

COPING WITH JOB LOSS IN THE ABC1 DEMOGRAPHIC

Perpetua Neo

D.Clin.Psy. Thesis (Volume 1)
2014
University College London

Thesis Declaration Form

I confirm that the work presented in this thesis is my own. Where information has been derived from other sources, I confirm that this has been indicated in the thesis.

Signed:

Name: Perpetua Neo, UCL Doctorate in Clinical Psychology
Date: 20th June 2014

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Overview

This thesis examines coping with job loss in the ABC1 demographic. The literature review (Part 1) summarises and critically evaluates studies on coping with job loss, examining the factors that are linked to more problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. It is not specific to the ABC1 demographic. The empirical paper (Part 2) is a mixed-methods study investigating the coping process and outcome following job loss in the ABC1 demographic, where 202 individuals were recruited for an internet survey. Finally, the critical analysis (Part 3) discusses a number of key areas of the research process, specifically (i) methodological choices, (ii) future directions and (iii) personal experiences.

Acknowledgments

I would like to express my heartfelt *thank-yous* to everybody who contributed to this study in their own ways: —

To the ones who *inspired* this project.

To all who *participated*.

To my *cheerleaders*.

To all who *got the word out*.

To Drs Sunjeev Kamboj and Stirling Moorey— my *dedicated* supervisors, without whom this project would have never taken flight.

To my mentors along the way— for being what Newton called *Giants*.

To my family and D— first we realised the Cambridge dream together, and now the Doctorate dream. *To thank you for everything is an understatement*.

To MsK— *your memory lives on*.

PART ONE: LITERATURE REVIEW

A systematic review of factors influencing coping with job loss

Abstract

Aims. Whilst researchers have acknowledged the importance of studying coping with job loss, no systematic reviews have been conducted. This review focused on identifying factors that are linked to more problem-focused and emotion-focused coping.

Method. Eighteen studies that quantitatively examined the coping process following job loss were included.

Results. Three constellations of factors— internal, situational and demographic — were identified. However, given the small number of studies, multiple factors and variation within each coping style, it was not possible to comment on whether any factor is definitively associated with more of a certain coping style.

Conclusion. Cognitive appraisal and coping resources are key in promoting adaptive coping. Future research should examine coping using a 'disengagement versus engagement' coping dichotomy.

Introduction

The Great Recession of 2008-09 saw many across the globe lose their jobs, and its effects persist today. 21 million jobs were cut in Q3-2011¹ in the USA, with other severely-affected countries including New Zealand, Spain and Taiwan (IMF Labor Organ, 2010). The UK's double-dip recession, which ran from Q4-2011 to Q2-2012, has contributed to current unemployment levels of 2.33 million (BBC, 2014). Meanwhile, global hiring patterns are pointing to an increasingly-growing trend of temporary and contract positions (Gebel & Giesecke, 2012), perhaps best summed up in popular career advice website Careerealism's (2014) tagline "Every job is temporary". In other words, job loss is a reality for many, along with the attendant consequences for quality of life and psychological health, warranting a better understanding of coping responses to this common stressful life event. This paper seeks to conduct a systematic review of the factors influencing coping with job loss, where job loss is defined as involuntary unemployment resulting from job termination (Latack, Kinicki & Prussia, 1995).

1.1 Stressful Life Events

As compared to daily stressors, significant life events have far-reaching consequences that necessitate changes in behavioural patterns (Holmes & Rahe, 1967), underscoring the importance of studying them. Normative life events such as getting married and working affect most people at a certain age, and vary in time of occurrence during one's life course (Brim & Ryff, 1980). Contrastingly, non-normative events such as job loss are of lower probability. Different life events have unique physical, role, behavioural and social demands that influence stress experienced (Holmes & Rahe, 1967). The link between stressful life events and health is well-established, with different pathways suggested in the literature (Schwarzer & Schulz, 2003). Physiological changes constitute precursors of disease (Herbert & Cohen, 1993), therein mediating the relationship

¹ Q3 refers to third-quarter

between stress and health. For instance, endocrine reactivity expressed in blood pressure, catecholamine excretion and heart rate are stress-based co-determinants of heart disease (Schwarzer & Schulz, 2003). Health-compromising behaviours such as a lack of self-care and substance use, also influence the effect of stress on health (Brannon & Feist, 1997). Stressful life events can cause psychological symptoms, particularly rumination, depression and anger, which may be precursors to physical illness and premature death (Carver, 2001). Still, these pathways are moderated by other factors including genetics, personality and gender (Weidner, 2001).

1.2 Coping with Stress and Stressful Life Events

Interest in coping with stress grew in the 1970s, underpinned by Lazarus' (1966) cognitive-phenomenological conceptualisation of stress. In this model (see Figure 1), the situation is first *appraised* on the extent to which it is threatening, challenging or harmful. This is followed by *secondary appraisal*, where one evaluates one's competence and resources, in order to re-establish the equilibrium between self and environment. Coping is therefore the process of executing the response (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), and is distinct from coping outcome; notably, researchers emphasise the importance of examining the coping process without reference to whether these actions work or not (Latack & Havlovic, 1992). The three processes of *primary appraisal*, *secondary appraisal* and *coping* do not operate in a linear fashion. The consequence of one process may stop or exacerbate a preceding process. For instance, realising that one has readily-available and successful coping resources can cause a stressor to be reappraised as less threatening, therein ending the requirement for further coping responses.

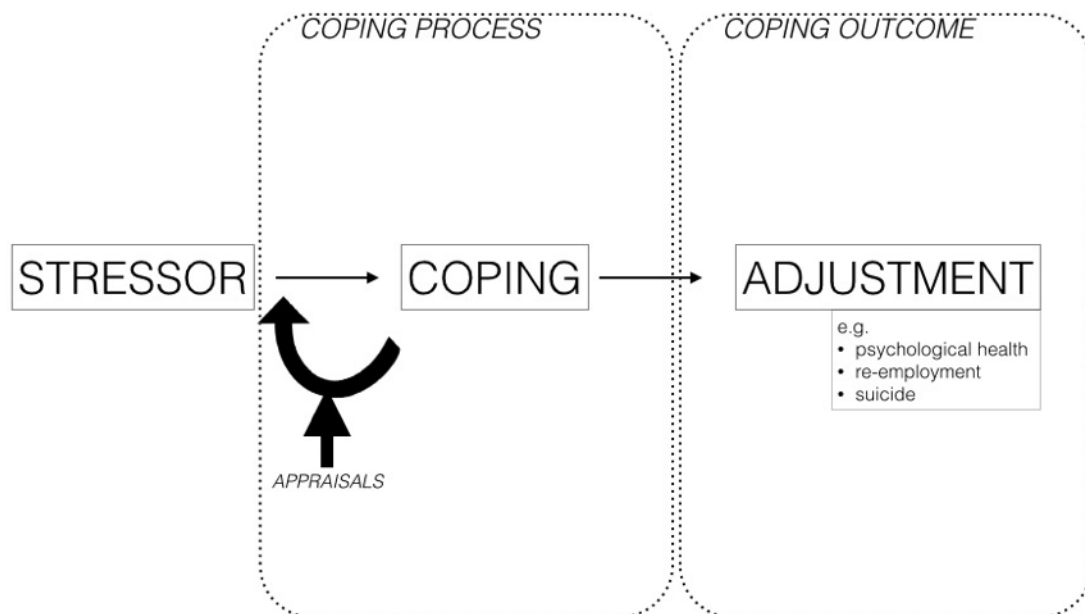


Figure 1: Diagram Depicting the Relationship Between Stressors, Appraisals, Coping Process and Coping Outcome

Coping involves cognitive, behavioural and emotional efforts (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984), all of which vary in intensity and purpose. Lazarus and Folkman (1980) distinguished between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles to categorise different coping strategies. The former refers to actions taken to solve the problem or to alter the source of stress. Emotion-focused coping refers to behaviours intended to manage or ameliorate the emotional distress associated with or triggered by the stressor.

It is oversimplistic to assume that one coping style predominates or is more adaptive (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Parkes, 1984). Older stress literature suggested that problem-focused coping is more adaptive, and is used when people believe that a constructive action is feasible. However emotion-focused coping is employed when they believe that the stressor will persist, because action to ameliorate stress is not possible (Conway & Terry, 1992; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). However, coping styles comprise of many varied strategies which shape outcomes in different ways (Lazarus, 1966). For instance, seeking support and denial are both forms of emotion-focused coping, but each has vastly different implications for outcomes across situations (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987). Moreover, an emotion-focused strategy that diminishes distress may allow one to

consider the problem more calmly, therein facilitating better execution of problem-focused strategies (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Thus, there is increasing consensus that a strategy's adaptiveness is contingent upon the specific situation and outcomes of interest (Carver & Scheier, 1994; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

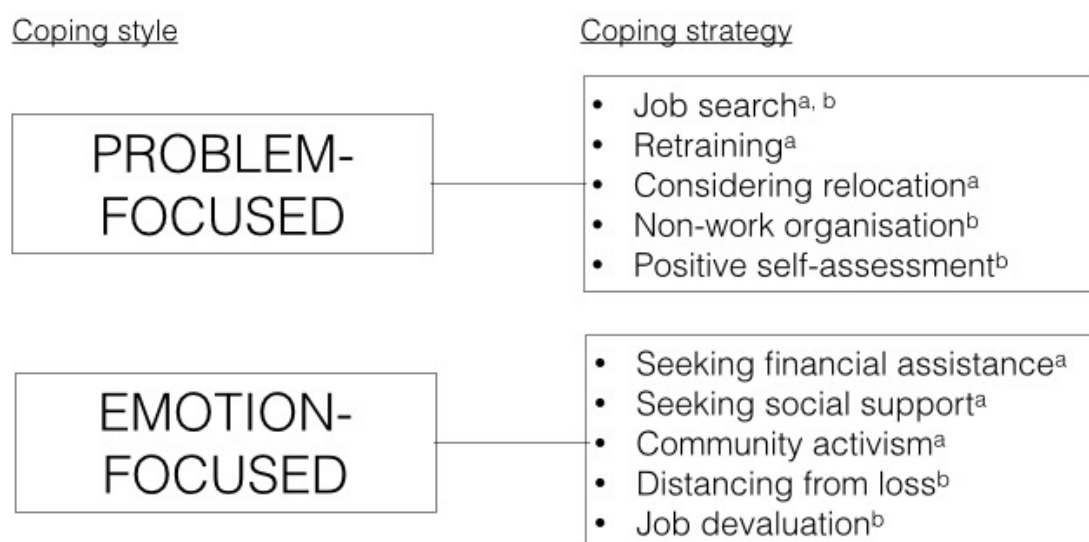
1.3 Job Loss as a Stressful Life Event

Job loss ranks as one of the life events with the most detrimental effects on psychological wellbeing (Iwasaki & Smale, 1998). Meta-analyses have revealed that individuals who lose their jobs have markedly-lower wellbeing than their employed counterparts, after controlling for selection effects (Paul & Moser, 2009; McKee-Ryan, Kinicki, Song & Wanberg, 2005). These recent findings contrast with earlier studies that suggested no link between job loss and psychological health. Therefore, Paul and Moser (2009) separately analysed a subset of cross-sectional studies ($n = 27$) that assessed individuals in situations where it was highly unlikely that job loss was caused by poor psychological health, and found similar results. This suggests that job loss heightens distress beyond a correlation between both variables. Depression is the most pervasive and most studied psychological outcome of job loss (e.g. Vinokur, Price & Caplan, 1996), followed by anxiety and anger (see McKee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002). Jahoda's (1982) latent deprivation model suggests that job loss leads to deprivation of the manifest (e.g. income) and latent (e.g. status, time structure, social contact) benefits of employment, therein resulting in poor psychological health. Similarly, other researchers have found that following job loss, those with structured time schedules experience less distress (Jackson, 1999; Underlid, 1996), reinforcing Jahoda's (1982) model. Price and associates (2002), however, stated that financial strain resulting from unemployment produces a 'chain of adversity', and the resultant helplessness compromises physical and psychological functioning. Indeed, some researchers have identified financial strain as a

pathway to physical health problems and suicide (e.g. Korpi, 2001), which rank amongst the other well-documented effects of job loss (see Wanberg, 2012).

1.4 Coping with Job Loss

Various authors (Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Leana & Feldman, 1990, 1991) have sought to explicate problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles within the context of job loss (see Figure 2 for diagram depicting the relationship between coping styles and strategies, and strategies based on these authors' measures). Problem-focused coping strategies involve activities directed at solving the problem of being unemployed. This includes job search activities (e.g. sending out resumés) and behaviours that aid the job search process (e.g. skills workshops). Emotion-focused coping involves making attempts to change the way that stress from job loss is experienced, without changing the actual reality. Strategies include denial, seeking emotional support and substance abuse.



^aLeana & Feldman (1990, 1992); ^bKinicki & Latack (1999)

Figure 2: Diagram on Coping Styles and Strategies

The links between coping styles and outcomes are well-studied, especially with respect to securing re-employment and psychological wellbeing. Findings support the

general notion that neither coping style is considered superior. Emotion-focused behaviours such as alcohol abuse and impulsive spending of one's severance package may improve mood in the short run but fail to solve the problem (Latack et al., 1995). Higher job-seeking activity is linked to poorer psychological health as the length of unemployment increases, given that rejection following applications and interviews can cause low mood and despair (Leana & Feldman, 1992; Warr, Jackson & Banks, 1998). Yet, more job search is linked to higher reemployment success (Schaufeli & Van Yperen, 1993), attesting to the importance of considering the long-term consequences of strategies. Overall, the literature suggests that using both coping styles— particularly the strategies of job searching and psychological distancing— is linked to successful reemployment (Leana & Feldman, 1992).

However, there do not appear to be any reviews that systematically examine factors affecting the style of coping employed in response to job loss, which this review seeks to explore. The extant reviews on coping and job loss are limited in that they (i) are narrative in nature; (ii) focus on the effects of job loss on re-employment, health and suicide; or (iii) examine only job searching as a coping strategy (e.g. Catalano, 1991; Fryer & Payne, 1986; Wanberg, 2012; Waters, 2000; Winefield, 1995). The coping process following job loss remains unexamined in reviews, in contrast with the extensive clinical and health psychology research on the factors influencing coping with stressful life events in general (Hobfoll, Schwarzer & Chon, 1998). This review will employ the distinction between emotion-focused and problem-focused styles, in order to identify factors that are linked to greater use of each style, and to explore these relationships within the context of clinical psychology. Based on its findings, this review will also suggest recommendations for future research and interventions.

Method

2.1 Literature Search Strategy

A systematic search of PsycINFO and MEDLINE for all years was performed using the following search terms: (COPING OR COPE) AND (UNEMPLOYMENT OR CAREER LOSS OR UNEMPLOYED OR JOB LOSS OR LAYOFF), with no limits or filters used. The search terms included different forms of keywords that job loss could be expressed as, specifically “job loss, layoff, unemployed, unemployment and career loss”. Boolean searching along with truncation was used to maximise search effectiveness, for instance “(job loss) and (cope or coping)”, which would in turn return studies with any combination of job loss, cope and coping. The search yielded an initial 1045 hits (see Figure 3 for flow diagram of search process and article selection). Two hundred and seventy-eight were from MEDLINE, and 767 from PSYCINFO. All studies were screened for relevance and duplications, following which hand-searching was conducted for additional potential papers. From these, 18 empirical studies that investigated coping with job loss were deemed suitable for inclusion.

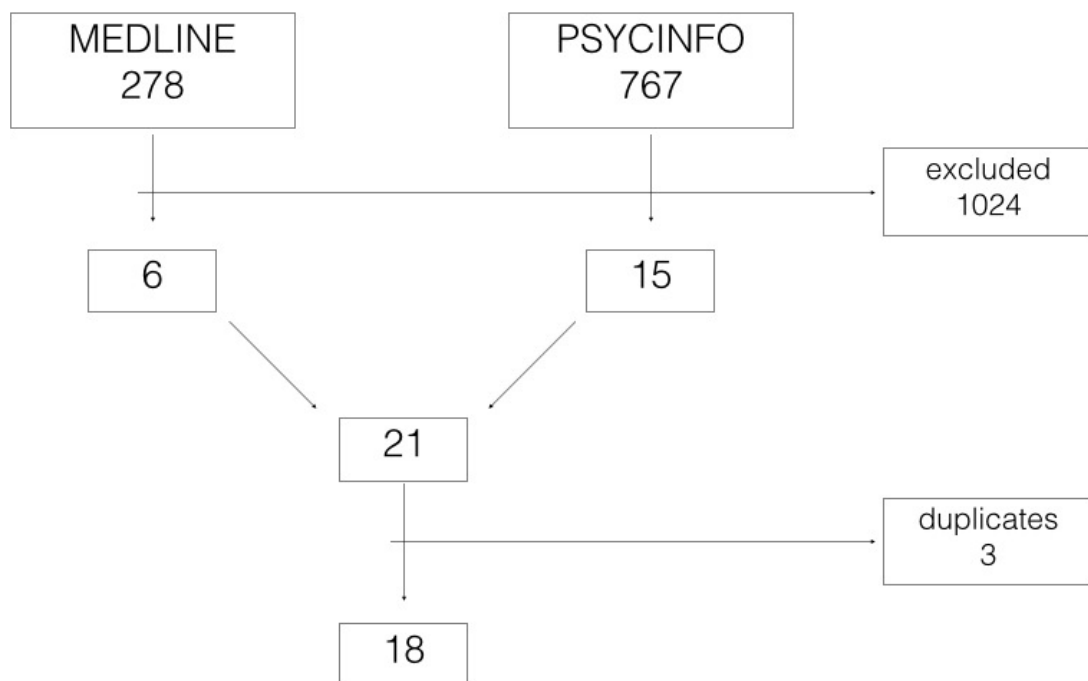


Figure 3: Flow Diagram of Search Process and Article Selection

2.2 Inclusion Criteria

The inclusion criteria required that participants were quantitatively assessed on factors influencing how they coped with job loss. The articles had to examine both

problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles (or variants of this classification), thus those that investigated job search solely were excluded. This study was limited to peer-reviewed journal articles published in English, and which examined individuals who had lost a job, therein excluding unemployed individuals with no previous economic activity. Both longitudinal and cross-sectional research designs were included, given that previous work has delineated the dynamic nature of coping (e.g. Waters, 2000). The parameters of this review were deliberately broad to provide maximum information on the relevant factors influencing coping. Despite no publication date constraints, no studies published prior to 1990 met the criteria.

2.3 Quality Assessment

The articles were assessed with a modified version of the Quality Assessment Tool for Systematic Reviews of Observational Studies (QATSO; Wong, Cheung & Hart, 2008). Previously used in a range of epidemiological observational studies such as HIV and tobacco use, it is relevant here as the articles reviewed used survey designs. Besides, no other systematic or meta-analytic reviews on job loss have utilised quality assessment tools. The original QATSO scale comprises of five items. There is one item each for *external validity* (representativeness based on probability or non-probability sampling), *bias* (if measurement of HIV was objective) and *confounding* (whether researchers controlled for confounding factors during analysis); and two items for *reporting* (response rate above or below 60%; if privacy or sensitivity about nature of HIV was considered when survey was conducted). The authors suggested that users may select four to five items depending on the type of study evaluated. Items 1, 3, 4 and 5 were used in this study. This review adopted the authors' recommendation that studies achieving 67% or more are regarded as "good quality", those between 34-66% as "fair", whilst those below 33% are "poor". Only the wording for Item 5 was changed from "nature of HIV "to "nature of job loss". Item 2 was omitted as there is no clinical or laboratory measurement for job loss.

Results

3.1 Study Design and Demographic Information

3.1.1 Sample size and recruitment. The sample sizes of unemployed individuals in the 18 articles ranged widely from $n = 50$ to $n = 1639$ ($M = 264$, $SD = 351.7$), with a total sample size of 4752. Eight (44%) had sample sizes below 150, and only one (6%) had a sample larger than 450. The majority of articles (61%) recruited via community or official resources such job centres and community agencies; four (22%) recruited from the firm which had laid the individuals off; whilst two (11%) were internet-based. Some studies had specific recruitment criterion, for instance restricting their sample to managers and working class women. Half of the studies were based in the USA, five articles (28%) in Europe, and one each from Asia, Middle East and South America (see Table 1 for a summary of articles included in the study).

3.1.2 Age and sex. Thirteen (72%) articles provided information on participants' mean age, which ranged from 30.38 to 47 years. All articles provided sex information, although one (6%; Smari, Arason, Hafsteinsson & Ingimarsson, 1997) had eight respondents of unknown sex. 2216 (47%) of the total known sample were male.

3.1.3 Categorising coping styles. Seventeen of 18 articles (94%) categorised coping styles to include problem-focused and emotion-focused coping; with one exception (Hobdy et al., 2007) which obtained an overall measure of coping but also explored social support. Five studies (28%; Bennett, Martin, Bies & Bockner, 1995; Leana & Feldman, 1990, 1991; Leana, Feldman & Tan, 1998; Malen & Stroh, 1998) used some or all of Leana and Feldman's (1990; 1991) categories, where problem-focused coping strategies refer to job search, retraining and considering relocation; and emotion-focused coping to seeking financial assistance, seeking social support and engaging in community

activism. Four articles (22%; Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Kinicki, Prussia & McKee-Ryan, 2000; Lai & Wing, 1998; Wanberg, 1997) used part or all of Latack's (1986; Kinicki & Latack, 1990) conceptualisation, where problem-focused strategies are proactive job search, non-work organisation and positive self-assessment; whilst emotion-focused coping consists of distancing from job loss and job devaluation. Four articles (22%; Blau, Petrucci & McClendon, 2013; Christensen, Schmidt, Kriegbaum & Holstein, 2006; Langens & Mose, 2006; Walsh & Jackson, 1995) examined both coping styles; however they either did not give examples or provided their own. One study (6%; Grossi, 1999) employed a third category of cognitive appraisal. Last, two articles (11%; Sadeh & Kamiol, 2012; Sojo & Guarino, 2011) used Roger, Jarvis and Najairian's (1993) four categories, and one (6%; Smari et al., 1997) used a similar one by Carver and associates (1989). These four categories were rational or active coping, which corresponded to problem-focused coping; detachment coping or reappraisal (taking an objective perspective regarding the stressful event and emotions associated); avoidance (ignoring the stressful situation) and emotional coping (negative affective responses to the stressful situation), of which both correspond to emotion-focused coping. Results found for appraisal and detachment coping are noted in the tables but not discussed in this review.

3.1.4 Assessing coping. The most commonly-used standardised measure was the Job Loss Coping Behaviour Scale (Leana & Feldman, 1990), employed by five studies (28%). Four articles (22%) used the Coping with Job Loss Scale (Latack, 1986; Kinicki & Latack, 1990), and three articles (17%) employed the Ways of Coping Checklist (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Two (11%) used different versions of the COPE questionnaire, and two (11%) employed the Coping Strategies Questionnaire (Roger et al., 1993). Last, two articles (11%) used self-developed measures.

Table 1

Summary of articles included in study

Authors (year)	Mean age (SD)	Description (Country)	Unemployed sample size (total)	Male-to-female ratio	Recruitment	Factors studied	Coping measure	Coping types
Bennett et al. (1995)	44 (5.6)	Studied situational/internal/ demographic factors in skilled workers laid off by a manufacturing facility, 18-month follow-up (Louisiana, USA)	50	24 : 76	Firm	1. Corporate and government assistance 2. Fairness, emotional intensity, anger, self-blame 3. Sex, marital status	JL OBS	PF: Job search, considering relocation EF: Financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990)
Blau et al. (2013)	NR	Studied situational/internal factors via the internet (USA)	438	56 : 44	Internet (LinkedIn)	1. Unemployment length, base salary, financial strain 2. Anger, denial, depression, positive self-assessment, job search confidence.	Own	PF: Considering self-employment EF: Drinking
Christensen et al. (2006)	NR	Studied situational/internal/demographic factors (Denmark)	1639	35 : 65	Census	1. Financial strain, employment status 2. Self-rated health 3. Cohabitation status, age, sex, education	Own	PF EF
Grossi (1999)	40 (10)	Studied situational/demographic factors in those unemployed for at least six months (Stockholm, Sweden)	166	52 : 48	Job center/ national organisations	1. Unemployment length 2. Age, sex, marital status, education, foreign background	WCC	PF EF
Hobdy et al. (2007)	42 (NR)	Studied internal factors in individuals unemployed within the last 24 months (Texas, USA)	65 (276)	46 : 54	Community advertisement	1. Attachment style	WCC	Cognitive restructuring Overall coping efforts EF: social support elicited
Kinicki & Latack (1990)	35 (NR)	Studied situational/internal factors in individuals laid off by a R&D manufacturing firm, 1-month follow-up (Southwest USA)	159	36 : 64	Firm	1. Emotional support, social support 2. Self-blame, perceived control, self-esteem, anxiety, life satisfaction	CJLS	PF: Job search, nonwork organisation, positive self-assessment EF: Distancing from loss, job devaluation (Kinicki & Latack, 1990)
Kinicki et al. (2000)	35 (NR)	Studied situational/internal factors in individuals laid off by a high-tech firm, 4-month follow-up (Southwest USA)	100	33 : 67	Firm	1. Unemployment length, financial strain, social support 2. Self-esteem, life satisfaction	CJLS	PF: Job search, nonwork organisation, positive self-assessment EF: Distancing from loss (Kinicki & Latack, 1990)
Lai & Wing (1998)	NR	Studied internal factors in working-class women (Hong Kong)	104 (183)	all females	Retraining center	1. Optimism	CJLS	PF: Job search EF: Distancing from loss (Kinicki & Latack, 1990)
Langens & Mose (2006)	NR	Studied situational/internal factors (Germany)	119	49 : 51	Employment office	1. Unemployment length 2. Neuroticism, negative mood regulation expectancies	brief-COPE	PF EF
Leana & Feldman (1990)	43.8 (NR)	Studied situational/internal factors, across two counties (Pittsburg and Florida, USA)	361	43 : 57	Union, community group	1. Advance notice, corporate assistance, outplacement, extended benefits 2. Attribution, perception of intensity, perception of reversibility, arousal, physiological reaction, Type A personality, self-esteem, locus of control	JL OBS	PF: Job search, retraining, considering relocation EF: Social support, financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990)
Leana & Feldman (1991)	38 (11.83)	Studied demographic factors in laid-off defense contractors (Florida, USA)	157	60 : 40	Community group	1. Gender, marital status, age	JL OBS	PF: Job search, retraining, considering relocation EF: Social support, financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990)

Leana et al. (1998)	41 (9.74)	Studied situational/internal/demographic factors, 9-month follow-up (Northeast USA)	102	98 : 2	Firm	1. Disruption to social relations, disruption to daily routine, corporate assistance 2. Reappraisal, psychological distancing, optimism 3. Age	JLCBS	PF: Job search, retraining, considering relocation EF: Social support, financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990) PF: Job search, retraining, considering relocation EF: Social support, financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990)*
Maten & Stron (1998)	NR	Studied situational/demographic factors in unemployed managers (Chicago, USA)	131	66 : 34	Community group	1. Length of work experience, job search efficacy 2. Gender	JLCBS	PF: Job search, retraining, considering relocation EF: Social support, financial assistance, community activism (Leana & Feldman, 1990)*
Sadeh & Kamol (2012)	30.38 (NR)	Studied situational/internal factors in technology sector (Israel)	162 (211)	69 : 31	High-tech internet sites	1. Occupation sector, unemployment length 2. Self-continuity	CSQ	Rational coping Avoidance coping Emotional coping Detachment coping (Roger, Jarvis & Najarian, 1993)
Smari et al. (1997)	34.8 (12.1)	Studied demographic factors (Reykjavik, Iceland)	233	36 : 64	Employment office	1. Gender	COPE	Active coping Focus on emotion Reappraisal Avoidance (Carver et al., 1989)
Sojo & Guarino (2011)	31 (9.43)	Studied situational/internal/demographic factors (Caracas, Venezuela)	328	51 : 49	NGO, employment office	1. Unemployment length 2. Resilience 3. Gender	CSQ	Rational coping Avoidance coping Emotional coping Detachment coping (Roger, Jarvis & Najarian, 1993)
Walsh & Jackson (1995)	32 (NR)	Studied situational/internal/demographic factors (Sheffield, UK)	75	40 : 60	Community group	1. Partner support 2. Problem severity 3. Gender	WCC	PF EF
Warberg (1997)	37.7 (10.7)	Studied internal factors in those unemployed for less than 3 months, 3-month follow-up (Kansas, USA)	363	39 : 61	Employment office	1. Situational control, resilience	QLJS	PF: Job search, nonwork organisation, positive self-assessment EF: Distancing from loss, job devaluation (Khouri & Latack, 1990)

CJLS: Coping with Job Loss Scale; CSQ: Coping Strategies Questionnaire; JLCBS: Job Loss Coping Behavior Scale; WCC: Ways of Coping Checklist; PF = problem-focused coping; EF = emotion-focused coping

3.2 Quality Assessment

Quality scores from the modified-QATSO are presented in Table 3, where the first column contains the final summed score for each study, with studies arranged in order of increasing quality. Higher scores indicate the presence of a larger number of reported methodological features within a study. The bottom row depicts totals across studies for each assessed methodological element, where higher scores indicate that the corresponding feature is present across more studies. It is arranged in ascending order. Reporting of response rates were the most consistent, present in 13 of 18 (72%) of the articles reviewed. The other elements were found in less than half, with probability sampling only conducted by one study (6%).

Table 2
Quality rating based on modified-QATSO scoring

Study	Total	Score	Q1	Q3	Q4	Q2
Christensen et al. (2006)	4	Good	1	1	1	1
Blau et al. (2013)	2	Fair	0	1	1	0
Grossi (1999)	2	Fair	0	1	0	1
Hobdy et al. (2007)	2	Fair	0	1	0	1
Langens & Mose (2006)	2	Fair	0	1	0	1
Leana & Feldman (1990)	2	Fair	0	0	1	1
Leana & Feldman (1991)	2	Fair	0	0	1	1
Leana et al. (1998)	2	Fair	0	0	1	1
Smari et al. (1997)	2	Fair	0	0	1	1
Wanberg (1997)	2	Fair	0	1	0	1
Bennett et al. (1995)	1	Poor	0	0	0	1
Kinicki & Latack (1990)	1	Poor	0	0	0	1
Kinicki et al. (2000)	1	Poor	0	0	0	1
Malen & Stroh (1998)	1	Poor	0	0	0	1
Sadeh & Karniol (2012)	1	Poor	0	0	1	0
Sojo & Guarino (2011)	1	Poor	0	0	1	0
Lai & Wing (1998)	0	Poor	0	0	0	0
Walsh & Jackson (1995)	0	Poor	0	0	0	0
Item total			1	6	8	13

3.3 Factors Influencing Coping Following Job Loss

The central purpose of this review was to identify the factors which influence coping with job loss, and to explore these relationships within the context of clinical psychology. Three overarching categories of internal, situational and demographic factors (see Figure 4 for the categorisation process) were distilled. Tables 3, 4 and 5 illustrate the direction of relationships between these identified factors and coping styles.

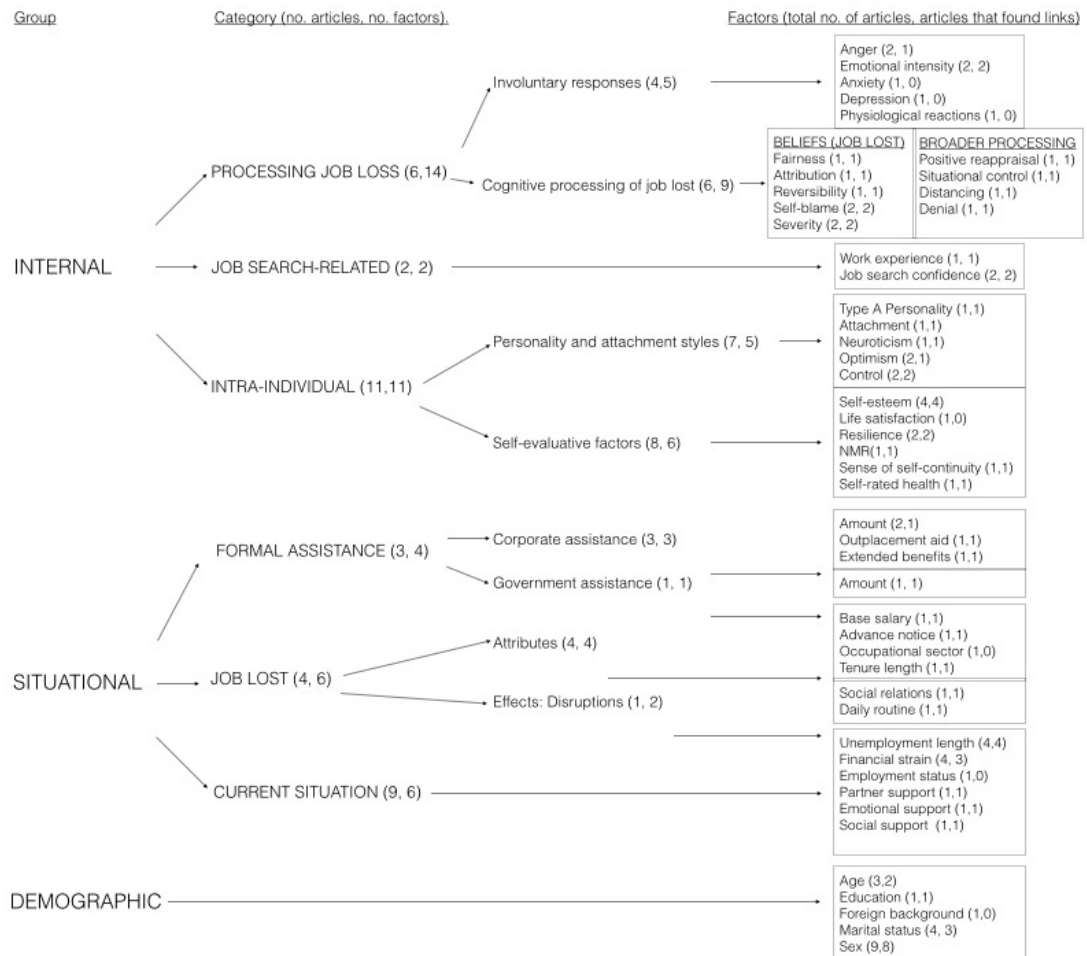


Figure 4: Tree Diagram of Factors Identified

3.3.1 Internal factors. Internal factors were categorised into (i) processing job loss, (ii) job-search related factors and (iii) intra-individual factors (see Table 3).

3.3.1.1 Processing job loss. Six articles examined 14 factors related to how job loss was processed, specifically investigating (i) involuntary responses and (ii) cognitive processing. Four of the five responses (80%) reviewed were emotional in nature, where the most-commonly studied factors were anger ($n = 2$) emotional intensity ($n = 2$). One study (Bennett et al., 1995) found that more anger was linked to more of both coping styles, whilst the other (Blau et al., 2013) found no relationship. Findings on the less specific construct of 'emotional intensity' were similarly mixed. Bennett and associates (1995) found that those who experienced lower emotional intensity used more of both

styles, whilst individuals in Leana and Feldman's (1990) sample with higher emotional intensity used more emotion-focused coping. Anxiety (Kinicki & Latack, 1990), depression (Christensen et al., 2006) and physiological reaction (Leana & Feldman, 1990) had no relationship with coping.

Factors related to cognitive processing were found to influence coping, and were broadly divided into (i) beliefs about the job lost and (ii) broader cognitive processing. Those who perceived the job loss as less fair (Bennett et al., 1995), attributed it to internal factors, viewed the loss as reversible (Leana & Feldman, 1990) and blamed themselves less (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) used more problem-focused coping. Contrastingly, two studies found that individuals who blamed themselves more used more emotion-focused coping (Bennett et al., 1995; Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Two articles (Leana & Feldman, 1990; Walsh & Jackson, 1995) found that those who perceived the job loss as more severe used more of both styles. Of the three articles examining broader cognitive processing, those who appraised the loss as more positive (Leana et al., 1998) and who perceived greater control of the situation (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) used more problem-focused coping. Those who used more psychological distancing (Leana et al., 1998) and individuals higher in denial (Blau et al., 2013) employed more emotion-focused coping.

3.3.1.2 Job search-related factors. Both studies found links with coping. Higher job-search confidence (Blau et al., 2013; Malen & Stroh, 1998) was related to more problem-focused coping, whilst longer work experience (Malen & Stroh, 1998) was linked to more emotion-focused coping.

3.3.1.3 Intra-individual factors. The 11 intra-individual factors examined here refer to factors that are stable and enduring, broadly divided into (i) personality and attachment (Type A, optimism, attachment style, neuroticism, control); and (ii) self-evaluative factors (self-esteem, resilience, life satisfaction, negative mood regulation

expectancies, sense of self-continuity, self-rated health). All seven articles reviewed found that all five personality and attachment factors influence coping. The most commonly-studied were optimism ($n = 2$) and control ($n = 2$). One study (Leana et al., 1998) found that more optimistic individuals used more problem-focused coping, whilst the other (Lai & Wing, 1998) found no relationship. Emotion-focused coping was more prevalent in those with higher levels of Type A personality attributes (Leana & Feldman, 1990), were more securely-attached (Hobdy et al., 2007), had higher levels of neuroticism (Langens & Mose, 2006) and with external locus of control (Leana & Feldman, 1990). Contrastingly, those with higher perceived self-control (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) used more problem-focused coping. Last, securely-attached individuals used fewer overall coping strategies whilst anxiously-attached ones used the most (Hobdy et al., 2007).

All six factors related to self-evaluation studied across eight articles were found to influence coping styles, with the exception of life satisfaction (Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Higher self-esteem was linked to more problem-focused (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) and emotion-focused coping (Leana & Feldman, 1990; Kinicki et al., 2000). Those with low negative mood regulation expectancies (Langens & Moss, 2006) and men with poor self-rated health used more emotion-focused strategies; this relationship also applied to less resilient individuals (Sojo & Guarino, 2011) but did not persist past the initial phase of job loss. Over time, only more resilient individuals used more emotion-focused coping. Those with a higher sense of self-continuity (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012), higher resilience (Wanberg, 1997), higher negative mood regulation expectancy (Langens & Moss, 2006) and women who rated their health as better (Christensen et al., 2006) employed more problem-focused coping.

3.3.2 Situational variables. Situational variables were distilled into (i) formal assistance received; (ii) factors pertaining to the job that was lost; and (iii) current circumstances (see Table 4).

3.3.2.1 Formal assistance received. Three studies investigated four factors related to formal assistance received, three of which were related to corporate assistance. One found that the amount of corporate assistance had no link with coping (Bennett et al., 1995), whilst Leana and associates (1998) found that less severance pay was linked to more problem-focused coping. Those who received more outplacement assistance used more of both coping styles (Leana & Feldman, 1990). Fewer extended company benefits was linked to more emotion-focused coping (Leana & Feldman, 1990), and less government assistance to more problem-focused strategies (Bennett et al., 1995).

3.3.2.2 Factors pertaining to job that was lost. Four studies examined six factors pertaining to the job, specifically (i) its attributes and (ii) the consequences of job loss. Amongst the four attributes, occupation sector had no relationship with coping (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012); higher base salary was linked to more of both coping styles (Christensen et al., 2006); whilst less advance notice (Leana & Feldman, 1990) and longer tenures (Leana et al., 1998) were both associated with more problem-focused coping. With respect to effects of job loss, those whose social relations were more disrupted by job loss engaged in emotion-focused coping, whilst those who experienced their daily routines as more disrupted used more of both coping styles (Leana et al., 1990).

3.3.2.3 Current circumstances. Nine articles investigated six factors related to current circumstances. The most commonly-studied factors were length of unemployment ($n = 4$; Kinicki et al., 2000; Langens & Mose, 2006; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012; Sojo & Guarino, 2011) and financial strain ($n = 4$; Blau et al., Christensen et al., 2006; Kinicki et al., 2000); all others were only examined once. Three of four articles found that those with higher financial strain used more of both coping styles (Christensen et al., 2006; Grossi, 1999; Kinicki et al., 2000). All four articles found links between coping and unemployment

length. In two, those who used more problem-focused strategies did this within the context of shorter unemployment lengths (Langens & Mose, 2006; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012), whilst Kinicki and associates' (2000) sample did so within longer periods. Three articles found that longer unemployment length was linked to more emotion-focused coping (Kinicki et al., 2000; Langens & Mose, 2006), where one found that this only applied to more resilient individuals (Sardeh & Karniol, 2012). Present employment status had no relationship with coping (Christensen et al., 2006). Those with more emotional support and social support used more problem-focused coping (Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Women with less supportive partners used more problem-focused coping whilst men with unsupportive partners used more emotion-focused coping (Walsh & Jackson, 1995).

3.3.3 Demographic factors. Ten articles investigated five demographic factors (see Table 5), of which only foreign background did not influence coping (Grossi, 1999). The most commonly-studied factor was sex ($n = 9$), followed by marital/cohabitation status ($n = 4$) and age ($n = 3$). Higher education was linked to more of both coping styles in both sexes (Christensen et al., 2006). Women with low and high education used more emotion-focused coping than those of medium-level education (Christensen et al., 2006). Lower education levels were also linked to more emotion-focused coping in men (Christensen et al., 2006) and individuals experiencing more financial strain (Grossi, 1999). Only one article (25%; Bennett et al., 1995) found no relationship between coping and marital/cohabitation status, and between age and coping (33%; Christensen et al., 2006); of which findings for both relationships are generally inconclusive. Married individuals (Grossi, 1999) and those living with a partner (Christensen et al., 2006) were likelier to use more problem-focused coping, however Leana and Feldman (1991) found this with single individuals. They also found that single individuals were likely to use emotion-focused coping, similar to Grossi's (1999) findings on divorced individuals. Both younger (Grossi, 1999) and older (Leana et al., 1998) individuals used more emotion-focused coping.

Only one of nine articles (11%; Grossi, 1999) found no relationship between sex and coping, whilst six of nine articles (67%) found sex differences. There were no sex differences in emotion-focused coping (Malen & Stroh, 1998; Smari et al., 1997), particularly amongst those with low education (Christensen et al., 2006). Individuals of both sexes with more financial strain, higher education or living with a partner were more likely to use problem-focused strategies (Christensen et al., 2006). However, when considering inter-sex differences, Malen and Stroh (1998) found that men use more overall coping strategies than women; three articles (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Malen & Stroh, 1998; Smari et al., 1997) concluded that men use more problem-focused strategies; whilst two articles (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Sojo & Guarino, 2011) found that women engage in more emotion-focused coping than men. Inter-sex differences also interact with other factors. Angry women (Bennett et al., 1995), unsupported men (Walsh & Jackson, 1995) and single women (Leana & Feldman) used more emotion-focused strategies than angry men, unsupported women and single men respectively. Similarly, men with higher job-search confidence (Malen & Stroh, 1998), women with unsupportive partners (Walsh & Jackson, 1995) and men more comfortable with closeness (Hobdy et al., 2007) engaged in more problem-focused coping than their opposite-sex counterparts respectively. One study (Christensen et al., 2006) also identified intra-sex differences with respect to education (see paragraph above) and health. Women with better self-rated health used more problem-focused coping than those with poorer health, whereas men with poorer health used more emotion-focused coping than men with better health.

Table 3

Relationship between internal factors and coping styles

Factor	Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping	No link found	Other coping types
More anger	More job search ($r = .26, p < .05$; Bennett et al., 1995)	More financial assistance sought, more so for women than men ($r = .32, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995)	(Blau et al., 2013)	--
Higher emotional intensity	--	More community activism ($\beta = .27, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
Lower emotional intensity	More relocation ($r = .41, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995)	More community activism ($r = .29, p < .05$; Bennett et al., 1995)	--	--
Anxiety*	--	--	(Kinicki & Latack, 1990)	--
Depression*	--	--	(Christensen et al., 2006)	--
Physiological reaction*	--	--	(Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--
Perception of less fairness	More job search ($r = .38, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995)	--	--	--
Internal attribution	More relocation ($\beta = .15, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--	--
Perception of reversibility	More retraining ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), relocation ($\beta = .20, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--	--
Less self-blame	More proactive search ($r = .19, p < .05$), nonwork organisation ($r = .15, p < .05$; Kinicki & Latack, 1990)	--	--	--
More self-blame	--	More distancing from loss ($r = .14, p < .05$; Kinicki & Latack, 1990), community activism ($r = .69, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995)	--	--
Perception of higher severity	More job search ($\beta = .29, p < .01$), relocation ($\beta = .24, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990); use of formal support ($F(1,70) = 9.05, p < .01$; Walsh & Jackson, 1990)	More use of informal support ($F(1,70) = 8.08, p < .01$; Walsh & Jackson, 1990), social support ($\beta = .19, p < .05$) and financial assistance sought ($\beta = .19, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
More positive reappraisal	More job search ($\beta = .41, p < .01$), retraining ($\beta = .40, p < .01$), relocation ($\beta = .50, p < .01$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--	--
More perceived control	More non-work organisation ($r = .16, p < .05$), job search ($r = .14, p < .05$), positive self-assessment ($r = .16, p < .05$; Kinicki & Latack, 1990)	--	--	--
More psychological distancing	--	More social support ($\beta = .39, p < .01$) and financial assistance ($\beta = .30, p < .05$) sought, more community activism ($\beta = .44, p < .01$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--
More denial	--	More drinking ($\beta = .12, p < .01$; Blau et al., 2013)	--	--

Longer work experience	--		More EF ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; Malen & Stroh, 1998)	--	--
Higher job search confidence	More proactive search ($\beta = .30, p < .01$; Malen & Stroh, 1998), consideration of self-employment ($\beta = .21, p < .05$; Blau et al., 2013)	--	--	--	--
More Type A personality	--		More financial assistance sought ($\beta = .27, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
More securely-attached	--		More social support sought ($r = .81, p < .01$; Hobby et al., 2007)	--	Less overall coping strategies (Hobby et al., 2007)
More anxiously-attached	--		--	--	More coping strategies overall (Hobby et al., 2007)
More neurotic	--		More EF ($\beta = .30, p < .01$; Langens & Mose, 2006)	--	--
More optimistic	More retraining ($\beta = .29, p < .01$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--	(Lai & Wing, 1998)	--
External locus of control	--		More social support sought ($\beta = .21, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
Higher perceived self-control	More job search ($r = .14, p < .05$), nonwork organisation ($r = .16, p < .05$), positive self-assessment ($r = .16, p < .05$; Knicki & Latack, 1990)	--	--	--	--
Higher self-esteem	More job search ($r = .13, p < .05$), positive self-assessment ($r = .14, p < .05$; Knicki & Latack, 1990)	--	More distancing from loss initially ($r = .20, p < .01$; Knicki et al., 2000); community activism ($\beta = .21, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
Life satisfaction*	--		--	(Knicki & Latack, 1990)	--
Higher resilience	More nonwork organisation ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), positive self-assessment ($\beta = .20, p < .01$; Wanberg, 1997)	--	More EF across time ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; Sojo & Guarino, 2011)	--	More detachment coping (Sojo & Guarino, 2011)
Lower resilience	--		More EF initially ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; Sojo & Guarino, 2011)	--	--
Higher NMR	More PF ($r = .20, p < .05$; Langens & Mose, 2006)	--	--	--	--
Lower NMR	--		More EF ($r = .43, p < .01$; Langens & Mose, 2006)	--	--
Higher sense of self-continuity	More PF ($\beta = .33, p < .01$; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012)	--	--	--	More detachment coping (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012)
Men with poor health	--		More EF (Odds Ratio = 1.05; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--
Women with better health	More PF (Odds Ratio = 1.64; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--	--	--

EF = emotion-focused coping; PF = problem-focused coping; * denotes no link found between factor and coping styles

Table 4

Relationship between situational factors and coping styles

Factor	Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping	No link found	Other coping types
More corporate assistance	More job search ($r = .28, p < .01$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	(Bennett et al., 1995)	--
More outplacement assistance	More retraining ($\beta = .81, p < .01$), relocation ($\beta = .27, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	More community activism ($\beta = .73, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
Less extended corporate benefits	--	More community activism ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), financial assistance sought ($\beta = .21, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--
Less government assistance	More job search ($r = .29, p < .05$), relocation ($r = .37, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995)	--	--	--
Higher base salary	More consideration of self-employment ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; Blau et al., 2013)	More drinking ($\beta = .11, p < .05$; Blau et al., 2013)	--	--
Less advance notice	More relocation ($\beta = .19, p < .05$; Leana & Feldman, 1990)	--	--	--
Occupational sector*	--	--	(Sadegh & Kamali, 2012)	--
Longer tenure	More job search ($\beta = .29, p < .05$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--	--
More disruption to social relations	--	More financial assistance sought ($\beta = .42, p < .05$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--
More disruption to daily routine	More relocation ($\beta = .51, p < .01$; Leana et al., 1998)	More financial assistance sought ($\beta = .42, p < .05$; Leana et al., 1998)	--	--
Longer unemployment length	More job search ($t(77) = 2.6, p < .01$; Knicki et al., 2000)	More distancing from loss ($t(77) = 1.93, p < .05$; Knicki et al., 2000), more EF ($r = .28, p < .01$; Langens & Mose, 2006), only resilient individuals use more EF ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; Sojo & Guarino, 2011)	--	Resilient individuals use more detachment coping (Sojo & Guarino, 2011)
Shorter unemployment length	More PF ($r = .30, p < .01$; Langens & Mose, 2006; $F(1, 148) = .55, p < .01$; Sadegh & Kamali, 2012)	--	--	More detachment (Sadegh & Kamali, 2012) and cognitive restructuring (Grossi, 1998)
Higher financial strain	More PF ($OR_{PF} = 0.96$, OR ($r = .45, p < .05$), nonwork organisation ($r = .20, p < .05$), positive self-assessment ($r = .20, p < .05$; Knicki et al., 2000)	More distancing from loss ($r = .37, p < .05$; Knicki et al., 2000), More EF, especially amongst those with low education ($\beta = .18, p < .06$; Grossi, 1999)	(Blau et al., 2013)	--
Employment status*	--	--	(Christensen et al., 2006)	--
Less partner support	Women more PF than men ($F(1, 170) = 5.45, p < .05$; Walsh & Jackson, 1995)	Men more EF than women ($F(1, 170) = 3.96, p < .05$; Walsh & Jackson, 1995)	--	--
More emotional support	More positive self-assessment ($r = .13, p < .05$; Knicki & Latack, 1990)	--	--	--
More social support	More positive self-assessment ($r = .18, p < .05$; Knicki & Latack, 1990)	--	--	--

EF = emotion-focused coping; PF = problem-focused coping. * denotes no link found between factor and coping styles

Table 5

Relationship between demographic factors and coping styles

Factor	Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping	No link found	Coping types
Older age		More community activism ($\beta = .22, p < .05$; Leana, Feldman & Tan, 1998)	(Christensen et al., 2006)	More cognitive restructuring, amongst those married (Grossi, 1999)
Younger age	--	More EF ($\beta = .17, p < .05$; Grossi, 1999)	--	--
Higher education	More PF amongst men and women (OR = 1; Christensen et al., 2006)	More EF amongst women with high/low education when than medium education (OR = 1; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--
Lower education	--	More EF amongst those with more financial strain ($\beta = .27, p < .05$; Grossi, 1999), amongst men (OR = 1; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--
Foreign background*	--	--	(Grossi, 1999)	--
Single	More relocation ($F(1,144) = 12.52, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1991)	More emotional support sought by women than men ($F(1,144) = 9.94, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1991)	(Bennett et al., 1995)	--
Divorced	--	More EF ($r = .21; p < .01$; Grossi, 1999)	--	--
Married	More PF ($r = .25; p < .01$; Grossi, 1999)	--	--	More cognitive restructuring amongst older individuals (Grossi, 1999)
Living with partner	More PF across both sexes (OR = 1; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--	--
Factors with no sex differences	More PF for those with more financial strain (OR $OR_{women} = 1.00$), higher education (OR = 1) or living with a partner (OR = 1; Christensen et al., 2006) Men more PF (& Stroh, 1998; et al., 1997), more job search ($F(1,144) = 4.74, p < .05$, Leana & Feldman, 1991), more relocation ($F(1,144) = 12.67, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1991)	More EF (Malen & Stroh, 1998; Smari et al., 1997), particularly for those with low education (OR Christensen et al., 2006)	(Grossi, 1999)	Reappraisal (Smari et al., 1997)
Intersex differences	More proactive job search in men with higher job search confidence ($\beta = .31, p < .01$; Malen & Stroh, 1998); More formal support sought by women with unsupportive partners ($F(1,170) = 7.24, p < .01$; Walsh & Jackson, 1995); more PF for men more comfortable with closeness ($M_{men} = .40$,	Women more EF ($F(1,144) = 9.94, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1991; $\beta = .17, p < .05$; Sojo & Guarino, 2011)	--	Men use more overall coping strategies than women (Malen & Stroh, 1998)
Intersex differences x other factor		More financial aid sought by angry women ($\beta = 5.83, p < .01$; Bennett et al., 1995); more EF for men with unsupportive partners ($F(1,170) = 4.66, p < .05$; Walsh & Jackson, 1995); more community activism for single women ($F(1,144) = 13.53, p < .01$; Leana & Feldman, 1991)	--	--
Intrasex differences	More PF for women with better health (OR = 1) than poorer health (OR = 1.64; Christensen et al., 2006)	More EF for men with poor health (OR = 1.62) than better health (OR = 1), men with low (OR = 1.57) education than medium (OR = 1.09)/high education (OR = 1), women with low (OR = .97) / high education (OR = 1) than medium education (OR = .60; Christensen et al., 2006)	--	--

EF = emotion-focused coping; PF = problem-focused coping; * denotes no link found between factor and coping styles

Discussion

This paper is the first systematic review on coping with job loss, where factors associated with more problem-focused and emotion-focused coping were identified. Most reviews on job loss have been narrative in nature (e.g. Wanberg, 2012) or meta-analyses (e.g. McKee-Ryan et al., 2005; Paul & Moser, 2009). The thrust of these reviews are on job searching as part of the coping process, and on outcomes such as re-employment and psychological health, much like the foci of most empirical studies on job loss. In this paper, 18 articles were reviewed, and factors identified were distilled into three categories:-- (i) internal factors; (ii) situational factors; and (iii) demographic factors. This section will contextualise the findings within the domain of clinical psychology, whilst suggesting refinements for future research and interventions.

4.1 Methodology

Formal assessment of methodological quality suggests that the reporting of response rates was the main strength across all studies, present in 72% of articles. It must be noted that response rates cannot be tracked for the two articles employing internet surveys (Blau et al., 2013; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012). In contrast, that only one study (Christensen et al., 2006) used random sampling suggests the difficulty of implementing probability sampling methods to examine job loss. Research with unemployed people can be challenging given the sensitive nature of this issue (Blau et al., 2013) and careful consideration needs to be accorded to methodological issues while ensuring scientific robustness. Only one study recruited nationally, yet it is unsurprising that census methodologies are rare in job loss studies given their costliness. Further, the findings of each article may be limited to the national or local contexts within which the studies were conducted, echoing Wanberg's (2012) observation that selection issues are worth noting. Besides using internet survey or postal methods to contact individuals, confidentiality issues can make recruiting from job centres or community groups difficult.

Together, these factors suggest that methodological elements of future studies can be improved via using internet surveys and reporting response rates of non-internet studies.

Other methodological points worth noting are statistical models and time scales. First, a-third of the articles (Blau et al., 2013; Christensen et al., 2006; Grossi, 1990; Hobdy et al., 2007; Langens & Mose, 2006; Wanberg, 1997) used regression models and therein adjusted for possible confounding factors, whilst the others were mostly correlational in nature. Thus, most studies could only investigate links between factors and coping, rather than unveil the factors that predict coping. Second, only five of 18 articles were longitudinal in nature, and only three (Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Kinicki et al., 2000; Leana et al., 1998) amongst these tracked changes in coping. All agreed that coping patterns change over time, regardless of coping style. This reinforces the assertion that coping is a dynamic process, in line with Waters' (2000) argument that older models and many studies of job loss consider coping to be a stable disposition, and therein ignore the possibility that people change their coping responses with time.

4.2 Factors Influencing Coping

Given the limited number of studies, the multifarious factors identified and the variation within each coping style, it is not possible to comment on whether any particular factor is associated with more of a certain coping strategy or style. Moreover, whilst the importance of specific coping strategies is constantly emphasised in the broader literature, half of the articles reviewed did not specify coping strategies of either style, and one study (Hobdy et al., 2007) did not distinguish between different coping types, instead obtaining a measure of the overall amount of coping. Consequently, a factor putatively identified as promoting a particular coping style may not have the same influence on all strategies encompassed within that style. For instance, factors that promote more alcohol use and more social support-- two forms of emotion-focused coping-- differ. Moreover, people may use more than one coping strategy in tandem (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980) and this

was not considered in the articles that failed to specify coping strategies. Still, some common themes may be drawn from constellations of particular factors relevant to psychology, and when situated within the extant literature, permit some speculation on how some factors may promote certain coping styles and influence outcomes.

4.2.1 Cognitive appraisal. Cognitive appraisal, which involves both subjective and objective assessments of one's situation, impacted both coping styles in all nine articles examining self-evaluative intra-individual attributes. Beliefs about the severity of job loss was linked to more of both coping styles (Leana & Feldman, 1990; Walsh & Jackson, 1995), possibly serving as a prompt to solve the unemployment problem whilst concomitantly needing ways to alleviate negative emotions. This is consistent with the wider literature, as stressors appraised as more severe evoke more coping responses (Cronkite & Moos; 1984; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Articles reviewed found that individuals who perceived greater situational control or the job loss situation as reversible were likelier to use problem-focused strategies (Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Leana & Feldman, 1990). Indeed, Thoits (1991) previously suggested that a stressor perceived as uncontrollable leads to uncertainty about how to tackle the problem, therein exacerbating stress and necessitating more emotion-focused coping.

Perceptions of fairness and self-blame are worth discussing in tandem, with respect to externalising loss. Those who perceived job loss as more unfair or blamed themselves less used more problem-focused strategies (Bennett et al., 1995), suggesting that unfair layoffs may motivate victims to turn the situation around by responding paradoxically (Schlossberg & Leibowitz, 1980). Here, one may postulate pathways between personal coping resources and appraisal, where externalising blame may lessen the impact on one's sense of self-efficacy, allowing one to confidently engage in securing employment rather than to feel overwhelmed emotionally. In contrast, internalising the loss via internal attributions and self-blame were linked to different coping strategies. Although this review

found that those who attributed job loss internally used more problem-focused coping (Leana & Feldman, 1990), the specific strategy implicated was seeking relocation. This may be interpreted as physical distancing, especially when considered together with findings that those who blamed themselves more used more psychological distancing (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) or community activism (Bennett et al., 1995).

Cognitive appraisal is important as it affects coping responses in various ways (McKee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002). First, assessing the extent to which one's coping resources will be taxed influences if the situation is deemed threatening. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) underscored that stressors only cause distress when appraised as exceeding one's resources, given that appraisal is 'always the proximal cause of stressful reactions' (Lazarus, 1995:7). Second, the meaning appraised from an event leads to the psychological reactions (Cooper & Baglioni, 1988) that shape coping strategies. Here, those with higher work-role centrality, which refers to the importance of one's work role to one's sense of self, are more impacted by job loss (e.g. Ashforth, 2001; Thoits, 1995), suggesting that it may negate the buffering impact of other coping resources. Third, the effectiveness of coping strategies influences future appraisals and coping strategies, given the dynamic nature of coping (Waters, 2000). This review found that positive reappraisals of job search experiences were linked to more problem-focused coping (Leana et al., 1998). Conversely, the distress from ineffective coping strategies may lead to further negative appraisals (Waters, 2000). The effectiveness of alcohol consumption as a coping strategy following job loss is one such example (Virtanen et al., 2008), where effects are stronger for or exclusive to men, and are likelier in people who were heavier drinkers pre-job loss (Backhans, Lundin & Hemmingsson, 2012). Although alcohol may alleviate stress in the short-run, it may lead to abuse (Dooley & Prause, 1998) and a vicious cycle of poor coping (Latack et al., 1995). Within the context of prolonged unemployment, one may appraise one's situation as highly stressful, exacerbating alcohol use. Overall, the cognitive-behavioural model posits that one's interpretation of a situation determines one's

behavioural, physiological and emotional responses (Greenberger & Padesky, 1995), which maintain one's behaviours, attesting to the pivotal role of cognitions generally.

4.2.2 Coping resources. This review identified that personal, financial and social resources influence the coping style undertaken. In the Conservation of Resources theory, Hobfoll (1989) suggested that people must invest resources to inoculate against loss, recover from loss and recoup their losses. Generally, individuals with more resources are less affected by resource loss as compared to those with less resources. They may also have mechanisms in place to gain more resources, such as by drawing upon social capital or existing skills. In that, coping resources affects one's appraisals (see 4.2.1). Therefore, individuals with more resources such as finances and professional networks may appraise losing their job as less stressful (McKee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002).

4.2.2.1 Personal resources. Personal resources, which refer to one's internal coping resources, were found to influence coping strategies. Those with external loci of control (Leana & Feldman, 1990) were likelier to use emotion-focused coping, whilst individuals with higher perceived self-control (Kinicki & Latack, 1990) used more problem-focused strategies. Those with higher self-esteem used more of both coping styles (Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Kinicki et al., 2000; Leana & Feldman, 1990). Together, these concur with meta-analytic findings that higher self-esteem and perceived control are linked to shorter unemployment duration (Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001), given the well-documented role of both in buffering against stress, thereby allowing one to concentrate on problem-focused strategies (see Thoits, 1995). Similarly, McKee-Ryan and associates' (2005) meta-analysis of 104 empirical studies found a significant relationship between higher perceived control and better reemployment and psychological outcomes, bearing parallels to the wider coping literature on perceived self-control as a coping resource (Folkman, 2013).

Optimism is a key facet of psychological capital vital for building strength and uplifting flagging spirits (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007), therein demonstrating its role in stressful life events; however, it is possible that the mixed findings in this review (Lai & Wing, 1998; Leana et al., 1998) are possibly explained by cultural differences. Lai and Wing's (1998) failure to find a link between coping and optimism may be rooted in the defensive pessimism inherent in Asian thinking (Chang, 1996; Peterson & Chang, 2003). Specifically, defensive pessimism is a strategy wherein one sets low expectations and visualises the worst outcome for a given situation, in order to manage anxiety and achieve better outcomes (Norem & Chang, 2002). Contrastingly, optimism is associated with more positive future outcomes (Seligman, 1998). Indeed, Leana and Feldman (1992) suggested that individuals who view job loss with pessimism have little psychological energy left to pursue problem-focused strategies, whilst optimistic individuals may feel motivated to engage in job searching, and are psychologically buffered for setbacks. These promote more job search behaviours (Prussia, Kinicki & Bracker, 1993), and thus facilitate better re-employment outcomes and long-term wellbeing (McKee-Ryan et al., 2005).

Despite the paucity of relevant research, the relationship between resilience and coping in job loss is worth mentioning, given its prevalence in the broader coping literature. Resilience refers to the capacity to bounce back from adversity, conflict or failure (Luthans et al., 2007), and like optimism, is a critical component of psychological capital. Job loss can scar an individual's self-esteem, as individuals may perceive themselves as unemployable and incapable (Eliason & Storrie, 2006). Resilient individuals may be better equipped to overcome this problem and gain suitable employment, as they are likelier to persist in their efforts despite encountering setbacks (Chen & Lim, 2012). One article examined here noted that more resilient individuals are likelier to engage in emotion-focused coping as unemployment length persists (Sojo & Guarino, 2011), possibly due to the cumulative effects of stress from multiple rejections coupled with the depletion of financial resources (e.g. Wanberg, 2012). Previous research has suggested that feelings

of depression and stress may increase as unemployment duration elapses (see Wanberg, 2012), suggesting that engaging in some emotion-focused coping alongside problem-focused strategies may promote perseverance. These bear testament to the current consensus that contrary to the oversimplification that emotion-focused coping is bad and problem-focused coping is good, their utilities must be contextualised within the specific situation (Thoits, 1995).

Individuals with better negative mood regulation expectancies (Langens & Moss, 2006), higher sense of self-continuity (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012) and higher job search confidence (Blau et al., 2013; Malen & Stroh, 1998) were found to engage in more problem-focused coping; these three factors may be discussed in relation to self-efficacy, which refers to one's confidence in successfully performing a task or meeting a goal (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). First, negative mood regulation (NMR) expectancies are beliefs about one's ability to downregulate negative mood states (Catanzaro & Mearns, 1990). Higher NMR expectancies are linked to less depressive symptoms and better physical health across different populations (see Catanzaro, Wasch, Kirsch & Mearns, 2000), as these individuals believe they can effectively handle negative emotions, and therefore are likelier to engage in problem-focused coping. This bears relevance given the negative emotions elicited by job loss. Second, a sense of self-continuity refers to the ability to perceive one's self-identity as broadly consistent across the present, past and future, despite adversities and difficulties across time and space (Chandler, 1994). Self-continuity influences one's emotional responses, interpretations and plans. Although discontinuities across the life course may weaken one's self-identity, a stronger self-continuity boosts one's confidence in one's ability to handle challenges. This may explain how such individuals are likelier to engage in problem-focused coping (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012). Third, job search confidence relates to one's belief in one's ability to execute different facets of job searching, including negotiating and performing during interviews (Wanberg, Zhang & Diehn, 2010). Higher confidence may motivate one to engage in more

job search-related activities, although the article reviewed was limited to a sample of managers (Malen & Stroh, 1998). Together, these three factors concur with the broader job loss literature that individuals with higher self-efficacy have greater confidence about their skills and about securing re-employment (Lim & Loo, 2003). Coupled with abilities to regulate negative mood states, these beliefs heighten perceived employability, spurring them to seek reemployment (Chen & Lim, 2012).

Securely-attached individuals were more effective in eliciting social support and used less coping strategies overall, as compared to non-securely-attached individuals (Hobdy et al., 2007), suggesting that secure attachment style may inoculate one against stressful life events. Attachment research has extended beyond internal working models, and towards one's relationship with one's life roles (Bretherton & Munholland, 1998). Life events can activate the attachment system, given the loss of a valued role and associated relationships (Kenny & Barton, 2003). The working model of securely-attached individuals guides their interpersonal interactions and emotional regulation, enabling them to seek social support. In contrast, life events may trigger deficiencies in the internal models of non-securely attached-individuals (Hobdy et al., 2007), or they may deny or underestimate an event's impact, therein accounting for less social support sought.

4.2.2.2 Financial resources. Financial resources influence coping in two ways.

First, less monetary assistance by firms and governments is linked to more problem-focused strategies (Bennett et al, 1995; Leana et al., 1998), suggesting that less financial resources may be an incentive to seek employment. Second, that financial strain increases both types of coping (Christensen et al., 2006; Grossi, 1999; Kinicki et al., 2000) suggests that diminished financial resources may promote coping efforts, in an attempt to ameliorate the root of the problem and attendant stressful consequences. Other researchers have found similar links, where higher amounts of insurance unemployment benefits are associated with slower reemployment (Krueger & Meyer,

2002) possibly due to lower levels of job search, and that time spent in job search increases as time of benefit exhaustion approaches (Krueger & Mueller, 2010). Even though Card and associates (2007) suggest that these do not account for individuals who stop receiving benefits by dropping out of the system rather than by gaining employment, Kanfer and associates' (2001) meta-analysis concluded that those with higher financial need are reemployed faster. Together, these reinforce Price and associates' (2002) conclusion that financial strain is a key stressor following job loss. Money can improve access to other resources (Hobfoll, Freedy, Green & Solomon, 1996), and assets like savings and severance pay may alleviate the 'chain of adversity' set forth by financial strain (Leana, Feldman & Tan, 1998; Price, Friedland & Vinokur, 1998), lest depression, feelings of helplessness and a diminished sense of personal control ensue (Price et al, 2002).

4.2.2.3 Social resources. Social support was found to influence coping in two ways. First, having a partner may promote problem-focused coping, however unsupportive partners can increase stress and therefore promote emotion-focused coping concurrently. This review found that married or cohabiting individuals used more problem-focused coping (Christensen et al., 2006; Grossi, 1999), divorced individuals used more emotion-focused strategies (Grossi, 1999), whilst findings for single individuals were inconclusive. Those with partners may be pressured to continue contributing to household finances (Vinokur, Price & Caplan, 1996), otherwise a partner may be a straightforward source of emotional support, allowing problem-focused strategies to emerge. Indeed, individuals who felt less supported by their partners used more of both coping strategies (Walsh & Jackson, 1995), suggesting that having a partner is potentially a motivating factor towards solving the job loss problem, whilst emotion-focused strategies are concomitantly required to ameliorate stress. This is reinforced by Vinokur and associates' (1996) findings that those with partners who undermine regularly had less marital satisfaction and more depressive symptoms. Similarly, others have found that

highly-motivated individuals who experienced multiple failures at regaining employment had poorer mental health than their less motivated counterparts, yet this effect is overridden by having a supportive partner (Feather & Davenport, 1981; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). Together, these suggest that supportive partners may reduce the distress of job loss, as seen in less need to engage in emotion-focused coping.

Second, having more general emotional and social support promotes problem-focused coping (Kinicki & Latack, 1990). Although the exact mechanisms of how social support influences coping processes and outcomes remain unclear (Lahey & Orehe, 2011), social support buffers stress generally (e.g. Richard & Krieshok, 1989) and within a job loss context (e.g. Vinokur & Caplan, 1987), given the tangible (instrumental help in resolving the situation) or social-emotional (comfort and unconditional positive regard) functions (Kahn & Antonucci, 1981). Social support is also linked to enhanced self-esteem, reduced negative affect (Kahn & Antonucci, 1981) and higher job search intensity (Wanberg, 2012). Beyond the psychological benefits, it is regarded as an important practical factor (Granovetter, 1995), where one's social network may offer information about available jobs, alert a firm about an individual's interest or influence hiring decisions (Lin, 2001). A survey across 28 countries revealed that 44% of individuals in the USA found their last job through informal sources; with the highest being between 67% to 83% in Brazil, Chile, Cyprus and the Philippines; and the lowest between 26% to 28% in Finland, Norway, Austria and Denmark (Franzen & Hantgartner, 2006). Such variability in the utility of informal support in job search echoes other authors who found it to more useful in rural areas (Matthews, Pendakur & Young, 2009) or inner-city areas amongst Blacks (Mouw, 2002). McDonald (2010) also proposed the concept of serendipity, where individuals find jobs by fortuitously meeting someone rather than via a formal inquiry. His survey of 3000 people revealed that socially-advantaged individuals are likeliest to experience this. These different lines of evidence converge with Thoit's (1995) assertion that although the benefits or harms of social support are inconclusive, support that

matches the individual's needs (Cutrona & Russell, 1990) can increase coping efforts and promote beneficial outcomes such as reemployment (Wanberg, 2012).

4.2.3 Sex differences. Besides sex and having a partner, all other demographic factors reviewed yielded little or mixed evidence about their relationship with coping. Eight (89%) of nine articles that examined intra-individual factors found significant intersex or intrasex differences in coping. Generally, men engaged in more problem-focused styles (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Malen & Stroh, 1998; Smari et al., 1997) and overall coping strategies (Malen & Stroh, 1998), whilst women used more emotion-focused strategies (Leana & Feldman, 1991; Sojo & Guarino, 2010). Sex differences in coping were first suggested by Pearlin and Schooler (1978), who stated that women use passive coping responses that exacerbate stress, given their socialisation which disadvantages their coping responses; whilst men use more psychological resources and engage in coping strategies that inhibit stressful outcomes. In a later study on job loss, Phelps and Mason (1991) found that female managers engaged in the grief process and interpreted loss personally; however male managers isolated their loss from other aspects of their lives. These lines of research are disparate, however the findings of this review offer possible avenues for further investigating the precise mechanisms of how sex influences coping, echoing other authors' call to investigate it (e.g. Malen & Stroh, 1998; Waters, 2000).

4.3 Moving Forward

This review has attempted to identify the factors that lead to the use of particular coping styles in response to job loss. There are two areas that require further investigation, namely (i) categorising coping styles; and (ii) quality of coping strategies. This section offers suggestions for refining these areas, in order to contribute to developing interventions.

4.3.1 Categorising coping styles. A key issue in the articles examined was the inconsistency in assessing and categorising coping styles. The articles either examined different forms of each coping style, or simply examined problem-focused coping as compared to emotion-focused coping. Coupled with varied assessment tools and the small number of studies, these contribute to the ensuing challenge in drawing conclusions about how a given factor may influence each coping style. This necessitates examining coping with job loss at the level of specific strategies rather than styles, echoing Carver and associates' (1989) proposition.

Moreover, the demarcation between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping provides little information about which coping strategies are adaptive. Even though older literature distinguished between problem-focused and emotion-focused as adaptive and maladaptive respectively (Grossi, 1999), there is consensus that this demarcation is no longer valid. For instance, seeking financial assistance and alcohol use are both forms of emotion-focused coping, but each has different implications for outcomes across cultures (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987). The former may be a practical method for dealing with short-term monetary difficulties but may be maladaptive if an individual incurs high amounts of debt without looking for employment. Using alcohol may be a normal method of dealing with stress in countries with a drinking culture (Gordon, Heim & MacAskill, 2012), but may be maladaptive if one becomes dependent on it to escape one's situation (Blau et al., 2013). Problem-focused strategies may also cause distress. Job search increases stress, albeit in a curvilinear fashion where some stress is useful for influencing reemployment success up until to a certain point (Crossley & Stanton, 2005). Song and associates (2009) found a reciprocal relationship, where job search increases distress, and distress increases job search efforts. Moreover, few studies have investigated the link between the duration of a real-life stressor and coping styles. This is especially relevant to job loss, which, after the initial acute stress experienced can become a chronic source of stress as negative appraisal style and hopelessness set in. Langens and Moss (2006) found that

people shift from problem-focused coping to emotion-focused coping with longer unemployment lengths, similar to male soldiers deployed for long periods in peacekeeping missions (Adler, Huffman, Bliese & Castro, 2005). This shift may be grounded in the need to cope with accumulating distress levels or the adoption of hopeless beliefs, but demonstrate the importance of longitudinal studies. An emotion-focused strategy may also promote problem-focused strategies, and vice versa, suggesting that the relationship is not as clear-cut. There is increasing consensus that the extent to which each problem-focused and emotion-focused strategy is adaptive is contingent upon the specific situation and the outcomes of interest (Carver & Scheier, 1994). As Carver and Connor-Smith (2010) assert in their review, coping is a broad and complex concept, and coping strategies do not fall into a neat matrix between maladaptiveness and adaptiveness.

Perhaps, a more useful way of conceptualising coping styles is the dichotomy between engagement and disengagement coping (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Engagement coping refers to both problem-focused and emotion-focused efforts taken to deal with the stressor or related emotions; and disengagement coping to efforts to escape threat or related distress (Schwartz, Neale, Marco, Shiffman & Stone, 1999).

Disengagement coping consists predominantly of emotion-focused strategies such as avoidance, fantasy, and substance abuse. It differs from emotion-focused strategies that promote engagement coping, in that it creates boundaries and distance from reality, enabling the individual to act as though the stressor does not exist. Thus, no problem-focused strategies are required to address the stressor, and disengagement coping is ineffective in reducing distress in the long-term. Paradoxically, avoidance and denial may promote more intrusive thoughts about the stressor and consequently increase anxiety and low mood (Najmi & Wegner, 2008), otherwise substance abuse or gambling may create health and financial problems (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). It is recommended that future studies adopt this dichotomy to enhance clarity.

4.3.2 Quality of coping strategies. The quality of each coping strategy is worth considering, particularly in relation to the practical implications of this review. The term 'quality' refers to the amount of time, effort and persistence applied to a particular behaviour. Although the problem-focused strategy of job searching is widely-studied, the quality of job search is pertinent in influencing reemployment success (Kanfer et al., 2001). Active search intensity and effort are linked to shorter unemployment periods and more job offers (Kanfer et al., 2001; Saks, 2006; Saks & Ashford, 2000). Crossley and Highhouse (2005) distinguished between focused search (having a specific target), exploratory search (gathering information about options) and haphazard search (no plan). Those who engaged in exploratory searches had more job offers, whilst those with haphazard approaches had fewer offers. Similarly, others have found that interview anxiety, self-presentation tactics and attributes of cover letters can influence reemployment success (Wanberg, 2012), attesting to the importance of factor quality.

Some authors have examined the link between quality of coping factors and quality of outcome. Those who found jobs through informal means reported better alignment with long-term career goals (Franzen & Hangartner, 2006) and higher job satisfaction (Cheng & Gui, 2006). Mouw (2002) concluded that higher-quality social connections are linked to higher wages, although it should be noted that individuals with such social capital may themselves be better qualified.

4.3.3 Informing interventions. The factors identified in this review can be conceptualised along a continuum of malleability to inform secondary and tertiary intervention, to reduce the length of unemployment and improve coping respectively. Fixed factors such as sex and personality are generally stable across the lifespan (e.g. Costa & McCrae, 1995), whereas cognitive processing is more malleable. By identifying risk factors such as poor support systems or financial strain, resources can be diverted towards providing alternative support systems. The utility of incentives and disincentives

(such as outplacement assistance and monetary assistance respectively) can inform corporate and government policies. Of more relevance to this review, interventions tackling cognitive processing such as attribution and self-blame, and those enhancing job search confidence, may be useful. Payne and Hartley (1987) found that those who appraised unemployment-related problems as severe had higher levels of depressive affect, suggesting the advantage of helping one to reappraise one's situation as less threatening. Although there are no national-based psychological programs in the UK, the Working for Wellness (2011) program aimed at helping unemployed individuals with mental health difficulties in London to gain employment, suggests the utility of psychological therapy in job loss. It may thus be useful for therapists to integrate this review's findings with their existing therapeutic orientations.

Although less attention has been accorded to interventions than unemployment-related difficulties (Hammarström & Janlert 2005; Hanisch, 1999), the JOBS program by the University of Michigan which seeks to enhance job search skills and prepare candidates for demoralisation, has been the most-studied, and has cross-cultural reinforcement post-2000. Longer-term outcomes include higher re-employment levels, higher wages (Vinokur, Schul, Vuori & Price., 2000), more stable employment and lower distress (Vuori, Silvonen, Vinokur & Price, 2002). In the Netherlands, van Hooft and Noordji (2009) examined three groups of individuals with different goal orientations—learning goal orientation (set goals for learning from mistakes), performance goal orientation (performing well and competing with others) and a control group. The first group coped better with obstacles and challenges, and were likelier to be re-employed eight months after the workshop. Together, these lines of evidence point to the possibility of tackling malleable factors in intervention, in order to amplify interventions and research at organisational, community and national levels.

4.3.4 Future directions. This review has identified gaps in the extant literature, notably inconsistencies in assessing and categorising coping styles; future research may benefit from integrating other lines of research including discrimination, entrepreneurship and employability. Specifically, overweight, older or pregnant individuals face discrimination, which may contribute to long-term unemployment (Leslie, King, Bradley & Hebl, 2008; Wanberg, 2012). Coping by entrepreneurship is an emerging topic, which can be explained via cognitive appraisals (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). Last, employability is a psychosocial person-centered construct that explores factors (e.g. career identity, self-efficacy, social capital, openness) allowing a person to gain or maintain employment (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004). These align with the factors affecting coping strategies, suggesting the utility of exploring the relationship between employability and coping styles.

Conclusion

To summarise, coping styles are influenced by a variety of internal, situational and demographic factors, of which these factors interact and vary in malleability. This review has highlighted the role of cognitive appraisals, especially when anchored within the context of coping resources and demographic factors. From these, factors that push people towards tackling the unemployment problem, and those that may be potentially more stressful therein promoting emotion-focused strategies, are identified. This can in turn inform interventions. Last, as the quality of research in this area is varied, recommendations on methodology and models of coping have been made.

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PART TWO: EMPIRICAL PAPER

Coping following job loss in the ABC1 demographic: Exploring the relationships between personality, mental adjustment styles, coping, distress and satisfaction with outcome

ABSTRACT

Aims. This study aimed to examine coping in the ABC1 demographic, investigating coping styles, mental adjustment, personality, distress and satisfaction with outcome.

Method. A website introducing the study was designed, and 202 individuals recruited via snowball and convenience sampling completed an internet survey.

Results. All hypotheses were strongly supported. Mental adjustment styles, coping styles and personality were linked. Anxious preoccupation and disengagement coping explained distress. Total losses, distress, openness and conscientiousness explained satisfaction with outcome. Themes from two domains of Coping Process and Coping Outcome emerged from respondents' reflections.

Conclusion. Exploring mental adjustment styles in job loss is useful. Themes were contextualised within a meaning-making framework. Future studies could benefit from internet surveys and adopting the disengagement-engagement dichotomy.

Introduction

Job loss has become a reality for many, perhaps best summed up in popular career advice website Careerealism's (2014) tagline "Every job is temporary". Indeed, the Great Recession of 2008-09 heralded the European sovereign debt crisis, ubiquitous subprime mortgage foreclosures in the USA, and soaring unemployment rates globally. These effects continue to persist today. In the UK, unemployment peaked at about 2.7 million in Q4²-2011, the highest in 17 years (BBC, 2014a). Similarly, 21 million people lost their jobs in Q3-2011 in the USA, with other severely-affected countries including New Zealand, Spain and Taiwan (IMF Labor Organ, 2010). The UK's double-dip recession, which ran from Q4-2011 to Q2-2012, has contributed to current unemployment levels of 2.33 million (BBC, 2014b). Meanwhile, hiring patterns point to an increasingly-growing trend of more temporary or contract positions (Gebel & Giesecke, 2012), suggesting that job loss is a contemporary issue.

When writing about job loss, business and self-improvement articles often tout examples of famous people— Steve Jobs, Walt Disney, Oprah Winfrey, amongst others—who were fired and then achieved greatness, situating these individuals as role models. Yet, job loss ranks amongst the life events with the most detrimental effects on psychological wellbeing (Iwasaki & Smale, 1998). Meta-analyses have revealed that individuals who have lost their jobs have markedly lower wellbeing than their employed counterparts, after controlling for selection effects (Paul & Moser, 2009; McKee-Ryan et al., 2005). Price and associates (2002) stated that financial strain is central to the experience of distress as it produces a 'chain of adversity' that spirals into poor physical and psychological health. Indeed, some researchers have identified financial strain as a pathway to physical health problems and suicide (e.g. Korpi, 2001), which rank amongst the other well-documented effects of job loss (see Wanberg, 2012). Evidently, navigating

² Of which Q4 refers to fourth quarter.

the everyday reality of the challenges that come with job loss can make it difficult to hold on to the inspirational stories of Jobs and Disney.

Although the experiences and coping strategies of individuals may differ across socioeconomic strata (Blau, Petrucci & McClendon, 2013; Johnson & Jackson, 2012; Malen & Stroh, 1998), little information is available. Most research to-date oversamples individuals in entry-level jobs, as most recruitment for research is conducted at unemployment or government-based job services agencies (Boswell, Zimmerman & Swider, 2012). However, individuals with higher-status careers experience multiple career transition cycles of interruptions and underemployment, yet their experiences of job loss are not well-understood (Feldman & Leana, 2000). Zikic and Klehe (2006) explained that the specialism of the professions sought by this demographic means that they may be unequipped for the challenges of job loss, warranting further research.

1.1 Coping

1.1.1 The theory of coping. Coping refers to the process of using cognitive, emotional and behavioural strategies to obviate the effects of stress. Most research on coping is underpinned by Lazarus' (1966) cognitive-phenomenological conceptualisation of stress and coping. To the extent a stressor is perceived as challenging or harmful, it is first *appraised* as threatening and requiring a response (*primary appraisal*). *Secondary appraisals* follow, where one evaluates one's competence, social support and other resources that can aid in responding, to re-establish equilibrium between oneself and the environment. Coping is therefore the process of executing the response (see Figure 1).

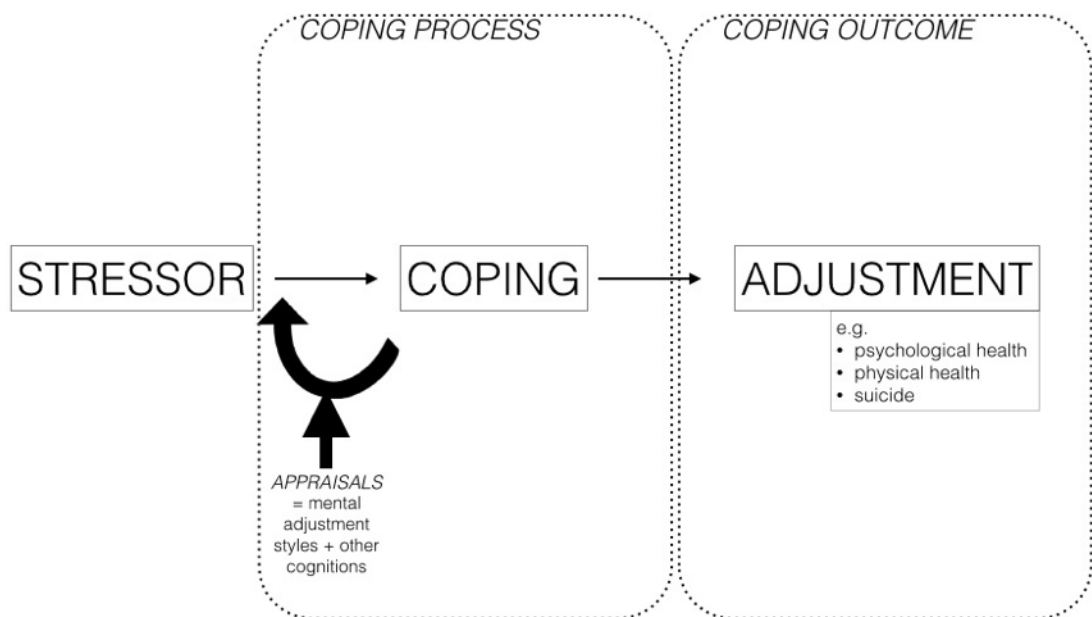


Figure 1: Relationship between Coping, Appraisal and Adjustment

Lazarus and Folkman (1980) distinguished between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping styles. The former refers to actions taken to solve the problem. In the context of job loss, this might include job search activities and behaviours that aid the process (e.g. time-management training and skills workshops; Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Leana & Feldman, 1990, 1991). Emotion-focused coping refers to behaviours that manage or ameliorate the emotional distress associated with or triggered by the stressor.

Given that most stressors elicit both forms of coping, it is oversimplistic to assume that one coping type predominates or is more adaptive (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Parkes, 1984). Older stress literature suggested that problem-focused coping predominates when people believe that a constructive action is feasible. However emotion-focused coping is mainly used when they believe that the stressor will persist, because action to ameliorate stress is not possible (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Problem-focused strategies have traditionally been depicted as more beneficial to psychological wellbeing (Conway & Terry, 1992). However, the two coping styles entail many varied responses which shape outcomes in different ways (Lazarus, 1966). For instance, seeking support and denial are both forms of emotion-focused coping, but each has vastly different implications for outcomes across different situations (Aldwin & Revenson,

1987). An emotion-focused strategy that diminishes distress may allow one to consider the problem more calmly, therein yielding better execution of problem-focused strategies, as compared to denial which promotes escape from the stressor (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Thus, there is increasing consensus that the extent to which each problem-focused and emotion-focused style is adaptive is contingent upon the specific situation and outcomes of interest (Carver & Scheier, 1994). As Carver and Connor-Smith (2010) asserted in their review, coping is a broad and complex concept, and coping strategies do not fall into a neat matrix of adaptiveness and maladaptiveness.

This study adopts the distinction between engagement and disengagement coping, noted as a more useful way of conceptualising coping (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Engagement coping refers to both problem-focused and emotion-focused efforts that deal with the stressor or related emotions; and disengagement coping to efforts to escape threat or distress (Skinner, Neale, Marco, Shiffman & Stone, 1999).

Disengagement coping consists predominantly of emotion-focused strategies such as avoidance, fantasy, and substance abuse. It differs from emotion-focused strategies that promote engagement coping in that it creates boundaries and distance from reality, enabling the individual to act as though the stressor does not exist. Thus, no problem-focused strategies are required to address it, rendering disengagement coping ineffective in reducing distress in the long run. Paradoxically, avoidance and denial may promote more intrusive thoughts about the stressor and therein increase anxiety and low mood (Najmi & Wegner, 2008), otherwise substance abuse or gambling may create health and financial problems (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010).

1.1.2 Coping and mental adjustment. Mental adjustment styles refer to appraisals and the ensuing coping efforts with respect to one's cognitions, such as pushing thoughts out of one's mind and making efforts to avoid thinking about one's situation (Greer, Moorey & Watson, 1989). As such, it is a form of cognitive coping. It

must be acknowledged that this specific use of the word 'adjustment' can seem somewhat misleading or confusing as it does not refer to coping outcomes in the same way that 'adjustment' is understood in the coping literature. Mental adjustment research emerged from studies of coping with cancer, examined by the Mental Adjustment to Cancer scale (MAC; Watson et al., 1988) and its abbreviated version the Mini MAC (Watson et al., 1994). Both have been adapted for other chronic illnesses including HIV, Hepatitis C and end-stage renal disease (see Gilbar, Or-Han & Plivazky, 2005), with similar findings. This has relevance for examining coping with job loss, as Folkman and Lazarus' (1980) demarcation between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping is limited to the extent that it does not capture the appraisal process. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate mental adjustment styles in individuals who have lost their jobs, examining their relationship with coping styles.

This study focuses on three mental adjustment styles³. Fighting spirit and helplessness/hopelessness are noted as the most influential styles in the coping process and its outcomes (Yeung & Lu, 2013). As the only adaptive mental adjustment style (Moorey & Greer, 1989), fighting spirit entails an optimistic attitude with a realistic appraisal of the situation (Greer & Watson, 1987), and is associated with better psychological adjustment (Yeung & Lu, 2013). Anxious preoccupation is examined here given the prevalence of anxiety in job loss (Wanberg, 2012). It involves feeling highly anxious about the situation-in-question and compulsively searching for reassurance, whilst seeing the future as unpredictable. Common experiences include "I worry about the cancer returning or getting worse" and "I can't cope with not knowing what the future holds". Helplessness/hopefulness arises when the individual is overwhelmed by the threat of the illness, and may believe that they have no control over the situation, essentially giving up. It is considered the most deleterious amongst the styles (Akechi, Okamura, Yamawaki & Uchitomi, 1998).

³ The other two are cognitive avoidance and fatalism.

1.1.3 Dispositional styles and coping. Personality refers to the psychological and physical systems that underlie a person's enduring patterns of actions, thoughts and feelings (Allport, 1961). This study examines optimism and three 'Big Five' personality traits of neuroticism, conscientiousness and openness. Although individual differences exist along multiple dimensions, the Five Factor Model has been widely adopted (McCrae & Costa, 2003) given that its five dimensions provide a useful snapshot of personality. Neuroticism refers to vulnerability to experiences of anxiety, distress and low mood, and is linked to avoidance behaviours (Evans & Rothbart, 2007). Conscientious individuals are persistent, organised and hardworking, and are able to consider future contingencies (Digman, 1990). Lastly, openness relates to traits of imaginativeness, curiosity and broadmindedness (Roccas, Savig, Schwartz & Knafo, 2002), where more open individuals are likelier to seek variation and dislike routines and habits (Costa & McCrae, 1995). In their meta-analysis of 165 samples and 33,094 participants, Connor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) found that all Big Five personality traits can predict specific coping strategies. Notably, individuals high in neuroticism used more disengagement coping, and those low in conscientiousness used more drugs and alcohol.

Optimism is another widely-explored dispositional variable (Carver, Scheier & Sergestrom, 2010). It refers to the degree to which people hold favourable expectancies for the future, and reflects a confident approach to life in general rather than to specific situations. Relatively stable over long time periods (Matthews, Räikkönen, Sutton-Tyrrell & Kuller, 2004), higher optimism levels can predict better subjective wellbeing during times of adversity, even if optimism can decrease during such times given the experience of discontinuity from prior experiences and uncertainty about the future (Matthews et al., 2004). People who are confident about success will continue trying despite facing adversity, whilst those who are doubtful about success attempt to escape by engaging in wishful thinking or stop trying, as found in patients who have undergone coronary artery bypass surgery, failed in-vitro fertilisation and cancer (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). The

dichotomy between the behaviours of optimistic and pessimistic people parallels the mental adjustment styles described above, specifically fighting spirit as opposed to helplessness/hopelessness. Furthermore, in their meta-analysis of optimism and coping, Solberg, Nes and Segerstrom (2006) found that pessimism predicted emotion-focused and disengagement coping. Conversely, optimism was positively correlated with engagement and problem-focused coping, such as health-promoting behaviours (Aspinwall & Brunhart, 1996) and drawing upon richer social resources (Carver et al., 2010), especially for stressors perceived as controllable. These coping strategies are in turn linked to lower distress and better subjective well-being.

Although the relationship between stable dispositional styles and coping is well-studied in community and clinical samples, there are no such studies in the domain of job loss. Rather, personality traits are sometimes studied amongst a wider variable set but are not the primary focus. Results for optimism are mixed (Lai & Wing, 1998; Leana, Feldman & Tan, 1998), whilst individuals with higher levels of neuroticism were found to use more emotion-focused strategies (Langens & Mose, 2006). Arguing that time structure⁴ is an important coping mechanism for dealing with unemployment, Van Hove and Lootens (2013) examined its relationship with personality in a sample of 231 unemployed Flemish individuals. They found that high levels of conscientiousness are crucial in keeping time structure, consequently ameliorating distress. However, these studies are too few to draw firm conclusions from, necessitating further research in this direction.

1.2 Adjustment

Broadly, 'adjustment'⁵ in the coping literature refers to the outcome of the coping

⁴ This refers to having a structured schedule

⁵ Throughout this paper, where the term 'adjustment' is used in isolation, the intended meaning is this one, which is derived from the coping literature. When the term is preceded by 'mental' (in the case of mental adjustment) this refers to the form of cognitive coping referred to in 1.1.2 Coping and mental adjustment

process. Studies of job loss often examine reemployment as a primary outcome. Still, several other relevant aspects of adjustment are outlined below.

1.2.1 Psychological distress. A number of studies have examined distress as an additional outcome variable alongside reemployment. Generally, more job searching activity is linked to lower psychological health especially as unemployment length increases, given that rejection can cause low mood and despair (see Wanberg, 2012 for a review). Therefore, people also engage in emotion-focused coping concomitantly to ameliorate stress (Leana & Feldman, 1990). However, more job searching is also linked to higher reemployment success (Schaufeli & Vanyperen, 1993), attesting to the importance of considering long-term outcomes. Using a somewhat stark example, Latack and associates (1995) stated that while emotion-focused behaviours such as alcohol abuse and impulsive spending of one's severance package may improve mood, they may fuel a vicious cycle of unemployment and increase distress levels in the long run. Although no studies on job loss have examined mental adjustment styles, research on health conditions such as cancer, muscular dystrophy and HIV has found links between mental adjustment and distress. Specifically, fighting spirit is linked to lower distress, whilst anxious preoccupation and helplessness/hopelessness are associated with distress (see Gilbar et al., 2005). It is thus worth exploring the extent to which mental adjustment styles and coping styles can explain psychological distress.

1.2.2 Other outcomes. There is consensus that career transitions are increasingly discontinuous in nature (Sadeh & Karniol, 2012), whilst other outcomes such as entrepreneurship and grief have been gaining emphasis in the literature. Job loss is possibly associated with grief, as evidenced by two relatively recent studies. This contrasts with older studies which found grief-like reactions in less than 30% of the sample (Archer & Rhodes, 1993, 1995), but which did not utilise standardised

assessments. Brewington and associates' (2004) sample of 66 individuals had similar grief scores to a reference group of bereaved individuals using the same measure⁶. They found that grief was negatively correlated with length of notice, job duration and social isolation. The mean score for the 73 individuals in Papa and Maitoza's⁷ (2013) study met the minimum cutoff for prolonged grief. They also concluded that grief is contingent upon the degree to which job loss has impacted upon an individual's sense of self. Losing one's job diminishes one's self-esteem and promotes a sense that the world is uncontrollable (Balk, 1999), where individuals must adjust to different roles as non-wage earners (Gysbers, Heppner & Johnston, 1998). Drawing from relational self-theory where the ability to satisfy broader goals boosts one's sense of self-efficacy (Andersen & Chen, 2002), Papa and Maitoza (2013) hypothesised that job loss removes the roles and resources related to goal fulfilment, rendering one less able to engage with the environment, consequently leading to grief.

Job loss is also a catalyst for discontinuous career paths. Careers have traditionally been understood to be continuous, within the context of stable organisational structures where individuals are promoted along the firm's hierarchy over time (Levinson, 1978), and the worker's loyalty is exchanged for job security (Rousseau, 1989). Therefore, research has focused on how individuals fit into career roles and continuous paths (Haynie & Shepherd, 2011). Yet, this is not relevant to discontinuous career transitions and ignores the meanings that individuals place on their careers (Arnold & Cohen, 2008). Changes in the work environment such as technologically-caused displacement, contract-based work and globalisation have reshaped organisational structures and the traditional employer-employee relationship. The ubiquity of layoffs has fostered a surge in changes in career paths, mostly involving retraining and entrepreneurship (Browning & Silver, 2008). Entrepreneurship is recognised as a growing phenomenon where people create work for

⁶ The Grief Experience Inventory.

⁷ Using the Prolonged Grief-13 scale.

themselves; however self-employment may also be a last resort in economies with high unemployment and people become 'necessity entrepreneurs' (Serviere, 2010). Career discontinuity is also driven by changing needs along the lifespan (Power, 2009), where job loss can spur these realisations. Thus, rather than seek to regain employment within the same field or role, individuals may take more initiative, choose downward career moves or engage in other roles such as raising children, to fulfil their needs accordingly (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). Broadly, Haynie and Shepherd (2011) state that discontinuous paths necessitate rebuilding one's foundational assumptions about the self and the world, and the purposeful construction of a career that meets one's personal needs.

1.3 Study Aims

This study seeks to examine coping and adjustment in the ABC1 demographic⁸. Specifically, (i) if disengagement and engagement coping are related; (ii) relationships between mental adjustment styles, coping styles and personality; (iii) which coping styles and mental adjustment styles explain distress; (iv) if situational background, dispositional variables and coping styles can incrementally explain satisfaction with outcome; and (v) participants' reflections on their journey since job loss. Broadly, 'A' refers to individuals who are in the upper middle-class higher managerial, administrative or professional roles; 'B' to similar roles, but at intermediate levels. C1 comprises of lower-level supervisory or clerical, junior managerial, administrative or professional workers. Given the effects of globalisation on occupational mobility, this study entailed an internet survey open to respondents from all countries, seeking to plumb their job loss experiences, taking job loss to refer to involuntary unemployment resulting from job termination (Latack, Kinicki & Prussia, 1995). To be eligible, participants would have lost a job within the last ten years, regardless of present circumstances. This section delineates the specific research hypotheses.

⁸ A generic standard for classifying social classes in market research by the National Readership Survey (n.d.).

1.3.1 Factor structure of Brief COPE. Given the complex nature of coping, researchers advocate performing factor analysis on coping measures (Kragelöh, 2011). In job loss research, common inventories include Brief COPE (Carver, 1997) and Ways of Coping Checklist (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984); measures specific to job loss such as Job Loss Coping Behaviour Scale (Leana & Feldman, 1990) and Coping with Job Loss Scale (Latack, 1986); or unvalidated, researcher-devised measures. This study utilised the 28-item Brief COPE. Carver (1997) recommended that researchers use it flexibly, such as by selecting particular subscales or using one's own classification of the subscales. Given that emotion-focused strategies can be both adaptive and maladaptive means that studying coping as a dichotomy between ostensibly adaptive problem-focused and maladaptive emotion-focused coping may not be valid. Exploratory factor analyses can determine independent coping variables, where it is more useful to split coping along an engagement-disengagement dichotomy rather than a problem-and-emotion-focused one (Kragelöh, 2011). This study will first factor analyse the Brief COPE, to explore if the variables may fall under the disengagement-engagement factor structure.

1.3.2 Relationships between factors

1.3.2.1 Relationship between coping styles. Stressors may lead to attempts to address the problem, alleviate stress and escape distress (see 1.1.1 The theory of coping), and as such this study will examine if people use both disengagement and engagement coping simultaneously following job loss.

H1⁹: Disengagement and engagement coping are positively correlated.

1.3.2.2 Relationship between coping and mental adjustment. As mental adjustment styles may contribute to an understanding of the appraisal process in coping (see 1.1.2 Coping and mental adjustment), this study explores the relationship between

⁹H1 denotes Hypothesis 1. This labelling system applies to all hypotheses.

coping and mental adjustment. It predicts that maladaptive coping is positively correlated with maladaptive mental adjustment styles, and vice versa.

H2a: Disengagement coping is positively correlated with helplessness/hopelessness and anxious preoccupation.

H2b: Engagement coping is positively correlated with fighting spirit.

1.3.2.3 Relationships between coping, mental adjustment and

personality. Personality influences the coping process via frequency of exposure to stressors, type of stressors experienced and appraisals (see 1.1.3 Dispositional styles and coping; Vollrath, 2001). First, it is expected that optimism, conscientiousness, openness and emotional stability are positively linked with engagement coping, as these traits can facilitate more adaptive coping. Second, individuals who are less emotionally stable and less optimistic are likelier to use more disengagement coping given less ability to regulate negative emotions and lower positive expectancies for the future respectively (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). Third, the relationship between mental adjustment styles and personality, which has hitherto been unexplored, will be examined in this study.

H3a: Optimism, conscientiousness, openness and emotional stability are positively correlated with engagement coping

H3b: Optimism and emotional stability are negatively correlated with disengagement coping

H3c: Some personality traits are correlated with mental adjustment styles.

1.3.3 Exploring coping outcomes

1.3.3.1 Distress. Coping styles have been linked to distress resulting from job loss, whilst particular mental adjustment styles are associated with distress in the health psychology literature (see 1.2.1 Psychological distress). This study seeks to explore the extent to which mental adjustment and coping styles can explain psychological distress.

H4 : Distress can be explained by mental adjustment styles and coping styles, using a multiple regression model.

1.3.3.2 Satisfaction with outcomes. The myriad of outcomes beyond unemployment and distress necessitates further research (see 1.2.2 Other outcomes). Moreover, that job loss acts as a catalyst for people to reevaluate their needs in life (Sullivan & Baruch, 2013) suggests that obtaining reemployment may not necessarily translate to satisfaction with outcome. This study will first explore outcomes using a qualitative-based reflection of respondents' journeys since job loss. Second, satisfaction with outcome is examined, following other multiple regression models of job loss which first control for demographic variables, before considering situational variables, disposition variables and then coping efforts (e.g. Boswell et al., 2012). Coping efforts are considered most proximal to the outcome (Wanberg, 2012), and this study will employ a similar distal-to-proximal model.

H5: Situational background (total losses, distress, job importance), dispositional (optimism, emotional stability, openness and conscientiousness) and coping efforts (engagement and disengagement styles) will incrementally explain satisfaction with outcome, after controlling for demographic variables (age, sex, ethnicity, country).

METHOD

2.1 Procedures

2.1.1 Web design. The study received ethical approval (see Appendix A) from the University College London graduate school ethics committee. Following this, a website (www.chapterchrysalis.com; see Appendices C for website, and D for information and consent) was purchased and designed to describe the study (aims, recruitment, ethics), providing a link to a 20-minute survey.

2.1.2 Recruitment. A self-selecting community sample was recruited via the internet (see Appendix B for a sample advertisement). The inclusion criteria specified ages 21-70 and losing an ABC1 demographic job within the last ten years. Participants were required to be fluent in English and be able to provide informed consent. Given the sensitive nature of job loss, snowball sampling was used to reach a population that might be relatively inaccessible (Browne, 2005).

The first recruitment phase entailed posting a description of the study and the relevant internet links on various social media websites (Google+, Facebook, Twitter), where individuals in the researcher's network disseminated these posts to their own networks to broaden outreach. Additionally, the researcher searched for blog entries and internet articles where named individuals shared their experiences of job loss. Where possible, these individuals' contact details were searched for on Google and they were invited to participate. In total, the first phase yielded 71 participants in about four weeks.

The second phase leveraged upon the professional networking site LinkedIn for recruitment, given the high likelihood that the target population are members. A message introducing the study and providing links to the survey and study site were posted on various LinkedIn groups, where group membership ranged from over 3000 members to about 2 million members. These groups included specific unemployment and job search networking groups, and industry groups, such as "Job Openings, Job Leads, and Job Connections", "Oil and Gas Jobs and Recruitment Network" and "Bank Hot Job Openings". However, some groups required permissions from moderators to join, and for some, membership was restricted to individuals within the industry. Moreover, the researcher was only able to join a maximum of fifty groups, meaning restricted access to all possible participants. 55 participants completed the survey over a one week period, after which the researcher's posts were banned or moderated as 'spam'. Contacting individual group moderators to change posting permissions did not yield any results. Therefore, the researcher searched for LinkedIn articles by popular writers known as

'Influencers', who shared their experiences about losing their jobs. Some posts had up to 2500 comments, where some commenters shared their own experience. These commenters' profiles were publicly available, and they were contacted personally with an invitation to join the study via LinkedIn's group messaging system, provided that the researcher and the commenter were in the same LinkedIn group. The researcher joined similar groups that were accessible to all LinkedIn members. The process of contacting each individual took between five to fifteen minutes. About 20 individuals were contacted daily; of these, about half replied that they had completed the survey. The researcher then sent them thank-you messages and a study blurb that they could forward to anyone whom they thought was suitable for the study. A total of 241 responses were collected, amongst which 202 met inclusion criteria for this study.

2.1.3 Survey design. The study website and survey were pilot tested with three individuals from the target population, two internet professionals and three postgraduate students. Overall there was good feedback about the website, and some wording was changed to increase clarity. However, feedback on the survey format was unanimously poor, where all pilot testers thought that the Opinio survey design did not have any continuity with the site. Given the survey's length, pilot respondents suggested that a better design with different font sizes might engage the target population better, to minimise the chances of survey non-completion. Consequently, the survey provider was changed to Google Forms (see Appendix E for questionnaire). All pilot respondents reported high satisfaction with the changes, following which the study was launched.

2.1.3.1 Standardised assessments

Brief COPE. Coping styles were measured with the Brief COPE (Carver, 1997), a shortened version of the COPE scale. Respondents rated on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (I haven't been doing this at all) to 4 (I've been doing this a lot), the extent to which

each coping option was used in the first year since job loss. Each of the 14 strategies are represented by a two-item subscale. There are 12 items for disengagement coping, meaning that an individual's possible scores ranged from 12-to-48. For the 16 items for engagement coping, scores ranged from 16-to-64. The Cronbach alpha for this sample was 0.72 and 0.82 for subscales and inter-item reliability respectively.

Mini Mental Adjustment to Cancer (Mini MAC) scale. Mental adjustment was measured using the Mini MAC (Watson et al., 1994). Only the subscales of helplessness/hopelessness, anxious preoccupation and fighting spirit were considered for analysis. Respondents rated their mental adjustment styles in the first year since job loss, on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (definitely does not apply to me) to 4 (definitely applies to me). Amongst the 29 questions, nine made reference to 'cancer', 'illness' and 'disease'; these were modified to 'my situation' or 'job loss' for this study. The Mini MAC had a good Cronbach's alpha of 0.86. Possible scores for fighting spirit ranged from 4-to-16, and from 8-to-32 for helplessness/hopeless and anxious preoccupation.

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI). BSI (Derogatis & Spencer, 1982) assessed psychological distress, from which a Global Severity Index (GSI) is derived from the average score of 53 items that describe a feeling or thought during participants' first year since job loss. It is scored using a five-point scale ranging from 0 (no such problem) to 4 (severe problem). Higher scores are characteristic of more psychological distress. The BSI had excellent reliability in this study, where Cronbach's alpha was 0.98.

Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R). Dispositional optimism was measured with the LOT-R (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), a 10-item scale with four filler items and three reverse-coded items. Respondents scored their degree of agreement with statements on a five-point response scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). LOT-R has been used extensively in stress-related studies (Taylor, 1998). The authors recommend that the scores-- which range from 0-to-24-- are used as a continuous measure. LOT-R had a good Cronbach's alpha of 0.72 in this study.

Ten Item Personality Inventory (TIPI). Big Five personality dimensions of openness, emotional stability¹⁰ and conscientiousness were measured with the TIPI (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003). There are two items for each dimension, on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). For each item, possible scores range from 2 to 14. Although the reliability and validity are lower than that of longer personality questionnaires, the TIPI can be completed in less than a minute, making it suitable for this study. Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 was acceptable for this study.

2.1.3.2 Other items

Job loss-related variables. Information pertaining to the job lost was sought. These included circumstances of loss (sacked/ made redundant/ forced to retire/ personal business liquidated/ other); context behind job loss; job role¹¹ (worker/ director/office holder/ employee/ self-employed and contractor/ other); job title; country of job; industry; length of time in position and company; and last-drawn salary. Losses were measured using a six-point scale (Not Applicable; least important to most important) where respondents ranked the severity of other losses that they may have experienced across five facets of their lives— professional status, social, financial, lifestyle and significant relationships. The importance of the job at the time of loss was measured on a five-point scale (least important to most important).

Present situation. Respondents were asked if they successfully gained satisfactory reemployment and their present employment status. Satisfaction with their present situation was measured on a four-point scale (very dissatisfied to very satisfied). Additionally, participants were invited to reflect on their overall experiences since job loss.

Demographic variables. This comprised of participants' age, sex and ethnicity.

¹⁰ The converse of neuroticism.

¹¹ Based on the UK government's classification.

2.2 Data Analysis

2.2.1 Statistical analysis. SPSS Version 22, IBM Inc. was used throughout. No variables were missing, as the survey was configured to ensure that all questions were answered. Data on measures was scored according to instructions on manuals.

2.2.1.1 Reliability. All variables analysed, except job importance and distress levels, had standard deviations over one, suggesting good response variability. Reliabilities of standardised measures were at least .70, with the exception of TIPI, which has been documented in the literature (Gosling et al., 2003; Nunnally, 1978).

2.2.1.2 Factor analysis of Brief COPE. The underlying structure of coping strategies used by this sample was identified using Principal Components Analysis (PCA). As many factor analytic methods assume interval-level data, the use of multi-category subscales in the Brief COPE may exaggerate the number of factors required (Kragelöh, 2011). This problem can be potentially overcome by performing factor analysis at subscale level (Bernstein & Teng, 1989). Based on Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's Measure of Sampling Adequacy ($KMO = .76$), the sample had acceptable sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1974). Twelve of 14 subscales had individual KMOs greater than .70, with the other two above .60. Cronbach alpha was .72 and .82 for subscales and items respectively, demonstrating good internal reliability. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .0005$), indicating that factor analysis was suitable.

2.2.1.3 Correlational tests. Owing to the non-normal¹² distribution of some study variables for the correlational test hypotheses, Spearman's rho was used. Despite multiple correlational tests in some hypotheses, the cutoff value of $p = .05$ was retained, given the strong theoretical bases behind predictions.

¹² Data remained non-normally distributed despite transformation.

2.2.1.4 Regression. Although some researchers caution against using multiple regression models for non-normally distributed data, Stevens (1992) stated that the distribution of independent variables is not an assumption for regression analysis. Contrastingly, Durbin-Watson scores (1.88 and 1.92 for H4 and H5) showed independence of residuals. Next, scatterplots of studentised residuals against unstandardised predictor values, and partial regression plots between distress and predictor variables, revealed overall linear relationships and homoscedasticity. All tolerance values were above .01, suggesting no multicollinearity problems. One outlier three standard residuals from other cases was removed (H4). No variables had Cook's distance exceeding 1. Last, a P-P model plot showed close fit to the diagonal line. When considered with means (0) and standard deviations of residuals (.99 and .97), this demonstrated normal distribution of errors. Collectively, support for these assumptions of regression analysis lent credence to this study's findings.

2.2.2 Qualitative analysis. 186 individuals (92.1%) provided reflections on their journey since job loss, which were analysed by thematic coding. The data was first read three times to gain familiarity, and then line-by-line to code key-words-in-context and analytical ideas, from which key codes were identified (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Codes were examined, compared and categorised, in order to identify similarities, differences and general themes. These themes were organised into appropriate domains.

Results

3.1 Sample Characteristics

Sample characteristics of the 202 respondents are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1
Sample characteristics

Characteristic	Details
Age	$M = 47.77$, $SD = 10.84$, Range = 24-70
Sex	111 males, 91 females
Country	North America ($N = 127$; 117 from USA, 10 from Canada); South East Asia ($N = 25$; 23 from Singapore; Malaysia, Vietnam); Western Europe ($N = 24$; 18 from UK; Switzerland, Germany, France, Netherlands); Oceania ($N = 9$; 8 from Australia; New Zealand); Southern Europe ($N = 4$; Italy, Spain); Latin America ($N = 4$; Mexico, Brasil, Puerto Rico); South Asia ($N = 4$; India, Pakistan); Eastern Europe ($N = 2$; Russia, Hungary); East Africa ($N = 1$; Kenya); South Africa ($N = 1$)
Ethnicity	70.1% White; 19.1% Asian; 4.9% Mixed; 2.5% Black; 1.5% Hispanic; 1.0% Caribbean
Years since job loss	38.6% (1-3 years), 24.3% (5-10 years), 20.3% (≥ 1 year), 16.4% (3-5 years)
Job position	20.3% CEOs/directors/partners/VPs/Presidents; 11.4% C-Level executives/senior management; 6.9% senior-level professionals; 18.9% supervisors/other management; 42.6% office-holders
Rating of job importance	$M = 4.31$, $SD = 0.76$
Ranking of severity (descending order)	Financial ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 1.04$); Lifestyle ($M = 3.46$, $SD = 1.36$); Professional status ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.60$); Social ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.53$); Relationships ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.87$)
Coping style	Engagement ^a coping
Mental adjustment styles	Helplessness/hopelessness 5.99; Fighting spirit ^b
Optimism	$M = 8.06$, $SD = 4.90$
Big Five personality	Conscientiousness ($M = 11.35$, $SD = 2.56$); Emotional Stability ($M = 10.06$, $SD = 2.93$); Openness ($M = 9.97$, $SD = 2.27$)
Reemployment outcome since job loss	44.1% unable to find satisfactory reemployment since; 37.7% experienced satisfactory reemployment (of which 8.9% were unemployed at time of study, and 3.6% had retired); 10.9% set up own business; 6% pursued formal education; 1.5% retired
Satisfaction	33.2% Very Dissatisfied; 30.7% Very Satisfied; 24.3% A Little Satisfied; 11.9% A Little Dissatisfied

^aBased on UN Statistics Division; applicable, 1 = least important to 5 = most important; scores 4-16; ^bPossible scores 0-24;

3.2 Statistical Analyses

3.2.1 Factor structure of Brief COPE. All subscales were retained, as they loaded above .03 on one factor, and positively on the main factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005). PCA revealed three components with eigenvalues above one (3.45, 2.54 and 1.19 respectively). Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that two components explaining 42.77% of total variance be retained (Cattell, 1986). A Varimax orthogonal rotation with forced factor extraction of two factors exhibited 'simple structure'. Data interpretation was consistent with the engagement-disengagement dichotomy (see Table 2). Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for both coping dimensions (.73 and .70) were good.

Table 2
Second-order factor analysis of Brief COPE

	Factor 1 Engagement coping	Factor 2 Disengagement coping
Percentage of total variance (%)	24.63	18.15
Cronbach's alpha	.73	.70
Subscale and items (original item number in parentheses)		
Acceptance	.71	-.14
(20) Accept reality of what has happened		
(24) Learn to live with the situation		
Planning	.70	-.16
(14) Come up with strategy about what to do		
(25) Think about what steps to take		
Use of instrumental support	.70	-.24
(10) Help and advise from others		
(23) Advise/help from others about what to do		
Positive reframing	.67	-.22
(12) See in a different light to make seem more positive		
(17) Look for something good in situation		
Use of emotional support	.66	-.13
(5) Get emotional support from others		
(15) Get comfort and understanding from someone		
Active coping	.56	-.25
(2) Concentrate on doing something about situation		
(7) Take action to make situation better		
Religion	.47	.10
(22) Find comfort in religious beliefs		
(27) Pray or meditate		
Humour	.31	.10
(18) Make jokes about the situation		
(28) Make fun of the situation		
Self-blame	.03	.76
(13) Criticise myself		
(16) Blame myself for things that happen		
Behavioural disengagement	-.07	.74
(6) Give up trying to deal with it		
(16) Give up attempts to cope		
Denial	0	.61
(3) Say to myself, "This isn't real"		
(8) Refuse to believe what has happened		
Substance use	-.13	.57
(4) Use alcohol/drugs to get through		
(11) Use alcohol/drugs to feel better		
Venting	.47	.55
(9) Say things to let feelings escape		
(21) Express negative feelings		
Self-distraction	.43	.45
(1) Turn to work or other activities to distract		
(19) Do something to think about it less		

^aWhere subscales are acceptance, planning, use of instrumental support, planning, use of emotional support, active coping, religion and humour; ^bWhere subscales are self-blame, behavioural disengagement, denial, substance use, venting and self-distraction.

3.2.2 Tests of correlational hypotheses. Results of correlation analyses to

test H1-4 are shown in Table 3. H1 and H2 were supported. Disengagement and engagement coping were positively correlated ($r = .18, p < .01$). Disengagement coping was positively correlated with helplessness/hopelessness ($r = .53, p < .01$) and anxious preoccupation ($r = .62, p < .01$). Engagement coping was positively correlated with fighting spirit ($r = .42, p < .01$). With the exception of the relationship between optimism and engagement coping ($r = -.29, p < .01$), all other predictions for H3 were supported. Relevant correlations are engagement-openness ($r = .14, p < .05$); engagement-conscientiousness ($r = .21, p < .01$), engagement-emotional stability ($r = .22, p < .01$), disengagement-optimism ($r = -.21, p < .01$) and disengagement-emotional stability ($r = -.36, p < .01$). For H4, some personality traits correlated with mental adjustment. Fighting spirit was negatively correlated with optimism ($r = -.30, p < .01$), and positively with conscientiousness ($r = .17, p < .05$) and emotional stability ($r = .27, p < .01$). Anxious preoccupation was positively correlated with optimism ($r = .36, p < .01$) and negatively with emotional stability ($r = -.43, p < .01$). Helplessness/hopelessness was negatively correlated with openness ($r = -.17, p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = -.23, p < .01$) and emotional stability ($r = -.46, p < .01$); and positively with optimism ($r = .44, p < .01$).

Table 3
Means, standard deviations and correlations for whole sample

	M	SD	OP	E	O	C	EC	DC	HH	AP	FS
OP	8.06	4.90	(.72)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
E	10.06	3.00	-.36**	(.67)	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
O	9.97	3.00	-.16*	-.07	(.12)	--	--	--	--	--	--
C	11.35	2.56	-.16*	.48**	-.01	(.56)	--	--	--	--	--
EC	45.15	8.22	-.29**	.22**	.14*	.21**	(.83)	--	--	--	--
DC	21.82	5.91	-.21**	-.36**	-.05	.15*	.18**	(.78)	--	--	--
HH	12.75	5.26	.44**	-.46**	-.17*	-.23**	-.19**	.53**	(.91)	--	--
AP	16.24	5.99	.36**	-.43**	-.13	-.11	.05	.62**	.74**	(.88)	--
FS	12.30	2.40	-.30**	.27**	-.02	.17*	.42**	.00	-.24**	-.08	(.50)

** significant at $p < .05$; * significant at $p < .01$; Numbers in parentheses indicate subscale or scale Cronbach reliability scores; Cells with bold typeface indicate correspond with H1-H4; OP = optimism; E = emotional stability; O = openness; C = conscientiousness; EC = engagement coping; DC = disengagement coping; HH = helplessness/ hopelessness; AP = anxious preoccupation; FS = fighting spirit.

3.2.3 Regression models

3.2.3.1 Distress. H4 was supported. The regression model significantly

predicted distress, $F(5, 195) = 43.77, p < .01$, where the predictor variables (mental adjustment and coping styles) collectively explained 52.9% of the variance. Only anxious preoccupation and disengagement coping had significant positive impact on distress levels (see Table 4 for regression coefficients and standard errors).

Table 4
Summary of multiple regression model, exploring how coping styles and mental adjustment styles explain distress (H4)

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Intercept	-.21	.27	--
Helplessness/hopelessness	.02	.01	.16
Anxious preoccupation	.04**	.01	.35
Fighting spirit	-.01	.02	-.05
Engagement coping	-.001	.01	.31
Disengagement coping	.04**	.01	.31

B= unstandardised regression coefficient; *SE*= standard error of coefficient; β = standardised coefficient; ** significant at $p < .05$;
* significant at $p < .01$.

3.2.3.2 Satisfaction with outcome. H5 was supported, where all variables

collectively explained 32.40% of variance. The controlled-for demographic variables set, $F(4, 197) = 4.84$, accounted for 8.9% of variance ($p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .07$). Only sex ($b = -.36, p < .01$) and age ($b = -.03, p < .01$) were significant. The situational background variables, $F(7, 194) = 9.58$, explained an additional 16.8% of variance ($p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .23$). Total losses ($b = -.07, p < .01$) and distress ($b = -.30, p < .01$) negatively impacted satisfaction. Dispositional variables, $F(11, 190) = 7.76$, explained an additional 5.3% of variance ($p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .27$). Satisfaction was positively related to openness ($b = .077, p < .01$) and negatively to conscientiousness ($b = -.08, p < .01$). Coping variables, $F(13, 188) = 6.92$, explained another 1.4% of variance ($p < .01$; adjusted $R^2 = .28$), however neither variable had significant impact (see Table 5).

Table 5
Summary of multiple regression model, exploring how coping styles and mental adjustment styles explain distress (H5)

Variable	B	SE	β
<i>Step 1: Enter controlled-for variables set</i>			
Sex	-.36**	.17	-.15
Age	-.04**	.01	-.23
Country	.01	.02	.05
Ethnicity	.03	.08	.03
Total R^2			.09
<i>Step 2: Enter situational background variables set</i>			
Total losses	-.07**	.02	-.26
Distress	-.30**	.12	-.18
Job importance	-.19	.11	-.12
Total R^2			.26
Change in R^2			.17
<i>Step 3: Enter personality variables set</i>			
Openness	.08**	.04	.14
Conscientiousness	-.08**	.03	-.17
Emotional stability	.06	.03	.14
Optimism	-.02	.01	-.08
Total R^2			.31
Change in R^2			.05
<i>Step 4: Enter coping variables set</i>			
Disengagement coping	-.02	.02	-.11
Engagement coping	.02	.01	.13
Total R^2			.32
Change in R^2			.01

B= unstandardised regression coefficient; SE= standard error of coefficient; β = standardised coefficient; ** significant at $p < .05$; * significant at $p < .01$.

3.3. Thematic Analysis

Two domains of themes were identified from respondents' reflections on their journey since job loss— (i) Coping Process and (ii) Coping Outcome (see Table 6). Six key themes are described briefly in this section, illustrated with quotes.

Table 6
Domains, themes and subthemes

Domain/theme	Subthemes
Domain 1- Coping process	
Cognitions and emotions	Negative emotions Positive and negative beliefs (re self, spirituality, future and situation) Reappraisal of job that was lost
Coping resources	Financial Social Attitudinal
Job search process	More difficult than envisaged Vicious cycle of despondence
Domain 2- Coping outcome	
Overall experience	Difficult Positive
Lessons learnt	Self Job Life and losses
Opportunities for growth and transformation	Opportunity to pause and reflect Pursuing new and meaningful avenues Reconsidering priorities

Theme 1.1 Cognitions and emotions. The emotions identified were predominantly negative (e.g. “devastated”, “hopeless” and “fearful”). There were both positive and negative beliefs with respect to the self (“I will survive”), spirituality (“God has put me through this”), the situation (“I will learn something”; “It is a blow”) and the future (“I will rebuild my life”). Respondents reappraised the job they had been terminated from, reflecting that it was a poor fit (“It was a toxic environment”) and what they should have done otherwise (“I should have left when I had the chance to”).

Theme 1.2 Coping resources. Adequate finances (“Payout has been crucial”; “Luckily I’ve had savings”); support from family (“My spouse is supportive”) and others in similar predicaments (“Talking to others helps me know I am not alone”); beliefs about the situation (“It will all be okay”) including adopting particular attitudes (“I will seek uncertainty”; “I take this as a challenge”) were identified. Respondents believed that these coping resources would help them through challenging times.

Theme 1.3 The job search process. Respondents indicated that searching for jobs was more difficult than expected (“[this is] longer and harder than I imagined”). They described how despondence fed into a vicious cycle of negative feelings about themselves and the future.

Theme 2.1 The overall experience. Generally, respondents regarded the experience as a difficult one (“It was difficult but I got through it”), or construed it as a positive one (“It was the best thing that ever happened”).

Theme 2.2 Lessons learnt. Respondents identified that the experience taught them “a lot” of “essential lessons”. These pertained to the self (“I am stronger than I thought”; “[this was a journey of] self-discovery”); jobs (“I should be loyal to myself, not my

company"; "I always have backup plans now"); life ("Anything bad can happen"; "Everything will be okay"); and losses ("Losing everything is okay"). Job loss also gave them a different perspectives on others ("I now have more empathy for the struggling") and life ("I see life with a fresh perspective"; "I am appreciative of life everyday").

Theme 2.3 Opportunities for growth and transformation. Job loss was highlighted as an opportunity to pause from their routines ("[it was] an opportunity to rest"), and in so allowed respondents to pursue new and more meaningful avenues ("... start the life I want") or to reconsider priorities ("I now take better care of myself"). Participants mentioned realising the importance of relationships ("I realised my relationships were important"), personal needs (e.g. traveling, learning languages) and spirituality. Others reflected that job loss was an opportunity to resume education ("What I really wanted. . . to go back to school"), or engage in different types of work. These included starting their own businesses, and embarking on a new career ("I changed industries) or one that is meaningful and well-aligned with their values and talents ("I do what fulfils me").

DISCUSSION

This study was the first to study coping and adjustment following job loss in the ABC1 demographic, and to recruit globally. Whilst a few studies examined specific occupations previously, none have focused on a particular demographic. Moreover, this study was the first to adopt the dichotomy between engagement and disengagement coping, and to consider mental adjustment styles as part of the coping process outside of health conditions. It also examined satisfaction with outcome.

The main findings were that the coping process following job loss in this group agrees with the broader coping literature: — some personality traits, mental adjustment styles and coping styles are correlated; and anxious preoccupation and disengagement coping can predict distress. Two domains pertaining to the coping process and coping

outcome emerged from analysing respondents' reflections on the adjustment journey since job loss. When considered within the context of multiple outcomes following job loss, the results of the thematic analysis support the regression model's findings on variables that may explain satisfaction with outcome.

4.1 The Coping Process

This study examined both coping styles and mental adjustment styles as aspects of the coping process. As predicted, individuals who used engagement coping also used disengagement coping. This suggests that the distress resulting from job loss or performing job search activities in this sample is high enough to warrant attempts to escape and act as though the stressor does not exist. The parallels between job loss and bereavement grief (Papa & Maitoza, 2013) further attest to distress levels, warranting intervention in helping individuals confront its challenges and normalise the distress experienced. Perhaps too, it is crucial to consider if the extent of disengagement coping is pathological. For instance, alcohol use may be a common way of dealing with work-related stressors in drinking cultures (Gordon, Heim & MacAskill, 2012), and a person in that culture may continue or escalate its use following job loss. It may thus be more helpful to compare levels of specific disengagement strategies before and after job loss. Last, this study's findings reinforce the utility of exploring mental adjustment styles as part of the coping process, beyond health psychology research.

4.2 Personality and Coping

Personality styles were linked to coping styles as predicted, and this study also found relationships between mental adjustment styles and personality, attesting to how personality influences the coping process through appraisals and choice of coping strategies (Vollrath, 2001). Stressors like job loss which affect multiple life domains promote more variability in coping responses, and are thus better at revealing relationships

between personality and coping than simpler stressors (e.g. changing flat tyres) that require specific straightforward responses (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010; Murberg, Stephens & Bru, 2002). This suggests that the links between personality and coping in job loss research are not trivial, even if this relationship is understudied.

It is noteworthy that optimism was linked to less overall coping in this sample; however it must be noted that the sample had generally low optimism levels. Contrary to hypotheses, more optimistic individuals had less fighting spirit, were more anxiously preoccupied and felt more helplessness/hopelessness. Perhaps, job loss may have violated their beliefs about the future as favourable (Matthews et al., 2004), and therefore felt uncontrollable and shocking, evidenced by the negative feelings expressed in Theme 1.1 Cognitions and emotions. They may appraise the situation as threatening, leading to perceptions of helplessness/hopelessness and lower fighting spirit, consequently using less engagement coping. Similarly, other studies found that only stressors perceived as controllable, such as academic stressors, are linked to engagement coping (Carver & Connor-Smith, 2010). However, optimism was linked to less disengagement coping in this study, possibly explained by how having confidence about the future may moderate distress and diminish the need to escape one's emotions. This demonstrates the possible protective function of optimism against maladaptive behaviours.

All three Big Five personality traits were positively linked to engagement coping, suggesting their adaptiveness in solving job loss-related problems and in diminishing distress. In this study, emotional stability appeared to regulate one's emotions, therein reducing the need to escape distressing emotions, accounting for less disengagement coping. Its link to more fighting spirit and to less anxious preoccupation and helplessness/hopelessness suggests the adaptiveness of emotional stability in coping with job loss. All three traits were linked to less helplessness/hopelessness, noteworthy because it is the most maladaptive mental adjustment style (Akechi et al., 1998). Instead, these traits may aid in lessening feelings of being overwhelmed by job loss.

4.3 Coping and Distress

Amongst the mental adjustment and coping styles examined, only anxious preoccupation and disengagement coping explained distress. Studies in health psychology have found similar relationships (see Gilbar, 2005 for a review), and this study confirms it within the ABC1 demographic following job loss. Anxious preoccupation may promote distress as anxiety exacerbates cognitive and behavioural avoidance. Individuals who worry believe that it is a useful coping strategy and a distraction from other distressing topics (Cartwright-Hatton & Wells, 1997; Borkovec & Romer, 1995). However, worrying prevents one from solving the problem at hand (Stapinski, Abbott & Rapee, 2010), and problem maintenance may intensify one's perception of its insurmountability, therein amplifying distress. Disengagement coping predicts poorer outcomes than engagement coping, including anxiety, depression and disruptive behaviour (Roesch et al., 2009). It is more harmful when the stressor is acute than chronic, as it prevents one from solving the problem. As anxious preoccupation and disengagement were found to be positively correlated, tackling one may decrease the other and overall distress levels.

4.4 The Positive Psychology of Finding Meaning in Job Loss

Perhaps, the themes emerging from respondents' reflections on their journey since job loss can be best understood in terms of meaning-making, specifically the meaning-making process and meanings made (Park, 2010). Meaning is central to human life, as it connects objects, events and relationships (Baumeister, 1991). Meanings appraised from stressful situations are largely discrepant from one's global frameworks of thinking, and meaning-making can reduce this discrepancy, therein facilitating adjustment (Park & Folkman, 1997).

The themes under the domain of 'Coping Process' can be contextualised within the meaning-making process, which involves processing a stressor emotionally and cognitively (Hayes, Laurenceau, Feldman, Strauss & Cardaciotto, 2007). The former

entails processing fear-based affect (Foa, Huppert & Cahill., 2006), relevant as respondents indicated feeling helpless and lost. Cognitive processing refers to reappraisals and modifying one's beliefs or experiences by repeatedly comparing both (Janoff-Bulman, 1992), therein allowing one to make sense of the event or identify its value (Janoff-Bulman & Frantz, 1997). Similarly, respondents' believed that job loss held a purpose in their lives and that they would learn something from it.

Additionally, 'Coping Process' concurs with coping models. First, respondents expressed the importance of coping resources such as support, competencies and finances, resources well-documented for relieving distress and promoting job search (Wanberg, 2012). As described in coping models, secondary appraisal involves evaluating one's resources, before executing the coping response. Second, respondents who were unable to gain reemployment after longer time periods appraised the job search process as more difficult than previously imagined, and reported more negative cognitions about the future. This supports coping models' conceptualisation of coping as dynamic.

The domain 'Coping Outcome' can be framed in terms of the meanings arising from meaning-making. Respondents demonstrated changes in their global meanings (Esptein, 1991) such as seeing life differently; global goals (Thompson & Janigian, 1988) including reprioritising relationships and personal care over finances; and identities (Zebrack, 2000), for instance regarding themselves as stronger following job loss. They reappraised the meaning of job loss, notably as an 'essential' lesson, in that viewing it as less noxious and more aligned with their global beliefs (Parks, 2010). Some reframed job loss as an opportunity for growth, identifying positive changes (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2006) such as a greater appreciation for life, starting their own businesses, and engaging in work that better aligns with their values and talents.

There is consensus in the positive psychology literature that meaning-making is vital for adjustment to and inoculation against stressors. Stressful events can be chaotic, inexplicable and random, and finding meaning can maintain one's sense of coherence

and promote psychological health (Antonovsky, 1987). The meanings build resilience, enabling one to bounce back from or resist adversity (Kobasa, 1987). They may promote posttraumatic growth after old beliefs about the self, world and future are shattered by a challenging event, as individuals rebuild fundamental beliefs (Calhoun & Tedeschi, 2006).

The multitude of different outcomes behooves looking beyond reemployment and distress. It must be acknowledged that job loss in this sample also led to less favourable outcomes. Although isolated (and thus not described in the Results), these included working in the sex industry, long-term depression, and losing one's family. Some respondents indicated that they had lost trust in working and life. The themes unveiled were reinforced by the regression model on satisfaction with outcomes, where individuals with more open personalities and who perceived fewer losses in other domains¹³ were more satisfied with their outcome. Perhaps, perceiving less overall losses may facilitate one to perceive less discrepancy between one's global goals and one's situation following job loss. This facilitates acceptance of the situation as compared to engaging in rumination, which involves continued attempts to create meaning without actually making any meaning, consequently increasing distress (Nolen-Hoeksama & Larson, 1999). Similarly, individuals with more open personalities may engage in better meaning-making, given their propensity to be more curious and willing to engage in atypical experiences (McCrae, 1996). As Zikic and Klehe (2006) expressed, job loss may be a blessing in disguise, and future studies should examine positive outcomes.

4.5 Reflections

The internet survey was a cost-effective and convenient way of collecting both quantitative data and detailed qualitative responses in a geographically-dispersed sample. The online sample may not be representative of job loss in the ABC1 demographic, limited to individuals who use the internet and were willing to participate. Yet, an anonymous

¹³ Finances, social, professional status, lifestyle and significant relationships

online survey might encourage individuals given the tendency towards concealment and shame when considering the sensitive nature of job loss, and the ability to complete it at one's chosen time and place. It is arguable that many respondents indicated their job loss publicly by writing in discussion groups or on blog posts, but some were recruited via advertisements or their contacts. The open-ended nature of the question inviting respondents to reflect on their experiences received answers about the coping process, outcome, or both. This meant that potential richness may have been missed, and future studies may benefit from specific questions to plumb these different aspects.

This study explored how personality may influence coping, a relationship overlooked in job loss research, rendering comparisons difficult. Yet, personality shapes coping in multiple ways, influencing exposure to stressors, appraisals, coping strategies and coping effectiveness (Grant & Langan-Fox, 2006). This study is somewhat limited by the TIPI's lower reliability (Gosling et al., 2003); however it was chosen as it is completed in under a minute, a crucial consideration given the overall survey length, alongside its acceptable validity relative to other longer instruments. Future studies focusing primarily on personality may benefit from a longer and more reliable instrument (e.g NEO-PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992). Still, insight on the role of personality may guide individuals away from disengagement coping and towards engagement coping. Specifically, psychotherapy sheds light on individuals' enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings and behaviours, from which interventions are tailored to reduce distress and achieve more adaptive functioning. The subset of individuals who seek psychotherapy or coaching following job loss may benefit from this study's research. This study's qualitative findings, as well as anecdotal evidence, suggest that this demographic has little awareness of coping know-how following job loss. This points to a larger malaise in society, where topics like losses, illnesses and madness are shunned (Giddens, 1991; see Part Three, Ontological Insecurity and Taboo Subjects). Thus, this study hopes to add to the body of literature that can aid people in their transition from job loss.

Conclusion

Given its exploratory nature, this study's multiple novel aspects lends itself to certain limitations, which in turn provide possible avenues for future research. Overall, this study found that personality influences coping; it is useful to explore mental adjustment as part of the coping process; and that disengagement coping and anxious preoccupation explain distress. From these, an understanding of what promotes change and accommodation to stress is built. Moreover, the multitude of outcomes following job loss suggests the importance of widening the remit beyond distress and reemployment. In short, for many in this ABC1 sample, life changes markedly following job loss, and that the transition period between job loss and outcome may be likened to the chrysalis stage where a butterfly metamorphoses. Perhaps, the words of Kübler-Ross and Kessler (2005) on grieving the death of a loved one hold true here:--

"You will learn to live with it. You will heal and you will rebuild yourself around the loss you have suffered. You will be whole again but you will never be the same. Nor should you be the same, nor would you want to."

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PART THREE:
CRITICAL APPRAISAL

A critical review of existing issues in job loss, coping and internet survey
research

INTRODUCTION

This critical appraisal reflects on three key areas of the research process, with the hope that it can inform similar research on job loss, coping and internet survey methodology. The first section covers methodological choices, specifically my decisions and personal experiences with building the websites for the survey and study. This discussion is anchored within the domain of Web 2.0 technology, of which the knowledge was broadly gained from intensive research on the internet and correspondences with experts¹⁴, from which recommendations for future larger-scale projects employing similar methodologies are suggested. Next, two possible future research directions are mooted, specifically in terms of global-based recruitment and exploring the experiences of individuals who resigned voluntarily from their jobs. This chapter ends with a reflection on the bidirectional relationship between the research process and my own values and experiences, where I situate my discussion within broader theories such as Gidden's (1991) ontological insecurity and Janoff-Bulman's (1992) rebuilding of one's foundational assumptive world.

METHODOLOGICAL CHOICES

Internet Survey Methodology

Overall, the internet survey methodology was a cost-effective and convenient way of collecting both quantitative data and detailed qualitative responses in a geographically-dispersed sample, once a viable recruitment method was achieved (see Part Two, 4.5 Reflections). Internet survey methodology was chosen so as to rapidly recruit a large number of eligible international participants. This proved useful given that significant administrative delays in gaining ethics approval were encountered during this study. Generally, internet surveys have been gaining popularity since 2000, however lower

¹⁴ Such as blogs, videos, online courses. Therefore, there is no specific reference for some of the recommendations given.

response rates are regarded as a major threat to data quality (Fan & Yan, 2009). Specifically, a relatively recent meta-analysis revealed that internet survey response rates are about 11% lower than other types of survey modalities (Manfreda, Bosnjak, Berzelak, Haas & Vehovar, 2008), suggesting difficulties in gathering sufficient data. This was an initial concern in this study, however the anonymity from internet surveys was postulated to suit the sensitive nature of job loss and appeal to the highly-specific target population. Advertising on various websites accounted for about 35% of total data collected. It was only during the last one-third of the data collection phase that LinkedIn was plumbed as a resource. Fortunately, about 130 individuals responded within a short time period, whether via advertisements or personal messages using a time-consuming and labour-intensive process (see Part Two, 2.1.2 Recruitment). It is possible that should this method have been discovered earlier, a much larger sample would have been recruited. Overall, I received many positive private messages on my LinkedIn account where individuals expressed their willingness to participate, with some adding that it was a useful opportunity to reflect. This echoes Dillman's (2007) findings that topics of personal interest to stakeholders will have higher response rates. Some respondents mentioned that they had sent the study link to their contacts within the target population, whilst others provided me with the contact details of individuals whom they deemed suitable, thus assisting with recruitment. A further positive aspect of internet survey was that it could be configured to ensure that every mandatory question was answered, meaning that there would be no missing data, a common challenge for most other survey formats. This circumvented the need to input missing values.

Website Design

The survey length was a potential issue. In their review of internet surveys, Fan and Yan (2009) concluded that surveys should ideally require less than 13 minutes. However, the exploratory nature of this study warranted the measurement of a range of

variables, and despite the use of some shorter questionnaire such as the Ten Item Personality Inventory (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann, 2003) and Life Orientation Test-Revised (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), the survey was estimated to have taken between 20 to 40 minutes.

This study attempted to minimise the issue by focusing on enhancing the user's experience to maximise probability of survey completion. To this end, three individuals from the target population, a user-experience expert, a digital media expert and two graduate students were extensively consulted. They agreed that the target population would associate a well-designed website with more credibility, and therefore be more willing to participate. Literature on enhancing the experience of the user when visiting the websites was extensively consulted, and the two main aspects of usability and utility (Nielsen Norman Group, 2014) were adhered to as much as possible without any formal training on my part. Broadly, the former refers to the degree of pleasantness and ease of using a website, and the latter to whether a website does what the user needs. Thus, the study and survey sites employed a responsive framework, which means that the webpage layout changes to conform to the screen size and resolution of the computer or handheld device it is viewed on. This makes navigation and use of the site a more pleasant and user-friendly experience. It was a crucial consideration as handheld devices are becoming the gadget of choice over computers. In the UK, OFCOM statistics revealed that desktop access has fallen by 20%, with a concomitant rise in smartphone and tablet usage to access the internet (OFCEOM, 2013); I hypothesised that this applied even more to the target population.

Website presentation, including wording, survey layout and consistency of aesthetic styles (Fan & Yan, 2009) were pilot-tested, to determine the format that would best motivate an individual to complete the survey. As such, it was decided that Google Forms replaced UCL's Opinio as survey platform. The survey was presented as seven broad questions with three different sections across three pages (see Appendix E),

despite Dillman's (2007) recommendation to display the whole survey on one page using a 'scrolling design'. He argued that such a design only requires participants to submit the data once, however the length of the survey in this study meant that it could appear daunting and demanding. Indeed, some respondents mentioned in their correspondence with me that they found the survey too long, and they speculated whether some may have abandoned it midway for this reason. When considering this, programs to track user behaviours-- such as the percentage of people who proceed from study site to do the survey, the part of survey where most respondents stop doing it, as well as relevant demographic details-- could be installed for larger-scale studies with bigger budgets. These were not feasible within the context of this study, but may shed more light on internet survey methodology if implemented.

Further, the length of measures such as the Brief Symptom Inventory (Derogatis & Spencer, 1982) and Mini MAC (Watson et al., 1994) meant that there was a risk of participants losing interest should they be presented with a slew of long questions. To this end, shorter questionnaires were alternated with longer ones. Last, about five participants provided feedback that they were unable to proceed past the second page of the survey due to unknown technical reasons and thus abandoned it. There was no consistency in the internet browsers or gadgets used that caused this problem. As these individuals expressed an interest to participate if possible, they were given a link to an alternative page with a one-page 'scrolling design', following which they completed the survey. This highlights a potential issue in internet survey methodology. A combination of factors, such as bugs, unintentionally banned sites in one's Window's host files, and operating systems, may be responsible for glitches in accessing certain websites. However, to ensure that these factors are dealt with requires extensive cost to test across multiple platforms, an unfeasible option for this study but worth considering for larger-scale projects.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Investigating Voluntary Resignation

Future studies may benefit from examining the coping processes and outcomes of individuals who have voluntarily resigned. In this study, twenty-eight respondents had resigned. Although their responses were not included in this study's data analysis, their reflections bore some parallels with those who had lost their jobs, for instance in terms of their coping behaviours, emotions, and attempts at meaning-making. To the best of my knowledge, no studies have been conducted on coping with voluntary termination, perhaps owing to the endemic intention and choice unlike in the case of job loss. Yet, there is sufficient academic and anecdotal evidence for one to assert that the voluntary aspect of resignation may hover uneasily within a figurative gray area. Notable examples include systemic issues such as toxic work environments and workplace bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006), or personal reasons including health issues and having to be a caregiver. In these instances, these individuals face similar losses including that of status, economic and role. They are also required to cope with being unemployed, as they transition to future and perhaps as-yet-undecided roles. Yet, this group's experiences are largely ignored by research, with the exception of studies examining the reasons underlying resignation (e.g. Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). Doing so runs the risk of eschewing and perhaps trivialising this group's predicaments, especially when considering the broader context of unemployment as a taboo discussion topic in modern Western society. As such, future studies may benefit from comparing their experiences with those who have undergone involuntary job loss.

Global Recruitment

This study was the first to recruit globally, and its findings suggests the utility of global-based studies. Although previous studies have employed internet-based recruitment and data collection (e.g. Blau et al., 2013; Sadeh & Karniol, 2012), they have

focused on people within a certain geographical location. Yet, globalisation and technology such as mobile working have radically reshaped the face of careers, meaning that the individual may be working in a different country or city to the one where he or she lost his job in. This behooves a global approach, especially for an exploratory study, so as to increase inclusiveness. Granted, this study was limited to individuals proficient in or comfortable with the English language. Still, the methodology is easily replicable, deeming it suitable for cross-cultural comparisons, especially with the aid of translated measures. It is possible that government organisations and other community groups may be supportive of this study, given both social and economic benefits of helping individuals cope with job loss. Governments generally have incentive to tackle unemployment given its economic cost. Moreover, surveys that have governmental endorsement have higher response rates (Fan & Yan, 2009), given better outreach. From this, systematic reviews comparing coping, distress and outcomes across different countries may be conducted.

PERSONAL EXPERIENCES

One's research and one's values, social identities and beliefs shape each other bidirectionally within the context of a dynamically-evolving research process (Willig, 2008). Various aspects of this two-way relationship are reflected upon in this section, anchoring the discussion within broader theories.

Adaptive and Maladaptive Coping

As I conducted the literature review, it became evident that the distinction between problem-focused and emotion-focused was inadequate for analysis in the empirical study (see Part One, 4.3.1 Categorising coping styles), prompting me to employ the newer dichotomy between engagement and disengagement coping. This also constituted another novel aspect of the study. The use of a more general scale such as Carver's (1997) Brief COPE was well-suited to this end. McKee-Ryan and Kinicki (2002) argued

that coping responses should be measured with scales specific to job loss, such as the Job Loss Coping Behaviour Scale (Leana & Feldman, 1990) and Coping with Job Loss Scale (Latack, 1986), given that these comprise of items specific to job loss, including seeking relocation and searching for jobs. However, these scales do not encompass the same spectrum of strategies as those in more general scales. Moreover, one may speculate that specific coping strategies may have changed quantitatively and qualitatively over the last two decades since these scales were first devised. For instance, escape-oriented coping strategies like gambling are facilitated by the ease of accessing online gambling and moneylending services, whilst illegal substances are more easily available (BBC, 2013). As discussed in Part One (see 4.2.2.3 Social resources, for a discussion on serendipitous job search; and 4.3.2 Quality of coping strategies), problem-focused strategies employed to tackle one's state of unemployment are more complex than outlined by older specific scales, and have evolved with time. Moreover, it is also essential to consider the quality of coping strategies. Still, it is worth conducting a factor structure of these specific scales for comparison.

More importantly, a question to ponder is why people engage in maladaptive coping behaviours that may lead to further distress in the long-run. Janoff-Bulman (1992) proposed that when one undergoes a personal crisis, two sets of contradictory automatic processes protect and comfort one. Instrumental behaviours of avoidance, denial, numbing, and self-medication are efforts to avoid painful thoughts, images and feelings, and modulate one's intense affect. This allows the individual to gradually face the realities of the situation, and to slowly incorporate these experiences into one's assumptive world, by the contrasting processes of confronting the situation via reexperiencing and rumination. Drawing on Horowitz' (1986) proposition that people have a tendency to remember uncompleted tasks over finished ones, she proposed that repeating this representation of the experience in one's mind constitutes the brain's efforts to complete cognitive processing so as to impose order (Janoff-Bulman, 1992). In that, one's

fundamental assumptive world which was previously shattered can be slowly rebuilt, perhaps explaining why individuals engage in behaviours that they logically know are maladaptive.

Ontological Insecurity and Taboo Subjects

A background in sociology spurred my deep interest in ontological insecurity, which refers to how day-to-day routines of modern living are hidden from fundamental existential issues (Giddens, 1991). It has struck me how risk is endemic to modern Western society, evidenced by salience of insurance, risk calculations and future-planning. To quote Hutter (2005), risk has become “the new lens through which to view the world”, leveraging on fears about unforeseen circumstances that are often not discussed explicitly. Rather, topics such as losses, illnesses and madness are shunned, instead relegated to taboo topics.

Perhaps, on the individual level, this is explained by Janoff-Bulman's (1992) assertions that our central assumptions are that one's personal world is benevolent and meaningful, and that the self is worthy. These assumptions are especially strong if one had positive early experiences that then become generalised towards abstract characterisations of the world and self that are no longer anchored in reality. People's assumptions are therefore positively-skewed illusions of their general expectations across time, which allow them to remain sensitive to environmental cues and accept their limitations, whilst still regarding daily living as safe and secure. As such, people overestimate the probability of good things happening and underestimate the probability of bad things happening. This is maintained by affiliating with winners and distancing from those who have been victimised by losses and other threats. This is because victims are evidence of a malevolent universe, human frailty and a reminder that misfortunes may befall upon anyone at any time.

My personal experiences with individuals who lost higher-status jobs made me think about the centrality of one's job to one's identity, and how their professional statuses were intertwined with other aspects of their lives. They described embarrassment and shame, losing their homes and friends, as well having to downsize their lives considerably in ways that they had previously not envisaged. To some, living in public housing and cooking at home was a lifestyle that they had hitherto never experienced. These individuals previously perceived themselves as powerful, and the future as laden with promises. Job loss was described as an event that figuratively shook their world and reduced them to shreds. Whilst some rebuilt their lives-- whether in similar or different directions--, some never recovered. However, the general consensus was that the period following job loss was a very difficult time, perhaps best caricatured by how one likened it to St John of the Cross' poem *Dark Night of the Soul*. As a trainee psychologist, I also worked with individuals in similar situations. Like my own contacts in the target population, my clients lamented that topics like loss and illnesses are hardly discussed, and when a person experiences a personal fall, that individual feels alone. As this study found, meeting people in similar situations helped, given the support network built. Similar to Janoff-Bulman (1992), Symonds (1975) wrote that victims of misfortune are rejected by most other people who wish to maintain their positive illusions, and this constitutes a 'double injury'. Another common denominator amongst individuals who lost their job was confusion and anxiety about their coping responses and emotions, and the subsequent relief they experienced upon knowing that their coping responses were normal. Overall, these factors spurred my interest to explore job loss further.

I also sought to answer the question of what leads some individuals to respond in extreme and harmful ways, and others to respond in emotionally- and physically-healthier ways. How did a similar event that befell two individuals lead one to deliberately infect himself with HIV and overdose on drugs, and what enabled another to mourn for a few days and then begin pursuing new work opportunities relentlessly. Zimbardo's (1999)

discontinuity theory posits that people search for explanations when they perceive that a particular domain of functioning critical to their self-esteem is violated. However, mistaken attributions can lead people to behave in ways reminiscent of 'madness', that cannot be explained by a premorbid genetic or biochemical cause. In other words, "the seeds of madness can be planted in anyone's backyard"; given that anyone can have faulty rationalisations, and we all have the capacity to act in 'mad' ways. Although this study was primarily quantitative, some open-ended questions were asked, with the intention of plumbing respondents' experiences.

As 92.1% of participants answered the question that invited them to reflect on their experiences since job loss, this provided richness to the data. Thematic analysis was used to analyse these responses given its flexibility and freedom from theoretical constraints that other qualitative approaches have (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The findings seemed to echo Zimbardo's (1999) and Janoff-Bulman's (1992) theories that underlying a life event is one's personal meaning, and that this may in-part shape coping outcome. As Laing (1961) underscored, meaning is endemic to life and ontological security. It was also evident that coping outcomes are more complex than psychological distress or reemployment, therefore this study adopted the approach of asking them to rate their satisfaction with outcome. Similarly, it seemed that different meanings made accounted for different outcomes.

Thus, this study sought to capture a broad spectrum of coping processes and outcomes. By this, I hope to add to the body of literature that people can access to aid in their transition, to counteract the societal malaise of shunning the supposed-taboo topic of job loss. Informed by my personal therapeutic orientation of providing hope to the client, I christened my website Chapter Chrysalis, likening this to the chrysalis phase before a caterpillar metamorphoses into a butterfly, a chapter within the figurative book of one's life.

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APPENDIX A:
ETHICAL APPROVAL LETTER

UCL RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
GRADUATE SCHOOL OFFICE



Dr Sunjeev Kamboj
Department of Clinical, Health and Educational Psychology
General Office – Room 436
4th Floor
1-19 Torrington Place
UCL

18 July 2013

Dear Dr Kamboj

Notification of Ethical Approval

Project ID: 4973/001: The fall and beyond – exploring the link between personality type, distress, coping style and dispositional optimism on adjustment in individuals who have undergone a significant loss of professional and financial status

I am pleased to confirm that in my capacity as Chair of the UCL Research Ethics Committee, I have approved your study for the duration of the project i.e. until July 2014.

Approval is subject to the following conditions:

1. You must seek Chair's approval for proposed amendments to the research for which this approval has been given. Ethical approval is specific to this project and must not be treated as applicable to research of a similar nature. Each research project is reviewed separately and if there are significant changes to the research protocol you should seek confirmation of continued ethical approval by completing the 'Amendment Approval Request Form'.

The form identified above can be accessed by logging on to the ethics website homepage: <http://www.grad.ucl.ac.uk/ethics/> and clicking on the button marked 'Key Responsibilities of the Researcher Following Approval'.

2. It is your responsibility to report to the Committee any unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risks to participants or others. Both non-serious and serious adverse events must be reported.

Reporting Non-Serious Adverse Events

For non-serious adverse events you will need to inform Helen Dougal, Ethics Committee Administrator (ethics@ucl.ac.uk), within ten days of an adverse incident occurring and provide a full written report that should include any amendments to the participant information sheet and study protocol. The Chair or Vice-Chair of the Ethics Committee will confirm that the incident is non-serious and report to the Committee at the next meeting. The final view of the Committee will be communicated to you.

Reporting Serious Adverse Events

The Ethics Committee should be notified of all serious adverse events via the Ethics Committee Administrator immediately the incident occurs. Where the adverse incident is unexpected and serious, the

Chair or Vice-Chair will decide whether the study should be terminated pending the opinion of an independent expert. The adverse event will be considered at the next Committee meeting and a decision will be made on the need to change the information leaflet and/or study protocol.

On completion of the research you must submit a brief report (a maximum of two sides of A4) of your findings/concluding comments to the Committee, which includes in particular issues relating to the ethical implications of the research.

With best wishes for the research.

Yours sincerely

Professor John Foreman
Chair of the UCL Research Ethics Committee

Cc: Perpetua Neo, Applicant

APPENDIX B:
SAMPLE RECRUITMENT ADVERTISEMENT

If you've lost a job and spent some time unemployed in the last ten years, could you spare 20-minutes for this anonymous online survey for University College London? Help us to increase know-how on coping with job loss, to help those who are facing it, or who are toying with the idea of resigning from their current jobs to take their first strides towards entrepreneurship but who are afraid of the 'job-less' period.

You could have been (1) a professional (2) junior management and above (3) an entrepreneur/business owner. You could have coped fantastically and had a wonderful time, or may still be struggling- we'd like the whole spectrum of experiences for people in the ABC1 demographic.

People who have faced unemployment have said that they find it a relief to know that their reactions and experiences are normal, so we want to increase knowledge and help people feel less alone in this chapter, to enable them to emerge victorious.

If you fit into this category, we'd appreciate if you'd go here to provide consent and proceed to the study.

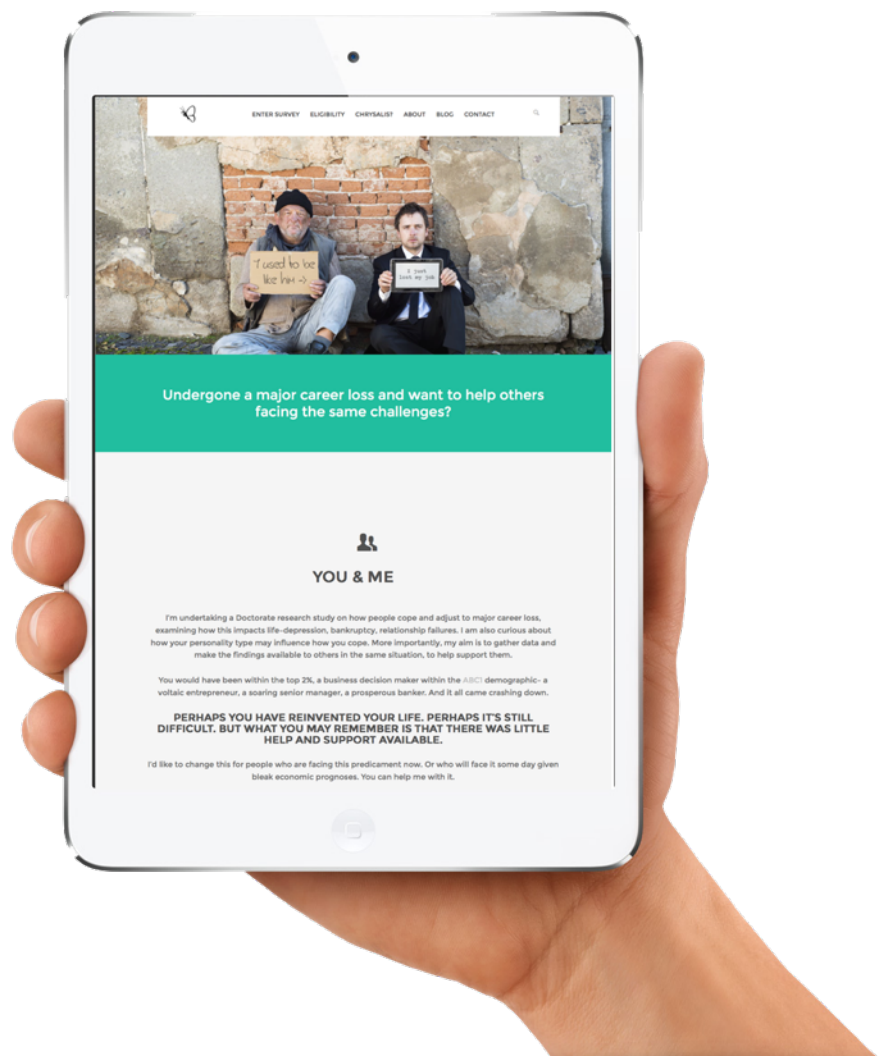
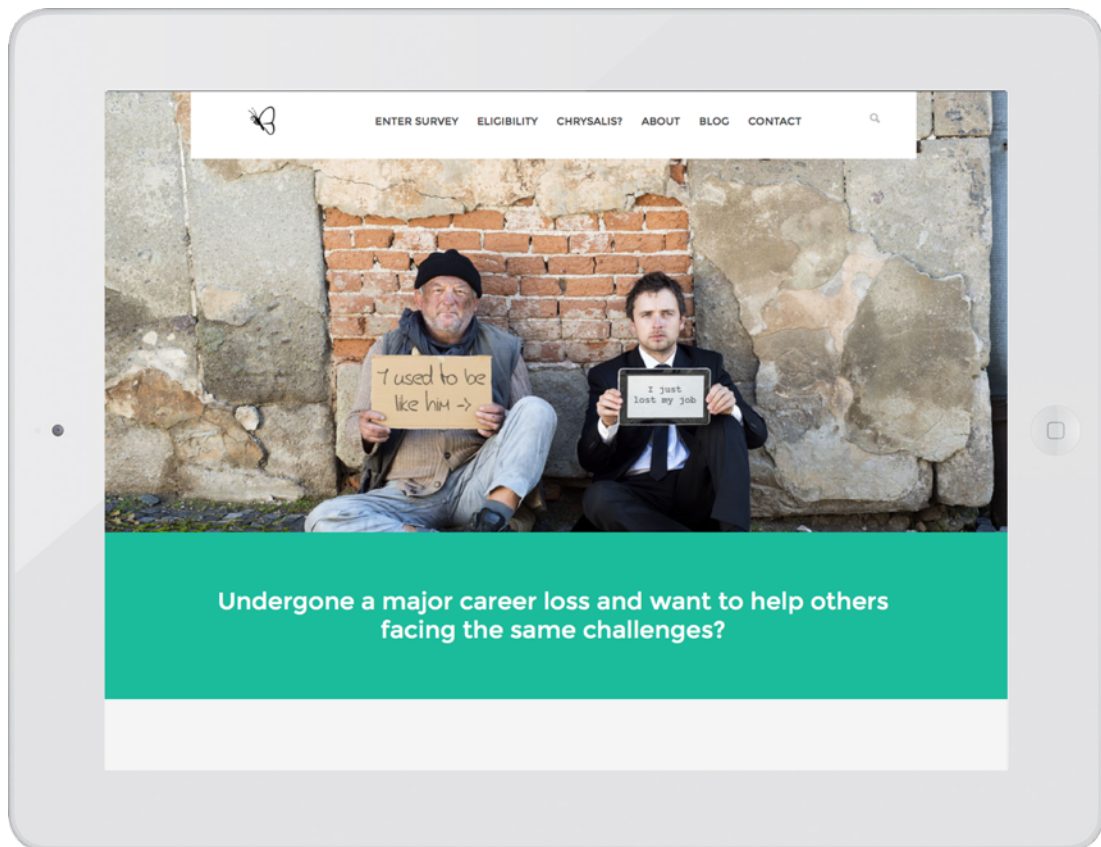
The link to the study is: *here*

Feel free to pass this on to anyone else suitable. Or go to www.chapterchrysalis.com to find out more.

Massive thank you in advance for joining the other people who have lent their voice. The more data we can collect, the more insight we can draw, and the more people we can help.

Perpetua Neo MPhil Cambridge, MBPSs

APPENDIX C:
SCREENSHOTS OF STUDY WEBSITE



APPENDIX D:
INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM

INFORMATION + CONSENT

I AGREE

I DISAGREE

STUDY DETAILS

This study seeks to investigate the [link between the way you coped during your job loss and your personality type](#).

In this study you will be asked to spend between *twenty to forty minutes* of your time to answer some questions online. We will ask you about your different experiences, thoughts and feelings with regards to the job loss that you experienced.

As you may know, there is little help and research available for people facing such circumstances. Your participation will help us to understand more about your experiences, and to help individuals with similar circumstances in future.

There are **no known risks** involved in participating in this study.

You will also stand a chance to win one of five £50 Amazon vouchers.

DATA PROTECTION

All data will be handled according to the Data Protection Act 1998 and will be kept anonymous. Only UCL researchers working with Dr Sunjeev Kamboj will analyse these data. The data we collect do not contain any personal information about you except your name and email address. No one will link the data you provided to the identifying information you supplied. With your permission, we may want to use an extract of the video recording for teaching, conferences, presentations, publications, and/or thesis work.

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you decide to take part you can keep this information sheet and give your consent in this form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

FOR YOUR INFORMATION

This study has been approved by Clinical, Health and Education Psychology Research Department's Ethics Chair. [Project ID No: 4973/001]. You should only participate if you want to; choosing not to take part will not disadvantage you in any way. Before you decide whether you want to take part, it is important for you to read the following information carefully and discuss it with others if you wish. Please feel free to ask us if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information.

This project is registered under Principal Investigator Dr Sunjeev Kamboj, Lecturer, Department of Clinical, Health and Education Psychology. University College London. 1-19 Torrington Place, London WC1E 6BT.

All correspondence must be directed to Perpetua Neo, Doctoral candidate in Clinical Psychology via [this page](#).

I HAVE:

- read the information sheet;
- had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study;
- received satisfactory answers to all my questions or have been advised of an individual to contact for answers to pertinent questions about the research and my rights as a participant and whom to contact in the event of a research-related injury.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from the study without penalty if I so wish. I understand that I consent to the processing of my personal information for the purposes of this study only. I understand that any such information will be treated as strictly confidential and handled in accordance with the provisions of the Data Protection Act 1998.

I DISAGREE

I AGREE

APPENDIX E:
SCREENSHOTS OF SURVEY WEBSITE

CHAPTER CHRYSALIS: YOUR JOURNEY

Thank you for taking part in this survey. This survey is broadly divided into 14 questions, across five sections. Questions in Section I are about you, whilst Section II explores details about the job lost. Section III has five Psychology questionnaires about your experiences, how you coped and your personality. Last, you are invited to reflect on your overall experience in Section IV.

* Required

Section I

The following questions are about yourself.

1a. Age *

1b. Sex *

1c. Ethnicity *

- ☐ White
- ☐ Mixed
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Black
- ☐ African

Wrong with your
mind

10. The following items are interested in exploring your personality traits. *

Please read each one carefully and consider each as honestly and accurately as you can. There are no correct or incorrect answers. For best results, please answer according to your own feelings, rather than what you think most people would answer or what most people are like. Please rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other. Then, fill in the number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement that "I see myself as ____"

	1 (Disagree strongly)	2 (Disagree moderately)	3 (Disagree a little)	4 (Neither disagree nor agree)	5 (Agree a little)	6 (Agree moderately)	7 (Agree strongly)
Extraverted, enthusiastic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Critical, quarrelsome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dependable, self- disciplined	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anxious, easily upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Open to new experiences, complex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reserved, quiet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sympathetic, warm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Disorganised, careless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Calm, emotionally stable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conventional	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. The following statements concern the ways you have been coping with the stress in your life in the first year since you lost the job. *

Each statement says something about a particular way of coping, and we would like to know the extent to which

CHAPTER CHRYSALIS: YOUR JOURNEY

Thank you for taking part in this survey. This survey is broadly divided into 14 questions, across five sections. Questions in Section I are about you, whilst Section II explores details about the job lost. Section III has five Psychology questionnaires about your experiences, how you coped and your personality. Last, you are invited to reflect on your overall experience in Section IV.

* Required

Section I

The following questions are about yourself.

1a. Age *

1b. Sex *

1c. Ethnicity *

- ☐ White
☐ Mixed
☐ Asian
☐ Black
☐ African
☐ Caribbean
☐ Other:

Your contact details are also much appreciated

in the event that further clarification of your responses are required.

1d. Preferred Name

1e. Email address

1f. Are you interested in the results of this study? *

2a. What was your age at the time of job loss? *

SECTION II

The following questions are about the job lost

2b. What type of job loss did you experience? *

- ☐ Sacked
☐ Made redundant
☐ Forced to retire
☐ Personal business liquidated
☐ Other:

2c. Please indicate briefly the context behind the job loss *

(e.g. accident, financial recession, bankruptcy)

2d. How would you best describe the job role *

(Please refer to <https://www.gov.uk/employment-status/overview> if unsure of the category(ies))

- ☐ Worker
☐ Director

- ☐ Office Holder
☐ Employee
☐ Self-employed and contractor
☐ Other:

2e. Please state the job title

2f. Which country were you working in? *

2g. How would you best describe the industry *

- ☐ Banking and finance
☐ Transport
☐ Oil and gas
☐ Agriculture
☐ Manufacturing
☐ Tourism
☐ Media
☐ Other:

2h. How long did you work in that position *

2i. How long did you work in that company *

2j. What was your last draum salary? *

2k. If you were the business owner, what was the estimated annual turnover of the company during its peak

2l. Please rate the importance of the job in your life at that time. *

1 2 3 4 5
least important ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ most important

3. People such as yourself who have undergone a significant career loss may find that their losses extend to other parts of their lives. *

Please rank the severity of the other losses that you may have experienced, starting with '1' for the least significant. Only rank these if they have been a consequence of your job loss, otherwise put 'NA'.

	NA	1 (least important)	2	3	4	5 (most important)
Professional status	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Social (e.g. loss of network, friends)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Financial	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lifestyle	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Significant relationships (e.g. partner, family)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4. Financial loss is a common aspect of career loss. *

Please describe briefly how this affected you. (e.g. tax troubles, unpaid debts, having to downgrade).

5. Please state how long it took for you to resolve your financial difficulties. *

Please feel free to write as much as you like, for instance what 'resolve' means to you or if you are still in the midst of working on resolving any financial difficulties.

6. Please state if there is any other information about yourself, the job or any other background factors which you think may be relevant for helping us to understand your situation better.

Please feel free to write as much as you like.

7. Briefly, please state a few “highs” or peaks of your job . *

Please feel free to write as much as you like.

Section III

The following FIVE questionnaires are designed to explore (a) your experiences after your job loss, (b) the ways in which you coped with the job loss in the first year and (c) your personality traits

8. The following statements are interested in exploring your general levels of optimism, as part of your personality. *

Please read each one carefully and consider each as honestly and accurately as you can. It would be useful if you do not let your responses to one statement affect your responses to other statements. There are no correct or incorrect answers. For best results, please answer according to your own feelings, rather than what you think or perceive others would expect. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number that best describes your opinion next to each statement.

	1 (I agree a lot)	2 (I agree a little)	3 (I neither agree nor disagree)	4 (I disagree a little)	5 (I disagree a lot)
In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

It's easy for me to relax.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If something can go wrong for me, it will.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I'm always optimistic about my future.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I enjoy my friends a lot.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It's important for me to keep busy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hardly ever expect things to go my way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't get upset too easily.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I rarely count on good things happening to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. Here are a list of experiences that people sometimes have. *
Please read each one carefully and fill in the number next to each statement that best describes how the job loss impacted you during the first year. Please do not skip any questions.

	0 (not at all)	1 (a little bit)	2 (moderately)	3 (quite a bit)	4 (extremely)
Nervousness or shakiness inside	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Faintness or dizziness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The idea that someone else can control your thoughts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling others are to blame for most of your troubles	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trouble remembering things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling easily annoyed or irritated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Pains in heart or chest	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling afraid in open spaces or on the streets	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thoughts of ending your life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling that most people cannot be trusted	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Poor appetite	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Suddenly scared for no reason	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Temper outbursts that you could not control	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling lonely when you are with people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling blocked in getting things done	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling lonely	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling no interest in things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling fearful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your feelings can be easily hurt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling inferior to others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nausea or upset stomach	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling that you are watched or talked about by others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trouble falling asleep	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having to check or double check what you do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Difficulty making decisions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling afraid to travel on buses, subways or trains	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trouble getting your breath	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Hot or cold spells	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having to avoid certain things, places or activities because they frighten you	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your mind going blank	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Numbness and tingling in parts of your body	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The idea that you should be punished for your sins	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling hopeless about the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Trouble concentrating	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling weak in parts of your body	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling tense or keyed up	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thoughts of death or dying	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having urges to beat, injure or harm someone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Having urges to break or smash things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling very self-conscious with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling uneasy in crowds, such as shopping or at a movie	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Never feeling close to another person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Spells of terror or panic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Getting into frequent arguments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling nervous when you are left alone	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Others not giving you proper credit for your achievements	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feeling restless that you couldn't sit still	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feelings of worthlessness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feelings that people will take advantage of you if you let them	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Feelings of guilt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The idea that something is wrong with your mind	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. The following items are interested in exploring your personality traits.*

Please read each one carefully and consider each as honestly and accurately as you can. There are no correct or incorrect answers. For best results, please answer according to your own feelings, rather than what you think most people would answer or what most people are like. Please rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other. Then, fill in the number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement that "I see myself as

	1 (Disagree strongly)	2 (Disagree moderately)	3 (Disagree a little)	4 (Neither disagree nor agree)	5 (Agree a little)	6 (Agree moderately)	7 (Agree strongly)
Extraverted, enthusiastic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Critical, quarrelsome	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Dependable, self-disciplined	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anxious, easily upset	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Open to new experiences, complex	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reserved, quiet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sympathetic, warm	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Disorganised, careless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Calm, emotionally stable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Conventional	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. The following statements concern the stress in your life in the first year since you lost the job. *

Each statement says something about a particular way of coping, and we would like to know the extent to which you have been doing what the statement says. It would be useful if you do not let your responses to one affect your responses to another statement. Please do not answer on the basis of whether it seems to be working or not—just whether or not you're doing it. Also, do not answer on the basis of what you think most people would answer or would do. Then, fill in the number that best corresponds to how much you are doing each.

	1 (Not at all)	2 (A little bit)	3 (Medium)	4 (A lot)
I've been turning to work or other activities to take my mind off things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been concentrating my efforts on doing something about the situation I'm in.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been saying to myself "this isn't real".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been using alcohol or other drugs to make myself feel better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been getting emotional support from others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been giving up trying to deal with it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been taking action to try to make the situation better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been refusing to believe that it has happened.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been saying things to let my unpleasant feelings escape.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been getting help and advice from other people.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been using alcohol or other drugs to help me get through it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been trying to see it in a different light, to make it seem more positive.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been criticizing myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been trying to come up with a strategy about what to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been getting comfort and understanding from someone.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been giving up the attempt to cope.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been looking for something good in what is happening.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been making jokes about it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been doing something to think about it less, such as going to the movies, watching TV, reading, daydreaming, sleeping, or shopping.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been accepting the reality of the fact that it has happened.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

4 (the most)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
expressing my negative feelings.				
I've been trying to find comfort in my religion or spiritual beliefs.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been trying to get advice or help from other people about what to do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been learning to live with it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been thinking hard about what steps to take.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been blaming myself for things that happened.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been praying or meditating.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've been making fun of the situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. The following statements explore the ways you have been coping mentally/cognitively in the first year since you lost the job. *

It would be useful if you do not let your responses to one affect your responses to another statement. Please do not answer on the basis of whether it seems to be working or not—just whether or not you're doing it. Also, do not answer on the basis of what you think most people would answer or would do. Then, fill in the number that best corresponds to how much each statement applies to you.

	1 (definitely does not apply to me)	2 (does not apply slightly)	3 (applies to me slightly)	4 (definitely applies)
At the moment I take one day at a time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I see my job loss as a challenge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've put myself in the hands of God	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel like giving up	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very angry about what has happened to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel completely at a loss about what to do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is a devastating feeling	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I count my blessings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I worry I could lose my job again, or if my job loss situation would get worse	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am trying to	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

fight my situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I distract myself when thoughts of my job loss come into my head	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can't handle it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am apprehensive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not very hopeful about the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel there is nothing I can do to help myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think it's the end of the world	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Not thinking about it helps me to cope	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very optimistic	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've had a good life. What's left is a bonus.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that life is hopeless	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can't cope	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am upset about losing my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am determined to beat my situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Since my job loss, I now realise how precious life is and am making the most of it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have difficulty in believing that this is happening to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I've made a positive effort not to think about my situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I deliberately push all thoughts of job loss out of my mind	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I suffer great anxiety about it	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a little frightened	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section IV

Your reflections on the experience are explored in this section.

13a. What was the length of time between the job loss and next satisfactory employment? If you are currently unemployed, please state. *

13b. Please list the types of work done during the interim period between the job loss and next satisfactory employment

13c. What is your present occupation?

13d. How different do you see your present circumstances are as compared to the job which you lost?

13e. How satisfied are you with your present situation? *

14. You have undergone a significant experience in your life. It

is common to reflect on your experiences, whether in terms of the actual difficulty, the journey towards resolving them, or where you are at now.

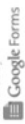
Looking back, what do you make of your overall experiences in this case? Please feel free to write as much as you like.

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