample size. The high correspondence among subscales suggests that the scales measure the same underlying dimension.

Table 6

Interrelationship of coping subscales

	SS	EA	Conf	Dist	Scon	AR	PS
EA	.425**						
Conf	.507**	.370**					
Dist	.452**	.451**	.428**				
Scon	.568**	.615**	.504**	.625**			
AR	.526**	.659**	.501**	.478**	.611**		
PS	.494**	.309**	.476**	.564**	.482**	.483**	
PR	.591**	.178	.451**	.504**	.530**	.328**	.717**

SS = Seeking social support   EA = Escape-Avoidance   Conf = Confrontative

Dist = Distancing   Scon = Self-controlling   AR= Accepting
responsibility

PR = Positive reappraisal   PS = Planful problem-solving

**p<0.01

As seen in Table 7, the findings showed a significant positive correlation between Resilience total and distancing, and a very significant correlation between problem-solving and positive reappraisal. The coping total is not significant with any of the resilience subscales.

In Table 7, trusting instincts (resilience subscale) is significantly correlated with distancing, problem-solving and positive reappraisal (coping subscales). Positiveness is significantly correlated with distancing and very significant with problem-solving and positive reappraisal. A significant negative relationship was found between control (resilience subscale) and accepting responsibility (coping subscale). Spirituality (resilience subscale) is significantly correlated with positive reappraisal (coping subscale). Religiosity

correlates with trusting instincts, positiveness and spirituality. Religiosity shows no correlation with any of the coping subscales.

Table 7

Correlations between CD-RISC, WCQ and religiosity levels

	SS	EA	Conf	Dist	Scon	AR	PS	PR	Reli	Coptot	Resiltot
Comp	.031	-.130	.067	.135	.045	-.143	.101	.160	.16	.093	.899**
Trust	.165	.001	.093	.277(**)	.144	.032	.413(**)	.374(**)	.20(*)	.244	.863**
Pos	.121	-.026	-.014	.244(*)	.111	-.082	.285(**)	.301(**)	.23(*)	.054	..874**
Con	-.020	-.117	-.038	.125	-.011	-.195(*)	.068	.165	.11	.020	.864**
Spi	-.063	-.097	-.010	.163	.087	-.146	.036	.218(*)	.20(*)	-.106	.737**
Reli	.00	-.18	-.12	.09	-.04	-.06	.13	.08		-.050	.247*
Coptot	.749**	.610**	.689**	.718**	.811**	.754**	.697**	.698**	.050		.068
Resiltot	.101	-.038	.125	.231*	.086	-.106	.292*	.288**	.248*	.068	

*p<0.05
**p<0.01

Comp = competence	Trust = trusting instincts	Pos = positiveness	Con = control
Spi = spirituality	SS = seeking social support	EA = escape-avoidance	Conf = confrontative
Dist = distancing	Scon = self-controlling	AR = accepting responsibility	Coptot =coping total
PS = planful problem-solving	PR = positive reappraisal	Reli = religious	Resiltot = resilience total

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The aims of the present study were to describe the levels of resilience, describe the levels of coping and to examine the relationship between resilience and coping in a sample of unemployed women.

5.2 Descriptives

5.2.1 Resilience

Using the CD-RISC (Connor & Davidson, 2003) the following dimensions were measured in the sample of unemployed women:

- Competence, which includes personal competence, high standards and tenacity.

- Trusting instincts, which include trust in one's instincts, tolerance of negative affect and strengthening effects of stress.

- Positiveness, which includes positive acceptance of change and secure relationships.

- Control, which involves maintenance of equilibrium.

- Spiritual influences.

In comparison with the samples used, this group obtained a higher total resilience score, with a mean of 91.32 compared to the mean of 77.1 found in Connor and Davidson's (2003) total sample.

Given that nationwide surveys (for example, Rule, 2002) have shown that South Africans are generally religious and that 95.8% of the present sample indicates that they are religious, it was not surprising to find that the resilience subscale **spirituality** yielded the highest mean (see Table 3) and was the most frequently endorsed attribute. This has positive implications for the well-being of the unemployed women, as several authors (Ellison & George, 1994; Tugade & Frederickson, 2004) point to the centrality of faith and spirituality in

providing a sense of purpose and direction. Spiritual strength as an internal resource can buffer negative changes (like unemployment) and accentuate positive ones (Vance, Struzick & Russel, 2007). Positive beliefs, comfort and strength gained from religion has been shown to contribute to a sense of well-being. It fosters an awareness that serves to identify and promote values such as creativity, patience, perseverance, compassion, wisdom, hope and joy (Chaundhry, 2008). **Competence,** which refers to a sense of power and adherence to goals even in adverse situations**,** was the second most endorsed attribute. This finding may also have religious and spiritual underpinnings: Pargament et al. (1979) observed that religious and spiritual motivation appear to have a positive link with personal security, efficacy and esteem, interpersonal openness and an active approach to dealing with life situations. Further support is provided for this explanation by the significant positive correlation that was found between spirituality and competence.

Control (see Table 3) was the third most endorsed attribute. In the questionnaire, control was assessed with the use of three questions: I know where to turn for help; I have a strong sense of purpose; You need to be in control of your life. Control seems to involve efforts to regulate risk and protective factors. Tugade and Frederickson (2004) state that every person has potential for resilience, but the level is determined by individual experiences, qualities, the environment and by each person's balance of risk and protective factors. An internal locus of control may serve a protective function (Liu et al., 2000) which may help unemployed women achieve a positive outcome regardless of the risk posed by unemployment. In maintaining positivity, developing emotional insight, achieving life balance and spirituality, women could positively adjust to adversity (Jackson et al., 2007). Liu et al. 2000) add that it seems as if women become more capable of making a change when they recognise their inner resources such as, among other things, hardiness, effective regulation of emotional arousal and problem-solving abilities. The finding that the

unemployed women in this sample felt that they had internal control seems to be in line with the Yu and Zhang (2007) study in which people in the East would rather change their internal world (e.g. desire, personal goals, emotions) to adapt to the demands of the outside environment, compared to people in the West who place emphasis on the external world according to their own goals in their adaptation. This attitude where women recognise and acknowledge their internal world allows them to feel in control of their situation.

Although the resilience subscale **trusting instincts** was least endorsed in the present study, and while it was second most endorsed in Connor and Davidson's (2003) study, there was not much of a difference in the item means when compared to the other subscales. According to Connor and Davidson (2003, p. 80), this second factor includes "trusts in one's instincts, tolerance of negative affect and strengthening effects of stress". When consideration is given to the questions in the questionnaire, for example, 'I see the humorous side of things; I prefer to take the lead in problem-solving', there seem to be a range of different features of resilience that are being assessed.

5.2.2 Coping

In the current study, the WCQ (Folkman et al., 1986) measured coping strategies of women in a specific context of unemployment. From the discussion that follows it will become clear that coping strategies used are influenced by context. The overall mean score (M = 112.03; SD = 30.62) obtained from the WCQ in the current study is higher than the scores reported by Mathonsi (2007), who found a total mean score of 103.16 (SD = 26.54) in her study of nurses coping with stress. Although the context differs, findings suggest that the women in this sample seem to cope better.

The study examined coping as measured by the various WCQ subscales. These include:

- Seeking social support this involves efforts to draw support from others in order to regulate the unpleasant feelings of stress.

- Escape-avoidance – involves attempts to avoid anything that relates to the stressful situation.

- Confrontative – involves aggressive attempts to change the stressful situation.

- Distancing – involves attempts to detach from the stressful situation.

- Self-controlling – involves efforts to regulate his or her feelings.

- Accepting responsibility – involves the ability to accept his or her role in the stressful situation.

- Planful problem-solving – involves efforts to solve the problem using an analytical approach.

- Positive reappraisal – involves efforts to derive positive meaning from the stressful situation.

Of all the subscales, **escape-avoidance** yielded the highest scores (see Table 3), making it the most frequently used coping method by this sample of unemployed women. It involves attempts to avoid anything that relates to the stressful situation (Folkman et al., 1986). This finding is inconsistent with findings by Mathonsi (2007), who reported that escape-avoidance was the least used coping strategy by nurses dealing with stress in her sample. For women in this study it involves attempts to avoid anything that relates to the stressful situation of unemployment. The experience of unemployment is probably the reason the profile of scores differ. One possible explanation underlying the high escape-avoidance scores could be that women believe that God is responsible for solving problems while the person remains relatively inactive as described in the 'deferring problem-solving style' (Pargament et al., 1988). However, no correlation between escape-avoidance and religion was detected. Low scores on the **confrontative** subscale (see Table 3) were observed making it the

least used coping strategy. The low scores of confrontative coping seem to be consistent with the scores of escape-avoidance. Confrontative coping appears also not to be used frequently by nurses in the workplace as observed in the Mathonsi (2007) study. Since it involves a degree of hostility (Folkman et al., 1986), it is possible that the women, due to their religious beliefs, did not feel angry by blaming others for their status, nor do they take risks considering that the majority are single mothers. As stated by Pargament (1997), people seek restraint and relief from their own impulses through religion. Confrontative yielded the lowest alpha scores (see Table 3). This may be due to the fact that the items were phrased in ways that may be considered inappropriate for the measurement of coping in unemployed people. For example, 'I expressed anger to the person who caused the problem' and 'tried to get the person responsible to change his or her mind'. In most instances it is not one person who is responsible for the loss of one's job. **Distancing** was one of the lowest used strategies, while escape-avoidance was the most frequently use strategy as mentioned. On the surface it seems as if distancing and escape-avoidance measure the same coping processes, however they measure very distinct strategies. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1985), escape-avoidance describes wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem. Items on this subscale contrast with the distancing subscale, which suggests detachment. People avoid confrontation, which is related to problem-solving efforts, by using escape-avoidance and distancing, which are emotion-focused efforts to cope with stress (Magaya et al., 2005), as observed by the findings of the current study.

The study found that **positive reappraisal** is the second most frequently used coping strategy (see Table 3) which is consistent with findings by Payne (2001). The high score found on the current subscale is not surprising, because when individuals face situations which lie beyond their control or that severely test their coping resources and when they find problem-solving styles not useful, they may realise partnership with God may help manage

their feelings and provide more effective living skills (Pargament et al., 1988). Folkman (1997) agrees that the person may use positive reappraisal by drawing on his or her beliefs, values and existential goals to motivate and sustain coping and well-being during difficult times. In the current study, 38% of the women were unemployed for more than a year, which is considered to be long lasting unemployment (Wilczynska-Kwiatek & Bargiel-Matusiewicz, 2008). People tend to draw more fully on their religious resources in times of stress (Pargament et al., 2001), as in unemployment. Pearce (2005) agrees that people are particularly apt to rely on religion when they have reached their own human limitations (for example, in times of long lasting unemployment) and when religion is 'available and accessible'. One of the primary functions of religion is to help people deal with adversity (Pargament et al., 1997). It offers meaning, a way to come to terms with tragedy, suffering and the most significant issues of life (Geertz, 1973). Pargament et al. (1988) have noted that religion may serve important functions in helping people understand and cope with life events by offering guidance, support and hope.

Various studies found **seeking social support** used more often than **planful problem-solving** by women (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Mathonsi, 2007; Payne, 2001). Initially it was surprising to find that seeking social support was used less often than planful problem-solving**.** Women more often use symptom-focused coping such as seeking social support whereas men rely on problem-focused activities such as job-seeking (Christensen et al., 2006; Leana & Feldman, 1991). Magaya et al. (2005) agree that women tend to use more emotion-focused strategies than men as it modifies the potential negative effects of stress caused by unemployment. The study found 'seeking social support' to yield a barely adequate alpha (see Table 3). Individual items were examined and it was found that the item 'I got professional help' was not used often while all the other items were used more often. This resulted in a lower overall mean than would have been obtained if this item was excluded. It is

understandable that unemployed women do not have the financial means to seek professional help and therefore may turn to religious institutions for support. As stated by Ferraro and Koch (1994), religious activity represents ways in which people often find social support and feelings of belonging. It is possible that women receive social support at a religious institution. A limitation in the scale is that it does not include social interaction through religious practice. An explanation that may be offered for the findings in the study where planful problem-solving is rated high could be that most women in the study (70%) are single mothers and therefore the breadwinners. The ability to provide for the sustenance of the household becomes a paramount factor in survival for women. Planful problem-solving is the third most frequently used coping strategy (see Table 3). It refers to the individual's efforts to solve a problem by using an analytical approach such as planning, seeking information and taking action. It is used in situations where something could be done (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

5.3 Relationship between Resilience and Coping

The present study was aimed at exploring the relationship between resilience and coping.

5.3.1 Relationships between the Resilience and Coping subscales

Significant positive correlations were found between the resilience subscale **trusting instincts** and **positiveness** and the coping subscale **distancing** (see Table 6). This finding seems to indicate that as the women report confidence in their own intuitions, experience the strengthening effects of stress, as well as accept change in a positive way, they tend to become more distant by detaching from the situation. In this instance the situation is unemployment. When people appraise encounters as having to be accepted, they turn to the coping method of distancing that allows them to shift focus away from the troubling situation

(Folkman et al., 1986). Distancing appears to help women maintain a healthy balance between the unemployment situation and her functioning as a person which could help to "preserve her own mental well-being" (Escot, Artero, Gandubert, Boulenger & Richie, 2001, p.277). They may detach from the situation by not constantly thinking about being unemployed. This approach seems to be reflected in the coping statement, 'Went on as if nothing had happened'.

However, what was interesting to note was that although these aspects of resilience correlated with distancing as a coping mechanism, they also showed significant positive correlations with **planful problem-solving**. This implies that while they may have attempted to emotionally detach from their circumstances, they did try to engage in active coping by attempting to do something about their situation. Folkman et al. (1986) found that people who thought something could be done about the situation used more problem-focused coping than people who appraised it beyond their control. Results show that 77% of the respondents indicated that they used the six coping strategies on the planful problem-solving subscale. It is possible that their positive outlook and trust in their own instincts could be the underlying motivators in their drive to engage in active problem-solving. Similar dynamics were found in the Beck et al. (2005) study of unemployed East German women who were actively involved in gaining information about job placements and training courses being offered. Magaya et al. (2005) also report that South African women are proactive in joining social networks where they are engaged in purposeful activity. Although finding formal employment may seem to be beyond many South African women's control, many single mothers have no choice but to find solutions to their problem by focusing on their strengths, accepting change and maintaining secure relationships. According to Connor and Davidson (2003), having these characteristics tends to result in more adaptive pursuits and could thus augur well for the adjustment of the women ,of whom 70% were single and 87.5% were mothers in the current sample. Arehart-

Treichel (2005) also found that active problem-solving (as observed in the planful problem-solving subscale) in the face of stress was positively linked with resilience.

Significant positive correlations were found between the resilience subscales **trusting instincts** and **positiveness** and the coping subscale **positive reappraisal.** This finding suggests that as the sample's trust in their instincts increases and they begin to positively accept changes in their circumstances (their unemployed status) they tend to derive greater positive meaning from their situation. Tugade and Frederickson (2004) agree that the ability to find positive meaning in adverse situations is related to resilience. Positive emotions (generated by meaning-focused coping) stimulate adaptation that helps the individual develop a greater range of resources, which among others include maintaining social relationships and seeing positive aspects and potential benefits of a situation (Bonanno, 2004; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Lazarus and Folkman (1985) describe positive reappraisal as engaging in efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. It also has a religious/spiritual dimension. According to Chaundhry (2008), spiritual practices foster an awareness that serves to promote perseverance. The women in the sample appear to find meaning by being religious while they trust their instincts and stay positive. It is therefore not surprising to find that **positive reappraisal** is positively correlated with **spirituality**. Positive reappraisal includes a person's beliefs (for example, religious, spiritual or beliefs about justice). Pearce (2005) also comments that spirituality is linked to positive outcomes, including psychological adjustment and spiritual and stress-related growth.

A significant negative correlation was found between the resilience subscale **control** and the coping subscale **accepting responsibility** (see Table 6).This means that as control (defined as control in being able to achieve one's own goal and getting assistance) (Connor & Davidson, 2003) increases, accepting responsibility decreases. Yu and Zhang (2007) explained that non-Western people would rather change their internal world (for example,

desire, personal goals and emotions) to adapt to the demands of the outside environment. The goal of the women in the present sample may be to find ways of surviving every day and this could give them a sense of control. According to Folkman et al. (1986), responsibility means one 'acknowledges one's own role in the problem with the concomitant theme of trying to put things right' (p.995). According to Ndungu (2010), in South Africa, not only are the rates of unemployment higher among women compared to men, but women make up two of every three discouraged work seeker. The finding therefore could imply that although the women feel a sense of purpose and control at an emotional level, they feel less responsible for their unemployment status.

In the study, the two mainly endorsed methods of resilience were found to be spirituality and competence, while the two mainly used methods of coping were found to be escape-avoidance and positive reappraisal. The sample reported high levels of religiosity. Both resilience and coping subscales included aspects of religion. The effect is observed in the resilience subscale spirituality, which yielded the highest mean and was the most frequently endorsed attribute, while positive reappraisal was found the second most frequently used coping strategy. The study indicates that certain factors of resilience such as trusting instincts and positiveness are significantly correlated with coping methods like distancing, problem-solving and positive reappraisal. It is also not surprising that spirituality is positively correlated with positive reappraisal. Religiosity, as assessed with a single question in the demographic section of the questionnaire, also produced a high score. The study demonstrates the important role religion plays in the lives of unemployed women. As stated by Pargament (1997), religion helps people face their own limitations and go beyond themselves for solutions.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.1 Summary and Conclusion

The sample comprised 120 unemployed women between the ages of 23 and 55 years old, applying for and accessing unemployment funds at the Department of Labour in Durban. The aim of the study was to explore the relationship between resilience and coping in this sample of unemployed women.

The two mainly endorsed methods of resilience were found to be **spirituality** and **competence**, while the two most popular methods of coping for the sample were found to be **escape-avoidance** and **positive reappraisal**. The sample also reported high levels of religiosity. Both resilience and coping subscales included aspects of religion and its apparent effect, as observed in the results. **Spirituality** yielded the highest mean and was the most frequently endorsed attribute while **positive reappraisal** – which contains elements of spirituality – was found the second most frequently used coping strategy.

Certain aspects of resilience such as **trusting instincts** and **positiveness** are significantly correlated with coping methods like **distancing, problem-solving** and **positive reappraisal**. These correlations seem to indicate that as the unemployed women in the sample experience personal growth, they seem to distance themselves emotionally from their situation while they engage in purposeful activity. Underlying their sense of meaning seems to be their strong religiousness. Religiosity, which was assessed with a single question in the questionnaire, also produced a high score. The study therefore demonstrates the important role religion plays in the lives of these unemployed women.

As pointed out in the literature review, there is a lack of clarity around the definitions of resilience and coping. Some theorists see resilience and coping as appearing to measure the same construct, while others see them operating differently. For others, the two concepts seem to overlap, for example, Connor and Davidson (2003) in describing Richardson's model of

resilience, conclude that resilience may 'also' be viewed as a measure of 'successful stress-coping ability' (p.77). There are complex definitions of these terms and they are sometimes used interchangeably. For example, Vaishnavi et al. (2006) describe the different ways in which resilience has been defined. Likewise, different views on whether resilience is a personality trait or an acquired approach to adversity also exist. Early theorists viewed resilience as an adaptive, stress resistant personal quality that permits a person to thrive in spite of adversity. More recently, however, it has been recognised as a dynamic process among factors that mediate between an individual, his or her environment and an outcome (Ahern et al., 2008). Rutter (1993) also maintained that resilience is not a fixed characteristic (trait) of individuals but it changes with developmental life experience and is dependent on risk factors, adversity and the social environment. People can only become resilient in the presence of adversity and this dynamic process varies in different contexts, making resilience an acquired skill.

Considering the findings of the current study, it seems as if religiosity, which is related to meaning-focused coping, **generates** positive emotions that appear to assist in **building** (rather use italics to emphasise a word/point) resilience and provide a buffer against unemployment. When the women experience positive emotions as generated by their religion, their thought-action inventory can be broadened, increasing thoughts and possible actions, which come to mind when faced with unemployment. This in turn stimulates adaptation that helps the women develop a greater range of resources. These resources include seeing positive aspects and potential benefits of a situation, rather than being negative and cynical, maintaining social relationships and participating in activities, and having a belief system which provides existential meaning, a cohesive life narrative and an appreciation of the uniqueness of oneself (Bonanno, 2004; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Therefore resilience and coping do not seem to measure the same construct but rather compliment each other. The

connection between the two concepts seems to be their interdependence, whereby coping builds resilience and resilience in turn provides resources to sustain coping, especially in a situation such as unemployment. Furthermore, the current study appears to support the second viewpoint that states that resilience is an acquired skill. Resilience may be acquired as a result of positive emotions which are generated in a specific context such as unemployment by meaning-focused coping methods. Given that this was a once-off survey with a select sample of unemployed women, these suggestions should be treated as speculative at best. Far more research needs to be conducted in order to further examine the relationship between coping and resilience, and in different contexts.

6.2 Limitations

The current study has several limitations worth noting. Firstly, the sample for this study was comprised of a small group of women applying and accessing unemployment funds at the Department of Labour. Results may not generalise to unemployed women in general.

Accumulating evidence has indirectly shown that non-Western people adapt to their specific physical and social environment in ways that are sometimes different from those of Western people. Non-Western people were most likely to satisfy interests of inner groups (family-serving motives) rather than to achieve their own internal wishes (self-serving motives) like Western people (Yu & Zhang, 2007). The CD-RISC and WCQ scales are Western measuring instruments and based on the above may not be the ideal instruments to use in the South African context. Additional research could include the development of culturally relevant instruments.

Religion was assessed with a single question in this study. Future research should include women's access to support in religion in order to establish social interaction through religious practices. In retrospect, religious practices should be included in the questionnaire

for future research, for example how often women pray, attend services and are involved in religious activities.

Despite these limitations, the present study adds to our understanding of an understudied phenomenon: how the concepts of resilience and coping relate among unemployed women. The two resilience factors, trusting instincts and positiveness, that had a relationship with the coping methods of distancing, problem-solving and positive reappraisal, could benefit future interventions as it could encourage unemployed women to grow at a personal level by distancing themselves emotionally from their situation while they engage in purposeful activity.

6.3 Recommendations

The findings stress the importance of context and in this case the context is the role religion plays in the lives of women dealing with unemployment. Possible interventions should involve religious institutions in collaboration with health promotion specialists on the most effective intervention strategies and programmes. Religion promotes hope and optimism which have positive implications for well-being (Chaundhry, 2008). Various studies indicate that religiosity has significant implications for well-being, for example, spirituality and religious connotations (Chaundhry, 2008); religious problem-solving styles (Fox, Blanton & Morris, 1998); religion as a culture (Geertz, 1973); groups facing a variety of major life stressors (Pargament, 1997); and religious coping among the religious (Pargament et al., 2001). Religion may serve important functions in helping people understand and cope with life events by offering guidance, support and hope, which seems crucial considering that many women in the study indicated that they are religious (Pargament, 1997).

Moorhouse and Caltabiano (2007) suggest incorporating psychological interventions by enhancing coping skills and fostering resilience among unemployed people. These

interventions should be done in the context of religion as mentioned. The focus of such interventions could be to (a) use emotion-focused coping strategies to prevent negative mood, (b) build on individual strengths to increase self-esteem, (c) use problem-focused coping efforts to enhance (re-)employment, such as information seeking, (d) use relaxation training to help people cope with anxiety, and (e) standard job search training. Caplan, Vinokur, Price & Van Ryn (1989) suggest that attention to skills is critical because most people have little knowledge and skill regarding how to seek re-employment/employment. Interventions should attempt to enhance components of motivation necessary for job seeking, such as identifying types of jobs where one's skills may be relevant, using social networks to obtain job leads, and presenting one's skills and abilities in a concrete and relevant manner in one's curriculum vitae and at job interviews. A second motivational component is a person's belief that he/she possesses the relevant job-seeking skills and can perform the necessary behaviour (Bandura, 1977), and that such performance will lead to finding employment. They (what are you referring to here?) can be increased through modelling processes, by the teaching of skills in small steps, and by embedding newly attempted behaviours in a consistent programme of reinforcement from the trainer. Development skills will aid in being more resilient, better able to cope, and being able to protect oneself from adversity (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004) such as unemployment. In the South African context, religious institutions can collaborate with health promotion specialists in formulating and offering these interventions to the unemployed in community settings.

REFERENCES

Ahern, N.R., Ark, P., & Byers, J. (2008). Resilience and coping strategies in adolescents. *Paediatric nursing, 20*, 32-36.

Alim, T.N., Feder, M.D., Graves, R. E., Wang, Y., Weaver, J., Westphal, M., Alonso, A.,

Aigbogun, N.U. & Smith, B.W. (2008). Trauma, resilience and recovery in a high-risk African-American population. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, *165*, 1566-1575.

Almedom, A. M., Tesfamichael, B., Mohammed, Z. S., Mascie-Taylor, C. G. N., & Alemu, Z. (2007). Use of Sense of Coherence (SOC) scale to measure resilience in Eritrea: Interrogating both the data and the scale. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, *39*, 91-107.

Antonovsky, A. (1984). A call for a new question – Salutogenesis – and a proposed answer – the sense of coherence. *Journal of Preventative Psychiatry*, *2*, 1-13.

Arehart-Treichel J. (2005). Resilience shown in youth protects against adult stress.

Psychiatric   News, *40*, 1-17.

Artazcoz, L., Benach, J., Borrell, C., & Cortes, I. (2004). Unemployment and mental health: Understanding the interactions among gender, family roles and social class. *American Journal of Public Health*, *94*, 82-88.

Atkinson, P.A., Martin, C.R., & Rankin, J. (2009). Resilience revisited. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing*, *16*, 137-145.

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Towards a unifying theory of behaviour change. *Psychological Review*, *84*, 191-215.

Baum, A. (1990). Stress intrusive imagery and chronic distress. *Health Psychology*, *9(6)*, 653-675.

Beall, J.O., Crankshaw, O., & Parnell, S. (2000). The causes of unemployment in post-apartheid Johannesburg and the livelihood strategies of the poor. *Journal of Economics & Social Geography, 91,* 2-19.

Beck, V., Wagener, D., & Grix, J. (2005). Resilience and unemployment: A case study of

East   German women. *German Politics*, *14*, 1-13.

Beit-Hallahmi, B. & Argule, M. (1997). The psychological beliefs, behaviour and experience.

London: Routledge.

Bhorat, H., & Leibbrandt, M. (1996). Understanding unemployment: The relationship

between   the employed and the jobless. In J. Baskin (Ed.), *Against the current: Labour*

and   economic policy in South Africa (pp. 143-164). Johannesburg: Ravan Press.

Block, J.H., & Block, J. (1980). Development of cognition, affect and social relations.

Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bonanno, G.A. (2004). Loss, trauma, and human resilience: Have we underestimated the

human capacity to thrive after extremely aversive events? *American Psychologist,*

59(1), 20-28.

Boniwell, I. (2009). Time for life: satisfaction with time use and its relationship with

subjective wellbeing. Saarbrucken, Germany: VDM.

Campbell-Sills, L., Cohan, S.L., & Stein, M.B. (2006). Relationship of resilience to

personality, coping and psychiatric symptoms in young adults. *Behaviour Research*

and Therapy, *44*, 585-599.

Caplan, R.D., Vinokur, A.D., Price, R.H., & Van Ryn, M.(1989). Job seeking, reemployment

and mental health: A randomised field experiment in coping with job loss. *Journal*

of Applied Psychology, *74*, 759-769.

Cassidy, T. (2001). Self-categorisation, coping and psychological health among unemployed

mid-career executives. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly*, *14*, 303-315.

Chaundhry, H. R. (2008). Psychiatric care in Asia: Spirituality and religious connotations.

International Review of Psychiatry, *20(5)*, 477-483.

Christensen U., Schmidt, L., Kriegbaum, M., Hougaard, C.O., & Holstein, B.E. (2006). Coping with unemployment: Does educational attainment make any difference? *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health, 34*, 363-370.

Colbjornsen, T. (1993). *Adaptation to and coping with long- term unemployment* (ECON-Report No. 93). Oslo: Centre for Economic Analysis.

Connor, K.M., & Davidson R.T. (2003). Development of a new scale: The Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). *Depression and Anxiety, 18,* 76-82.

Diener, E., Lucas,R.E., & Scollon C.N. (2006). Beyond the hedonic treadmill: Revising the adaptation theory of well-being. *American Psychologist*, *61(4)*, 305-314.

Echterling, L.G., & Steward, A.L. (2008). Resilience. In S.F. Davis & W. Buskist (Eds.), *Twenty-first century psychology: A reference handbook* (Vol. 2, pp. 192-201). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ellison, C.G., & George, L. K. (1994). Religious involvement, social ties and social support in a Southeastern community. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 33*(1), 46-61.

Erasmus, J. (1999). *Coping strategies of the unemployed*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council Group for Economic and Social Analysis, Labour Market Analysis.

Escot, C., Artero, C., Gandubert, J., Boulenger, P., & Richie, K. (2001). Stress levels in nursing staff working in oncology. *Stress and Health*, *17*, 273-279.

Ferraro, K.F., & Koch, J.R. (1994). Religion and health among black and white adults: Examining social support and consolation. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 33*, 362-375.

Folkman, S. (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *46*, 839-852.

Folkman, S. (1997). Positive psychological states and coping with severe stress. *Social Science and Medicine*, *45*, 1207-1221.

Folkman, S. (2008). The case for positive emotions in the stress process. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping, 21(1)*, 3-14.

Folkman, S., Lazarus, R.S., Dunkel-Schetter, C., DeLongis, A., & Gruen, R. (1986). Dynamics of a stressful encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 50(5)*, 992-1003.

Folkman, S., & Moskowitz, J.T. (2000). Positive affect and the other side of coping. *American Psychologist*, *55(6)*, 647-654.

Fox, C.A., Blanton, P.W., & Morris, M.L. (1998). Religious problem-solving styles: Three styles revisited. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 37*, 673-677.

Friborg, O., Hjemdal, O., Rosenvinge, J.H., & Martinussen, M. (2003). A new rating scale for adult resilience: What are the central protective resources behind healthy adjustment? *International Journal of Methods in Psychiatric Research*, *12 (2)*, 65-76.

Garmezy, N. (1991). Resiliency and vulnerability to adverse developmental outcomes associated with poverty. *American Behavioral Scientist, 34(4)*, 416-430.

Garmezy, N., Masten, A.S., & Tellegen, A. (1984). A study of stress and competence in children: A building block for developmental psychology. *Child development*, *55*, 97–111.

Geertz, C. (1973). Interpretation of cultures: Selected Essays. New York: Basic Books.

Gillespie, B., Chaboyer W., & Wallis, M. (2007). Development of a theoretically derived model of resilience through concept analysis. *Contemporary Nurse, 25*, 124-135.

Grossi, G. (1999). Coping and emotional distress in a sample of Swedish unemployed. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *40*, 157-165.

Hassim, S. (2005). *Gender, welfare and the developmental state in South Africa*. Draft

    working document prepared for United Nations Research Institute for Social

    Development, revised Draft.

Howard, S., & Johnson, B. (2000). What makes the difference? Children and teachers talk

    about resilient outcomes for children 'at risk.' *Educational Studies, 26(3)*, 323-337.

Jacelon, C. (1997). The trait and process of resilience. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 25, 123-

    129.

Jackson, D., Firtko, A., & Edenborough, M. (2007). Personal resilience as a strategy for

    surviving and thriving in the face of workplace adversity: A literature review.

    Journal of Advanced Nursing, 60(1), 1-9.

Jackson, P.R., & Walsh, S. (1995). Partner support and gender: Context for coping with job

    loss. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *68*, 253-268.

Jahoda, M. (1982). Employment and unemployment. A socio-psychological analysis.

    Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jin, R.L., Shah, C.P., & Svoboda, T.J. (1997). The impact of unemployment on health.

    Journal of Public Health Policy, *18*, 275-301.

Julkunen, I. (2001). Coping and mental well-being among unemployed youth: A North

    European perspective. *Journal of Youth Studies*, *4(3)*, 262-278.

Kelvin, P., & Jarret, J.E. (1985). Unemployment: Its social psychological effects. London:

    Cambridge University Press.

Kingdon, G., & Knight J. (2005). Unemployment in South Africa, 1995-2003: Causes,

    problems and policies. *Journal of African Economies, 16(5)*, 813-848.

Krause, N., Ellison, C.G., Shaw, B.A., Marcum , J.P., & Boardman, J.D. (2001). Church-

based   social support and religious coping. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 40(4)*,

    637-656.

Lai, J.C., & Wong, W.S. (1998). Optimism and coping with unemployment among Hong

  Kong Chinese women. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *32,* 454-479.

Lazarsfeld, P.F. (1933). On social research and its language. Chicago: University of Chicago.

Lazarus, R.S. (1968). Emotion as coping process: The nature of emotion. London:

  Harmondsworth.

Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal and coping. New York: Springer.

Lazarus, R.S., & Folkman, S. (1985). Ways of Coping Scales. *Journal of Personality and*

  Social Psychology, *50*, 992 – 1003.

Leana, C., & Feldman D. (1991). Gender differences in response to unemployment. *Journal*

of Vocational Behavior, *43*, 1155-1181.

Liu, X., Kurita, H., Uchiyama, M., Liu, L., Okawa, M. & Ma, D. (2000). Life events, locus of

  control and behavioural problems among Chinese adolescents. *Journal of Clinical*

  Psychology, 56(12), 1565-1577.

Luthar, S.S. (1991). Vulnerability and resilience: A study of high-risk adolescents. *Society*

  for research in Child Development, *62*, 600-616.

Magaya, L., Asner-Self, K.K., & Scheiber, J.B. (2005). Stress and coping strategies among

  Zimbabwean adolescents. *The British Psychology Society*, *75*, 661-671.

Malen, E.A., & Stroh, L.K. (1998). The influence of gender on job loss coping behaviour

  among unemployed managers. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, *35*, 27-39.

Mantler, J., Matejicek, A., Matheson, K., & Anisman, H. (2005). Coping with employment

  uncertainty: A comparison of employed and unemployed workers. *Journal of*

  Occupational Health Psychology, *10*, 200-209.

Margalit, M., & Kleitman, T. (2006). Mother's stress, resilience and early intervention.

  European Journal of Special Needs Education, *3,* 269-283.

Masten, A.S., Best, K.M., & Garmezy, N. (1990). Resilience and development: Contributions from the study of children who overcome adversity. *Development and Psychopathology*, *2*, 425-444.

Masten, A.S., Herbers, J.E., Cutuli, J.J., & Lafavor, T.L. (2008). Promoting competence and resilience in the school context. *Professional School Counseling*, *12*, 76-84.

Masten, A.S., & Reed, M.G. J. (2002). *Resilience in development: Handbook of positive psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mates, D., & Allison, K.R. (1992). Sources of stress and coping responses of high school students. *Adolescence*, *27(106)*, 461-474.

Mathonsi, C.G. (2007). *Stress, coping and spiritual well-being of a sample of nurses*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.

Mbiti, J.S. (1989). African religions and philosophy. London: Heinemann.

McFadyan, RG. (1995). Coping with threatened identities. *Current Psychology*, *14*, 233-260.

Meisenhelder, J.B., & Marcum, J.P. (2009). Terrorism, post-traumatic stress, coping strategies and spiritual outcomes. *Journal of Religion and Health*, *48*, 46-52.

Moorhouse, A., & Caltabiano, M.L. (2007). Resilience and unemployment: Exploring risk and protective influences for the outcome variables of depression and assertive job searching. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 44(3)*, 115-125.

Mummery, W.K., Schofield, G., & Perry, C. (2004). Bouncing back: The role of coping style, social support and self-concept in resilience of sport performance. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, *161*, 1-15.

Ndungu, K. (2010). *Women shut out of the labour market*. November 30, 2010 http://www.genderlinks.org.za/article/women-shut-out-of-the-labour-market-2010-04-23

Onwumere, J., Holttum F., & Hirst, F. (2002). Determinants of quality of life in black African women with HIV living in London. *Psychology, Health & Medicine*, *7,* 62-74.

Paloutzian, R.F. (1996). Invitation to the psychology of religion (2nd ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon.

Pargament, K.I. (1997). *The psychology of religion and coping: Theory, research, practice.* New York: The Guilford Press.

Pargament, K.I., Ensing, K., Falgout, H., Olsen, H., Reilly, B., van Haitsma, K., & Warren, R. (1990). God help me: (I): Religious coping efforts as predictors of the outcomes to significant negative life events. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *18*(*6*), 793-824.

Pargament, K. I., Kennell, J., Hathaway, W., Grevengoed, N., Newman, J., & Jones, W. (1988). Religion and the problem-solving process: Three styles of coping. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 27(1)*, 90-104.

Pargament, K.I. Koenig, H.G., & Perez, L. (2000).The many methods of religious coping: Development and initial validation of the RCOPE. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *56*, 519-543.

Pargament, K.I., Steele, R.E., & Tyler, F.B. (1979). Religious participation, religious motivation and individual psychosocial competence. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion, 18(4)*, 412-419.

Pargament, K.I., Tarakeshwar, N., Ellison, C.G., & Wulff, K.M. (2001). Religious coping among the religious: The relationship between religious coping and well-being in a national sample of Presbyterian clergy, elders and members. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion,* 40, 497-513.

Payne, S. (2001). Interaction between nurses during handovers in elderly care. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 32(2)*, 277-285.

Pearce, M. (2005). A critical review of the forms and values of religious coping among informal caregivers. *Journal of Religion and Health*, *44*, 81-118.

Report of the Expert Group Meeting (2008). *The equal sharing of responsibility between women and men, including caregiving in the context of HIV/AIDS.* (Unpublished paper no. EGM/ESOR/2008). United Nations Economic Commission for Europe. Geneva: Switzerland.

Rule, S. (2002). Spirituality in South Africa: Christian beliefs. In *Public attitudes in contemporary SA: Insights from an HSRC survey* (pp. 87-96). Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Rutter, M. (1985). Resilience in the face of adversity: Protective factors and resistance to psychiatric disorders. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, *147*, 598-611

Rutter, M. (1993). Resilience: Some conceptual considerations. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, *14*, 626 – 631.

Seligman, M.E.P. (2002). Authentic happiness. Using the New Positive Psychology to realise your potential for lasting fulfilment. New York. Free Press.

Shaughnessy, J.J. & Zechmeister, E.B. (1994). Research methods in Psychology (third ed). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Statistics South Africa. (2008). South Africa HIV and AIDS Statistics. May 21, 2010 http://www.avert.org/safricastats.htm-2010-05-09.

Statistics South Africa. (2009). Single mothers. May 21, 2010 http://www.cabsa.org.za/content/28-sa-women-single-moms-2010-05-09.

Statistics South Africa. (2010). Unemployment: Quarterly Labour Force Survey. Press Statement 27 July 2010. December 12, 2010. www.statssa.gov.za.

Stern, M. & Zevron, M.A. (1990). Stress, coping and family environment: The adolescent's

    response to naturally occurring stressors. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, *5(3)*, 290-

    305.

Strom, S. (2003). Unemployment and families: A review of research. *The Social Service*

    Review, *77*, 399-430.

Tugade, M.M. & Fredrickson B.L. (2004). Resilient individuals use positive emotions to

    bounce back from negative experiences. *Journal of Personality and Social*

Psychology,   *86*, 320-333.

Vaishnavi, S., Connor, K., & Davidson, R.T. (2006). An abbreviated version of the Connor-

    Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), the CD-RISC2: Psychometric properties and

    applications in psychopharmacological trials. *Psychiatry Research*, *152*, 293-297.

Vance, D.E., Struzick, T.C., & Russel, T.V. (2007). Spiritual and religious implications of

    aging with HIV: A conceptual and methodological review. *Journal of Religion,*

    Spirituality & Aging, *19*, 21- 42.

Wagnild, G.M., & Young, H.M. (1993). Development and psychometric evaluation of the

    Resilience Scale. *Journal of Nursing Measurement, 1*, 165-178.

Wilczynska-Kwaitek, A., & Bargiel-Matusiewicz, K. (2008). Contemporary picture of

    women's unemployment: Personality conditioning of unemployment and its

    consequences for psychic health. *Archives of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy*, *4*, 63-68.

Whelan, C.T. (1992). The role of income, life-style deprivation and financial strain in

    mediating the impact of unemployment on psychological distress: Evidence from the

    Republic of Ireland. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *65*, 331-344.

Yu, X., & Zhang, J. (2007). Factor analysis and psychometric evaluation of the Connor-

    Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC) with Chinese people. *Social Behaviour and*

    Personality, *35*, 19-30.

APPENDIX A: Letter of permission

18 September 2009

30 Tiburon Place
New Dawn Park
Durban
4037

Dear Mr. Reddy

I am June Ortell-Pierce, currently pursuing a Masters degree in Social Science. I am doing research that is related to unemployed women. The research will include two questionnaires that have to be completed by unemployed women between the ages of 23 and 55 years.

I am requesting your permission to grant me access to the women applying for UIF. This exercise will be conducted once the Higher Degrees Committee (Humanities) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal has granted me the authority to proceed.

For further information regarding this request, please contact my supervisor Mrs Cynthia Patel at UKZN on 031-2607619.

Yours sincerely

June Ortell-Pierce
0825614006 (cell)
0315776533 (home)
961105181@ukzn.ac.za

School of Psychology
Howard College Campus
patelc@ukzn.ac.za

APPENDIX B: Informed consent form

You are requested to take part in a research study about the relationship between resilience and coping amongst unemployed women in Durban.

If you agree to be part of this research, we will conduct a survey with you. The survey will include two questionnaires. These questionnaires intend to establish if there is a relationship between resilience and coping amongst unemployed women.

I Juniea Ortell-Pierce, telephone number 0825614006, am a student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal doing a Master's degree in Health Promotion. I in conjunction with the University of KwaZulu-Natal will conduct this research. You will be able to get further information and confirmation about this project from Cynthia Patel, a lecturer and my supervisor at UKZN. Her telephone number is 031-2607619 and her email is patelc@ukzn.ac.za

The questionnaire will take about 30 minutes to complete and you will be rewarded with a soft drink. Your responses will be treated confidentially. In any sort of report we make public we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored in a secured place at the university for a period of five years after which it will be destroyed.

Participation is voluntary and you may decide at any time to withdraw from this survey. Should you decide not to complete the survey you will not be disadvantaged or suffer any form of prejudice.

I…………………………………. (full name of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the content of this document and the nature of the research project and I consent to participate in the research project.

SIGNITURE OF PARTICIPANT   DATE

……………………………………………………………………………………

Questionnaire

Part One: Demographic details
This section requires you to tell us about yourself, remember you are not required to give your name.

Age   :-----------------------------

Gender   :-----------------------------

Highest grade/standard passed:----------------------------

Number of dependants   :-----------------------------

Period of unemployment   : One month   ☐

                                          : Three months   ☐

                                          : Six months   ☐

                                           :Longer than a year ☐

Part Two: Coping Scale

The statements below relate to how people deal with stressful situations. Please indicate with a (√) whether you have used any of the statements since you have been unemployed.

	Not used	Used somewhat	Used quite a bit	Used a great deal
1. Just concentrated on what I had to do next - the next step.				
2. I tried to analyse the problem in order to understand it better.				
3. Turned to work or substitute activity to take my mind off things.				
4. I felt that time would make a difference - the only thing to do was to wait.				
5. Bargained or compromised to get something positive from the situation.				
6. I did something which I didn't think would work, but at least I was doing something.				
7. Tried to get the person responsible to change his or her mind.				
8. Talked to someone to find out more about the situation.				
9. Criticised or lectured myself.				
10. Tried not to burn my bridges, but leave things open somewhat.				
11. Hoped a miracle would happen.				
12. Went along with fate, sometimes I just have bad luck.				
13. Went on as if nothing had happened.				
14. I tried to keep my feelings to myself.				
15. Looked for the silver lining, so to speak. Tried to look on the bright side of things.				
16. Slept more than usual.				
17. I expressed anger to the person(s) who caused the problem.				
18. Accepted sympathy and understanding from someone.				
19. I told myself things that helped me to feel better.				
	Not used	Used somewhat	Used quite a bit	Used a great deal
20. I was inspired to do something creative.				

21. Tried to forget the whole thing.				
22. I got professional help.				
23. Changed or grew as a person in a good way.				
24. I waited to see what would happen before doing anything.				
25. I apologised or did something to make-up.				
26. I made a plan of action and followed it.				
27. I accepted the next best thing to what I wanted.				
28. I let my feelings out somehow.				
29. Realised I brought the problem to myself.				
30. I came out of the experience better than when I went in.				
31. Talked to someone who could do something concrete about the problem.				
32. Got away from it for a while, tried to rest or take a vacation.				
33. Tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, using drugs or medication, etc.				
34. Took a big chance or did something very risky.				
35. I tried not to act too hastily or follow my first hunch.				
36. Found new faith.				
37. Maintained my pride and kept a stiff upper lip.				
	Not used	Used somewhat	Used quite a bit	Used a great deal
38.Rediscovered what is important in life.				
39. Changed something so things would turn out all right.				
40. Avoided being with people in general.				
41. Didn't let it get to me; refused to think too				

much about it.				
42. I asked a relative or friend I respected for advice.				
43. Kept others from knowing how bad things were.				
44. Made light of the situation, refused to get too serious about it.				
45. Talked to someone about how I was feeling.				
46. Stood my ground and fought for what I wanted.				
47. Took it out on other people.				
48. Drew on my past experiences, I was in a similar situation before.				
49. I knew what had to be done, so I doubled my efforts to make things work.				
50. Refused to believe that it had happened.				
51. I made a promise to myself that things would be different next time.				
52. Came up with a couple of different solutions to the problem.				
53. Accepted it, since nothing could be done.				
54. I tried to keep my feelings from interfering with other things.				
55. Wished that I could change what had happened or how I felt.				
56. I changed something about myself.				
57. I daydreamed or imagined a better time or place than the one I was in.				
	Not used	Used somewhat	Used quite a bit	Used a great deal
58. Wished that the situation would go away or somehow be over with.				
59. Had fantasies or wishes about how things might turn out.				
60. I prayed.				
61. I prepared myself for the worst.				
62. I went over in my mind what I would say or do.				
63. I thought about how a person I admire would				

handle this situation and used that as a model.				
64. I tried to see things from the other person's point of view.				
65. I reminded myself how much worse things could be.				
66. I jogged or exercised.				

The statement below relates to religion.

	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Very
Do you consider yourself religious?				

Part Three: Resilience Scale

The statements below relate to resilience. Please indicate your response by ticking the appropriate box.

		Not true at all	Rarely true	Sometimes true	Often true	True nearly all the time
1	I am able to adapt to change.					
2	I have close and secure relationships.					
3	Sometimes fate of God can help me.					
4	I can deal with whatever comes.					
5	Past success gives me confidence for a new challenge.					
6	I see the humorous side of things.					
7	Coping with stress strengthens me.					
8	I tend to bounce back after illness or hardship.					
9	Things happen for a reason.					
10	I give my best effort no matter what.					
11	You can achieve your goals.					
12	When things look hopeless I don't give up.					
13	I know where to turn for help.					
14	Under pressure, I focus and think clearly.					
15	I prefer to take the lead in problem-solving.					
16	I am not easily discouraged by failure.					
17	I think of myself as a strong person.					
18	I make unpopular or difficult decisions.					
		Not true at all	Rarely true	Sometimes true	Often true	True nearly all the time
19	I can handle unpleasant feelings.					

20	I have to act on a hunch.					
21	I have a strong sense of purpose.					75
22	You need to be in control of your life.					
23	I like challenges.					
24	You work to attain your goals.					
25	You should have pride in your achievements.					