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Work and job: What do they mean to the unemployed?

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WORK AND JOB:

WHAT DO THEY MEAN

TO THE UNEMPLOYED?

by

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Abstract

WORK AND JOB:

WHAT DO THEY MEAN TO THE UNEMPLOYED ?

by

Marie-Louise Andersson

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The purpose of this study was to a) theoretically develop and apply the concept of meaning to the domains of work and job, b) separate the meaning of work from the meaning of job, c) operationalize the concepts of work and job meaning, and d) explore the potentials for using meaning as a measure of work and job perceptions. The study was specifically aimed at unemployed individuals, who have been ignored in the literature on work and job and for which no other concepts have been developed to meet their unique circumstances.

Two dimensions of work meaning named, work acceptability and work instrumentality; and two dimensions of job meaning named, situational job meaning and personal relevance job meaning, were used as the basis for comparisons. The subjects were selected from the Labor Department category of "administrative support including clerical". Comparisons were made between employed and unemployed subjects and between subgroups of unemployed subjects as determined by unemployment stages, sex, age, marital status, number of dependents, education and the

number of times previously unemployed.

The results supported a separation of work and job meaning and suggested that the concept of meaning has potentials for measuring work and job perceptions, specifically. for groups of individuals who do not by definition have a job. Many statistical differences were found mostly in support of the hypothesized relationships between work/job meanings, employment status, and personal characteristics of the unemployed.

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CHAPTER I

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this review only literature which has directly addressed the concept of meaning in relation to work and job will be included. This approach was chosen in order to facilitate the development of a definition of meaning which would be operationalized and measured with regard to both work and job.

Approaches to the Study of Work Meanings [1]

In the literature there have been essentially two approaches to the study and understanding of work meaning. One has focused on the different dimensions of work meaning as they are evident in past or present literature and cultures from a non-empirical point of view. This approach will here be summarized and termed the "historical meaning of work." The second approach has attempted to empirically verify different dimensions of work meaning and to some extent relate these dimensions to other variables. This approach is termed "the behavioral meaning of work" and is reviewed here to indicate the present state of the field from an empirical point of view.

Historical Meaning of Work

The literature on work, which has either directly or indirectly dealt with the concept of work meaning from a

non-empirical aspect, is exceptionally broad. Since the major focus of this review, however, is the present knowledge of work meanings as empirically verified, it was deemed necessary to find some means by which the non-empirical literature could be summarized. This task was not easily achieved, but in reviewing the literature which has focused on work meanings over time, two cognitive dimensions have consistently been of major concern to most authors. First, is the degree of acceptability of work as a meaningful activity across cultures and times. It is apparent that over time, especially within the European tradition, one aspect of work meaning has changed from negative (unacceptable) to positive (acceptable), at least at the philosophical level of these cultures (c.f., MOW International Research Team 1987; Neff, 1977; Eels and Walton, 1974; Levenstein, 1964; Tilgher, 1962). The second cognition which most authors have been concerned with is the perceived rewards derived from work. At all times, work has provided the worker with some form of rewards, but work meaning in terms of the kind and significance of these rewards has varied from being instrumental to non-instrumental in what appears to be a circular pattern (c.f., MOW International Research Team, 1987; Neff, 1977; Eels and Walton, 1974; Hall, 1975; Levenstein, 1964; Tilgher, 1962; Caplow, 1954; Marx, 1887). This suggests that work meaning over tir · and cultures could be summarized along two dimensions--acceptability and instrumentality of work.

It was indicated above that the level of acceptability of work appears to have changed in a linear fashion, while the dimension of instrumentality has been circular in emphasis. This allows for four possible combinations of these two dimensions at their extremes, which can be used to illustrate the changes in work meanings over time:

1. Work is unacceptable and the rewards are purely instrumental.

In the Greek and Roman empires the intellectual ideals of the aristocratic minority in power ran contrary to the mechanics of labor. In these slave economies, work was viewed as a punishment and a drudgery which was brought upon mankind by the hatred of the gods. This perception of work was not necessarily new, but instead of men going to war to plunder the products of labor, conquerors had learned that their goals would be better met if they also insured the future production of desired items (Levenstein, 1964). The introduction of slavery, therefore, made work not only viewed as a punishment, but also associated with the rendering of services for external rewards and/or lack of power of the job holder, and an activity which prevented man from pursuing the ideals of intellectual versatility (Neff, 1977; Arendt, 1958).

2. Work is unacceptable but serves as a means to obtain non-instrumental rewards.

In the early Hebrew and Christian tradition work was also considered a curse brought on mankind by God. But

instead of being viewed as an end in itself, the notion was introduced of work as a means by which original sin could be eliminated and man could regain his virtue. Originally, work itself had no intrinsic value except for some spiritual dignity, but with the Renaissance and the Reformation the active life gained importance as a way to serve God above the life of the mind (Neff, 1977; Eels and Walton, 1974; Tilgher, 1962).

3. Work is acceptable and can be used to obtain instrumental rewards.

The glorification of work by the Protestant reformers, as a way by which man could prove himself, was according to Weber (1904), what caused the change in the traditional work ethic. On the one hand, work was a means to serve God--on the other, the new ethic also provided the basic rationale for pursuing economic gains and earthly recognition. Work was becoming desirable and viewed as a basic mean to obtain satisfaction in life (Eels and Walton, 1974; Tilgher, 1962; Marx, 1887).

4. Work is acceptable and an essential source of non-instrumental rewards.

During the past century there have been three major trends in the literature on work. That is, (1) the beginning of the century focus on context factors of work, followed by (b) a concentration on human relationships at work and, finally (c) the contemporary concern with work itself as an essential source of general life satisfaction (Locke, 1976).

This change in focus toward different aspects of the work situation appears to have generated a view of work as an end to itself, which is desirable and necessary for personal fulfillment (e.g., Dunnette, 1976). The different aspects of work, such as pay, promotion, supervision, etc. (c.f., the Cornell Job Description Index, Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969) have also separately been given considerable attention, although only marginally have they been of concern as different aspects of work meaning per se.

There are basically two categories of theories which have attempted to provide explanations for these changes in perceptions of work (Neff, 1977). One category covers the economic theories which view "The economic relations of any given society....as its base; everything else is superstructure" (p. 66). The second category includes theories of social evolution, which suggest that "human beings have progressed through a series of evolutionary social and cultural stages" (p. 69). Neither economic nor evolutionary explanations, however, can account for all the differences in ideas about work which are evident in past or present literature and societies (Neff, 1977). This problem is compounded by the fact that history is not an objective account of the past, but biased by the view of those who created history, as well as those who have reported on it; a bias which is not exclusive to historical accounts, but is also present in the contemporary literature of any era (c.f., Dubin, 1956). Consequently, in order to understand work

meanings, their causes and consequences, it is essential to empirically verify these relationships and, thereby, establish the viability of different theoretical explanations. The following section will review the current empirical literature which has specifically addressed the issue of work meanings.

Behavioral Meaning of Work

There have been very few empirical studies which have attempted to define and measure meaning in relation to work and/or job. Most studies which have applied the meaning concept to work (job) seem to have chosen this concept in lack of a better one and have not been concerned with defining the concept per se. To add to the confusion, the concepts of work and job have not been systematically differentiated in either the empirical nor non-empirical literature. This review, therefore, will a) focus on the literature that is available, although, it is for the most part theoretically and methodologically weak and seriously out of date, and b) organize the literature on the basis of commonalities.

The empirical studies which have addressed the issue of work meaning can generally be separated into two categories on the basis of their theoretical and methodological approaches to the concept of work (job) meaning. First, are those studies which have focused on work meaning in primarily a job environment and have tried to isolate specific

dimensions of both work (job) and meaning. Here these studies will be considered psychologically oriented. The second group of studies have not specifically been concerned with theoretical and methodological issues of either meaning or work (job). Instead, they have attempted to empirically measure the two dimensions of acceptability and instrumentality of work which the non-empirical literature emphasizes in relation to work meaning. This latter category of studies can be viewed as being sociological in nature. For clarity, these two categories of studies will here be reviewed separately.

The Psychological Approach

The psychological approach to work meaning can best be reviewed in the order of which the literature has applied the concept of work meaning to job situations. One of the earliest attempts in this direction was made by Triandis (1959 (a); 1959 (b); 1959 (c); 1959 (d); 1960), who was interested in measuring the influence of cognitive factors on communication among various occupational groups in industry. Theoretically and methodologically these studies basically conform to the approach of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) in the measurement of meaning, but add some important considerations regarding meanings when the concepts being measured are within the same domain. The concepts of interest in these studies were people and jobs in industry and the adjective scales for the semantic differential

technique were selected on the basis of relevancy to the concepts. The latter was found necessary because "Workers....find it extremely difficult to respond to 'unusual' combinations of concept and scale (e.g.,Joe Down rated on angular-rounded)" (Triandis, 1959 (b), p. 221). This is an important consideration, although it does limit the possibilities for comparing cognitive structures across concepts from different domains. In the study by Triandis (1959 (d)) however, it was of interest to determine the effect of categoric and syndectic similarities for jobs and people on supervisor-subordinate communication. The findings indicated as follows (p. 324):

1. Categoric similarity based on people is significantly related to both communication effectiveness and liking for supervisor. It takes care of 6.0 and 6.6 percent respectively of the variance of scores.

2. Categoric similarity based on jobs is not significantly related to either communication effectiveness or liking for supervisor.

3. If we average the categoric similarity scores we can predict communication effectiveness, accounting for 5.7 percent of the variance, but not liking for supervisor.

4. Syndectic similarity about jobs is highly related to both communication effectiveness and liking and accounts for 6.6 and 4.9 percent of the variance.

5. The results of the triple classification indicate that syndectic similarity is a much more important variable than categoric similarity.

In a subsequent study (Triandis, 1960) the syndectic

similarity scores for jobs were investigated separately for managers and workers in order to determine: "(a) Does the restriction of the domain have an effect on the factorial structure? (b) Is there a difference in the factorial structure when two populations are used that might logically be expected to be different on the particular domain of meaning?" (p. 297). The findings indicated that the factorial structure did change from the three broad factors of evaluation, potency and activity as obtained by Osgood et al. (1957) to a set of six factors more relevant to the subject matter. There was not, however, a difference in the factorial structure of managers versus workers. Only certain differences in emphasis were noted between factors. The latter suggests that both managers and workers essentially look at jobs the same way, but vary in terms of loadings on each factor.

As indicated above, the concept of meaning has not been frequently applied to any domain of work either from a psychological or sociological point of view. Only one study in the '70th revitalized the psychological definition of meaning for the purpose of investigating cognitions and behaviors on the job.

In this study by Guion and Landy (1972) the relationship between work meaning and the motivation to work was investigated on a sample of 91 men hired through college recruiting programs for "creative" engineering jobs. Specifically, the following six hypotheses were investigated

(p. 31):

1. The correlations between the meaning of work and the motivation to work are different for different kinds of meaning.

2. The correlations for meaning brought to the job are different from those for meaning found in the job.

3. Meaning derived from job content (i.e., the task itself) is significantly more (not less) related to motivation than is meaning derived from the job context.

4. The relationship is moderated by principal initial orientation, i.e., people with different orientations generate different correlations between meaning and motivation.

5. The relationship is also moderated by the general activity level of the workers.

6. Correlations for people assigned to task-oriented work groups are different from the correlations for people assigned to non-task oriented groups.

To test these hypotheses the data was obtained in three separate stages. First, the subjects were tested prior to employment on the Orientation Inventory (Bass, 1967), the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, and a questionnaire measuring three kinds of meaning, (1) connotative meaning, (b) personal relevance, and (c) job predictability. Second, the subjects were sent a parallel questionnaire to the first, after having had between eight to ten months of work experience. The second questionnaire was only different from the first in that it related to actual experiences on the job, while the first referred to expectations for the job.

Third, to measure the independent variable, peer ratings were obtained on seven aspects of work motivation; that is, professional identification, team attitude, job curiosity, task concentration, independence/self-starter, persistence, and organizational identification.

The findings indicated that there was some support for Hypothesis 1, in that personal relevance (the congruence of needs and satisfaction) was a significantly better measure of meaning than connotative meaning. Personal relevance was not, however, significantly better than job predictability and there were no significant differences between the latter and connotative meaning.

The second hypothesis was supported, and the findings indicated that meaning found on the job was significantly more motivating than meaning brought to the job.

Hypothesis 3 was also supported and indicated that meaning related to job content was significantly more motivating than meaning related to job context.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 sought to investigate the moderator effects of the subjects' orientation (i.e., task, self or interaction oriented) and activity level. The findings indicated that meaning and motivation correlated most frequently for subjects who were task oriented and low on activity.

The sixth hypothesis was not supported, indicating that work group characteristics did not influence the relationship between meaning and motivation. A reevaluation

of the findings did show, however, that for groups which were classified as task oriented and had members low in activity level, there were significantly higher correlations between work meaning and motivation.

A final comparison between work meaning (post-test) and job satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index (JDI: Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969) showed that almost all of the correlations between the two measures were significant. This is not surprising, considering that the personal relevance measure which was found to be the best measure of meaning, very closely resembles measures of need satisfaction. Unfortunately, it appears that there was no analysis of pre-employment meaning and post-job experience JDI scores. This would have been an interesting comparison, since anticipated work meaning may predict actual job satisfaction. The latter may in and of itself be important, in that it could possibly allow for better understanding of who would be satisfied with and remain in any particular job. The JDI scores were compared to the meaning scores in terms of each ability to predict job motivation. The findings from this comparison indicated that percentage-wise the work meaning measures were able to predict work motivation twice as well as the job satisfaction measure, which was a significant difference. Again however, the meaning measures were the post, not the pre-measures, and as indicated above, the pre-meaning measures were not as successful in predicting motivation as the post measures.

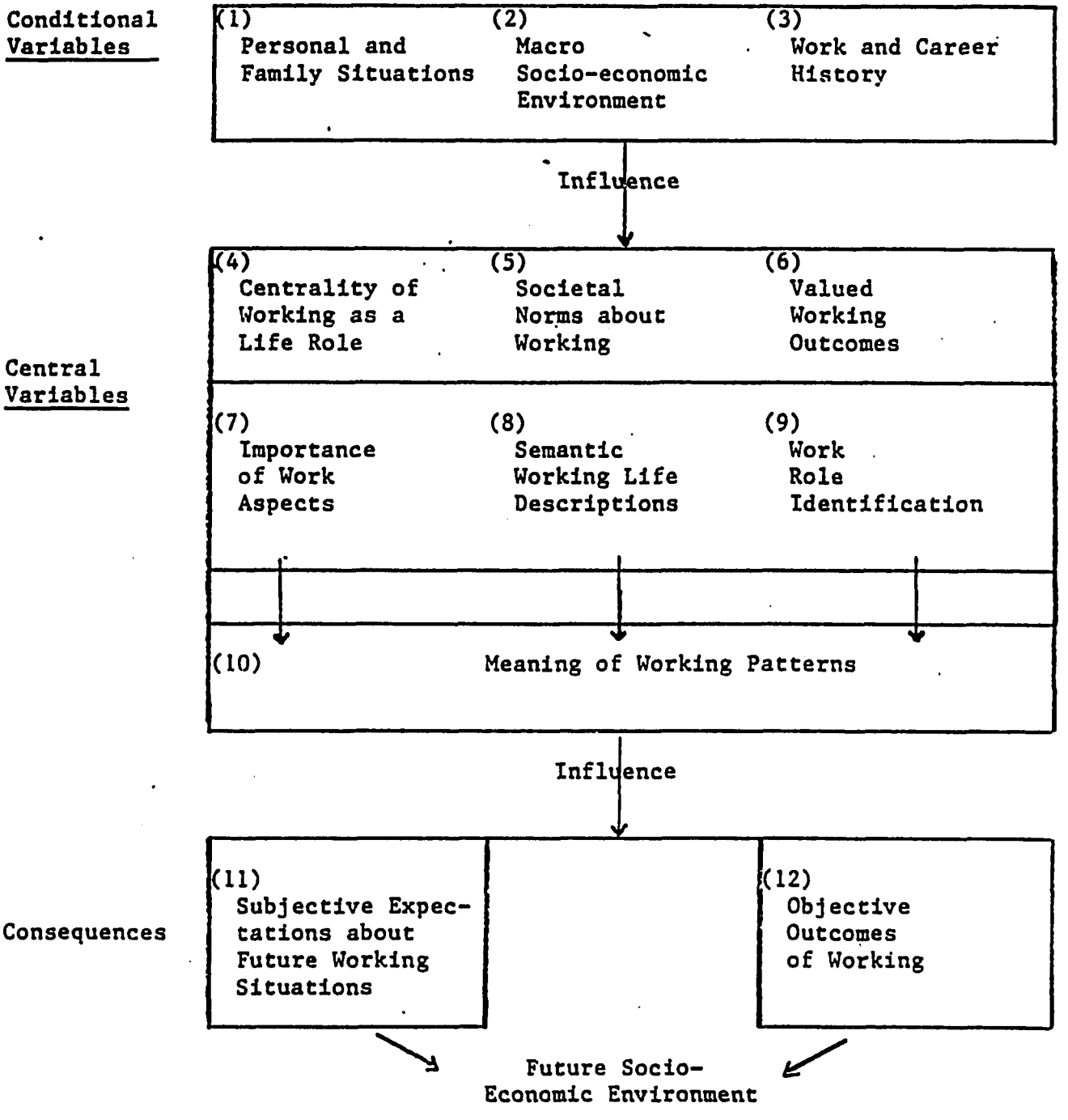
This study, as well as the above, has mainly focused on work meaning on the individual level and as an independent variable in relation to work behavior. Very little has been said about antecedents of work meanings at both the individual level as well as other levels (e.g., organizational and cultural), and the consequences of different work meanings for organizations and cultures. In a proposed cross-cultural study by England (1979; published in Dlugos and Weiermair, 1981) which was completed in 1987 (MOW International Research Team, 1987) this entire sequence was investigated. In this study the following heuristic research model was suggested for the meaning of work (Figure 1).

In researching this model a sample was drawn from ten different cultures and included ten to twelve target groups of approximately 100 individuals each from within culture. These target groups included students, unemployed, retired, self-employed and part-time employed, in addition to employed individuals from different occupations.
Several different measurement techniques and data sources were used in obtaining individual organizational and cultural information about past, present and future work meanings and behavior.

For a summary of the findings, the reader is advised to see the original source since the scope of this study does not allow for a meaningful presentation in this review. Also, the findings are not of relevance to this study which

FIGURE 1

HEURISTIC RESEARCH MODEL



will focus on specific dimensions of work and job meanings and test those dimensions on one domestic target group, namely, the unemployed. Some of the applied measurement instruments, however, are of relevance to this study and the theoretical assumptions underlying these instruments and their respective reliability and validity values will be presented under "measurement instruments" (Chapter IV) below.

In summary, the psychological approach has investigated the possibilities of using the concept of work (job) meaning for understanding work related behaviors. But several theoretical and methodological issues have yet to be systematically dealt with. For example, can the concept of work meaning be defined and operationalized at other than the individual level of analysis, as McClelland (1953; 1955; 1961) accomplished with regard to Weber's thesis (1904)? Obviously The Meaning of Working (MOW) International Research Team has attempted to do so, but one of England's earlier studies (1975) suggests that differences between culture may be less than differences within culture. This raises the question of appropriateness for using cultures as a basis for comparisons. As Brown (1966) has pointed out in relation to Weber's thesis, today it is "necessary to make finer distinctions among communicants in terms of their socio-economic level, their ethnicity....and the intensity of their religious fever.... the A variable (Protestantism) must be reformulated, under the impact of negative results, into a more psychological term. It is a value rather than a simple

church affiliation" (pp. 464-465). This issue in relation to work meaning needs to be further explored, especially in terms of making micro versus macro level distinctions (Kemeny, 1976) and stratum versus situs analysis in occupational structures (Morris and Murphy, 1959).

A similar issue is that of operationalizing work meaning. It is apparent that no study has strictly operationalized meaning in regard to work concepts the way Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) measured meaning across concepts from different domains. More studies are needed to investigate the possibilities and limitations of defining, operationalizing and measuring meaning, while the concepts and subjects are restricted to a specific domain or subgroup. Finally, is it of interest to measure work concepts in general or as situation specific to the past, present and future? Chapters II and VI will further elaborate on some of these issues as they have been reviewed in related literature.

The Sociological Approach

Unlike the psychological approach to work meaning the sociological approach has not devoted much attention to theoretical and methodological issues. Instead, meaning has generally been interpreted as the degree of acceptability and instrumentality of work which, as indicated above, is similar to the approach of the non-empirical literature. Again, the studies can best be reviewed in the order of appearance in

the literature.

Friedman and Havighurst (1954, cited in Nosow and Form, 1962) studied the meaning of work and retirement among men and women aged 55 and over (with one exception) in five different occupations (steelworkers, coal miners, skilled craftsmen, sales people, and physicians).[2] This study sought to determine what part work played in the life of these individuals and their affective responses to it. The responses were obtained by interviews and/or questionnaires and reported in percentages. Unfortunately, the findings are difficult to summarize, since the same questions were not uniformly asked across occupations, nor were they tested for significant differences (see Table 1). According to the authors (but not in total agreement with the present writer) Table 1 shows as follows (Nosow and Form, 1962).

1. The workers of lower skill and socio-economic status are more likely to see their work as having no other meaning than that of earning money.

2. The five occupational groups all value "association" about equally as a meaning of work.

3. Work as a routine which makes the time pass is recognized about equally by the five groups.

4. All groups discover self-respect and secure respect or recognition from others by means of their work, and there is probably no reliable difference among them in the prevalence of this meaning. While it seems to be highest among the skilled craftsmen, this may have resulted from the fact that the category "service to others" was not used in that particular study, and anyone to whom this meaning was especially significant may

Table 1

COMPARISON OF THE FIVE OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS ON THE MEANINGS OF WORK

(Relative Percentages Assuming Each Group to Have Given One Response per Person)

Meaning	Steel-workers (unskilled and semi-skilled)	Coal Miners	Skilled Craftsmen 20-64	Skilled Craftsmen over 65	Sales People	Physicians
1. No meaning other than money	28	18	10	11	-	0
2. Routine	28	19	a	15	21	15
3. a. Self-respect			30		12	7
b. Prestige, respect of others	16 (3,a,b)	18 (3,a,b)	15	24 (3,a,b)	11	13
4. Association	15	19	18	20	20	19
5. a,b,c. Purposeful activity self expression, new experience	13	11	28	30	26	15
d. Service to others	a	16b	a	a	10	32
Number of people responding	128	153	242	208	74	39

a. Not covered in the questionnaire or interview.

b. "Work has given me a chance to be useful."

have mentioned self-respect or the respect of others which he obtained as a result of the service element in his work.

5. The physicians show a high awareness of the "Service to others" meaning in their work. This may be characteristic of the "service" professions.

6. Work is important as a source of interest, purposeful activity and as a source of intrinsic enjoyment for all five groups, but there may be reliable differences between them in this respect.

This study obviously suffers from serious methodological difficulties as, it will be seen, do all of the sociological studies.

Morse and Weiss (1955) studied the meaning of work for a random sample of 401 employed men in the U.S. The data was obtained by using a "fixed question--free answer" interview technique and the subjects' responses were categorized and reported on a percentage basis.

In summary, the findings indicated that 80 percent of the subjects would continue to work, even if they inherited enough money to be able to live comfortably without working. Among these subjects approximately 66 percent, or the combined percentages of the four most frequent answers, suggested that they would continue to work in order to have something to do (i.e., "to keep occupied (interested)," 32 percent; "not know what to do with my time; can't be idle," 10 percent) or mental health reasons (i.e., "keeps individuals healthy; good for a person," 10 percent; "feel lost; go crazy," 14 percent). The relationship between wanting to work and age showed a consistent decline in the

desire to work over age up until the age of 65 and over. The latter age group showed a sharp increase in desire to work, which the authors point out may be due to the option available to men in this age category. Since the study only included employed men, this group may not be representative of other men not employed at the same age. It should be pointed out, however, that this bias to some extent does affect the results at all of the age levels considered (i.e., 21-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and 65 and over). In response to the question "Suppose you didn't work, what would you miss most?" 25 percent said "A feeling of doing something; would be restless" and 31 percent, "The people I know through or at work, the friends, contacts." Stratifying the sample into three levels, that is the middle class, the working class, and farmers, indicated that for the two latter groups, "to keep occupied" was the major reason for working (i.e., 71 percent and 64 percent respectively). The middle class, on the other hand, gave both "interest and accomplishment" (44 percent) and "to keep occupied" (32 percent) as major reasons. Chi-square analysis of class differences with regard to "who would work" and "who would continue in same type of work" indicated significant differences in the responses to both questions, with the working class, and specifically unskilled workers, being the lowest on affirmative responses. Finally, the majority of all of the subjects said that they were either "very satisfied" or "satisfied" with their present jobs.

An update of the Morse and Weiss (1955) study was reported by Vecchio (1980). In this study a similar sample was asked the same questions, only slightly reworded, over a three year period (i.e. 1974, 1976 and 1977). The purpose was to see if there were any significant differences in the responses of working men between the '50's and the 70's. The findings indicated a significant decline in the value and meaning of work among this group over time, which allowed the author to conclude "that a leisure ethic may be replacing the traditional work ethic in the United States" (Vecchio, 1980, p. 366).

Tausky (1969) studied the meaning of work among men in blue collar occupations. In this study four different categories were abstracted to measure various orientations to work (p. 50):

1. Instrumental orientation: Work is viewed as necessary for economic reasons. If an alternative to work was available, it would be acceptable.

2. Quasi-expressive orientation: Work is evaluated as the only acceptable source of income; unearned income is negatively evaluated. The primary orientation to work is that it is a means to support consumption through earned income.

3. Expressive orientation A.: The kind of work in which income is earned is viewed as important; the work must be acceptable within an ongoing social circle. However, beyond being acceptable, type of work is less important than the level of income gained from work.

4. Expressive orientation B: Occupational prestige is defined as more important than the level of income derived from work.

The data was obtained by interviewing a national sample of 267 males in blue collar jobs. The findings, reported in percentages, indicated that for a majority of men in these jobs (52 percent) work was not only an acceptable source of income; to get respect from others for the type of work performed was also important. Given a certain level of acceptability, however, income was more important than prestige (Expressive A). In comparison to 150 managers included in an earlier study (not referenced), the latter finding indicated a reversal of orientation. Whereas 74 percent of the managers were concerned about promotion, whether or not income was involved, only 26 percent of blue collar men responded affirmatively to this. Also, on a related item, 74 percent of blue collar workers would prefer a job "which brings no nervous strain, but is less high paying and less respected," while only 30 percent of managers chose this alternative. Instead the latter (70 percent) preferred "one which brings nervous strain, but is very high paying and respected." This raises the question as to what extent individual preferences are a function of the work situation in comparison to prior socialization. Tausky (1969) to some extent investigated this question by sub-dividing the sample on the basis of education level, job characteristics and job learning time. The findings did not, however, show any major differences when these variables were included. On the other hand, it is difficult to evaluate the slight differences that did occur, since the

analysis of the data did not indicate any tests of significance and the methodology, in general, was rather weak.

In a study by Kaplan and Tausky (1974) the meaning of work, and commitment to work was examined for a sample of so-called hard core unemployed, who were enrolled in a Federal job training program. The subjects included 275 males and females, of which 62 percent were black, 24 percent Puerto Rican, and 14 percent white. Data was collected by semi-structured interviews and included the respondents' answers to three questions. First, it was of interest to discover why the subjects wanted a job. To this question, 76.3 percented indicated a need "to make a living and support my family," or an economic motivation to work. No demographic or personal characteristics of the subjects were found to make a difference in this orientation.

Second, the subjects were asked whether or not they would continue to work even if there were no economic need. Similar to other studies (Morse and Weiss, 1955; Tausky, 1969) 80 percent of these subjects indicated that they would. To this question there was, however, a difference with regard to race and ethnic group identification. Significantly fewer Puerto Ricans in comparison to whites and blacks indicated a desire to continue working under these conditions. The third question examined the reasons for why people would continue to work when income needs were not a factor. A majority of responses indicated a desire "to keep

busy" (52.1 percent) while 23.3 percent sought "intrinsic satisfaction" and 12.8 percent considered work as "morally correct." There were also, according to the authors, proportionately more Puerto Ricans than whites and blacks who saw work as intrinsically rewarding, but these findings were not reported separately.

In summary, the authors conclude that the findings of this study suggest that chronically unemployed persons do not differ significantly in their meanings attached to work from employed working-class persons. However, this conclusion is questionable in view of the theoretical, methodological and statistical weaknesses of this and other studies. The findings may, for example, only reflect the socially desirable responses for a particular population. As the authors point out, there was evidence of a lack of interest in low status jobs, the only types of jobs for which these respondents would qualify. This suggests that the responses do not reflect the meaning of just any kind of work or the work the respondents are able to do. Instead the answers appear to reflect the meaning of a hypothetical work situation, and may be a socially reinforced response.

Gottlieb (1975) researched the meaning of work and American college youth in a two year longitudinal study, including 1,800 graduating college seniors. Unfortunately, the published report is only a summary of the findings, and no data is presented. However, since the present writer felt that the meaning of work, as here implied, is only a label

used in lack of a better one, it seemed sufficient to be content with the author's account of the basic findings.

There were three characteristics of the students--sex, race, and socio-economic background--which were found to play an important role in their selection of school and major, as well as in their access to higher status occupations. Women tend to be highly concentrated in fields traditionally considered to be "women's work". They have lower educational aspirations, and expect to receive lower salaries than men. Students from low socio-economic backgrounds tend to enter colleges and fields which offer terminal baccalaureate degrees and are, thereby, limited in their opportunities for graduate work and high status occupations. The findings for students of different ethnic-religious orientations indicated that those with no religious affiliation viewed themselves, more than others, as alienated and hostile, were less accepting of traditional and moral work ethics, more uncertain about their aspirations,and showed greater dissatisfaction with their college experiences. According to the author,the difference between students of different ethnic-religious orientations was greater than those between socio-economic groups even when socio-economic status was controlled. In comparison with their parents, the students overall viewed themselves as different and emphasized altruistic and intrinsic aspects of work. Most of them also had positive attitudes toward their college experiences, work, and family-centered life.

One year after college the students were again measured on their values and attitudes toward college, work and familial relationships. Among those who sought employment, a majority were able to obtain some form of full time employment, but not necessarily directly related to their field of studies. Many of the students felt better about their chances to obtain life goals than they had a year before, even though a majority were either uncertain regarding their present employment or convinced that their present employment would not provide those opportunities. Most experienced a significant gap between salary expectations and salary realities. There were few changes in religious and political attitudes, and familial relationships were still considered important. There was, however, a decrease in the level of importance assigned to family life, with those employed being more concerned with financial matters and career advancements while graduate students increased their emphasis on a challenging job. Overall, the difference between graduate students and those employed was an increase in the strength of the attitudes and values held in college by graduates, while the employed changed toward more traditional organizational values.

The most significant contribution of this study to the meaning of work is, as the author points out, the predictive abilities of sex, race and socio-economic background. It suggests that certain personal characteristics may determine the career path of an individual and thereby continuously

reinforce the same work meanings as those originally held. Unfortunately the author does not elaborate on the definition of work meanings, nor are the findings discussed in any detail with regard to the implications of these three demographic variables.

Related to the meaning of work and relatively similar to some of the above studies is a study by Buchholz (1978) on the contemporary beliefs about work in the American society. In this study, five variables--job position, age, sex, race, and level of education--were related to five work oriented belief systems described as follows (p. 220):

> The work ethic* - work is good in itself and bestows dignity on a person.
>
> The organizational belief system - work takes on a meaning only as it affects the group or the organization for which one works and as it contributes to one's status and use in the organizational hierarchy.
>
> Marxist related beliefs - productive activity or work is basic to human fulfillment. (The present system does not allow for this--especially not with regard to workers.)
>
> The humanistic belief system - work is the fundamental way in which people fulfill themselves as human beings. (The emphasis is on human growth and development through work.)

---

*These quotes are not complete due to the author's extensive verbal elaborations, but are an attempt to capture the essential definitions.

> The leisure ethic - work is necessary for the production and exchange of goods, and services....but human fulfillment is found only in leisure activities.

Three different groups of subjects were included in the study of these, 340 were blue and white collar workers, 72 union leaders and 366 top managers. The measurement instrument used consisted of a total of 41 statements, which had high factor loading on one of the five belief systems and low on the others. An evaluation of the instrument also indicated that there were no interactions between the five independent variables. Summarized for each belief system, the findings revealed the following:

A. Only age was significantly related to work ethic, with a steady decline in this belief system as age increases.

B. Top managers, whites and individuals with a college degree or more, scored significantly lower than the mean on the organizational belief system, while middle managers, union leaders, hourly workers, blacks, and individuals with high school or some college, scored significantly higher on this belief system.

C. On Marxist related beliefs, top managers, individuals of age 50 or over, males, whites, and those with college degrees or more, scored significantly lower than the mean, while middle managers, union leaders hourly workers, individuals below age 50, females, blacks, and those with high school or some college, scored significantly higher.

D. No significant relationships were found for the five

independent variables and the humanistic belief system.

E. Only two significant findings indicated that top managers score significantly lower than the mean on the leisure ethic, while union leaders scored significantly higher.

Overall, the findings suggest that the five independent variables were most closely related to two belief systems, namely, the organizational and Marxist related. Scoring high on one of these belief systems generally meant scoring high on the other and the reverse. In other words, the five independent variables were the most diversified with regard to these two belief systems. It is interesting to note that individuals with characteristics of higher prestige generally disagree with these beliefs about work, while the reverse is true for individuals of lower prestige characteristics. Unfortunately, it is hard to determine exactly what this study is measuring due to relatively poor theoretical conceptualizations.

In summary, the sociological approach has not concerned itself with theoretical issues of work meaning, nor has it been methodologically sophisticated. For the most part, it appears that the concept of work meaning has been operationalized on the basis of its use in the non-empirical literature and, therefore, as indicated above, their apparent similarities. Unfortunately, even as such, the studies have been few and far between and have not systematically approached the concept of work meaning. This makes it

exceptionally difficult to separate the concept of meaning in relation to work from other concepts such as attitudes, beliefs, values, etc. which is very obvious in the above review. Furthermore, it is difficult to determine if different perceptions of work are due to demographic, biographic, personality or situational variables. It appears that all of these factors may to some extent affect perceptions, but neither here nor in the literature on organizational socialization, is it clear to what extent any one or combination of these factors has an effect (c.f., Hulin and Blood, 1978; Schein, 1971; Lefkowitz, 1975; Korman, 1976; Van Maanen, 1973, 1975; Sarason et al., 1975). Methodologically these studies are also weak in terms of their data collection techniques, measurement instruments, and data analysis, all of which contributes to make the findings highly questionable. Consequently, there is a need for developing a specific definition of meaning in relation to work which can be operationalized and systematically measured. In the view of the present writer the psychological approach has accomplished more to this end, but still many issues have to be resolved. The following chapter will focus on some of these issues.

CHAPTER II

MEANING, WORK AND JOB

This chapter will define meaning, present the assumed dimensions of work and job meaning, and propose that work and job meaning can be operationalized to fill a void in the literature on unemployment.

MEANING: A DEFINITION

Neither work, nor job meaning have been consistently defined in the literature (c.f., England, 1979; Whitely, 1978; Kahn, 1972; Shimmin, 1966). However, for the purpose of this study the following definition is proposed for the concept of meaning in relation to work and job.

> Meaning is a representational mediation process between a stimulus and a response. It represents several independent cognitive dimensions (or mediators) which have been learned. Work or job meaning is the cognitive process which occurs when the stimulus encountered is associated with work or job. The dimensions of these cognitions represent the learned meaning of work and job.

This definition was developed and adopted on the basis of three arguments which are derived from the literature on meaning and work. These arguments relate the theoretical level to the empirical level and will be discussed separately. (Major sources are: Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957; Silverman, 1970; England, 1979; Kahn, 1972).

1. Meaning is a representational mediating process between a stimulus and a response which includes at least two steps: first, the decoding of a stimulus into representational mediators and, second, the encoding of these mediators for a behavioral response. To understand perceptions as well as behavior, it is therefore essential to understand the cognitive process of meaning.

The concept of meaning as it has been defined in the sociological, psychological-philosophical, and linguistic literature was classified by Morris (1946, cited in Osgood Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957) according to the following scheme:

> Pragmatical meaning (sociological) is "the relation of signs to situations and behaviors," semantical meaning (psychological-philosophical) is "the relation of signs to their significates," and syntactical meaning (linguistic) is "the relation of signs to other signs" (p. 3).

With this trichotomy in mind, Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) made a logical analysis of the meaning concept, using a psychological approach. In brief, they suggest that meaning is a representational mediating process which separates the stimulus-response paradigm into two stages. First, is the decoding or interpretation stage which involves the "association of signs with representational mediators" (p. 8). These mediators have been learned by the organism through experience, and are associated with signs by the particular experience an organism has had with the significate of those signs. The second stage, encoding, "is the association of mediated self-stimulation with overt

instrumental sequences" (p. 8). These sequences are selected to eliminate or "take account of" the significate.

This theoretical view emphasizes the necessity for understanding the cognitive process of meaning in order to explain the stimulus-response sequence. The significance of meaning for understanding of every day action, however, is best summarized by five points of Silverman's (1970) so-called "ideal-typical action theory" (pp. 126-127):

-Sociology is concerned with understanding action rather than observing behavior. Action arises out of meanings which define social reality.

-Meanings are given to men by their society. Shared orientations become institutionalized and are experienced by later generations as social facts.

-While society defines man, man in turn defines society. Particular constellations of meanings are only sustained by continued reaffirmation of every day actions.

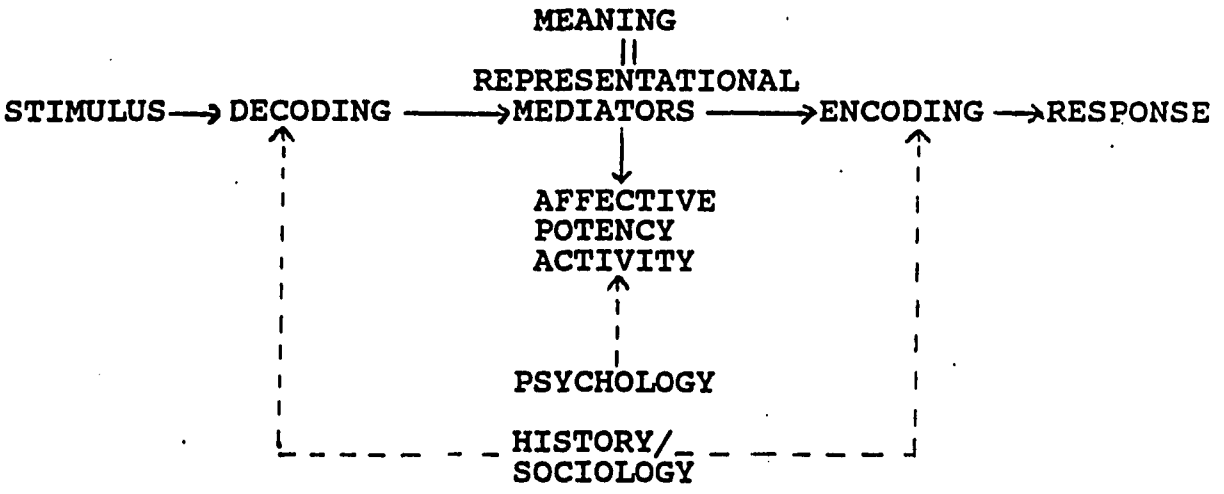
-Through their interaction men also modify, change and transform social meanings.

-It follows that explanations of human actions must take account of the meanings which those concerned assign to their acts; the manner in which the every day world is socially constructed yet perceived as real and routine becomes a crucial concern of sociological analysis.

2. Meaning is measurable and appears to include <u>at least</u> three dimensions--affective (or evaluative), potency and activity, the same dimensions which are presently being

measured by a wide range of attitude, value, belief, and opinion questionnaires. It, therefore, may be able to provide a single measurement concept for the array of hard-to-define-and-distinguish concepts presently in use without a loss in amount and quality of information. (See Figure 2).

FIGURE 2



This model illustrates the proposed relationships. It also shows the stages of concern to the psychological versus historical/sociological literature in their respective definitions of meaning as fitted to the stimulus-response sequence.

To operationalize their theoretical view of meaning as a representational mediation process, Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) suggested using the semantic differential technique. This technique measures meaning by having subjects rate linguistic signs on seven point, bi-polar, adjective scales. The measure is the direction and intensity of association between the adjective scales, which are

assumed to represent the cognitive meaning of the stimulus sign, and the sign itself. Using this technique, Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) were able to isolate three dimensions of meaning by applying different factoring methods. These three dimensions were labelled--evaluative (later to be called affective), potency, and action, and accounted for approximately 50 percent of the variance. Subsequent studies have indicated that these three dimensions are of relatively high generalizability as measures of meaning across a wide range of language structures and populations (Snider and Osgood, 1969). There are, however, certain limitations to the selection, scoring, and interpretation of these adjective scales when the concepts measured are all within the same domain (Triandis, 1960; Osgood, Waren and Morris, 1961; Osgood, 1962; Guion and Landy, 1972; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). As indicated by Triandis (1959 (b)), it may not be possible to use a wide range of different adjective scales when certain populations are being studied. Instead, the adjective scales have to be selected to seem relevant to the concepts being measured. This is clearly going to change the factorial structures and, thereby make it impossible to obtain the same three dimensions of meaning as originally established by Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957). Another related problem is the so-called concept-scale interaction. This interaction suggests that the same adjective scales do not consistently measure the same dimensions of meaning across concepts

(Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). This problem appears to be accentuated when the concepts are either closely related or highly emotional (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957; Triandis, 1960). In these instances the adjective scales may generate either a number of different factors or only one. To overcome this problem, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggest that each concept has to be subjected to an item analysis. The section on measurement instruments below will further address these issues, specifically with regard to work versus job meaning.

3. Social measurements should be able to provide descriptions, explanations, evaluations, and a basis for implementations. The work meaning concept can be defined, operationalized and measured to satisfy these different purposes and, thereby, facilitate a better understanding of work related activities.

Kahn (1972) has suggested that there are four purposes of social measurements--to describe, explain, evaluate and implement. In his discussion of these purposes he is specifically concerned with the meaning of work as it has been measured in the past. However, he does not define meaning in relation to work, but applies it as a general concept which summarizes the wide array of measures used for assessment of work and work variables. This is not conflicting with the basic assumption of this review, in that meaning is considered to be inclusive of different dimensions which have separately been assessed by other measures. On the

other hand, it is proposed here that the concept of meaning can per se be defined, operationalized, and measured, and thereby provide a single measurement concept which could fulfill the above purposes of social measurements. In addition, it is proposed that this concept due to its inclusiveness, may be more appropriately applied to certain categories of subjects, situations and variables, for which other concepts have not been suited. This will require that measurement tools (a) are developed for descriptive purposes, (b) are related to other measures for explanatory purposes, (c) are compared against set criteria for evaluative purposes, and (d) are used for the purpose of creating work environments which can maintain desirable meaning structures. At present such measurement tools are few and have only been given limited attention in the literature. If developed, however, the research possibilities in the area of work and job meanings appear endless, especially considering the significant position of work and job in each individual's life, and as one of the most essential activities for organizational development and cultural survival.

In summary, the above arguments suggest that meaning is a representational mediation process which represents several independent cognitive dimensions. This process can be operationalized to measure specific dimensions of work and job meaning especially for subjects, situations, and variables, where other measures are not available. Finally,

this concept could be applied to serve the purposes of social measurements, and thereby provide a more comprehensive view of cognitive processes relating to work and job variables.

WORK AND JOB MEANING AND UNEMPLOYMENT

This study will operationalize meaning for individuals who do not have a job by the standards of the U.S. Department of Labor. To do so it is evident from the foregoing definition of meaning and the literature reviewed that two issues have yet to be resolved. First, how can the meaning concept be operationalized for sets of related concepts? And second, what does the literature on unemployment suggest that may relate to cognitions of work and job? The following sections will address these questions.

Work Versus Job Meaning

To apply the concept of meaning, in light of the previously discussed theoretical and methodological weaknesses of the empirical and non-empirical literature on the subject, certain assumptions have to be made. These assumptions are: a) meaning varies across individuals and groups due to demographic, biographic, personality and situational variables, and b) meaning change within individuals and groups over time in response to changes in the social environment of those individuals and groups. Some support for these assumptions are evident in the above literature review.

Having established a premise that meaning does vary systematically, the definition of meaning must be operationalized considering the conceptual arguments and findings of previous research.

The definition of meaning offered above is conceptually consistent with other definitions especially in the psychological literature, and does not conflict with definitions of meaning that can be inferred from the historical or sociological literature. The problem of using the meaning concept is therefore not in defining it, but rather in operationalizing it when it is associated with other concepts that are within the same domain. For this study, that domain is work and job. This creates two problems: first, how can work be separated from non-work, and second, how does work relate to a job? Is it not possible that a person can work without having a job, and conversely have a job without working? Even if these two concepts do coincide, is it not possible that their meanings could be quite different?

The separation of work from non-work will be discussed in the final chapter of this study, so that the focus here can be on operationalizing meaning for the concepts of work and job.

Three problems have been noted above, with the semantic differential as a technique for measuring the meaning of concepts within a restricted domain, these are:

1) The affective, potency and activity dimensions of

meaning cannot be established for related concepts.

2) The same adjective scales sometimes measure different dimensions across concepts, possibly because the adjective scales are themselves multidimensional.

3) Some subjects have had difficulties responding to adjective scales that appear unrelated to the concepts being measured.

To solve these problems, one approach would be to select adjective scales for the semantic differential to fit a specific set of concepts. Item and factor analyses could then be used to establish the appropriate scales and dimensions of meaning for that concept domain. Another approach to the above problems would be to not use the semantic differential in operationalizing work meaning, instead other techniques and instruments could be selected or developed.

At present, no study has systematically addressed the above problems and possible solutions, for the purpose of developing reliable and valid measurement tools and techniques by which to measure the concept of meaning, especially when applied to a set of related concepts.

It is possible however, that such measures are already available or could be adopted from related literature, with minor modifications if specific dimensions of meaning, as they relate to work on one hand, and the job on the other, could be established. A reexamination of the literature (see Table 2) along these lines suggest some interesting and

Table 2 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL LITERATURE ON THE MEANING OF WORK

AUTHORS(S)*	SUBJECTS	RESEARCH METHOD	MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	RELIABILITY/ VALIDITY	FINDINGS	COMMENTS
PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH								
Triandis 1959, 1960 (a,b,c,d)	Ocupational groups in industry	Survey	Semantic Differential (or category groups)	Cognitive factors based on jobs and people	Communication & liking	None reported-Used scales from Osgood et al (1957) or obtained scales from the subjects responses	Categoric similarities are related to ease of communication and liking	These studies were all based on or the result of Triandis dissertation
Guion & Landy 1972	Graduated engineers-males only	Longitudinal study -Survey	Meaning of work questionnaires	Meaning of work	Work motivation as measured by peer ratings	Dependent variable interrator reliabilities r=.55-.69 Internal consistencies r = .68-.96	Some relationships between three measures of work meaning and work motivation (i.e. more meaning - more motivation)	Used a wide range of measurement tools
MOW International Research Team 1987	International sample from 10 different countries	Survey	Meaning of Working Questionnaire	A Heuristic Model	A Heuristic Model	Many Provided	Many relationships and differences found between countries, groups and job environments	The most extensive study to date on the concept of work meaning
SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH								
Friedman & Havighurst 1954	Men and Women over 55 in five occupational groups	Survey	Interviews and questionnaires	Occupational group	Meaning of work	(Not Available)	Instrumental rewards more important for worker of low skills as compared to the other occupational	Difficult to compare the groups due to poor methodology and the original study not being available
Morse & Weiss 1955	A random sample of 401 working U.S. men	Survey	Fixed question-Free answer interviews	Age and occupational class	Meaning of work	None reported	Work has more meaning than only as a means for earning a livelihood Work is acceptable	The main interest was overall feelings about work not IV-DV relationships

AUTHORS(S)	SUBJECTS	RESEARCH METHOD	MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT	INDEPENDENT VARIABLE	DEPENDENT VARIABLE	RELIABILITY/ VALIDITY	FINDINGS	COMMENTS
SOCIOLOGICAL APPROACH (cont'd.)								
Tausky 1969	Blue collar males	Survey	Six forced-choice items were read to respondents	Occupational or job status, education, job learning time	Meaning of work	Coefficient of Reproducibility .913	Work has to be acceptable but beyond this the emphasis is on income	
Kaplan & Tausky 1974	Hard-core unemployed	Survey	Semi-structured interviews	Being unemployed (race and ethnic group, sex, age and education were considered)	Meaning & commitment to work	Interrator reliability .93	Meaning and commitment to work similar to those of blue collar workers (i.e. primarily instrumental meaning of work)	Results reported in percentages
Gottlieb 1975	Graduating college students	Longitudinal study - survey method	Not reported	Sex, race, socio-economic background	Attitudes toward work or meaning of work	None reported	The independent variables were related to differences in attitudes and choice of environments with specific meaning structures	This report only verbally summarized the findings from a 2-part study
Buchholz 1978	340 blue and white collar 72 union leaders 366 top managers	Survey	Belief Questionnaire	Job position, age, sex, race, education	5 Belief Systems	Factor Analysis r.40 - .74 (on item loading)	Low organization and marxist-related beliefs among top managers, 50+, males, whites and higher education individuals. The reverse for others	Used the student Newman-Kuels Multiple Comparison Test
Vecchio 1980	A random sample of 1,099 working U.S. men	Survey	Interviews	Age and occupational class	Meaning of work	None reported	A decline in the meaning of work for this group between the 50's and 70's	An update of the Morse and Weiss (1955) study

*The studies are listed in the order of appearance in the literature.

potentially significant differences. Namely, the two dimensions of acceptability and instrumentality primarily emphasized in the non-empirical and sociological literature appear most close related to "work" as a more general concept in comparison to "job" which tends to have a specific past, present or future referent. The latter, by contrast, appears to have been primarily addressed in the psychological literature where the measurement instruments have mostly focused on content and context variables of a specific job environment.*

Work Meaning Operationalized

Both work and job meaning are addressed by the central variables in England's (1979) so-called "heuristic research model", but without being systematically differentiated (c.f. MOW, 1981; MOW, 1987). It is the contention here that the two should be separated, since meaning associated with work may have different psychological, physiological and behavioral implications, than meaning associated with the job. If the meaning of work includes different dimensions than the meaning of jobs, then what are those dimensions?

First, focusing on work, the two dimensions derived from

* The MOW (1987) study was included under the psychological approach but does in its comprehensiveness also address the dimensions here labeled acceptability and instrumentality.

the non-empirical literature and labeled as acceptability and instrumentality in this study, are closely related to "centrality of working as a life role" and "valued working outcomes" (see variables 4 and 6 in Figure 1) as proposed by England (1979; see also MOW, 1981; MOW, 1987) and the affective dimension of Osgood et al (1957) model. That is, the more acceptable work is as an activity, the more prominent or central it should be to a person's total life and the more affects associated with it. As an activity, it could therefore be assumed to absorb more physical and mental time and energy than other activities. This suggests that one dimension of work meaning could be operationalized in terms of (a) the significance of work as an activity in comparison with other activities in a person's daily life, and (b) the amount of time and energy spent on work activities as perceived by an individual, irrespective of whether or not that individual has a job.

To be meaningful, however, work also has to be perceived as rewarding. Here, a distinction can be made between amount, type and value of rewards. Work can be perceived as not very rewarding in general, or as rewarding - but these rewards may or may not be valued. Instrumentality can therefore be operationalized in terms of (a) how rewarding work is in comparison to other activities, (b) the type of rewards derived from work activities in comparison to other activities, and (c) the extent to which those rewards are valued. The latter could be dichotomized as in Chapter I

into financial (instrumental) versus psychological (non-instrumental) rewards (see Figure 3).

In summary, it is here proposed that work meaning is different from job meaning on the representational mediator called affects, and can be operationalized along two dimensions, loosely defined as acceptability and instrumentality. Acceptability can be measured as (a) the significance of work as an activity, and (b) the amount of time and energy (mental as well as physical) spent on that activity. Instrumentality can be measured as (a) the amount of rewards derived from work activities, (b) the type of rewards derived from work activities, and (c) the value of those rewards to an individual.*

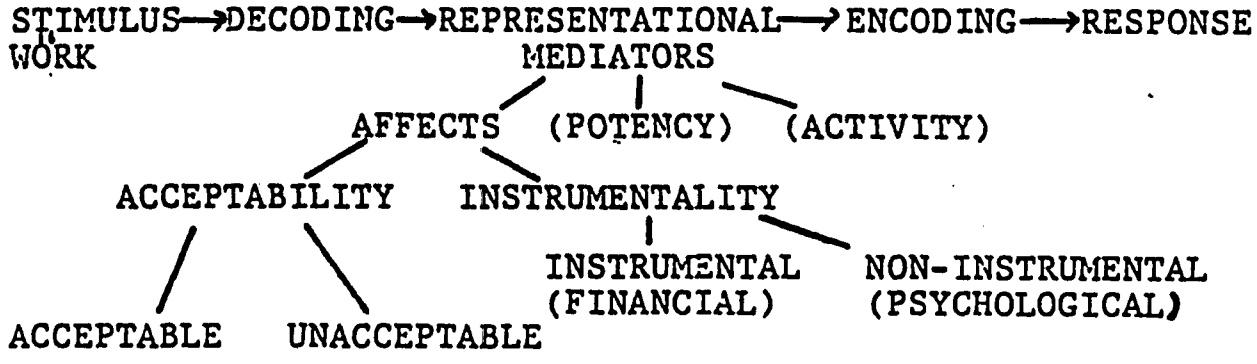
Job Meaning Operationalized

Both the concepts of work and job involve, by definition, clusters of activities that are reoccurring and for which an individual is rewarded (c.f. Kahn, 1972). However, they are not necessarily confined to the same situs or domain. Instead work appears to be a part of a person's life. While a job is restricted to an organizational domain. This restriction can make job meaning different from work meaning, in that less control is available to the individual in terms of when, where, how, and with whom to do

*It should also be added that the two mediators called potency and activity as proposed by Osgood et al (1957) will here be considered irrelevant, due to poor empirical support for establishing degrees and differences between meanings.

FIGURE 3

WORK MEANING



The above model illustrates the proposed relationships for the concept of work meaning, that is, work has meaning to the extent that the act of working is acceptable and the rewards derived from work are high (in amount and value) on instrumentality.

a job as opposed to work. For the unemployed, this difference may be especially significant, since they may or may not work but are by definition without a job. Job meaning for the unemployed is therefore, not a reflection of present job activities and rewards, but of present expectations about future job realities and past experiences with those job realities. These expectations may or may not be realistic as measured against the past, or may be realistic in some respects but not in others. Consequently, job meaning for the unemployed must be assessed from within the restricted domain of an organization and in terms of how realistic job expectations are, in comparison to job experiences for specific job dimensions within that domain. In this study two dimensions will be selected as significant for determining job meaning. These dimensions will be referred to as situational and personal. The situational dimension will be measured in terms of its stimulus value, structure, and autonomy (c.f. Guion & Landy, 1972). This dimension will determine the acceptability of job activities to an individual when restricted to an organizational domain. It can be said to correspond to the acceptability dimension of work meaning, but is operationalized here to apply to a specific situs. The personal dimension will be measured in terms of needs and experiences versus expected need satisfactions. This dimension will determine how rewarding a job was, or is expected to be, to an individual. It is similar to the instrumentality dimension of work

meaning, but was assessed with specific references to an organizational domain.

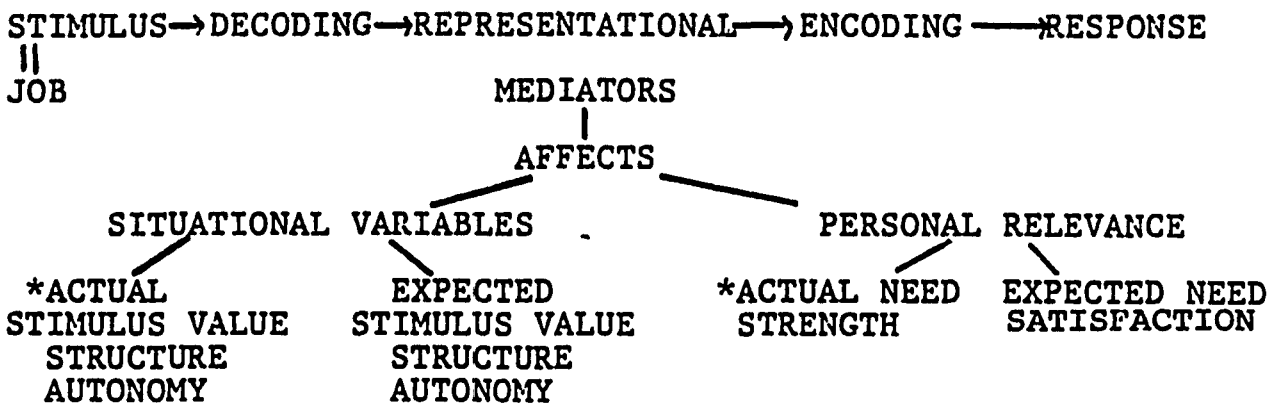
This implies that job meaning, like work meaning, is based on affects associated with specific activities and rewards which both concepts include by definition. But a job cannot be said to be or become meaningful if job expectations are not met in job realities from both a situational as well as personal perspective; whereas work is meaningful in a relative sense to other activities and rewards (see Figure 4). This interpretation of job meaning is supported by research on turnover rate, where it has consistently been found that the greater the gap between job expectations and job realities, the higher the turnover rate (Mobley, 1982). A reinterpretation of those findings would state that people do not stay in jobs which they perceive as meaningless. However, what is of interest here is whether or not work meaning and job meaning can vary independently of each other when related to employment status, the duration of unemployment and specific biographic and demographic characteristics of the unemployed. The following section will focus on work meaning versus job meaning: How are they similar, and how do they differ?

Comparing Work Meaning and Job Meaning

Above a distinction was made between work meaning and job meaning where, a) work meaning is seen as relative to non-work activities and rewards, and b) job meaning as

FIGURE 4

JOB MEANING

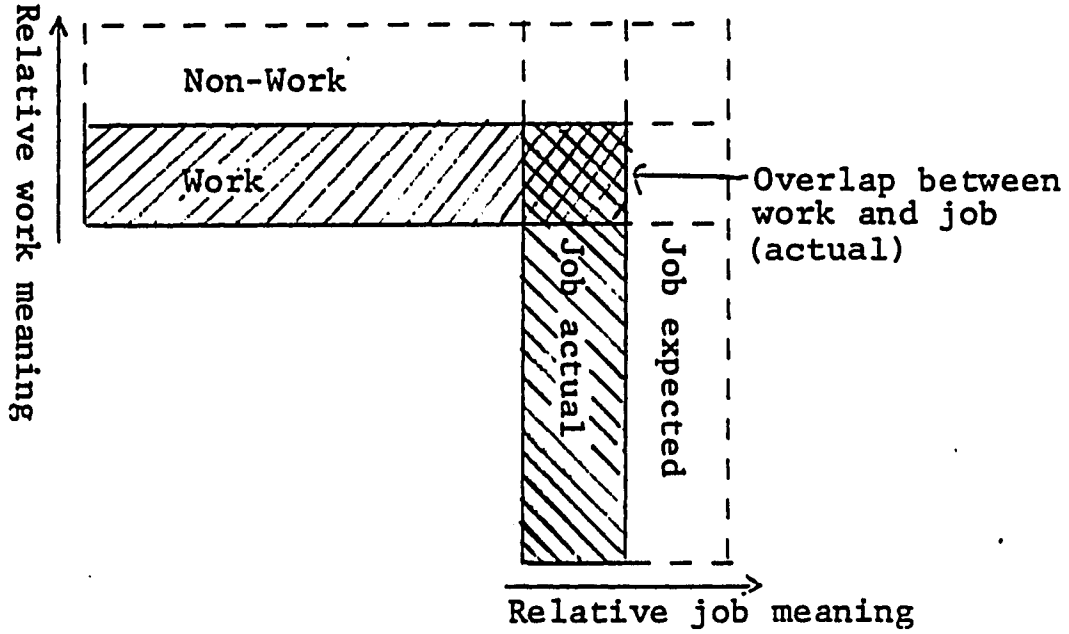


The above model illustrates the proposed relationships for the concept of job meaning, that is, a job, has meaning to the extent that situational job realities and job expectations are similar and that personal needs brought to the job situation are rewarded or satisfied by that job situation.

* "actual" will be operationalized as both ideal and experienced situational variables, and as need strength and experienced need satisfaction on the last job. To ask subjects to describe an ideal job situation will make it possible to control for individual differences in terms of what is a desirable job situation. Similarly, since needs cannot be measured in the absolute, need strength will have to be measured in relation to experienced and expected need satisfactions.

relative to actual and expected job realities. However, they are also related, since an individual <u>in a job situation</u> is rewarded for contributing time and effort to a task - which is <u>work</u> - by the above definition. In this study the following relationships and differences are visualized between the concepts of work and job and their respective meanings:

Figure 5
Work versus Job Meaning



This model assumes that a job has dimensions of meaning which are separable from work and that work has dimensions of meaning that are separable from a job. The overlap between work and job, in terms of individual time and effort contributions to a task for which they are being rewarded, will be included under work meaning. The context of work, or situational variables, and their relevance to the individual in a job situation, will be included under job meaning.

The implications of the above model are that: a) work meaning is primarily brought to a job (at least initially) and is the function of a socialization process which has occured outside of a job environment, while b) job meaning is found on the job and is the result of a relationship between individual preferences and needs, and organizational job characteristics. The latter is consistent with Hulin and Traindis' view presented under the title of "Meanings of work in different organizational environments" (Nystrom and Starbuck, 1981), in which they conclude that organizational designs have "to take into account the characteristics of the employees" (p. 352) presumably to give work meaning. This will be considered job meaning, and is seen as part of an employees biographical characteristics. If work meaning, whether high or low, is taken into consideration when designing jobs however, it could result in high job meanings suggesting that work meaning can be high or low, independent of job meaning, and vice versa.

In this study it is of interest to see if the above separation of work and job meaning can be operationalized, measured and tested against specific hypotheses derived from the literature on meaning and unemployment. The latter was chosen on the grounds that the concept of meaning has properties that made it suited for research on individuals for which other concepts have not been developed or found applicable. The next section will briefly summarize the literature on unemployment with specific focus on some

relationships which have not been researched, and for which the concepts of work and job meaning, as here defined, can add to the research literature and our understanding of work and job perceptions.

Unemployment and the Meaning of Work and Job

Since the Great Depression unemployment and unemployment statistics have been given considerable attention by the media, politicians, and a wide range of professionals within the social sciences, from a micro as well as macro perspective. In general, it has been of interest to establish how the state and status of unemployment affect the unemployed individual, as well as how the number of unemployed individuals affects society at large. As a result of this interest, the literature has noted relationships on the micro level between being unemployed and a wide range of physiological, psychological and behavioral variables which will be summarized below.

On the macro level relationships have been noted between unemployment statistics and inflation rates, although, this relationship has been disputed in recent years (c.f. the "Phillips curve," Glahe, 1977); occupational structures, implying the movement away from craft or agricultural work (jobs) to an industrial - organizational situation in which a person can be separated from his work (job) by not being hired (Hall, 1975); quit rates, fewer people will quit their jobs when unemployment is high; mobility and migration

patterns, which can either cause or be the consequence of unemployment (Mobley, 1982).

This seemingly extensive coverage has however, for the most part, failed to consider how unemployment affect work and job perceptions, specifically, in terms of the meaning of work (or job) to the unemployed individual.

With one exception, the meaning of work (job) concept has not been applied to individuals classified as unemployed. The exception is a study by Kaplan and Tausky (1974) which was discussed in the literature review section above. To summarize the authors' conclusion, it was stated that the findings from this study did not indicate any significant differences in work meaning between so-called hard core unemployed individuals and blue collar workers. Numerous theoretical and methodological weaknesses, however, are evident in this study, making the findings and conclusions highly questionable. In addition, studies focusing on an array of psychological, physiological and behavioral consequences of unemployment have consistently found significant differences attributable to a change in employment status. Many of these studies, to the extent that they pertain to unemployed professionals, were reviewed in a book by Kaufman (1982). In this book, the author suggests that individuals for the duration of unemployment go through a series of four relatively distinct stages. Each stage is characterized by specific psychological, physiological and behavioral response patterns to the circumstance of being

involuntarily out of a job (see Figure 6). It seems logical to assume that cognitions in general, as well as specifically in regard to work and jobs, play a major role in these response patterns. Still qualitative research is seriously lacking in this particular area, this study will try to improve on this by suggesting specific theoretical relationships and measuring these relationships using reliable and valid instruments and techniques.

The purpose of this study is to research relationships between the cognitive processes of work and job meanings and unemployment. Specifically it is of interest to determine the relationships between (a) work and job meanings of the unemployed versus a comparable group of employed individuals, (b) work and job meanings and the duration of unemployment, and (c) work and job meanings in relation to specific biographic and demographic characteristics of the unemployed. It is the view here that cognitions of work and jobs have to be understood not only for individuals who are presently employed, but also for individuals who are not employed but desire to be so. For the latter, both gaining and maintaining employment may be difficult, unless cognitions of work and/or jobs are in harmony with those prevailing at any place or point in time. This will be the topic of the following chapter in which the literature will be formulated into specific propositions and hypotheses linking theoretical and conceptual arguments with previous findings.

	Low job meaning	High Job meaning	Increasingly lower job meaning
The Meaning of Work*:	No change: work acceptable and relatively non-instrumental	Work acceptable but increasingly instrumental	Work increasingly unacceptable but important first for non-instrumental rewards and last for instrumental rewards

Kaufman, 1982, pp. 118-119

Figure 6: Stages of Unemployment Summary

Duration:	Stage I: Shock, Relief and Relaxation	Stage II: Concerted Effort	Stage III: Vacillation Self-Doubt, and Anger	Stage IV: Resignation Withdrawal
	Approximately 1-2 months	Approximately 3 months	Approximately 1½ months	Indefinite
Psychological effects	1. Initial shock; reduction in stress following period of anticipation and uncertainty 2. Low need to return to work to attain security 3. Positive mental state in terms of: a. Self-esteem b. Life satisfaction c. Hopefulness d. Low Anomie 4. Some negative reactions in terms of: a. Resentment of employer b. Anxiety	1. Stress dependent on financial security and social support; those in mid-career most affected 2. High motivation to work, including: a. High initiative b. High occupational aspirations 3. Mental state improved in terms of: a. Low anxiety b. Personal control 4. Mental state begins to deteriorate in terms of: a. Anomie b. Life dissatisfaction c. Being burdened with responsibility	1. Frustration and questioning of ability to find a job 2. Lower motivation to work including: a. Low initiative b. Low occupational aspirations c. Occupational identity problems 3. Some hope still remains 4. Mental state deteriorates in terms of: a. High anxiety b. Extreme anger	1. Resignation to being in a jobless state 2. Work inhibition accompanied by: a. Low initiative b. Low occupational aspirations c. Occupational rigidity d. Professional obsolescence 3. Mental state improves in terms of a. Anxiety b. Feeling of desperation c. Feeling of being burdened with responsibility 4. Mental state deteriorates in terms of: a. Low motivation b. Low self-esteem c. Loss of control d. Helplessness e. Hopelessness
Possible behavioral and physical manifestation	1. Behaves as if on vacation 2. Normal social relationships; lack of openness about job loss 3. Hostility against employer	1. Concentrates almost totally on finding work 2. Receives social support 3. Attempts to be in control	1. Job search becomes erratic; attempts to change career or occupation 2. Conflicts with family and friends 3. Psychosomatic disorders and suicide proneness begin	1. Avoidance of searching for a job 2. Social relation limited to a fe close relatives and friends wit activities centered at home 3. Increases in psychosomatic disorders, suicide proneness, and susceptibility to premature death

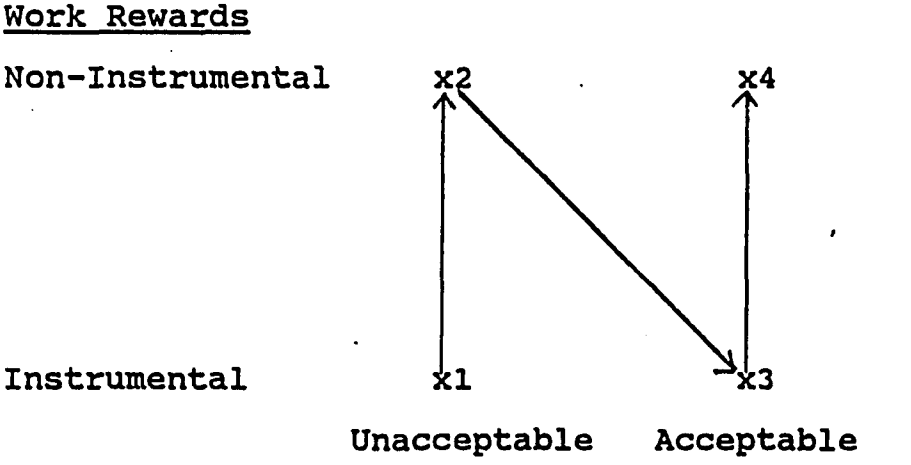
*INSERTED FOR LATER REFERENCES

CHAPTER III

PROPOSITIONS AND HYPOTHESES

Propositions on Work Meaning

In Chapter I it was proposed that the meaning of work to individuals can be conceptualized along two dimensions referred to as acceptability and instrumentality. The acceptability dimension is focusing on work as an activity, while the instrumentality dimension is concerned with the rewards received from work. Using these two dimensions four distinct time periods are apparent within the non-empirical literature which has focused on the meaning of work in the European tradition. Simply stated these four stages can be illustrated as follows, from past = 1 to present = 4:



It can be seen from this illustration that work as an activity has changed over time from being unacceptable to acceptable, while the rewards received from work have alternated in terms of being either instrumental or non-instrumental. These are however, differences noted at the cultural, or macro level of analysis, and the point of interest in this dissertation is whether or not the same dimensions can be used to illustrate differences between groups of individuals within a culture at any particular point in time. Specifically, it is of interest to determine if individuals who are classified as unemployed show systematic differences in the meaning of work along these two dimensions at different stages of unemployment. The empirical literature, especially the behavioral literature with a sociological approach, supports the viability of these two dimensions for measuring differences. Unfortunately the lack of theoretical and methodological sophistication combined with a very limited number of studies have made it difficult to:

a) Interpret each dimension independently of the other.
b) Maintain satisfactory control for biases of interpretation of the researcher.
c) Make predictions for the unemployed who have been ignored in the literature both past and present regarding work perceptions.

When the research on the meaning of work is viewed in light of studies focusing on psychological, physiological and

behavioral consequences of unemployment (Figure 6 above) and the non-empirical (historical) literature, a picture emerges which support the following propositions:

I. The four stages suggested by the non-empirical literature, are present within a culture at any point in time, and represent the meaning of work for certain groups of individuals within and between occupational groups.

II. The literature focusing on the consequences of unemployment support the notion of a reversal in the evolution of the meaning of work. As indicated on top of Figure 6, the perception of work to the unemployed professional appears to change, with work becoming increasingly unacceptable (i.e. work rigidity) and the instrumentality of work alternates depending on whether or not an individual's most pressing concerns are either economic (instrumental) or psychological (non-instrumental).

III. Sex, race and socio-economic background can predestine an individual for environments with specific meaning structures. Biographic and demographic characteristics also show differences between groups of individuals within environments. On the other hand, changes in the environment, or not being accepted by a particular (work) environment (e.g. prolonged unemployment), indicate systematic differences in the meaning of work irrespective of demographic or biographic characteris-

tics.

IV. Acceptability of work as a meaningful activity is a socially reinforced perception in industrialized societies, but does not apply equally to all occupations or groups of individuals and can change over time in response to changes in the environment.

V. The rewards received from the act of working can be either instrumental (economic) or non-instrumental (psychological). The significance of each to the individual depends on needs/values, which in turn are the function of individual, job and environmental characteristics. (It is worth noting that a change from instrumental to non-instrumental does not necessarily signify a satisfaction of needs in this proposal, but can occur after a person has adjusted to receiving less instrumental (or economic) rewards, making the non-instrumental rewards seem more significant.)

VI. Acceptability and instrumentality are not two independent dimensions but rather can vary independently of one another. Work can be acceptable for a variety of reasons, one of which may be the instrumental or non-instrumental rewards received (or not received as the case may be for the unemployed). Similarly, work can be unacceptable for many reasons, but still valued for the instrumental or non-instrumental rewards received (or not received).

VII. Work meaning and job meaning vary independently of one another, but may be highly correlated and/or unrelated in their variance to job loss for certain individuals, or groups of individuals, who can provide themselves with an environment that recreates the conditions ordinarily provided by a job without actually having one by the Department of Labor definition. Examples would be women who return to being housewives when faced with a job loss, unemployed individuals who return to complete an education, artists to whom a job may mean primarily a source of income and who may in fact welcome unemployment since job loss will provide more time for artistic development, etc. To the above individuals or groups, job loss may not have any significant effect on either work or job meaning.

Propositions on Job Meaning

As indicated above, past literature has not made a distinction between work meaning and job meaning, in part, possibly, because the two concepts are not easily separable by definition. In this study however, it is considered significant that the two be separated since the unemployed, who are of interest here, may be working, but do not by the Department of Labor's standards, have a job. To separate the two, it was suggested that the domain of each be considered, specifically with regard to operationalizing the two concepts on respective meanings. It was proposed that work is part of

life and cannot be restricted to specific context or content variables, but has to be viewed in a relative sense to other activities and rewards which by consensus are not considered to be work or work related. A job, on the other hand, is essentially restricted structurally, and applies to a specific past, present, or future referent. It can therefore, be measured in terms of meaning on specific situational and personal variables. This is not unlike the approach of the psychological literature, although with a different aim. In this study the interest is to determine if work meaning and job meaning vary independently of one another, and as such can be assumed to have different physiological, psychological and behavioral implications.

To that end, the Guion and Landy (1972) study is especially interesting in light of both the findings and measurement techniques. The latter will be discussed in the research designs chapter, so that the focus here can be on specific propositions derivable from the findings of that study. As indicated in the review chapter above, Guion and Landy (1972) found that personal relevance, predictability and connotative meaning, as three measures of work/job meaning all related to work motivation in the above order of the strength of that relationship. They also established that meaning found on the job was significantly more motivating than meaning brought to the job. This, however, must be viewed in light of the fact that the level of motivation in their study was established by peer ratings on

the job and did not consider motivation for seeking or obtaining the job, which in the case of the unemployed may be the most significant. Meaning related to job content was also found to be more motivating than meaning related to job context and the meaning/motivation relationship was strongest for task oriented subjects with low activity level. Finally, personal relevance meaning and satisfaction were found to be highly correlated with the former being higher when correlated with motivation on post-employment measures.

For the purpose of this study the above findings suggest the following:

I There are relationships between job meaning and job motivation which suggest that the less meaningful a job is perceived to be or is expected to be, the less motivating it is, or by extension, the less motivated a person may be to trying to obtain a job.

II There are relationships between personal relevance meaning and job satisfaction which suggest that jobs perceived to be or expected to be less personally relevant also may become less satisfying.

III Perception of content related variables in terms of meanings are more motivating than context related variables.

IV Personal characteristics can influence the meaning/motivation relationship as can past and

present situational characteristics.

HYPOTHESES

Work Meaning and Unemployment

It is the purpose of this dissertation to determine if the above propositions derived from the literature, can be systematically and empirically verified on individuals classified by the Department of Labor as unemployed. Since the propositions vary with regard to work meaning and job meaning the hypotheses will also be stated separately starting with work meaning. Specifically, it is of interest to establish differences in the meaning of work a) between the unemployed and a comparable group of employed individuals, b) between groups of unemployed individuals at four different stages (i.e. less than five weeks, five to fifteen weeks, sixteen to twenty-six weeks and more than twenty-six weeks) of unemployment and c) between unemployed individuals with different biographic and demographic characteristics. For each comparison, work meaning will be operationalized as the acceptability and instrumentality of work. The following hypothesis will be tested.

Hypothesis I: For unemployed individuals work has less meaning than to a comparable group of employed individuals.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IA: For unemployed individuals work is less significant as an activity in general, and especially in

comparison to other activities in a person's daily life when compared with employed individuals.

Hypothesis IB: For unemployed individuals less time and energy is devoted to work activities as perceived by that individual in comparison to employed individuals.

Hypothesis IC: For unemployed individuals the rewards derived from work are more instrumental (financial) than non-instrumental (psychological) as an activity, when compared with employed individuals.

Hypothesis ID: For unemployed individuals work is perceived as less rewarding in comparison to other activities than to employed individuals.

Hypothesis IE: Non-instrumental (psychological) rewards are generally more valued than instrumental (financial) rewards, but unemployed individuals value instrumental rewards significantly more than employed individuals irrespective of the activity found to be "very rewarding."

Hypothesis II: For unemployed individuals the meaning of work changes, and work has increasingly less meaning as unemployment continues across four stages.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IIA: For individuals unemployed less than five weeks, work is acceptable and the perceived rewards are non-instrumental in comparison to subsequent stages (i.e. five to fifteen weeks, sixteen to twenty-six weeks, and more than twenty-six weeks of unemployment).

This hypothesis was based on the assumption that work

meaning, as opposed to job meaning, is not immediately affected by job loss, and that the meaning of work in today's work environments is characterized by it being an acceptable activity engaged in, to a large extent for non-instrumental (psychological) rewards. The four stages of unemployment selected were chosen to correspond with Kaufman's (1982) stages, which are also in their time frames similar to those used by the Department of Labor for reporting unemployment statistics.

Hypothesis IIB: For individuals unemployed for five to fifteen weeks, work is still acceptable but the rewards desired from work are increasingly perceived as instrumental (financial).

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that as the financial obligations are becoming increasingly more difficult to meet, the act of working is more and more associated with and engaged in only for financial gain.

Hypothesis IIC: For individuals unemployed for sixteen to twenty-six weeks, work is becoming increasingly unacceptable, but again there is a tendency to value work primarily for the non-instrumental rewards received from working.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that as a person has withdrawn or been selective in choosing working situations, as in stage two, fewer working situations are available. In addition, other non-working activities have increasingly taken the place of the act of working,

especially in situations where work has not in the past received instrumental (financial) recognition. Simultaneously, it is assumed that the unemployed individual has adjusted to living on a lesser income and is increasingly recognizing the non-instrumental (psychological) benefits of working.

Hypothesis IID: For individuals unemployed more than twenty-six weeks, work remains unacceptable but the rewards from work are returning to being perceived as instrumental (financial).

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that as a person goes beyond qualifying for unemployment benefits and is forced to seek welfare, work remains unacceptable but is perceived as having primarily instrumental (financial) rewards since non-instrumental (psychological) rewards have been found in other non-work activities. This may or may not be constructive in the long run for psychological well-being.

Hypothesis III: Work meaning varies with regard to different biographical and demographical characteristics of a person.

This is based on the assumption that a person's past influences his/her future, and that certain characteristics predispose an individual to certain environments which have specific meaning structures. In this study sex, race, age, marital status, number of dependents, level of education, and number of times previously unemployed, are the most

interesting and relevant to the meaning of work of the unemployed.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IIIA: Work is more acceptable as an activity and less instrumental (financial) in terms of rewards to unemployed women as opposed to men.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that women today have more work environments available to them than men, and that this availability and choice per se makes work more acceptable. Also, work has traditionally been primarily non-instrumental (psychological) to women.

Hypothesis IIIB: Work is more acceptable to unemployed persons considered white, than persons considered either black or Hispanic, but there are no differences in the instrumentality dimension of work meaning.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption of differences in cultural backgrounds through which work has received different meanings specifically with regard to acceptability.

Hypothesis IIIC: Work is less acceptable as an activity and more instrumental (financial) in its rewards to older unemployed individuals as compared to younger unemployed individuals.

The hypothesis is based on the assumption that non-work activities start taking the place of work activities as a person prepares himself or herself for retirement, and work become more and more closely associated with activities done

only for instrumental (financial) gains.

Hypothesis IIID: For unemployed married individuals, in comparison to single individuals, work and family are more acceptable as activities, but the rewards sought from work and non-work activities are primarily non-instrumental as a person or family gets used to live on less income.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that when work is not part of a job environment and other non-work activities are readily available as well as rewarding, a person will work, but prefers to do so on non-instrumentally rewarding activites such as family activities.

Hypothesis IIIE: For unemployed individuals with more than one (themselves) dependents, in comparison with those who have only one dependent, work and family are more acceptable as activities, but the rewards sought from work are more instrumental (financial) as the number of dependents increase.

This hypothesis is based on the same assumption as above (Hypothesis IIID) in regard to acceptability, but suggests that the potential instrumental (financial) rewards derivable from some work activities remain important for a longer time when more dependents are involved.

Hypothesis IIIF: The higher the level of education of the unemployed, the more acceptable and non-instrumental the meaning of work.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that education provides a person with more work opportunities and

that this choice makes working more acceptable and less instrumental (financial) in meaning.

Hypothesis IIIG: Work is more acceptable and non-instrumental (psychological) for individuals who have never been unemployed before when compared to individuals who have had a history of unemployment.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that repeated unemployment has the same effect as prolonged unemployment on work meaning.

In summary, the above hypotheses state specific relationships between work meaning and unemployment for individuals across a selected number of situational and personal characteristics. The latter will be further explored in the following section on the relationships between job meaning and unemployment when the stimuli - a job - has a specific past (last job) referent, a present perceptual (ideal job) referent, and a future expected (next job) referent to the unemployed.

Job Meaning and Unemployment

As stated above (see Figure 4), job meaning is conceptualized as the affects determined by situational and personal variables and associated with a job. Job meaning operationalized will be measured as the relationship between: a) ideal, experienced and expected situational job characteristics, and b) personal need strength versus experienced and expected personal need satisfaction. It will

be assumed that job meaning is high when: a) the ideal, experienced and expected situational job characteristics are highly correlated and b) actual need strength correlates with both experienced and expected need satisfaction. The following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis I: For unemployed individuals a job has less meaning than to a comparable group of employed individuals.

Since it is assumed here that job meaning is the relationship between actual and expected job characteristics in terms of both situational variables and personal relevance, and actually is the relationship between ideal and experienced job characteristics; it will not be possible to make a conclusive comparison for these relationships between the unemployed and the employed. For the unemployed all these relationships exist (i.e. ideal versus experienced past job characteristics ideal versus expected future job characteristics), but for the employed only ideal versus present job characteristics can be reliably measured. This creates a limit on the comparisons which can be made, as well as makes the comparisons unequal with regard to time perspective. These restrictions have to be recognized in the interpretation of the job meaning relationships between the unemployed and the employed participants.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IA: For unemployed individuals the relationship between ideal and experienced (last job) situational variables will be lower than the relationship

between ideal and experienced (present job) situational variables for employed individuals.

Hypothesis IB: For unemployed individuals the relationship between need strength and experienced (last job) need satisfaction will be lower than between need strength and experienced (present job) need satisfaction for employed individuals.

Hypothesis II: For unemployed individuals the meaning of a job changes, and a job has increasingly less meaning as unemployment continues across four stages.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IIA: For individuals unemployed less than five weeks, job meaning is significantly lower on both situational and personal variables when compared to (a) a similar group of employed individuals and (b) unemployed individuals in the second stage of unemployment.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that there is a significant drop in job meaning immediately preceding or following job loss. In this study that should be indicated by a large discrepancy in describing the last job situation versus the ideal and next job situation, due to resentments of last employer and ego-defensive strategies.

On the personal needs dimension, there should be a discrepancy between need strength and last job need satisfaction, but a high correlation between need strength and next job need satisfaction.

Hypothesis IIB: For individuals unemployed between five

to fifteen weeks, job meaning is at its highest for the duration of unemployment and should correlate highly with a similar group of employed individuals.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that after the first five weeks resentments toward last employer have diminished, and personal needs ordinarily satisfied in a job situation have become more significant. Both of these changes are creating a closer correspondence between ideal, experienced and expected situational and personal variables and thereby, higher job meaning, as here defined.

Hypothesis IIC: For individuals unemployed for sixteen to twenty-six weeks, job meaning is again declining and significantly lower than a similar group of employed individuals.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that as an individual is getting closer to the end of the unemployment benefit period, disillusionment starts and is reflected in lower job meaning. A significant difference is assumed for this third stage of unemployment, as compared to the first stage, in that expectancies for the future will be lower than past (last job) experiences, for both the situational and personal dimension of job meaning. That is, the last job is rated more desirable than the expected future job, by the former being perceived as closer to an ideal job and providing more need satisfaction.

Hypothesis IID: For individuals unemployed more than twenty-six weeks job meaning will again increase as a job

situation is more and more viewed in the abstract.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that as a person goes beyond qualifying for unemployment benefits and is forced to seek welfare, the prospect of finding a job is getting very low and the individual enters a new social environment where being without a job is the norm, and as a result "a job" per se no longer has a realistic referent.

Hypothesis III: Job meanings vary with regard to different biographical and demographical characteristics of a person.

This hypothesis is based on the same assumption as above regarding work meaning, namely, that a person's past influences his/her future and that certain characteristics predispose an individual for environments with different job meanings. In this study, sex, race, age, marital status, number of dependents, level of education, and number of times previously unemployed are the most interesting and relevant to job meaning of the unemployed.

Specifically,

Hypothesis IIIA: Job meaning is lower for unemployed men when compared to unemployed women when occupation is held constant.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that there is a relationship between job status and job meaning in that the more status the more meaning a job has. If occupation therefore is held constant, as in this study, it will be perceived as having higher status for women and higher

meaning than for men.

Hypothesis IIIB: Job meaning is higher for unemployed racial minorities than for unemployed white majority members when occupation is held constant.

This hypothesis is based on a similar assumption as A above, namely, that there is a relationship between job status and job meaning with the former being relative to biographical and demographical characteristics.

Hypothesis IIIC: Job meaning is higher for unemployed older workers when compared with unemployed younger workers within the same occupational group.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that job status, and thereby job meaning, is perceived as higher toward the end of a career than at the beginning.

Hypothesis IIID: Job meaning is higher for unemployed married individuals with compared to unemployed single individuals.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that having a job is more significant both from a financial and a status perspective for married individuals, especially if they are heads of households, than it is to a single individual.

Hypothesis IIIE: Job meaning is higher the more dependents an unemployed individual has.

This hypothesis is based on the same assumption as above, namely, the more dependents the more significant it is to have a job both from a financial as well as status perspective.

Hypothesis IIIF: Job meaning is higher for unemployed individuals with comparatively low educational background when compared to individuals with comparatively high educational background when occupation is held constant.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that occupational status is relative to level of education - the higher the level of education the lower the occupational status and its job meaning. This should be especially true for so called overqualified individuals within an occupational category.

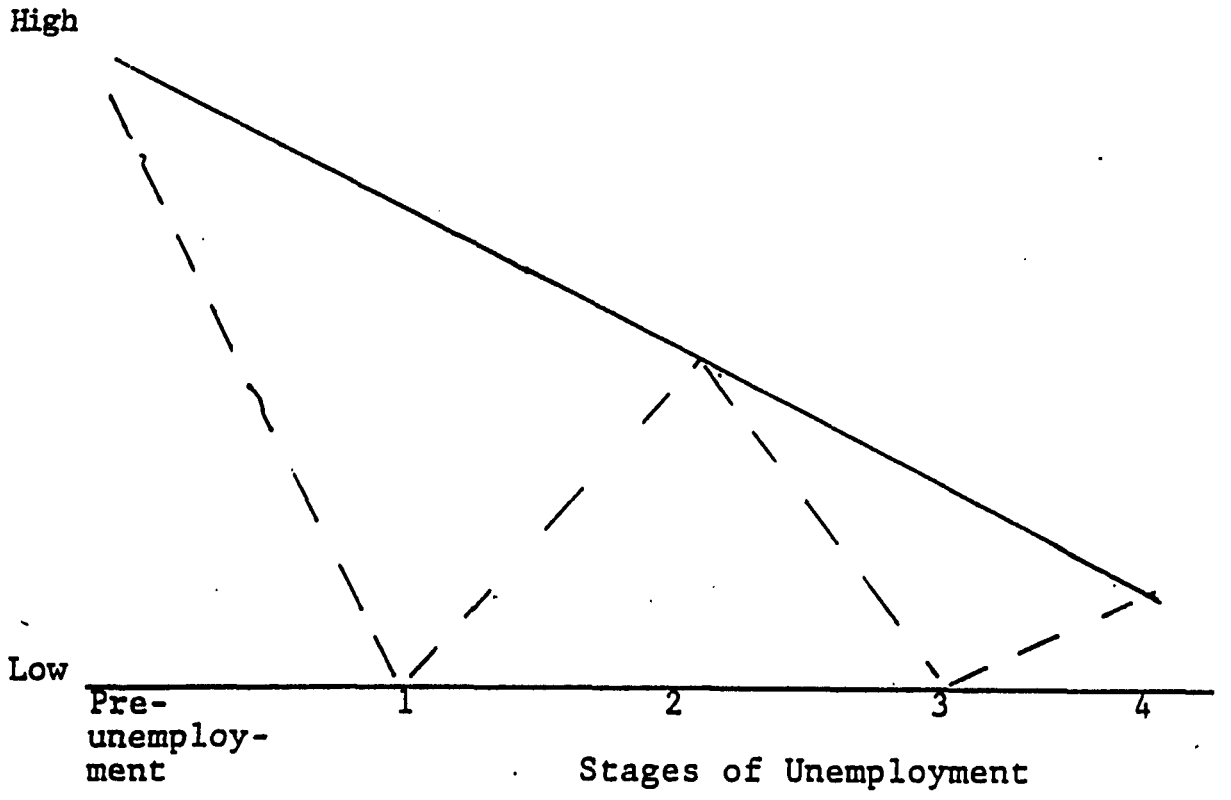
Hypothesis IIIG: Job meaning is lower for individuals with a history of unemployment, when compared to individuals who have never been unemployed before.

This hypothesis is based on the assumption that repeated unemployment has the same effect on job meaning as prolonged unemployment.

In conclusion, it is hypothesized that both work and job meanings are related to the state and stages of unemployment, as well as personal characteristics. The latter are interesting in their relationships to work and job meanings, but will also have to be considered in the analysis on the relationship between stages of unemployed and work versus job meanings. The hypothesized relationships between work and job meanings and stages of unemployment can be illustrated as in Figure 7. This illustration and the hypothesized relationships assume a causal relationship between meanings and unemployment stages. Such a relationship cannot be

established in this study, since this would require a longitudinal approach with controls on personal characteristics that were considered to go beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, it should be noted that these relationships may be in part, or completely, a function of a self-selection process and not indicative of individual changes. To some extent self-selection will be controlled for by the personal characteristics obtained, and the research methodology applied, but will not be excluded as a possible explanation for the relationships established. The next chapter will focus on methodology, subject selection, measurement instruments and data analyses.

FIGURE 7



Hypothesized relationships between job and work meanings and stages of unemployment

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN

Method

The design of this study required that questionnaires be developed and administered to a sample of employed and unemployed participants. The questionnaires began with an explanation of the purpose of the study and stressed that all responses were anonymous. Two separate questionnaires were used to address either the unemployed (see Appendix A) or a comparable group of employed subjects (see Appendix B). The scales on the two questionnaires were the same, only adjusted to fit the employment status of the participants.

Three major sets of comparisons were made, these are:

A. Between unemployed participants and a comparable group of employed participants as determined by occupational category and personal characteristics.

B. Between unemployed participants at different stages of unemployment as determined by the length of time on unemployment.

C. Between subgroups of unemployed participants as determined by specific biographical and demographical characteristics.

All participants were selected from the category labeled by the Department of Labor as "administrative support including clerical." Their participation was voluntary and

to enhance internal validity ten percent of the responses were obtained through personal interviews.

Sample

The participants were 319 unemployed individuals whose last job would fall within the Department of Labor's occupational category of "administrative support including clerical." Also included were 120 employed individuals whose present job would fall within the same occupational category as above. Among those who were asked to participate approximately 28% of each group were either not able or willing to participate. A follow up on those who did not return the questionnaire indicated that for the unemployed the most frequently found reason was educational. Many had trouble reading and/or comprehending the questions of the questionnaire. For the employed sample, those who did not return the questionnaire generally quoted time constraints as their major reason.

The 319 unemployed and 120 employed individuals included in the analyses came from a wide range of organizational backgrounds or organizations located throughout New York, New Jersey and Connecticut, but with New York having the largest representation. They were mostly white, young, single, or married with few dependents, a high school or some college education and indicated no previous unemployment (see Table 3). Most of the participants were females, especially among those employed, which is a characteristic of this

TABLE 3

Demographical and biographical characteristics of the unemployed and employed groups in percentages*.

		UNEMP. (N=319)	EMP. (N=120)
sex			
	males	42.3	20.8
	females	54.2	77.5
race			
	white	84.6	84.2
	black	5.0	9.2
	hispanic	5.0	2.5
age			
	25	56.1	42.5
	26-35	17.6	15.8
	36-45	7.8	10.8
	46-55	11.3	20.0
	56-65	6.6	10.8
marital status	single	54.2	40.8
	divorced	2.5	5.0
	married	37.6	45.8
	widowed	2.8	6.7
# of dependents	1	70.5	77.5
	2	12.2	6.7
	3	8.5	7.5
	4	2.5	3.3
	5	2.2	1.7
	7	.3	-
education			
	high school	1.9	-
	high school	41.4	32.5
	some college	39.5	36.7
	college degree	11.9	19.2
	graduate work	.6	3.3
# of times unemployed	never	61.4**	49.2
	1	11.3	22.5
	2	14.4	19.2
	3	7.5	6.7
	4	3.4	2.5
	5	.9	-
	6	.6	-
	7	.3	-

* missing data have not been included in this table, the percentages, therefore, do not total 100.

** for both the unemployed and the employed, interviews indicated that the number of times unemployed may not have been reliably reported due to different interpretations of "being unemployed."

occupational category. That there were proportionately more unemployed than employed men may suggest that men who have had these jobs are less willing to accept reemployment in this occupational category due to its percevied status to a man, which is consistent with one of the hypothesized sex differences in the study. The small representation of racial minorities was found to be due primarily to educational limitations and/or language problems especially among the unemployed. It should be noted that due to the small number of minorities, the proposed hypotheses relating to race and ethnic background could not be studied. These participants were however, included in all other comparisons.

It is also worth noting that the number of dependents, and times unemployed, may not have been accurately reported. Interviews indicated, for example, inconsistencies in whether or not "one self" should be reported as a dependent. Also, "times unemployed" meant the number of times an individual has qualified for unemployment benefits on separate occasions. This was apparently not clear to some of the participants.

Measurement Instruments

This study seeks to determine differences in work meaning versus job meaning for individuals classified by the Department of Labor as unemployed. It is also of interest to determine some possible implications of such differences for the unemployed, by making comparisons within and between

groups of unemployed and employed individuals. To that end two questionnaires were developed (see Appendices A and B) one which was administered to unemployed participants (Appendix A) and the second to a comparison group of employed participants (Appendix B). Each questionnaire includes three major sections.

Work Meaning

The first section is a combination of scales either adopted from the literature, or developed for the purpose of this study, which address the two dimensions of work meaning, here named acceptability and instrumentality. Of these, the first scale asks the participant to indicate what they mean when they talk about work. The same scale is used as the first scale for measuring job meaning, in that, the statements are the same but the participants are asked to use them to indicate what they mean when they talk about a job. These scales were chosen to detect definitional differences in the concepts of work and job, and were included for survey rather than hypothesis testing purposes.

Work Acceptability. The following six scales were selected, or designed, to measure work acceptability in terms of how important work is to an individual and how much time and energy is spent on the act of working (questions II-VII).

Work Instrumentality. Work instrumentality is measured by three scales, questions VIII-X. These scales address the type of rewards derived from work, how rewarding work is in relation to other activities, and the relative value of

different rewards to the individual. The position of work on the job and off the job are assessed by questions XI-XIII. These questions are designed to measure the relative acceptability of work, in and out of a job situation, when employed and unemployed, and were also included for survey purposes.

Job Meaning

The second section is a selection of scales adopted from the literature, to address the two dimensions of job meaning referred to here as the situational versus personal dimension.

Situational Job Meaning. Questions II-IV (for the unemployed) are measuring perceived stimulus value, structure, and autonomy of last, ideal and expected job situation. These scales are designed to measure similarities versus differences in job perceptions which are indicative of high versus low job meaning. That is, the higher the similarity between, last-ideal-and expected next-job the higher the job meaning.

Personal Relevance. Questions V-VII are measuring job characteristics and the personal relevance of those characteristics to an individual. The scales are focusing on (a) the importance of a set of eight job characteristics to an individual, (b) how descriptive the same characteristics are of that individual's last job, and (c) how descriptive an individual is expecting those characteristics to be of his or her next job. Again the scales are designed to measure

similarities versus differences which are indicative of high versus low job meaning. As opposed to the above scales, however, these are operationalizing the personal dimension of job meaning by addressing the relationships between job characteristics and perceived significance of those job characteristics. As above, the more similarity, the more personal relevance of a job, and thereby, the more job meaning.

The last scale (VIII) in this section consists of a series of questions relating to the relative status of having a job, and what provides a job with that status. The first three of these questions address the relative value of having a job (any job) in comparison to having no job, and the last four questions the relative value of financial versus psychological rewards derivable from job status. These questions were included to provide an indication of job acceptability and instrumentality, similar to work acceptability and instrumentality, but were not analyzed as part of the dimensions of interest for testing the hypotheses.

Personal Data

The third and final section of the questionnaire was designed for obtaining personal data. This section includes a number of personal dimensions which are either biographical or demographical in nature. The dimensions selected were considered important both in their own right as well as being possible moderators for the hypothesized relationships within

and between employment and unemployment.

Since it is of interest as part of this study, to make comparisons between the unemployed and a similar group of employed subjects, two questionnaires were developed. As indicated earlier however, the two questionnaires were kept as similar as possible to facilitate comparisons. In fact, as can be seen in Appendix B, the only difference is that for all three sections, questions referring to either "last job" or "expected next job" for the unemployed were changed and limited to "present job" for the employed. A discussion of the scales and their respective reliabilities and validities will follow.

Pretest - Temporal Stability

Since most of the scales included in the questionnaires have not been well documented in the literature, a pretest was conducted to establish temporal stability of the measures. The participants in the pretest were either full-time undergraduate senior students who had past job experiences (the "unemployed" group), or part/full-time working undergraduate senior students who were presently involved in a job environment (the "employed" group). Form A of the questionnaire was administered to the "unemployed" group of students and form B of the questionnaire was administered to the "employed" group of students. The questionnaires were administered during regular class sessions with five weeks separating the times of data collection.

A total of 60 students completed both administrations of the questionnaire. For matching purposes they were asked to record their social security number but were assured that their responses were strictly confidential. The following section will discuss each of the measures included for hypothesis testing purposes in terms of the pretest findings for temporal stability.

Measures - Work Meaning

Scales 2, 3, 8, 9 and 10 were adopted with modifications from England (1979). The modifications of these scales were primarily in terms of application to a specific referent not content and they will, therefore here be discussed within the context of the referent they were applied to.

Scales 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 were included for the purpose of measuring work acceptability. The concept of work acceptability as here defined, is closely related to the concept of work centrality defined as "a general belief about the value of working in one's life" (p. 17) by the Meaning of Working (MOW) International Research Team (1987). The differences between the present study and the MOW study on this dimension is that here work is not viewed as limited to "paid employment" but as an act that can have a value in and of itself, as well as, be a part of many other activities one of which may be "paid employment". The latter, on the other hand, is specified here as a job with a specific past, present or anticipated future referent and is attributed to have different dimensions from work, as will be discussed

below. Scale 2 was adopted unaltered, while scale 3 made a descriptive distinction between work and job. Scales 4, 5, 6 and 7 were added to this study but are consistent with an assumption that the more work is valued, the more time and energy is devoted to that activity (c.f. MOW, 1987). Test-retest coefficients for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 ranged from .52 to .77 (see Tables 4 and 6). Scale 3 was used to measure the relative value, or importance of work, in relation to other activities, in contrast to scale 2 which only focused on a general belief about the importance of work in one's life. Test-retest coefficients for scale 3 ranged from .35 to .73 (see Table 5).

Scales 8, 9 and 10 were selected to measure a) the type of rewards derived from work (scale 8), b) how rewarding work is in relation to other activities (scale 9), and c) the value of instrumental versus non-instrumental rewards for the perceived "very rewarding" activity (scale 10). Scales 8 and 10 are the same scale adopted from England (1979) to measure "valued working outcomes" but modified to fit the purposes of this study. Table 7 shows test-retest coefficients for scale 8. Of the scale alternatives "income" (an instrumental reward) and "work itself" (a non-instrumental reward) were of most interest for hypothesis testing purposes, and were found to have test-retest coefficients of .53 and .44 respectively. With scale 10 it was of interest to determine if there are differences in preferences for rewards (i.e. instrumental or non-instrumental) when there is freedom to choose any

TABLE 4

Test-Retest reliability coefficient using Pearson product-moment correlation model for scale 2 (question II) including means and standard deviations.

	TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
MEAN	5.23	4.88	.71	.00
SD	1.00	1.19		
N	60	58		

TABLE 5

Test-Retest reliability coefficients using Spearman non-parametrical correlation model for scale 3 (question III) including means and standard deviations.

		TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	MEAN	1.98	2.53	.38	.00
	SD	1.08	1.43		
	N	60	60		
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	MEAN	4.82	4.78	.35	.00
	SD	1.16	1.16		
	N	60	60		
JOB ACTIVITIES	MEAN	2.92	3.48	.38	.00
	SD	1.33	1.33		
	N	60	60		
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	MEAN	4.38	4.68	.73	.00
	SD	1.61	1.40		
	N	60	60		
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	MEAN	2.18	2.40	.47	.00
	SD	1.33	1.56		
	N	60	60		
WORK ACTIVITIES	MEAN	2.62	3.10	.48	.00
	SD	1.30	1.34		
	N	60	60		

TABLE 6

Test-Retest reliability coefficients using Pearson product-moment correlation model for scales 4, 5, 6 and 7 (questions IV, V, VI, VII) including means and standard deviations.

SCALES		TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
4	MEAN	2.43	2.42	.52	.00
	SD	.89	.74		
	N	60	60		
5	MEAN	2.73	2.67	.77	.00
	SD	.95	.77		
	N	60	60		
6	MEAN	2.07	2.07	.55	.00
	SD	.61	.55		
	N	59	60		
7	MEAN	1.92	1.92	.77	.00
	SD	.59	.62		
	N	60	60		

TABLE 7

Test-Retest reliability coefficients using Spearman non-parametrical correlation model for scale 8 (question VIII) including means and standard deviations.

		TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
status and prestige	MEAN	3.51	3.35	.52	.00
	SD	1.67	1.48		
	N	60	60		
income	MEAN	1.63	1.70	.53	.00
	SD	.88	.89		
	N	60	60		
occupied	MEAN	4.07	4.38	.28	.01
	SD	1.41	1.45		
	N	60	60		
contacts	MEAN	2.85	2.92	.47	.00
	SD	1.15	1.18		
	N	60	60		
serve society	MEAN	4.57	4.52	.46	.00
	SD	1.38	1.43		
	N	60	60		
work itself	MEAN	3.17	3.01	.44	.00
	SD	1.50	1.61		
	N	60	60		

activity as the most rewarding (scale 9). Table 9 shows the percentages for each alternative on each of the two measures. It is clear that for the pretest sample non-instrumental rewards were sought by a majority from the activity that they chose as the most rewarding. The overlap in percentages between the two measures was also the greatest for the rewarding aspect of an activity itself (75.8%). For "income" as an instrumental reward the overlap between measures was 36.4%, but this has to be viewed in light of the fact that only 11 chose this alternative, and the pretest sample could not be stratified, due to its size, on each of the sample characteristics that are of interest in this study. If specific sub-samples could have been studied more subjects may have chosen this alternative and the overlap may have been larger.

Scale 9 is the same as scale 3 but with a different referent. In scale 3 it was of interest to determine <u>how important</u> work is in relation to other activities, while in scale 9 it was of interest to see <u>how rewarding</u> work is perceived to be when compared to the same activities. When used as a measure of relative reward value, as in scale 9, slightly higher test-retest coefficients were obtained, specifically for leisure .59 and work .55 activities which were of most interest here for hypothesis testing purposes (see Table 8).

In summary, using a probability level of $\leq .05$ as indicative of significant relationships, scales 2-10 were all

TABLE 8

Test-Retest reliability coefficients using Spearman non-parametrical correlation model for scale 9 (question IX) including means and standard deviations.

		TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
leisure	MEAN	1.35	2.00	.59	.00
	SD	1.19	1.14		
	N	60	60		
community	MEAN	4.72	4.62	.32	.01
	SD	1.25	1.22		
	N	60	60		
job	MEAN	3.05	3.42	.53	.00
	SD	1.17	1.29		
	N	60	60		
religious	MEAN	4.57	4.55	.77	.00
	SD	1.42	1.49		
	N	60	60		
family	MEAN	2.23	2.07	.60	.00
	SD	1.42	1.26		
	N	60	60		
work	MEAN	2.97	3.05	.55	.00
	SD	1.33	1.35		
	N	60	60		

TABLE 9

Summary of test-retest results for scale 10 (question X) reported in percentages of responses to each alternative.

	TEST % (N-60)	RETEST % (N-58)	TEST-RETEST OVERLAP %*
status and prestige	3.4	5.2	50.0 (2)**
income	19.0	8.6	36.4 (11)
occupied	5.2	5.2	66.7 (3)
contacts	15.5	22.0	44.4 (9)
serve society	0.0	1.7	0.0 (0)
itself interesting	56.9	56.9	75.8 (33)

* Test-retest overlap is the percentage of individuals that gave the same response from the first to the second measure.

** The number in parentheses is the number of individuals that selected a particular alternative on the first measure and on which the percentage of overlap is based.

found to have significant coefficients to support an assumption of temporal stability.

Measures - Job Meaning

Scales 16-18 and 19-21 were adopted from Guion and Landy (1972) to measure situational variables of past (or present), ideal and expected next job (scales 16-18), and personal relevance of personal need strength, last (or present) job need satisfaction and expected next job need satisfaction (scales 19-21). The alternatives in scale 16, 17 and 18 were the same only the referents varied as was the case for scales 19, 20 and 21. The items in scales 16-18 were identified through cluster analyses across occupational and organizational categories as representing three clusters termed: stimulus value, structure and autonomy (Guion and Landy, 1972). Table 10 shows item coefficients across pretest measures ranging from .48 to .73 when the referent was last (or present) job. Only last (or present) job as a referent was considered relevant for measuring temporal stability, since only this referent was anchored in actual job experiences.

Personal relevance was identified by Guion and Landy (1972) as "the degree to which an individual's pattern of needs prior to the work experience are satisfied through that experience; i.e. congruence of later need satisfaction and prior need strength" (pp. 316-317). The scale included in this study was based on twin factor analyses performed by Elbert (1967; in Guion and Landy, 1972) on a 105-item pool

TABLE 10

Test-retest coefficients using Pearson product moment correlation model for scale 16 (question II) including means and standard deviations.

STIMULUS VALUE		TEST	RETEST	r	P≤
monotonous-challenging	MEAN	4.00	3.92	.71	.00
	SD	1.78	1.78		
	N	60	60		
deadening-stimulating	MEAN	4.03	4.05	.69	.00
	SD	1.40	1.48		
	N	60	60		
meaningless-meaningful	MEAN	4.68	4.55	.73	.00
	SD	1.32	1.35		
	N	60	60		
dull-exciting	MEAN	4.10	4.03	.73	.00
	SD	1.30	1.47		
	N	60	60		
boring-interesting	MEAN	4.13	4.10	.71	.00
	SD	1.42	1.63		
	N	60	60		
STRUCTURE					
inexact-exact	MEAN	5.11	5.20	.62	.00
	SD	1.52	1.51		
	N	60	60		
general-detailed	MEAN	4.92	5.05	.67	.00
	SD	1.54	1.56		
	N	60	60		
vague-precise	MEAN	5.28	5.15	.65	.00
	SD	1.38	1.42		
	N	60	60		
AUTONOMY					
dependent-independent	MEAN	4.83	5.05	.48	.00
	SD	1.58	1.44		
	N	60	60		
guided-free	MEAN	4.53	4.68	.60	.00
	SD	1.69	1.65		
	N	60	60		
closely supervised-not closely sprvsd.	MEAN	4.73	4.71	.52	.00
	SD	1.75	1.76		
	N	60	60		
governed-unrestricted	MEAN	4.27	4.32	.50	.00
	SD	1.60	1.56		
	N	60	60		

using graduating college seniors and employed college graduates. Using this procedure, seven common dimensions were identified for need strength and later need satisfaction. From each of these dimensions, one item was selected based on factor loading and mean responses to give seven scales, or here to be referred to as dimensions, of personal relevance with maximized independence. These are the first seven dimensions on scales 19-21 in this study. An eighth dimension was added but then excluded in the analyses as inconsistent with the theoretical assumptions, namely, the need for and satisfaction of "adequate pay." All eight of these dimensions were included in the pretest and tested against last (present) job as a referent. The coefficients between the two measures are presented in Table 11. Some of these coefficients, especially with regard to "imaginative" and "recognition" are low as indicators of temporal stability. Interviews with the students indicated, however, that this may be due more to characteristics of the pretest sample than the specific scale dimension. For example, being imaginative seem to become more important but perceived as less descriptive of the last (or present) job of these college seniors as the term progressed toward graduation. On the other hand, "recognition" was improving as a job descriptor as graduation neared, especially for those who presently held a job (note that a lower mean suggest a higher ranking). The above, may be an indication of scale sensitivity rather than unreliability.

TABLE 11

Test-retest reliability coefficients using Spearman non-parametrical correlation model for scale 20 (question V - form B or question VI - form A)) including means and standard deviations.

		TEST	RETEST	r	p≤
imaginative	MEAN	4.28	5.02	.23	.04
	SD	2.24	2.14		
	N	60	60		
something to do	MEAN	3.22	3.78	.45	.00
	SD	2.00	2.03		
	N	60	60		
tell people	MEAN	5.58	5.60	.48	.00
	SD	2.10	2.09		
	N	60	60		
religious beliefs	MEAN	4.67	4.80	.54	.00
	SD	2.70	2.63		
	N	60	60		
to move higher	MEAN	5.88	5.58	.44	.00
	SD	2.17	2.20		
	N	60	60		
recognition	MEAN	4.22	3.67	.31	.01
	SD	1.79	1.93		
	N	60	60		
job conditions	MEAN	4.18	3.92	.43	.00
	SD	2.10	2.04		
	N	60	60		
pay	MEAN	3.48	3.02	.65	.00
	SD	2.39	2.07		
	N	60	60		

Pretest - Internal Consistency

To establish internal consistency of situational job meaning measures, the only scales for which this was an appropriate test, coefficient alpha was computed for each subscale and total scale using the unemployed participants (N=319). Table 12 report the coefficients which ranged from a low of .81 to a high of .95 for the subscales. This is higher than those reported by Guion and Landy (1972) for the same subscales. In their study "ideal job" as a referent before and after employment received subscale coefficients ranging from .68 to .76 and "my job" after employment ranging from .79 to .96 (p. 322).

Pretest - Factor Analysis

To determine if the work and job meaning measures included indeed did measure different dimensions of meaning as here proposed, a factor analysis was performed. Only one scale could not be included in this analyses, that is personal relevance job meaning. This scale could not be included since it was an ordinal scale where the ordering of job dimensions was not indicative of job meaning, but instead the consistency of ordering of job dimensions across different referents (i.e. self, last or present job, and next job) was used as a measure of personal relevance job meaning. All other scales were included.

The factor analyses was performed on each of the work meaning measures and the three situational job meaning subscales. A principle factor with iteration procedure was

TABLE 12

Coefficient alpha for each subscale, total scale, and referent (last, ideal and next), including means and standard deviations for the unemployed group (N=319).

		LAST JOB	IDEAL JOB	NEXT JOB
Stimulus Value	MEAN	20.89	31.42	26.99
	SD	7.60	4.82	6.55
	ALPHA	.92	.93	.95
Structure	MEAN	14.29	15.98	14.78
	SD	4.48	3.64	3.88
	ALPHA	.85	.84	.89
Autonomy	MEAN	16.92	22.64	19.21
	SD	5.73	5.05	6.35
	ALPHA	.81	.89	.92
Total	MEAN	52.10	70.04	60.98
	SD	13.98	11.18	14.34
	ALPHA	.87	.91	.94

followed to improve estimates of communality and a varimax criterion was chosen for simplication of the factor matrix. The data was obtained from the unemployed participants. However, pair wise deletion of missing data and the inclusion of only respondents with either instrumental (income) or non-instrumental (itself interesting) reward values, a necessity given the characteristics of scale 10, only 219 cases were part of the analysis.

Table 13 shows the results from this analysis. As can be seen from this table, factor one is clearly a work meaning factor with high loadings on primarily work acceptability measures, while factor two is a situational job meaning factor with high loadings on all three of the subscales. It should be noted that the MOW International Research Team (1987; see also Harpaz, 1986) using factor analysis for an international target group sample (N=5933) found similar factor loadings on "work centrality" and "valued working outcomes" as dimensions of work meaning, but as indicated earlier there was no separation between work and job in this study.

In summary, the factor analysis lends support to the assumed independence between work and job meaning.

Personal Data

The last part of the questionnaire, addressed demographic and biographic characteristics of the respondent. Of these; sex, race, age, marital status, number of dependents, level of education, days unemployed (form A), and

TABLE 13

Correlation matrix for each of the scales measuring work acceptability and work instrumentality and the subscales of situational job meaning.

SCALES		WORK ACCEPTABILITY 2	3	4	5	6	7	WORK INSTRUMENTALITY 8	9	10	STIMULUS VALUE	STRUCTURE
WORK ACCEPT.	3	.20										
	4	.44	.14									
	5	.44	.08	.41								
	6	.21	.01	.21	.47							
	7	.20	.08	.18	.49	.55						
WORK INST.	8	.10	.07	.03	.14	.00	.02					
	9	.28	.36	.27	.24	.04	.12	.15				
	10	.24	.06	.15	.03	.03	.16	.26	.25			
Stimulus Value		.13	.01	.13	.22	.16	.13	.33	.06	.02		
Structure		.16	.02	.06	.13	.08	.10	.11	.04	.01	.52	
Autonomy		.16	.05	.04	.02	.05	.01	.23	.06	.03	.45	.28

SCALES		BEFORE ROTATION EST. COMMUNALITY	EIGENVALUE	% OF VARIANCE
WORK ACCEPT.	2	.37	2.91	24.2
	3	.16	1.84	15.3
	4	.28	1.47	12.3
	5	.48	1.15	9.6
	6	.39	.92	7.6
	7	.41	.74	6.2
WORK INST.	8	.24	.72	6.0
	9	.27	.59	4.9
	10	.24	.52	4.3
Stimulus Value		.44	.43	3.5
Structure		.29	.40	3.4
Autonomy		.24	.32	2.6

Varimax solution for twelve dimensions of work and job meaning.

SCALES		FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	COMMUNALITY
WORK ACCEPT.	2	.58	.14	.35
	3	.23	.02	.05
	4	.53	.06	.29
	5	.75	.14	.58
	6	.51	.09	.27
	7	.56	.04	.32
WORK INST.	8	.03	.38	.14
	9	.38	.05	.15
	10	.24	.11	.07
Stimulus Value		.12	.88	.79
Structure		.10	.52	.28
Autonomy		.02	.52	.27
Eigen Value		2.30	1.26	3.56
% of Variance		64.6	35.4	100

times unemployed (form A) were primarily for hypothesis testing purposes and to equate the employed and unemployed groups.

Initially it was intended to follow up on unemployed subjects in order to determine if finding a job was related to work and job meaning reported while jobless. To that end form A asked the respondents for their social security number. The purpose for that request and an assurance of confidentiality was given in the introductory explanation of the study, still few of the unemployed were willing to reveal this number and, in general, it was found that such a follow up was neither practically possible nor controllable in a meaningful sense.

Procedure

Approximately fifty percent of the employed and twenty percent of the unemployed participants were recruited by the present writer from private organizations who supported their members' participation in this study. The other fifty percent of the employed and eighty percent of the unemployed participants were recruited through a network of student volunteers. All of the students in the network were either junior or senior business school students currently enrolled in a core business course. The students were asked to volunteer after having received a brief explanation of the purpose of the study and the occupational type of participants needed. After the data had been collected the

students were familiarized with the theoretical issues of the study and the specific hypotheses to be tested. The questionnaires (Appendices A and B) were designed to be self-explanatory so there would be no necessity for the students in the network to provide explanations or answer questions. The students were directed to ask family members, neighbors, friends and former classmates who fit into the occupational category specified either by their present job or their last job. They were not to include present classmates or anyone presently enrolled as a student whether employed or not. The final sample of 120 employed and 319 unemployed did not include five employed and seventeen unemployed participants who failed to complete the questionnaire or whose responses were uninterpretable. Those included came form a wide range of organizational settings primarily in the New York area but also with some representation of New Jersey and Connecticut. The unemployed were primarily located through family connections, but some were also found through privately sponsored help organizations.

Follow-up Interviews

In addition to the questionnaire, ten percent of the participants were interviewed by the present writer in order to determine potential problems of the questionnaire not evident on the pretest, and also to get some general feedback from the participants to the study. Overall, the feedback was positive and the unemployed especially liked being asked about their perceptions of work and job. Questionnaires as

measurement tools, however, do eliminate many of low educational backgrounds, who may still have qualified for jobs in the occupational category of interest. This and other limitations of the design will be discussed below.

The initial intent as indicated in the introduction of form A of the questionnaire was to follow up on the unemployed to see if differences in work and/or job meaning were evident for those who obtained a job within an eight week duration of time and those who did not. This was not possible for the following reasons:

A. Cooperation could not be established with the Department of Labor and their unemployment and employment services due to department policies. It became evident however, that record keeping practices of these services would not have benefitted this study, especially not for follow up purposes, had such cooperation been possible.

B. Interviews with public and private employment services indicated that they very rarely saw someone unemployed in the occupational category of "administrative support including clerical." Reasons given for this included:

   1. Very low unemployment in this occupational category, in this area, at this time.
   2. Few aspire for jobs in this category due to the relatively low pay.

3. Of those unemployed, unemployment is often seasonal and they are rehired again by the same organization. They may even know this at the time they are laid off.
4. When unemployed, many hold other low paying jobs on the side and use unemployment as a means to boost their income.
5. Among those unemployed who want to work and have the qualifications to work but cannot find employment, location is generally the problem and they either relocate or withdraw from the labor market.

In addition to the above it was found in this study that in spite of assurances of confidentiality and anonymity a large number of unemployed still did not want to reveal their social security numbers. All of these factors made a follow up improbable and impossible to control to any meaningful degree.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using the updated version of SPSS (1982). The statistical models were chosen on the basis of scale characteristics and purpose.

The hypotheses of this study were tested using t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) for determining differences between sample groups on interval scales. Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA was used for the same purpose on the ordinal

scales. The nominal scale was analyzed using chi-squares for determining goodness of fit between an expected value and a counted value.

For establishing relationships between scales Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used on interval scales and Spearman's rank order correlation coefficients on ordinal scales. To determine differences between two correlation coefficients for independent samples, significance was tested using Fisher's Zr transformation, and between two correlation coefficients for correlated samples, significance was tested on the basis of t-values as reported in Ferguson (1971).

Design Limitations

Limitations of this study are set by the data collection method, research design and sample characteristics. As in all studies which rely on self-reports of participants the accuracy of the findings depend on ther ability to not, voluntarily or involuntarily, give biased responses and also that sufficient knowledge is available to the respondent to give the demanded feedback. The latter was found to be a problem with unemployed minority racial groups for whom the language of the questionnaire was often not within their realm of literacy. This makes the findings not representative of a large segment of the unemployed population and thereby, limits their generalizability.

An intrinsic defect of rating scales is their proneness to biased error. Especially threatening to validity is the

so called "halo effect" when there is a tendency to give ratings based on a general impression and not on the particular characteristics of a referent. This could have effected the ratings of work and job perception as here measured.

The research design selected for this study also create limitations. A "one-time only" study does not provide information about the causal priorities of the variables. It would require a longitudinal design to establish relationships between antecedents and consequences. On the other hand, a longitudinal design could not be carried out with the participants remaining anonymous which, in turn, could exaggerate response biases and limit generalizabilty due to sample characteristics.

Finally, the voluntary participation of members in the sample, and the reliance on student volunteers for data collection, could bias the sample with regard to specific characteristics which made them volunteer participation.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

WORK MEANING

In this chapter the results of the study will be reported in the order of the stated hypotheses. Hypotheses I A-E specify the relationships between unemployed and employed individuals on the two dimensions of work meaning named acceptability and instrumentality. To determine the significance of differences between the two groups, t-tests were used for the interval scales, Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for the ordinal scales, and chi-square measuring goodness of fit for the nominal scale. A probability level of $\leq .05$ was selected to indicate significant differences or relationships for all data analysis. Tables 14 and 15 present the findings for work acceptability, which it was hypothesized would be higher for employed than unemployed participants with the former giving higher significance to work (hypothesis IA) and devoting more time and energy to work activities (hypothesis IB). It is evident from these tables that employed participants found work more significant in their total life than unemployed participants (scale 2), and that employed individuals spend more time thinking about work (scale 4); on the act of working (scale 5);

TABLE 14

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using t-tests for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means and standard deviations.

SCALES		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	t	P≤
2. How important	MEAN	4.54	5.06	-3.37	.00
is work...	SD	1.45	1.39		
4. How much time...	MEAN	2.24	2.86	-6.20	.00
on thinking...	SD	.89	.94		
5. How much time...	MEAN	2.47	3.12	-7.75	.00
on the act...	SD	.99	.68		
6. How often...	MEAN	1.91	2.11	-3.25	.00
mentally exhausted...	SD	.59	.58		
7. How often...	MEAN	2.04	1.95	1.50	.13
physically exhausted...	SD	.68	.52		

TABLE 15

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 3		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	214.68 (3)	228.94 (4)	1.138	.29
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	209.24 (1)	241.81 (6)	6.225	.01
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	229.81 (6)	187.67 (1)	9.925	.00
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	212.94 (2)	231.74 (5)	1.985	.16
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	221.97 (4)	201.59 (3)	2.670	.10
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	227.46 (5)	192.28 (2)	6.960	.01

and being mentally exhausted from work (scale 6) than unemployed participants. They, the employed, were not, however, more physically exhausted (scale 7) from work as compared to the unemployed. When work was compared in a relative sense to other activities, both work and job activities were ranked significantly higher by employed participants, while community activities were ranked significantly lower by this group when compared with unemployed participants (scale 3). There were no other significant differences. Among the hypothesized findings only scale 7 failed to show significant differences between the two groups. Given the characteristics of scale 3, however, leisure rather than community activities should have shown the reverse difference to work activities between the two groups. As will be seen below, this was most likely not the case due to demographical and biographical differences within the unemployed group. For example, those unemployed less than five weeks ranked leisure activities as the most significant in their lives, while those unemployed more than 26 weeks ranked the same as the least significant (Table 20). Also, leisure activities were significantly more important to unemployed males when compared to unemployed females (Table 25), to younger unemployed participants when compared to older (Table 30), and to single unemployed participants when compared to married (Table 35). With five out of six scales significantly

supporting the hypothesized relationships of work acceptability, it can be concluded that in this study individuals who have a job, as compared to those who do not have either personal characteristics or an environment which reinforces a perception of work (as here defined) as a more acceptable activity.

The instrumentality of work for the employed versus unemployed participants was measured by scales 8, 9 and 10. Again support was found for the hypothesized relationship which stated that the rewards from work are perceived as more non-instrumental to employed individuals (hypothesis IC); work is more rewarding in comparison to other activities to employed individuals (hypothesis ID); and non-instrumental rewards are in general more valued by employed when compared to unemployed individuals (hypothesis IE). Table 16 shows the difference between the two groups in terms of stated work outcomes. It is evident from this table that the largest difference between the two groups was in response to "work itself is basically interesting and satisfying to you" which the employed ranked as their first choice and the unemployed as their last. The employed also saw work as permitting them "to have interesting contacts with other people" more than the unemployed while, the latter, ranked "work keeps you occupied" as their primary work outcome. Income as an instrumental outcome did not, however, show significant differences between the two

TABLE 16

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 8		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	217.76 (4)	212.99 (3)	0.126	.72
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	216.52 (3)	222.08 (5)	0.217	.64
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	207.48 (1)	243.64 (6)	7.262	.01
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	225.15 (5)	198.35 (2)	4.060	.04
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	215.92 (2)	218.10 (4)	0.027	.87
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	232.68 (6)	174.16 (1)	19.197	.00

groups as was predicted. But again subsequent findings indicates that this is attributable to differences within the unemployed group. For example, income is the first or second choice for those participants who had been unemployed for 26 weeks or less but the last choice for those unemployed for more than 26 weeks (Table 21). Income is also more significant for single unemployed participants when compared to the same group of married participants (Table 36). Table 17 shows the differences between the unemployed and the employed participants on how rewarding they perceive different activities. The significant differences were in response to work and job activities, which the employed ranked first and second while the unemployed gave them a sixth and fifth ranking respectively. Community and leisure activities, were ranked first and second by the unemployed and last or second to last by the employed, but due to differences in the distribution of ranks within each group these differences were not significant. In fact, age and marital status (Tables 32 and 37) indicated that leisure is significantly more rewarding to unemployed younger and/or single participants than to their older and/or married counterparts. Table 18 shows the difference in preferred rewards in relation to the previously (scale 9) chosen "very rewarding" activity. As hypothesized the activity chosen as "very rewarding" was primarily seen as rewarding by being "itself...interesting and

TABLE 17

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 9		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	214.83 (2)	226.62 (5)	0.798	.37
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	211.51 (1)	233.93 (6)	2.907	.09
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	225.69 (5)	197.09 (2)	4.590	.03
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	216.58 (3)	221.87 (4)	0.158	.69
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	223.43 (4)	203.24 (3)	2.702	.10
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	231.65 (6)	178.71 (1)	15.729	.00

TABLE 18

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using chi-squares (χ^2) to measure goodness of fit between the two groups on scale 10. Counted (unemployed) and expected (employed) values are included to indicate direction of differences.

SCALE 10	UNEMPLOYED-COUNTED	EMPLOYED-EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	12	5.27	49.976	.00
INCOME	65	52.70		
KEEP OCCUPIED	17	5.27		
INTERESTING CONTACTS	46	44.79		
SERVE SOCIETY	9	5.25		
ITSELF INTERESTING	154	189.70		

satisfying..." (scale 10) by both the unemployed and the employed participants. There were however, significantly less unemployed participants who chose this alternative in comparison to the employed. Instead, the former more frequently chose the other alternatives and among them primarily "it provides you with an income" and "it keeps you occupied" as descriptors of why an activity is perceived as "very rewarding."

Hypothesis II A-D specify the relationships between the two dimensions of work meaning and four stages of unemployment. It is here proposed that work acceptability declines over the four stages of unemployment while work instrumentality varies with each stage. That is; work is acceptable and the rewards primarily non-instrumental in stage one (unemployed less than 5 weeks); work is acceptable and the rewards instrumental in stage two (unemployed 5-14 weeks); work is unacceptable and the rewards non-instrumental in stage three (unemployed 15-26 weeks); and work is unacceptable and the rewards instrumental in stage four (unemployed more than 26 weeks). The same statistical tests as above were applied to the ordinal and nominal scales, while differences on the interval scales were measured using one-way ANOVA since more than two groups were being compared. The results presented in Tables 19-23 indicated no support for the hypothesized relationships between employment stages and work acceptability, and

TABLE 19

Comparisons between unemployment stages using one-way ANOVA for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means.

SCALES		Stage1 (N=49) 1-4wks	Stage2 (N=32) 5-14wks	Stage3 (N=30) 15-26wks	Stage4 (N=150) 26+wks	F	P≤
2.How important is work...	MEAN	4.61	4.25	4.43	4.55	0.489	.69
4.How much time... on thinking...	MEAN	2.45	2.47	2.20	2.15	2.209	.09
5.How much time... on the act...	MEAN	2.43	2.34	2.47	2.55	0.465	.71
6.How often... mentally exhausted...	MEAN	1.94	1.88	1.97	1.93	0.148	.93
7.How often... physically exhausted...	MEAN	2.04	2.16	2.07	2.06	0.233	.87

TABLE 20

Comparisons between unemployment stages using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis, the relative rank within each stage.

SCALE 3	Stage1 (N=53) 1-4wks	Stage2 (N=33) 5-14wks	Stage3 (N=33) 15-26wks	Stage4 (N=158) 26+wks	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	112.48 (1)	132.21 (2)	134.79 (3)	152.59 (6)	10.921	.01
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	135.88 (4)	163.34 (6)	142.89 (4)	136.12 (3)	3.464	.33
JOB ACTIVITIES	127.78 (3)	127.80 (1)	130.23 (1)	149.39 (5)	4.765	.19
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	158.67 (5)	150.12 (4)	151.70 (5)	130.25 (2)	6.594	.09
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	165.46 (6)	142.41 (3)	161.98 (6)	125.58 (1)	15.06	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	122.94 (2)	153.02 (5)	131.98 (2)	145.46 (4)	4.412	.22

TABLE 21

Comparisons between unemployment stages using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis, the relative rank within each stage.

SCALE 8		Stage1 1-4wks	Stage2 5-14wks	Stage3 15-26wks	Stage4 26+wks	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	120.71 (1)	145.65 (4)	129.86 (2)	148.14 (5)	5.474	.14
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	128.13 (2)	118.50 (1)	125.44 (1)	152.17 (6)	10.567	.01
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	145.58 (5)	132.44 (2)	157.33 (4)	137.03 (4)	2.349	.50
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	138.46 (4)	163.77 (6)	154.24 (3)	133.58 (3)	5.144	.16
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	150.29 (6)	141.61 (3)	171.95 (6)	129.67 (1)	9.168	.03
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	130.18 (3)	163.59 (5)	166.38 (5)	132.93 (2)	8.640	.03

TABLE 22

Comparisons between unemployment stages using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parenthesis, the relative rank within each stage.

SCALE 9		Stage1 1-4wks	Stage2 5-14wks	Stage3 15-26wks	Stage4 26+wks	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	120.64 (2)	129.67 (1)	128.47 (3)	150.79 (6)	7.597	.06
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	146.58 (5)	132.06 (2)	166.27 (6)	134.02 (3)	5.356	.15
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	120.06 (1)	135.84 (3)	123.83 (2)	150.70 (5)	7.760	.05
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	145.97 (4)	159.87 (5)	164.71 (5)	129.02 (2)	8.645	.03
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	171.30 (6)	146.00 (4)	163.53 (4)	123.68 (1)	21.143	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	130.71 (3)	168.39 (6)	120.85 (1)	141.34 (4)	6.820	.08

TABLE 23

Comparisons between participants unemployed less than five weeks with those unemployed more than 26 weeks using chi-square (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between groups on scale 10. Counted (stage 4 - unemployed more than 26 weeks) and expected (stage 1 - unemployed less than five weeks) values are included to indicate direction of differences.

SCALE 10	STAGE 4 COUNTED	STAGE 1 EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	6	9.06	14.460	.01
INCOME	28	33.22		
KEEP OCCUPIED	9	9.06		
INTERESTING CONTACTS	20	33.22		
SERVE SOCIETY	6	6.04		
ITSELF INTERESTING	85	63.41		

some support for the opposite of the hypothesized relationships for work instrumentality. There were no significant differences found between stages on scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 measuring work acceptability (Table 19). Scale 3 did show significant differences between stages on the importance ranking of activities,indicating a reversal primarily between stages 1 and 4 in the importance given to leisure versus family activities (Table 20). Unemployed participants in stage 1 perceive leisure activities as their most important, while unemployed participants in stage 4 perceive family activities as their most important, the reverse is true for the activity ranked as the least important. There were no differences between stages as hypothesized for work activities.

If "income" and "work itself" are seen as the rewards most indicative of an instrumental preference and a non-instrumental preference respectively, then as can be seen in Table 21, unemployed participants in stage 4 have the most non-instrumental reward preferences and those in stages 2 and 3 have the most instrumental reward preferences, while the most recently unemployed rank both alternatives relatively high. Work as a way to serve society was also found to differ significantly between stages with those unemployed more than 26 weeks giving this their highest ranking. Table 22 indicates that family activities, in addition to being the most

important (scale 3), are also seen as the most rewarding for those unemployed more than 26 weeks while it is the least important and rewarding to those unemployed less than 5 weeks. Job activities show almost a reversal of this relationship between stages 1 and 4 while religious activities are ranked second in stage 4 but only fourth or fifth by the other stages. No other significant differences were found on scale 9. Only participants in stages 1 and 4 were significantly different in their responses to scale 10 (Table 23). Primarily, the differences indicated that both groups found the previously ranked "very rewarding" activity to be "itself interesting", but more participants in stage 1 than in stage 4 also thought the above activity rewarding for providing "interesting contacts," "income," and "status and prestige."

As indicated above the hypothesized relationships between work meaning and stages of unemployment were not supported. Instead, the first three stages appear relatively similar on the perceptions of work in terms of the importance, and time and effort attributed to that activity. Also work, job and leisure were ranked relatively high by the first three stages in comparison to the fourth stage, both in importance as well as relative reward value. The rewards sought were primarily instrumental by stages 1 to 3 while stage 4 favored family, religious and community activities and primarily

non-instrumental rewards. The lack of support for the hypothesized relationships may be due to differences in the demographical or biographical composition of each group, which needs to be studied separately in regard to each stage. However, the length of unemployment during the 26 weeks of receiving unemployment benefits in these participants does not appear to cause systematic differences on the concept of work meaning. The discussion chapter below will elaborate further on possible explanations for this.

Hypothesis III A-G state relationships between work meaning and demographical/biographical characteristics of the unemployed. The characteristics of interest are: sex, race, age, marital status, number of dependants, education, and number of times previously unemployed. In Hypothesis III A it was proposed that: Work is more acceptable as an activity and less instrumental (financial) in terms of rewards to unemployed women as opposed to men. This hypothesis was supported in part by the findings which suggest that unemployed women are more likely than men to work on the activity perceived as most rewarding (family) for the reward value of the activity in itself (non-instrumental). Men, on the other hand, who closely linked work, job and leisure on importance, were more likely than women to work on the activity perceived as most rewarding (job) for the benefits of income (instrumental) as the reward. Tables 24 and 25

TABLE 24

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using t-tests for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means and standard deviations.

SCALES		MEN	WOMEN	t	P≤
2. How important	MEAN	4.64	4.42	1.26	.21
is work...	SD	1.45	1.42		
4. How much time...	MEAN	2.29	2.18	1.07	.29
on thinking...	SD	.90	.87		
5. How much time...	MEAN	2.35	2.56	-1.92	.06
on the act...	SD	1.01	.97		
6. How often...	MEAN	1.90	1.89	0.08	.94
mentally exhausted...	SD	.64	.52		
7. How often...	MEAN	2.11	1.98	1.65	.10
physically exhausted...	SD	.73	.62		

TABLE 25

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 3		MEN	WOMEN	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.96 (3)	163.32 (4)	4.565	.03
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	153.69 (4)	153.35 (3)	0.001	.97
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	140.81 (1)	164.22 (6)	5.453	.02
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	161.15 (5)	147.54 (2)	1.850	.17
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	178.94 (6)	132.67 (1)	23.999	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.08 (2)	164.01 (5)	5.229	.02

show the findings from the scales measuring work acceptability. There were no significant differences between men and women on scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 (Table 24) On the other hand, men ranked job, work and leisure activities as significantly more important (Table 25) than women on scale 3. The only significant difference between men and women on the rewards derived from work was the importance given by men to "status and prestige" (scale 8; Table 26). Table 27 shows that job activities were perceived as significantly more rewarding by men, while women found family activities the most rewarding. And although both groups found the most rewarding activity itself interesting, men more so than women also perceived it to be rewarding for providing an income and interesting contacts (Table 28).

Hypothesis III B states that: Work is more acceptable to unemployed persons considered white than persons considered either black or hispanic, but there are no differences in the instrumentality dimension of work meaning. This hypothesis could not, however, be tested due to the small number of minority participants. Future studies, which can be better accomodated to differences in languages and educational backgrounds, must focus on this important segment of the unemployed.

Hypothesis III C states that: Work is less acceptable as an activity and more instrumental in its rewards to older unemployed individuals as compared to

TABLE 26

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 8		MEN	WOMEN	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	141.20 (1)	162.95 (6)	4.691	.03
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	145.72 (2)	160.42 (5)	2.716	.10
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	151.06 (3)	156.28 (4)	0.272	.60
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	162.45 (6)	147.46 (2)	2.268	.13
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	159.18 (4)	148.29 (3)	1.206	.27
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	162.16 (5)	145.92 (1)	2.630	.11

TABLE 27

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 9		MEN	WOMEN	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	145.22 (2)	159.87 (5)	2.198	.13
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	156.63 (4)	151.10 (3)	0.313	.58
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	131.47 (1)	170.44 (6)	15.144	.00
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	163.25 (5)	146.01 (2)	2.966	.09
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	180.46 (6)	132.77 (1)	26.263	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	146.69 (3)	158.73 (4)	1.446	.23

TABLE 28

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using chi-squares (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between the two groups on scale 10. Counted (women) and expected (men) values are included to indicate direction of differences.

SCALE 10	WOMEN COUNTED	MEN EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	4	10.23	41.103	.00
INCOME	28	43.49		
KEEP OCCUPIED	8	10.23		
INTERESTING CONTACTS	19	33.26		
SERVE SOCIETY	7	2.56		
ITSELF INTERESTING	99	65.23		

younger unemployed individuals. There was some support for the proposition that work acceptability decline with age up to the age of 55, beyond that age there seem to be a drastic increase in work acceptability. In general, the findings as reported in Tables 29 and 30, suggest that work, job and leisure decline in importance with age up to age 55 for work and job, and family activities replace the significance of the above activities to those age 26-35, 36-45, and 46-55. There were no significant differences between age categories on the instrumentality of work, although work meant significantly more in terms of "status and prestige" to younger individuals, while to keep "occupied" was of relatively greater importance to those above age 25 (Table 31). When activities were ranked on their relative reward value (Table 32), leisure activities received the highest rank and family activities the lowest for those age 25 or less, while participants age 26 or above found family activities more rewarding than leisure activities. Job activities were found to be significantly more rewarding to the youngest and the oldest age categories, in comparison to those in between. Table 33 shows why the "very rewarding" activity is perceived as rewarding. Here the youngest age category ($\leq$ 25) was used for developing expected values against which the subsequent categories could be compared. Overall, the findings suggest that income and contacts were more significant rewards for those

TABLE 29

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using ANOVA for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means.

SCALES		≤25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	F	P≤
2. How important is work...	MEAN	4.71	4.08	4.71	4.00	5.10	4.101	.00
4. How much time... on thinking...	MEAN	2.27	2.07	2.08	2.49	2.35	1.484	.21
5. How much time... on the act...	MEAN	2.42	2.39	2.56	2.66	2.80	1.133	.34
6. How often... mentally exhausted...	MEAN	1.90	1.98	1.96	1.83	1.90	0.432	.79
7. How often... physically exhausted...	MEAN	2.01	2.19	2.04	2.09	2.00	0.766	.55

TABLE 30

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 3		≤25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	145.40 (1)	148.13 (2)	192.64 (5)	176.61 (5)	212.45 (6)	17.123	.00
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	153.46 (4)	165.91 (4)	155.64 (3)	140.42 (2)	194.72 (5)	5.904	.21
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	148.15 (2)	163.25 (3)	218.54 (6)	175.87 (4)	114.77 (1)	20.050	.00
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	154.41 (5)	183.14 (6)	136.76 (2)	152.37 (3)	141.70 (3)	6.892	.14
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	172.09 (6)	144.49 (1)	105.67 (1)	123.96 (1)	164.17 (4)	21.850	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	151.70 (3)	166.21 (5)	164.48 (4)	178.58 (6)	129.65 (2)	5.433	.25

TABLE 31

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 8		<25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	χ^2	P<
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	144.95 (1)	156.56 (2)	194.46 (6)	184.74 (6)	167.52 (6)	11.422	.02
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	148.22 (2)	167.99 (5)	179.36 (5)	171.42 (4)	157.87 (3)	6.469	.17
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	164.16 (6)	153.62 (1)	173.08 (4)	152.08 (3)	99.70 (1)	10.435	.03
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	154.95 (3)	160.87 (3)	128.46 (1)	179.75 (5)	166.87 (5)	54243	.25
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	156.43 (4)	175.47 (6)	134.28 (2)	139.24 (2)	163.77 (4)	5.693	.22
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	159.81 (5)	162.94 (4)	161.70 (3)	129.53 (1)	151.60 (2)	4.012	.40

TABLE 32

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 9		≤25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	χ^2	P<
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.48 (1)	147.35 (2)	164.26 (4)	191.14 (6)	250.05 (6)	34.355	.00
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	159.76 (4)	162.43 (5)	138.18 (3)	136.99 (2)	177.07 (5)	4.459	.35
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	147.14 (2)	158.13 (4)	209.46 (6)	182.26 (5)	129.55 (2)	15.723	.00
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	163.95 (5)	153.70 (3)	128.98 (1)	161.58 (4)	131.85 (4)	5.347	.25
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	173.68 (6)	146.79 (1)	130.70 (2)	124.37 (1)	130.45 (3)	18.228	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	157.99 (3)	168.19 (6)	171.04 (5)	143.49 (3)	123.77 (1)	5.169	.27

TABLE 33

Comparisons between unemployed participants age ≤ 25 and those 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56-65 using chi-squares for measuring goodness of fit for scale 10. Counted (25+) and expected (≤25) values are included to indicate direction of differences. Only items with an expected cell frequency of 5 or more are included in the analysis. The expected values are based on N = 170.

SCALE 10	26-35 COUNTED (N=54)	≤25 EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	5	13.66	9.213	.01
CONTACTS	7	10.80		
ITSELF INTERESTING	31	23.51		
	36-45 COUNTED (N=25)	≤25 EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	4	6.32	6.311	.05
CONTACTS	3	5.00		
ITSELF INTERESTING	18	10.88		
	46-55 COUNTED (N=35)	≤25 EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	7	8.85	9.481	.01
CONTACTS	1	7.00		
ITSELF INTERESTING	23	15.24		
	56-65 COUNTED (N=17)	≤25 EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
ITSELF INTERESTING	7	7.40	.022	.90*

*Based on df=1

participants age 25 or less, while the reward value of the activity itself was of relatively greater importance to those aged 26-55. For those above age 55, no reliable comparisons could be made due to the low N(17) and the number of cells in the analyses, but there were no differences suggested by the data.

Hypothesis III D states that: For unemployed married individuals, in comparison to single individuals, work and family are more acceptable as activities, but the rewards sought from work and non-work activities are primarily non-instrumental as a person or family gets used to living on less income.

Response differences to scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 generally supported that work is more acceptable to married as compared to single unemployed participants, although only scales 5 and 6 showed significant differences (Table 34). These differences indicated that married participants perceive themselves as spending more time on the act of working (scale 5) and were more often mentally exhausted from work (scale 6) than single participants. There were no significant differences on the importance ranking of work activities between the two groups, but leisure and job activities were significantly more important to single participants while family activities were significantly more important to married participants (Table 35).

In terms of valued work outcomes, "status and

TABLE 34

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using t-tests for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means and standard devations.

SCALES		SINGLE	MARRIED	t	P≤
2. How important	MEAN	4.52	4.57	-0.32	.75
is work...	SD	1.41	1.48		
	N	159	117		
4. How much time...	MEAN	2.19	2.30	-0.98	.33
on thinking...	SD	0.87	0.91		
	N	172	118		
5. How much time...	MEAN	2.26	2.80	-4.56	.00
on the act...	SD	0.87	1.05		
	N	172	119		
6. How often...	MEAN	1.83	2.00	-2.46	.02
mentally exhausted...	SD	0.54	0.62		
	N	173	119		
7. How often...	MEAN	2.01	2.13	-1.45	.15
physically exhausted...	SD	0.63	0.74		
	N	172	119		

TABLE 35

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 3		N=172 SINGLE	N=119 MARRIED	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	127.83 (1)	173.64 (6)	21.693	.00
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	144.58 (4)	148.05 (3)	0.129	.72
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	135.79 (2)	162.07 (5)	7.100	.01
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	151.56 (5)	137.85 (2)	1.936	.16
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	166.77 (6)	114.49 (1)	31.709	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.81 (3)	153.32 (4)	1.359	.24

prestige" and "income" were significantly more important to single participants (Table 36). Family and religious activities were found to be significantly more rewarding to married participants, while leisure and job activities were more rewarding to single participants (Table 37). And the activity "itself" was seen as significantly more rewarding to married participants, while "income" and "contacts" were mentioned comparatively more frequently by single participants (Table 38).

Hypothesis III E states that: For unemployed individuals with more than one (themselves) dependent, in comparison with those who have only one dependent, work and family are more acceptable as activities but rewards sought from work are more instrumental (financial) as the number of dependants increase. Too few respondents indicated more than three dependents to allow for meaningful analyses. Therefore, the comparisons are between those with one, two or three dependents.

This hypothesis was in part supported by the findings which suggest that those with two dependents spend more time on the act of working than those with one or three dependents, and are also more often mentally exhausted from work than the other two groups (Table 39). Job activities were given significantly lower importance rankings as the number of dependents increased, while family activities were given significantly higher rankings by those with two or more dependents (Table 40).

TABLE 36

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 8	N=173 SINGLE	N=119 MARRIED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	130.72 (1)	168.08 (6)	14.317	.00
INCOME	136.86 (2)	160.52 (5)	7.20	.01
OCCUPIED	154.05 (6)	135.53 (1)	3.525	.06
CONTACTS	142.42 (3)	152.43 (4)	1.044	.31
SERVE SOCIETY	151.89 (5)	136.32 (2)	2.559	.11
WORK ITSELF	150.50 (4)	138.21 (3)	1.558	.21

TABLE 37

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 9	N=172 SINGLE	N=119 MARRIED	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	125.65 (1)	175.42 (6)	26.214	.00
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	151.72 (4)	137.73 (3)	2.069	.15
JOB ACTIVITIES	135.37 (2)	161.37 (5)	6.976	.01
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	157.87 (5)	128.84 (2)	8.708	.00
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	169.23 (6)	112.43 (1)	38.954	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	145.15 (3)	147.23 (4)	0.045	.83

TABLE 38

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using chi-squares (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between the two groups on scale 10. Counted (married) and expected (single) values are included to indicate direction of differences. Only itmes with an expected cell frequency of 5 or more are included in the analysis. The expected frequencies are based on N=166.

SCALE 10	N=114 MARRIED COUNTED	SINGLE EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	4	5.49	31.583	.00
INCOME	18	27.47		
KEEP OCCUPIED	6	6.18		
INTERESTING CONTACTS	7	24.04		
ITSELF INTERESTING	74	48.07		

TABLE 39

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two, or three dependents using one-way ANOVA for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means.

		NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALES		1	2	3	F	P<
2. How important is work...	MEAN	4.52	4.59	4.13	0.948	.39
	N	210	39	24		
4. How much time... on thinking...	MEAN	2.22	2.42	2.04	1.497	.23
	N	219	38	25		
5. How much time... on the act...	MEAN	2.38	2.82	2.36	3.298	.04
	N	219	38	25		
6. How often... mentally exhausted...	MEAN	1.87	2.16	1.72	5.959	.00
	N	219	38	25		
7. How often... physically exhausted...	MEAN	2.03	2.08	1.88	0.754	.47
	N	219	38	25		

TABLE 40

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 3		1 (N=225)	2 (N=39)	3 (N=27)	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	133.28 (2)	155.04 (6)	160.93 (5)	4.538	.10
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	139.89 (5)	133.50 (2)	127.61 (3)	0.681	.71
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	133.01 (1)	147.70 (4)	175.22 (6)	6.629	.04
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	137.56 (4)	148.42 (5)	124.80 (2)	1.300	.52
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	147.08 (6)	97.81 (1)	116.43 (1)	16.064	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	136.55 (3)	145.69 (3)	145.69 (4)	0.619	.73

Income was ranked significantly higher as a work outcome by those with three dependents especially in comparison with participants listing two dependents (Table 41), and family and religious activities were both seen as significantly more rewarding with increasing number of dependents (Table 42). Among the rewards chosen for the "very rewarding" activity, those with two or more dependents were significantly more likely to perceive it as "itself interesting" while those with one dependent were more likely to perceive it as rewarding for providing an "income" or "contacts" (Table 43). In other words, with increasing number of dependents, work is associated with income (this relationship was curvilinear) while an activity perceived as "very rewarding" (mainly family and religious activities) was valued for being themselves "basically interesting and satisfying."

Hypothesis III F states that: The higher the level of education of the unemployed the more acceptable and non-instrumental the meaning of work.

This hypothesis was supported by some of the measurement instruments. Table 44 showed significant differences between levels of education on how important work is in a persons total life (scale 2). Those with some college gave the highest importance rating, followed by college graduates, while those with only high school gave the lowest rating to the importance of work, but

TABLE 41

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 8		1 (N=225)	2 (N=39)	3 (N=27)	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	135.88 (3)	135.86 (4)	161.22 (6)	2.209	.33
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	135.38 (2)	164.00 (6)	126.78 (2)	5.951	.05
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	139.96 (5)	124.96 (2)	146.57 (3)	1.426	.49
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	133.21 (1)	159.61 (5)	154.26 (5)	4.679	.10
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	142.50 (6)	122.65 (1)	114.83 (1)	4.273	.12
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	137.27 (4)	131.70 (3)	149.00 (4)	0.709	.70

TABLE 42

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 9		1 (N=225)	2 (N=39)	3 (N=27)	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	133.89 (1)	150.35 (6)	156.57 (5)	2.903	.23
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	139.96 (4)	133.01 (2)	127.70 (5)	0.706	.70
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	134.41 (2)	141.41 (4)	166.04 (6)	3.495	.17
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	142.37 (5)	137.35 (3)	98.15 (1)	6.691	.04
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	146.22 (6)	109.55 (1)	106.93 (2)	12.706	.00
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	135.51 (3)	149.80 (5)	142.33 (4)	1.135	.57

TABLE 43

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using chi-squares (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between groups for scale 10. Counted (2 or 3 dependents) and expected (1 dependent) values are included to indicate direction of differences. Only items with an expected cell frequency of 5 or more are included in the analysis. The expected frequencies are based on N=214.

SCALE 10	2 DEP. COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	2	9.06	18.583	.00
CONTACTS	1	7.28		
ITSELF INTERESTING	28	16.69		

SCALE 10	3 DEP. COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	0	5.96	13.370	.00
ITSELF INTERESTING	20	10.98		

TABLE 44

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using ANOVA for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means.

SCALES		LEVEL OF EDUCATION* HIGH SCHOOL	SOME COLLEGE	COLLEGE GRAD	F	P≤
2. HOW IMPORTANT IS WORK...	MEAN	4.22	4.77	4.48	4.517	.01
	N	129	116	33		
4. HOW MUCH TIME... ON THINKING...	MEAN	2.26	2.20	2.24	0.129	.88
	N	127	123	37		
5. HOW MUCH TIME... ON THE ACT...	MEAN	2.44	2.44	2.54	0.166	.85
	N	127	123	37		
6. HOW OFTEN... MENTALLY EXHAUSTED...	MEAN	1.91	1.89	1.86	0.107	.90
	N	127	123	37		
7. HOW OFTEN... PHYSICALLY EXHAUSTED...	MEAN	2.09	2.02	1.97	0.661	.52
	N	127	123	37		

* Too few participants had less than a high school education to allow for meaningful comparisons.

there were no other scales that showed significant differences between groups on work acceptability (Tables 44 and 45).

The scales measuring work instrumentality indicated significant differences between levels of education and perceptions of work as being "itself...basically interesting and satisfying...", with college graduates giving this alternative the highest ranking (Table 46). The reverse relationship was found for work as a means to "keep occupied", which was given the highest ranking by those with high school as their level of education. There were no significant differences between levels of education and perceptions of how rewarding activities are, nor were there any differences in why an activity was perceived as "very rewarding" (Tables 47 and 48).

Hypothesis III G states that: Work is more acceptable and non-instrumental (psychological) for individuals who have never been unemployed before, when compared to individuals who have had a history of unemployment. There were no significant differences supporting this hypothesis with regard to the scales measuring work acceptability (Tables 49 and 50). Only one significant difference on the scales used to measure work instrumentality suggested any difference between groups (Table 51), and this difference suggested that participants with one previous unemployment experience were more likely to see work as a means "to have

TABLE 45

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		LEVEL OF EDUCATION				
SCALE 3		N=118 HIGH SCHOOL	N=125 SOME COLLEGE	N=37 COLLEGE GRAD	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.86 (4)	143.18 (6)	127.12 (2)	1.232	.55
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	149.33 (6)	132.22 (1)	136.78 (5)	3.005	.22
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	143.81 (5)	142.57 (5)	122.96 (1)	2.095	.35
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	138.00 (1)	136.00 (2)	159.85 (6)	2.723	.26
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.70 (3)	138.44 (3)	136.11 (4)	0.204	.90
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	141.02 (2)	141.32 (4)	136.05 (3)	0.135	.94

TABLE 46

Comparisons between unemployed participants at different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		LEVEL OF EDUCATION				
SCALE 8		N=118 HIGH SCHOOL	N=125 SOME COLLEGE	N=37 COLLEGE GRAD	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	150.67 (5)	132.25 (2)	131.96 (3)	3.693	.16
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	145.20 (3)	138.55 (5)	132.08 (4)	1.133	.57
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	127.87 (1)	145.47 (6)	163.97 (6)	6.709	.04
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	147.00 (4)	137.92 (4)	128.47 (2)	1.797	.41
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	142.98 (2)	137.41 (3)	135.34 (5)	0.427	.81
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	158.56 (6)	127.45 (1)	118.96 (1)	12.082	.00

TABLE 47

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		LEVEL OF EDUCATION				
SCALE 9		N=118 HIGH SCHOOL	N=125 SOME COLLEGE	N=37 COLLEGE GRAD	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	142.69 (4)	138.46 (2)	136.59 (4)	0.258	.88
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	136.68 (1)	141.06 (5)	147.01 (5)	0.533	.77
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	144.75 (5)	140.17 (4)	124.27 (1)	1.887	.39
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	140.13 (3)	135.43 (1)	154.89 (6)	1.726	.42
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	137.20 (2)	144.15 (6)	135.01 (3)	0.742	.69
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	145.72 (6)	138.59 (3)	126.49 (2)	1.731	.42

TABLE 48

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using chi-squares (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between groups for scale 10. Counted (some college or college graduates) and expected (high school) values are included to indicate direction of differences. Only items with an expected cell frequency of 5 or more are included in the analyses. The expected cell frequencies are based on N=127.

SCALE 10	SOME COLLEGE COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	21	28.02	2.469	.50
OCCUPIED	7	7.69		
CONTACTS	22	20.17		
ITSELF INTERESTING	62	59.56		

SCALE 10	COLLEGE GRAD COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	8	8.27	2.986	.30
CONTACTS	2	5.79		
ITSELF INTERESTING	20	17.09		

TABLE 49

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using ANOVA for scales 2, 4, 5, 6 and 7 including means to indicate direction of differences.

SCALES		NUMBER OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED 0	1	2	3	F	P≤
2. How important is work...	MEAN	4.51	4.39	4.60	4.76	0.446	.72
	N	179	36	42	34		
4. How much time... on thinking...	MEAN	2.26	1.97	2.35	2.29	1.382	.25
	N	184	36	46	35		
5. How much time... on the act...	MEAN	2.58	2.42	2.26	2.40	1.509	.21
	N	184	36	46	35		
6. How often... mentally exhausted...	MEAN	1.92	1.92	1.85	1.91	0.213	.89
	N	184	36	46	35		
7. How often... physically exhausted...	MEAN	2.07	2.06	1.98	2.06	0.200	.90
	N	219	38	25			

TABLE 50

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 3 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
SCALE 3		N=193 0	N=36 1	N=46 2	N=35 3	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	161.38 (6)	134.11 (1)	145.82 (3)	157.79 (3)	3.590	.31
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	158.81 (5)	142.20 (2)	138.42 (1)	168.60 (6)	3.719	.29
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	153.05 (2)	159.20 (5)	158.42 (4)	161.46 (4)	0.422	.94
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	154.68 (3)	163.33 (6)	143.67 (2)	163.09 (5)	1.391	.71
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	151.12 (1)	158.40 (4)	161.23 (6)	155.76 (2)	0.708	.87
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	157.14 (4)	146.28 (3)	159.71 (5)	146.03 (1)	0.970	.81

TABLE 51

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 8 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
SCALE 8		N=193 0	N=36 1	N=46 2	N=35 3	χ^2	P≤
STATUS AND PRESTIGE	$\bar{R}$	144.97 (1)	172.58 (5)	175.30 (6)	165.26 (4)	6.870	.08
INCOME	$\bar{R}$	153.31 (3)	173.60 (6)	163.75 (4)	138.14 (1)	4.333	.23
OCCUPIED	$\bar{R}$	154.12 (5)	143.43 (2)	168.16 (5)	158.89 (3)	1.735	.63
CONTACTS	$\bar{R}$	158.98 (6)	118.40 (1)	160.79 (3)	167.50 (5)	7.631	.05
SERVE SOCIETY	$\bar{R}$	153.66 (4)	151.15 (3)	147.41 (1)	171.81 (6)	1.778	.62
WORK ITSELF	$\bar{R}$	152.80 (2)	155.85 (4)	160.71 (2)	154.43 (2)	0.307	.96

interesting contact with other people." There were no differences between groups on how rewarding activities were perceived to be, nor on why they were perceived as rewarding (Tables 52 and 53).

Table 54 summarizes the findings for the three sets of hypotheses relating to work meaning. As can be seen from this table the most significant and consistent differences across measurement instruments to both the dimensions of work acceptability and work instrumentality were in regard to unemployment status. Employed participants rated, ranked and selected work activities and non-instrumental (work) rewards significantly higher and more frequently than unemployed participants. Among the unemployed participants there was no one demographical or biographical characteristic that strongly suggested a significant difference in work meaning. The highest work meaning was found for married individuals and for individuals with two dependents, but for each of these only three out of eight measures selected as the most indicative of high work meaning were significantly different from other groups of participants within each category. Instead, an individual with the most work meaning among the unemployed appears to have one or a combination of the following characteristics for high work acceptability: male, 56-65 years of age, married with two dependents. For work instrumentality, or a high score on valuing the non-instrumental outcome

TABLE 52

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 9 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		NUMBER OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
SCALE 9		N=193 0	N=36 1	N=45 2	N=35 3	χ^2	P≤
LEISURE ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	161.51 (6)	142.81 (2)	141.06 (2)	149.57 (1)	3.108	.38
COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	159.02 (5)	164.07 (5)	134.42 (1)	149.96 (2)	3.467	.33
JOB ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	152.20 (3)	135.32 (1)	170.58 (6)	170.67 (5)	4.546	.21
RELIGIOUS ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	155.28 (4)	152.65 (4)	148.54 (3)	164.14 (4)	0.653	.88
FAMILY ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	151.91 (2)	165.96 (6)	160.11 (4)	154.21 (3)	1.111	.77
WORK ACTIVITIES	$\bar{R}$	149.88 (1)	150.87 (3)	167.03 (5)	172.01 (6)	2.902	.41

TABLE 53

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using chi-squares (χ^2) for measuring goodness of fit between groups on scale 10. Counted (1, 2 or 3 times unemployed) and expected (no previous unemployment) values are included to indicate direction of differences. Only items with an expected cell frequency of 5 or more are included in the analyses. The expected cell frequencies are based on N=191.

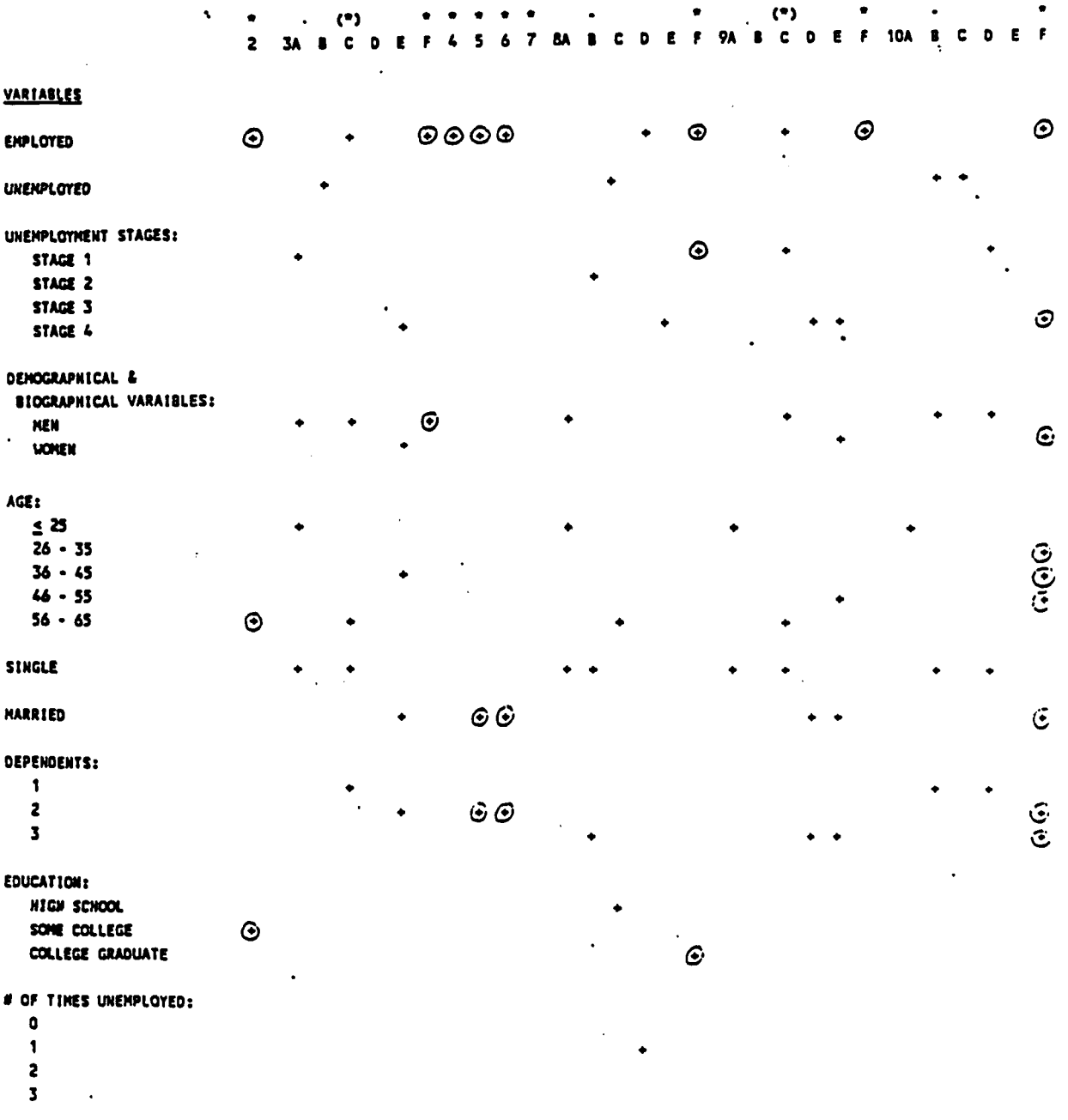
SCALE 10	1 TIME COUNTED (N=36)	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	4	7.39	1.708	.20
ITSELF INTERESTING	19	17.37		

SCALE 10	2 TIMES COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	12	9.78	.567	.80
CONTACTS	6	6.36		
ITSELF INTERESTING	22	22.99		

SCALE 10	3 TIMES COUNTED	EXPECTED	χ^2	P≤
INCOME	5	5.22	.139	.80
ITSELF INTERESTING	11	12.26		

TABLE 54

SCALES



* = WORK MEANING (IE. WORK IS ACCEPTABLE AND THE PERCEIVED REWARDS NON-INSTRUMETNAL)

(*) = JOB MEANING (TO BE DISCUSSED UNDER JOB MEANING)

· = INSTRUMENTAL WORK MEANING

of an activity, a combination of the following characteristics were found to support high work meaning: recently unemployed or unemployed more than twenty-six weeks, a female, 26-55 years of age, married with two or three dependents, graduated from college.

JOB MEANING

Job meaning is proposed as the relationship between: a) ideal, experienced and expected situational job characteristics, and b) personal need strength versus experienced and expected personal need satisfaction. The higher the correlations between the three references of a and b the higher the job meaning for any particular group. To determine the relationship between referents of job meaning, Pearson product-moment coefficients were computed for the rating scales measuring situational variables. For personal relevance, Spearman rank order coefficients were computed to determine relationships between referents on this dimension. To establish significant differences between two correlation coefficients for independent samples Fisher's Zr transformation (Ferguson, 1971) was performed.

Tables 55 and 56 summarize the findings from the above described comparisons for each group and subgroup of interest in this study. However, for a discussion of

TABLE 55

SITUATIONAL JOB MEANING

	UNMP	EMPL	** r1/r2 P ≤	UNEMPL STAGES ST1	ST2	ST3	ST4	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	r1/r4 P ≤	DEMOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES MEN	WMN	r1/r2 P ≤	AGE ≤25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	r1/r4 P ≤	r1/r5 P ≤
SITUATIONAL@																						
STIMULUS VALUE																						
I * L	.39	.26		.34	.23	.07	.41				.20	.43	.05	.37	.38	.66	.34	.03				
I * N	.40			.37	.26	.51	.34				.28	.39		.46	.63	.07	.21	.50		.02		
L * N	.38			.36	.35	.20	.40				.17	.49	.01	.45	.44	.01	.62	.13		.02		.02
STRUCTURE																						
I * L	.31	.11		.27	.08	.12	.25				.07	.37	.02	.26	.24	.42	.45	.42				
I * N	.44			.39	.12	.63	.36				.33	.46		.46	.59	.25	.15	.75				
L * N	.39			.29	.60	.35	.32				.25	.45		.39	.48	.12	.58	.32				
AUTONOMY																						
I * L	.49	.31	.05	.30	.19	.39	.52				.29	.56	.01	.49	.37	.44	.60	.66				
I * N	.42			.21	.56	.45	.43				.31	.48		.39	.60	.02	.51	.36				
L * N	.35			.29	.47	.22	.30				.12	.49	.001	.29	.52	.13	.49	.24				
TOTAL SCALE																						
I * L	.49	.32		.31	.14	.28	.52				.20	.58	.001	.46	.47	.61	.57	.43				
I * N	.46			.25	.30	.60	.44				.30	.50	.05	.47	.71	.06	.37	.53	.05	.05		
L * N	.45			.37	.60	.32	.41				.21	.57	.001	.45	.64	.01	.63	.10		.05		
N	319	120		54	32	33	161				135	173		179	56	25	36	21				

@ I = IDEAL JOB CHARACTERISTICS
L = LAST OR (FOR THE EMPLOYED) PRESENT JOB EXPERIENCED CHARACTERISTICS
N = NEXT JOB EXPECTED CHACTERISTICS

* P < .05
** TO HIGHLIGHT SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES ONLY THOSE REACHING THE P < .05 LEVEL ARE REPORTED

TABLE 55

SITUATIONAL JOB MEANING

	SNGL	MRRD	r1/r2 P ≤	DEPENDENTS 1	2	3	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	EDUCATION H.S.	S.C.	C.G.	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	# TIMES UNEMPLOYED 0	1	2	3	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	r1/r4 P ≤
SITUATIONAL																				
STIMULUS VALUE																				
I * L	.19	.48	.01	.26	.37	.68		.02	.42	.23	.09			.42	.26	.32	.10			
I * N	.32	.36		.32	.54	.12			.40	.33	.30			.42	.24	.28	.27			
L * N	.34	.38		.35	.57	.30			.43	.27	.37			.37	.52	.39	.25			
STRUCTURE																				
I * L	.12	.32		.22	.23	.44			.40	.18	-.41		.001	.37	.17	.17	.19			
I * N	.37	.38		.37	.45	.50			.45	.42	-.03		.01	.46	.25	.23	.40			
L * N	.28	.44		.33	.46	.46			.48	.18	.31	.02		.36	.24	.51	.48			
AUTONOMY																				
I * L	.32	.58	.01	.43	.54	.47			.54	.37	.15		.05	.53	.39	.39	.33			
I * N	.33	.42		.41	.27	.38			.59	.25	.26	.05	.05	.40	.34	.43	.47			
L * N	.21	.44	.05	.33	.27	.47			.50	.19	.07	.01	.02	.34	.48	.47	.13			
TOTAL SCALE																				
I * L	.26	.54	.01	.38	.46	.67			.53	.33	-.13		.001	.55	.22	.40	.19	.05		.05
I * N	.34	.48		.41	.43	.25			.53	.32	.23	.05		.44	.33	.43	.41			
L * N	.34	.43		.40	.57	.44			.56	.24	.24	.01	.05	.44	.56	.55	.17			
N	173	120		225	39	27			132	126	38			196	36	46	24			

TABLE 56
PERSONAL RELEVANCE

	UNMP	EMPL	** r1/r2 P ≤	UNEMPL STAGES ST1	ST2	ST3	ST4	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	r1/r4 P ≤	DEMOGRAPHICAL VARIABLES MEN	WMN	r1/r2 P ≤	AGE ≤25	26-35	36-45	46-55	56-65	r1/r2 P ≤	r1/r3 P ≤	r1/r4 P ≤	r1/r2 P ≤
PERSONAL RELEVANCE@																						
IMAGINATIVE																						
I * L	.23	.55	.01	.04	.14	.05	.31				.29	.18		.16	.21	.13	.36	.63				.05
I * N	.49			.23	.38	.46	.54				.47	.51		.43	.53	.54	.62	.62				
L * N	.31			.30	.08	.40	.28				.32	.29		.24	.36	.16	.18	.81				.01
SOMETHING TO DO																						
I * L	.22	.43	.05	.28	.29	.20	.29				.26	.17		.13	.38	.45	.17	.26				
I * N	.51			.46	.30	.58	.52				.52	.51		.47	.59	.51	.48	.51				
L * N	.24			.12	.01	.24	.39				.26	.20		.11	.49	.37	.09	.57	.02			.05
TELL PEOPLE																						
I * L	.44	.54		.54	.43	.53	.45				.43	.44		.38	.35	.48	.55	.73				.05
I * N	.60			.41	.34	.37	.60				.45	.65	.02	.49	.53	.68	.83	.87			.01	.01
L * N	.40			.49	.14	.32	.44				.37	.43		.31	.32	.27	.74	.73			.01	.02
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS																						
I * L	.60	.60		.55	.64	.62	.62				.53	.65		.59	.59	.52	.69	.65				
I * N	.70			.68	.73	.69	.70				.63	.75		.64	.77	.72	.87	.62			.01	
L * N	.72			.71	.83	.61	.77				.62	.79	.01	.72	.69	.57	.78	.74				
MOVE HIGHER																						
I * L	.08	.33	.02	.07	.18	.18	.17				.00	.12		.06	.03	.28	.42	.25			.05	
I * N	.46			.16	.34	.39	.53				.41	.50		.42	.44	.41	.68	.32			.05	
L * N	.13			.28	.08	.03	.19				.11	.13		.11	.29	.32	.25	.40				
RECOGNITION																						
I * L	.17	.19		.04	.31	.38	.31				.04	.27		.13	.06	.19	.54	.44			.02	
I * N	.53			.43	.48	.40	.54				.46	.55		.50	.60	.35	.72	.33				
L * N	.32			.15	.40	.14	.43				.22	.40		.27	.34	.40	.49	.55				
JOB CONDITIONS																						
I * L	.39	.30		.45	.23	.21	.41				.36	.44		.34	.56	.42	.27	.55				
I * N	.63			.59	.34	.61	.66				.65	.63		.65	.64	.61	.53	.51				
L * N	.40			.15	.32	.06	.55			.05	.34	.46		.31	.45	.66	.49	.72		.05		.02
N	316	116		54	32	33	156				134	170		175	56	25	35	21				

@ I = NEED STRENGTH
L = LAST OR (FOR THE EMPLOYED) PRESENT JOB EXPERIENCED NEED SATISFACTION
N = NEXT JOB EXPECTED NEED SATISFACTION

TABLE 56

				PERSONAL RELEVANCE																			
				DEPENDENTS			r1/r2	r1/r3	EDUCATION			r1/r2	r1/r3	# TIMES UNEMPLOYED				r1/r2	r1/r3	r1/r4			
	SNGL	MRRD	P ≤	1	2	3	P ≤	P ≤	H.S.	S.C.	C.G.	P ≤	P ≤	0	1	2	3	P ≤	P ≤	P ≤			
PERSONAL RELEVANCE																							
IMAGINATIVE																							
I * L	.13	.30		.22	.15	.28			.30	.15	.12			.23	.02	.23	.54						
I * N	.42	.58		.44	.67	.64			.48	.45	.47			.48	.46	.55	.49						
L * N	.23	.38		.29	.43	.39			.38	.26	.23			.34	.21	.08	.43						
SOMETHING TO DO																							
I * L	.18	.25		.17	.45	.35			.31	.07	.18			.21	.32	.03	.40						
I * N	.51	.56		.52	.49	.43			.44	.54	.59			.53	.56	.41	.27						
L * N	.16	.33		.20	.36	.45			.21	.22	.28			.26	.29	.31	.11						
TELL PEOPLE																							
I * L	.34	.58	.02	.40	.63	.42			.54	.35	.38			.42	.54	.41	.64						
I * N	.49	.70	.01	.54	.45	.82		.01	.54	.56	.65			.68	.43	.35	.37		.01	.05			
L * N	.32	.52	.05	.36	.61	.47			.47	.33	.25			.42	.55	.30	.04			.02			
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS																							
I * L	.53	.63		.61	.68	.37			.64	.58	.60			.58	.48	.61	.74	.05		.05			
I * N	.63	.75		.68	.66	.71			.78	.62	.74			.70	.60	.69	.76						
L * N	.67	.74		.71	.77	.72			.76	.67	.74			.73	.66	.77	.50						
MOVE HIGHER																							
I * L	.03	.05		.10	.11	.18			.15	.07	.09			.09	.06	.02	.23						
I * N	.40	.47		.45	.36	.68			.43	.48	.43			.41	.55	.44	.72			.05			
L * N	.05	.18		.11	.18	.13			.27	.00	.02	.05		.09	.10	.23	.35						
RECOGNITION																							
I * L	.07	.29		.15	.20	.20			.30	.12	.12		.05	.10	.07	.38	.19						
I * N	.48	.54		.48	.58	.66			.46	.60	.23			.55	.34	.46	.58						
L * N	.26	.34		.30	.34	.25			.48	.17	.34	.01		.29	.34	.34	.50						
JOB CONDITIONS																							
I * L	.35	.45		.35	.54	.68		.05	.37	.46	.24			.40	.22	.37	.56						
I * N	.61	.68		.59	.59	.89		.001	.53	.66	.77		.05	.70	.45	.63	.57	.05					
L * N	.29	.57	.01	.36	.57	.74		.01	.44	.42	.12		.01	.48	.13	.51	.31	.05					
N	172	118		223	37	26			129	125	38			191	36	45	24						

the findings visa vie each hypothesis, it was found helpful to clarify some of these relationships and the direction of differences, by comparing groups using one-way ANOVA for the rating scales and Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for the rank order scales on the total scales and subscales measuring situational variables and personal relevance. It was also found necessary for some of the hypothesized relationships to calculate a value t in order to determine significant differences between correlation coefficients for correlated samples.

The findings will here be presented in the order of the hypothesized relationships. Hypothesis I states that: A job has less meaning to unemployed individuals than to a comparable group of employed individuals. This was to be measured as the relationship between ideal and experienced (past or present) situational job characteristics, and between need strength and experienced (past or present) job need satisfaction. The findings indicated no support for the proposed relationships in regard to the situational job characteristics (Table 55), and one significant difference supporting the reverse relationship, namely higher job meaning of the unemployed on the "autonomy" subscale. The hypothesized relationships were, however, supported by the personal relevance dimension of job meaning (Table 56). There were three significant differences between the unemployed and the employed

participants, indicating that the relationship between need strength and need satisfaction was higher for the employed on the subscales of being "imaginative" having "something to do," and "to move one job higher."

To further understand the relationships within and between the two groups they were compared on each of the subscales. As shown in Table 57 these comparisons indicated that for situational job characteristics the employed rated both present and ideal situational job variables significantly higher than unemployed participants on all three subscales. This, in light of the above coefficients, suggests that the employed rate higher both the ideal and the experienced situational job characteristics than the unemployed, although, reality does not correspond as well with the ideal for the employed as compared to the unemployed. On personal relevance the employed ranked being "imaginative" and having "something to do" significantly higher than the unemployed in need strength and also on need satisfaction (Table 58 and 59). The reverse was true for being able to "tell people what to do" on need strength but not on need satisfaction. These findings are consistent with the high rankings given to job activities on the scales measuring work meaning (Table 54), and support a conclusion that job meaning is higher for employed individuals in comparison with unemployed but, at least for the situational job characteristics, the ideal may

TABLE 57

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using t-tests for scales 16 and 17 including means and standard deviations. The results are reported separately for each subscale.

SCALE 16		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	t	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	20.58	23.00	-3.14	.00
	SD	8.00	6.83		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.94	15.31	-2.99	.00
	SD	4.88	3.96		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.71	18.82	-3.54	.00
	SD	6.08	5.33		

SCALE 17		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	t	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	31.07	32.94	-4.17	.00
	SD	5.67	3.44		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.76	17.22	-3.77	.00
	SD	4.05	3.43		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.49	24.69	-4.78	.00
	SD	5.45	3.75		

TABLE 58

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	225.54 (8)	197.26 (1)	4.437	.04
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	225.24 (7)	198.08 (2)	4.052	.04
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	211.10 (1)	236.97 (8)	3.735	.05
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	215.17 (4)	223.97 (5)	0.434	.51
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	215.10 (3)	224.16 (6)	0.454	.50
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	221.78 (6)	205.62 (3)	1.448	.23
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	215.63 (5)	222.68 (4)	0.272	.60

TABLE 59

Comparisons between unemployed and employed participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		UNEMPLOYED	EMPLOYED	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	291.94 (8)	172.20 (1)	19.721	.00
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	226.68 (7)	186.66 (2)	9.076	.00
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	215.81 (4)	216.52 (5)	0.003	.96
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	218.38 (5)	207.50 (4)	0.665	.42
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	210.90 (3)	228.26 (6)	1.666	.20
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	219.09 (6)	203.57 (3)	1.330	.25
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	209.84 (2)	229.43 (7)	2.123	.15

still be relatively higher than realities for this group.

Hypothesis II states that: For unemployed individuals the meaning of a job changes, and a job has increasingly less meaning as unemployment continues across four stages. It was specified that this change in meaning would alternate between stages, with a sudden drop right after having lost a job (stage 1) then improving after 5-14 weeks (stage 2) of unemployment, then drop again between 15-26 weeks (stage 3) and finally improve slightly when unemployment goes beyond 26 weeks.

There were no significant differences between groups of individuals at different unemployment stages on situational job characteristics (Table 55). There were, however, two significant differences at the $P \leq .05$ level between employed and unemployed participants in the fourth stage of unemployment, suggesting that the latter had higher job meaning than the former. The unemployed participants had a significantly stronger relationship between the ideal and experienced (last) job characteristics on autonomy ($r=.52$ vs. $r=.31$) and total scale ($r=.52$ vs. $r=.32$) as compared to the employed. There was one significant difference between stages on the measures of personal relevance (Table 56). This difference suggested a higher relationship between experienced and expected need satisfaction with "job conditions" for stage four as compared to stage one. There were also significant differences ($P \leq .05$)

between all four stages of unemployment and the employed on need strength and experienced need satisfaction for being "imaginative" with the employed being significantly higher. The employed were also significantly higher than the unemployed in stage three on the relationship between need strength and need satisfaction for "moving one job higher" ($r = .33$ vs. $r = -.18$; $P \leq .01$) and "recognition" ($r = .19$ vs. $r = -.38$; $P \leq .01$). Comparisons using t values within each stage, between ideal (or need strength) and experienced (need satisfaction) and ideal (or need strength) and expected (need satisfaction) found that overall job meaning was expected to be higher on the next job. This was especially true for personal relevance meaning for all four stages and for stages two and three on situational job meaning.

Tables 60 to 63 report the findings from comparing the stages on each of the job meaning measures. On the measures of situational job characteristics, only experienced stimulus value indicated significant differences, with those in stage four rating this dimension higher than any of the other stages (Table 60). On the measures of personal relevance, need strength showed significant differences between stages on the dimensions of "imaginative" and "move higher" with stage one and three respectively giving these the highest ranking (Table 61). On experienced need satisfaction to

TABLE 60

Comparisons between unemployed participants at different stages of unemployment using ANOVA for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means.

SCALE 16		STAGE 1 (N=53) 1-4 WKS	STAGE 2 (N=33) 5-14 WKS	STAGE 3 (N=33) 15-26 WKS	STAGE 4 (N=158) 26+ WKS	F	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	19.74	19.91	16.52	22.28	6.226	.00
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.17	14.15	13.55	14.78	2.022	.11
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.09	16.03	15.27	17.52	2.032	.11
SCALE 17							
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	30.42	31.91	31.73	31.65	1.120	.34
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.59	16.00	16.00	16.02	0.175	.91
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.26	22.97	21.64	22.88	0.686	.56
SCALE 18							
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	25.89	25.36	25.76	27.01	0.793	.50
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.19	14.06	14.70	14.83	0.531	.66
AUTONOMY	MEAN	19.17	17.79	17.48	19.43	1.193	.31

TABLE 61

Comparisons between unemployed participants at different stages of unemployment using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		STAGE 1 (N=54) 1-4 WKS	STAGE 2 (N=33) 5-14 WKS	STAGE 3 (N=33) 15-26 WKS	STAGE 4 (N=160) 26+ WKS	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	125.97 (2)	178.23 (8)	145.47 (6)	136.60 (3)	9.667	.02
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	145.46 (8)	158.21 (6)	158.18 (8)	131.52 (1)	5.422	.14
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	132.16 (4)	149.45 (2)	127.59 (3)	144.13 (5)	2.204	.53
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	137.04 (7)	165.85 (7)	156.27 (7)	133.19 (2)	6.138	.11
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	125.01 (1)	149.79 (3)	109.50 (1)	150.21 (7)	9.815	.02
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	136.44 (6)	156.94 (5)	129.20 (4)	140.81 (4)	2.207	.53
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	126.92 (3)	155.09 (4)	130.20 (5)	144.20 (6)	3.520	.32

TABLE 62

Comparisons between unemployed participants at different stages of unemployment using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		STAGE 1 (N=54) 1-4 WKS	STAGE 2 (N=32) 5-14 WKS	STAGE 3 (N=33) 15-26 WKS	STAGE 4 (N=159) 26+ WKS	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	124.76 (2)	140.61 (3)	160.44 (6)	139.94 (5)	4.135	.25
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	143.86 (5)	128.52 (2)	134.20 (2)	141.33 (6)	1.018	.80
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	124.49 (1)	158.95 (8)	165.55 (7)	135.28 (4)	7.883	.05
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	147.15 (7)	158.58 (7)	138.68 (4)	133.23 (3)	3.370	.34
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	147.84 (8)	141.56 (4)	156.23 (5)	132.78 (2)	3.209	.36
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	139.82 (4)	151.98 (6)	179.24 (8)	128.63 (1)	11.976	.01
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	132.53 (3)	146.83 (5)	133.73 (1)	141.59 (8)	0.973	.81

TABLE 63

Comparisons between unemployed participants at different stages of unemployment using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 21		STAGE 1 (N=54) 1-4 WKS	STAGE 2 (N=32) 5-14 WKS	STAGE 3 (N=33) 15-26 WKS	STAGE 4 (N=156) 26+ WKS	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	120.65 (2)	158.39 (7)	157.86 (8)	135.62 (3)	7.018	.07
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	128.19 (3)	169.22 (8)	141.71 (4)	134.21 (2)	6.315	.10
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	120.13 (1)	158.25 (6)	144.15 (5)	138.73 (7)	5.148	.16
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	137.84 (5)	155.83 (4)	153.50 (7)	131.12 (1)	4.270	.23
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	138.06 (6)	156.95 (5)	124.52 (2)	136.95 (4)	2.865	.41
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	130.31 (4)	139.73 (2)	149.52 (6)	137.87 (5)	1.244	.74
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	141.48 (7)	153.48 (3)	111.39 (1)	138.37 (6)	5.125	.16

"tell people" was ranked highest by stage one and "recognition" by stage four (Table 62), and there were no significant differences between stages on expected need satisfaction (Table 63).

The third set of hypotheses state the relationships between job meaning and demographical-biographical characteristics of the unemployed. In Hypothesis III A it is proposed that: Job meaning is lower for unemployed men as compared to unemployed women when occupation is held constant. This hypothesis was strongly supported, with women having significantly higher relationships on eight of the twelve measures of situational job characteristics (Table 55). On personal relevance however, only two relationships found women to be significantly higher than men. Women were significantly higher on need strength and expected need satisfaction for "can tell people what to do", and in experienced versus expected need satisfaction for not having their religious beliefs interfered with (Table 56). Comparing men and women on the job meaning measures, indicated that women rated experienced stimulus value and structure significantly higher than men on situational job characteristics, and were on all dimensions of experienced, ideal and expected job characteristics giving a higher rating than men (Table 64). On personal relevance women ranked to "tell people," "move higher" and "recognition" significantly lower than men as a need

TABLE 64

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using t-tests for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means and standard deviations.

SCALE 16		MEN (N=135)	WOMEN (N=173)	t	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	19.11	21.88	-3.13	.00
	SD	7.74	7.67		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.31	14.49	-2.16	.03
	SD	4.72	4.75		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.23	17.22	-1.45	.15
	SD	5.80	6.10		
SCALE 17					
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	30.67	31.71	-1.76	.08
	SD	5.27	4.98		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.48	16.09	-1.38	.17
	SD	3.65	4.05		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.59	22.67	-0.13	.90
	SD	5.10	5.28		
SCALE 18					
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	25.54	27.06	-1.83	.07
	SD	7.35	7.10		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.18	14.66	-1.00	.32
	SD	4.25	4.22		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	18.61	19.05	-0.57	.57
	SD	6.90	6.55		

strength (Table 65), although there were no differences between the two on experienced need satisfaction (Table 66). On expected need satisfaction women also ranked to "tell people" significantly lower than men, but there were no other significant differences (Table 67).

Hypothesis III B states that: Job meaning is higher for unemployed racial minorities than for unemployed white majority members when occupation is held constant. As with work meaning however, the small number of participants did not allow for any meaningful comparisons and this hypothesis was left for future studies to research.

Hypothesis III C states that: Job meaning is higher for unemployed older workers when compared with unemployed younger workers within the same occupational group. This hypothesis was not supported on the situational job characteristics, but very well supported on the personal relevance dimensions (Tables 55 and 56). For situational job characteristics those $\leq$ 25 years of age scored higher on the relationships between ideal and expected as well as experienced and expected stimulus value and total scale values, when compared to those age 36-45. On experienced and expected stimulus value the $\leq$ 25 years old were also higher than those age 56-65, but on ideal and expected total scale values the former had less of a relationship than the next age category (26-35 years).

TABLE 65

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		MEN (N=135)	WOMEN (N=172)	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	153.78 (5)	154.17 (4)	0.002	.97
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	161.45 (8)	148.15 (1)	1.728	.19
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	128.63 (1)	173.91 (8)	20.339	.00
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	160.67 (7)	148.76 (2)	1.416	.23
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	140.99 (2)	164.21 (7)	5.33	.02
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	142.95 (3)	162.67 (6)	3.848	.05
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	155.51 (6)	152.81 (3)	0.071	.79

TABLE 66

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		MEN (N=134)	WOMEN (N=170)	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	154.62 (5)	150.83 (4)	0.141	.71
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	159.05 (8)	147.34 (1)	1.378	.24
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	144.82 (2)	158.56 (7)	1.888	.17
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	153.64 (4)	151.60 (5)	0.042	.84
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	149.93 (2)	154.53 (7)	0.210	.65
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	157.00 (6)	148.95 (3)	0.642	.43
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	144.78 (1)	158.59 (8)	1.891	.17

TABLE 67

Comparisons between unemployed men and women using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 21		MEN	WOMEN	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	148.88 (4)	153.53 (5)	0.215	.64
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	159.45 (8)	145.33 (1)	1.985	.16
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	138.96 (1)	161.24 (8)	4.977	.03
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	152.89 (7)	150.42 (2)	0.063	.80
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	147.12 (3)	154.90 (6)	0.605	.44
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	141.42 (2)	159.33 (7)	3.204	.07
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	149.28 (5)	152.34 (4)	0.093	.76

For personal relevance, those ≤ 25 years old were significantly lower on the relationship between need strength and experienced need satisfaction on being "imaginative", to "tell people what to do" (as compared to those 56-65 years old), "to move one job higher", and "receive proper recognition" (as compared to those 46-55 years old). On need strength and expected need satisfaction the ≤ 25 were lower on to "tell people what to do" (as compared to those 46-55 and 56-65 years old), "religious beliefs", and "to move one job higher" (as compared to those 46-55 years old). Finally, on the relationship between experienced and expected need satisfaction the ≤ 25 years old were lower on being "imaginative" (as compared to those 56-65 years old), "have something to do" (as compared to those 26-35 and 56-65 years old), "tell people what to do" (as compared to those 46-55 and 56-65 years old) and adequate "job conditions" (as compared to those 36-45 and 56-65 years old).

Comparing the different age categories of unemployed participants on rating situational job characteristics, the findings indicated significant differences on the ideal stimulus value and structure, with those 46-55 and 56-65 giving the highest ratings respectively (Table 68). Significant differences also indicated that those ≤ 25 years old ranked to "tell people what to do" and "to move one job higher" as of greater importance than any other

TABLE 68

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using ANOVA for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means.

SCALE 16		N=176 <25	N=56 26-35	N=25 36-45	N=36 46-55	N=21 56-65	F	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	19.21	19.89	23.56	24.03	22.95	4.614	.00
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.22	13.70	15.72	14.61	17.10	4.383	.00
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.22	15.66	17.76	18.03	18.62	1.843	.12
SCALE 17								
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	30.58	31.14	32.20	32.03	31.81	0.917	.45
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.56	14.96	17.20	16.00	17.19	2.132	.08
AUTONOMY	MEAN	21.73	23.25	22.84	23.78	23.48	1.844	.12
SCALE 18								
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	26.04	26.20	26.76	26.89	27.24	0.212	.93
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.35	14.20	14.76	14.44	14.71	0.103	.98
AUTONOMY	MEAN	17.83	19.25	19.72	20.81	20.71	2.270	.06

group on need strength (Table 69.) There were no significant differences on experienced need satisfaction between age categories (Table 70), but those ≤ 25 years old expected "to move one job higher" on their next job more than any other age category (Table 71).

Hypothesis III D states that: Job meaning is higher for unemployed married individuals when compared to unemployed single individuals. This hypothesis was consistently supported by the findings both on situational job characteristics and personal relevance.* On situational job characteristics, married participants were higher on the relationship between ideal and expected for stimulus value, autonomy and total scale (Table 55). They were also higher on the relationship between experienced and expected job characteristics for autonomy. On personal relevance, married participants were significantly higher on all three relationships for to "tell people what to do" and on experienced and expected need satisfaction for adequate "job conditions" (Table 56).

Comparisons between single and married participants

* All of the correlations for situational job characteristics, and personal relevance, were higher for married participants as compared to single participants but many failed to reach acceptable levels of significance for differences.

TABLE 69

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		N=176 <25	N=56 26-35	N=25 36-45	N=36 46-55	N=21 56-65	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	154.51 (6)	162.12 (2)	170.08 (8)	150.78 (3)	166.76 (4)	1.265	.87
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	158.83 (8)	175.13 (6)	147.40 (2)	158.43 (4)	109.79 (1)	8.421	.08
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	142.90 (2)	165.87 (3)	166.80 (5)	182.83 (7)	202.95 (8)	13.794	.01
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	152.14 (4)	185.04 (8)	144.72 (1)	144.31 (2)	166.81 (5)	7.519	.11
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	141.23 (1)	172.41 (4)	168.96 (6)	186.69 (8)	190.40 (7)	14.474	.01
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	148.90 (3)	173.03 (5)	169.66 (7)	171.19 (6)	150.19 (3)	4.762	.31
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	153.68 (5)	175.79 (7)	149.86 (3)	141.18 (1)	177.79 (6)	5.061	.28

TABLE 70

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		N=175 <25	N=55 26-35	N=25 36-45	N=35 46-55	N=21 56-65	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	154.50 (3)	158.27 (5)	180.20 (8)	148.39 (3)	146.45 (6)	2.424	.66
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	159.57 (6)	162.21 (7)	152.74 (2)	137.76 (1)	144.24 (5)	2.454	.65
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	150.98 (1)	156.29 (4)	156.56 (6)	169.03 (7)	174.69 (8)	2.255	.69
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	155.01 (4)	162.13 (6)	153.10 (3)	150.94 (4)	160.05 (7)	0.471	.98
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	160.90 (7)	149.95 (1)	145.88 (1)	177.04 (8)	107.98 (1)	9.171	.06
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	164.69 (8)	150.95 (2)	153.30 (4)	145.30 (2)	117.86 (2)	6.228	.18
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	157.13 (5)	153.50 (3)	153.98 (5)	164.47 (6)	141.40 (4)	0.968	.92

TABLE 71

Comparisons between unemployed participants in different age categories using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 21		N=175 <25	N=55 26-35	N=25 36-45	N=35 46-55	N=21 56-65	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	153.66 (7)	154.14 (1)	170.37 (8)	145.12 (2)	167.45 (5)	1.596	.81
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	152.69 (5)	174.08 (8)	153.75 (5)	160.75 (6)	113.55 (1)	7.278	.12
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	151.04 (4)	155.59 (3)	143.90 (2)	171.21 (7)	173.77 (7)	2.798	.59
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	149.79 (2)	173.83 (7)	138.83 (1)	154.56 (4)	168.02 (6)	4.516	.34
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	143.41 (1)	163.50 (5)	149.12 (3)	190.79 (8)	178.80 (8)	10.712	.03
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	153.57 (6)	160.93 (4)	154.65 (6)	158.78 (5)	144.90 (2)	0.624	.96
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	150.06 (3)	167.33 (6)	158.73 (7)	153.47 (3)	154.05 (3)	1.684	.79

on the three dimensions of situational job characteristics found married participants rating experienced job characteristics significantly higher on all three dimensions (i.e. stimulus value, structure and autonomy), and expected job characteristics higher on autonomy as compared to single participants (Table 72). There were also significant differences between groups on the ranking of need strength as well as experienced and expected need satisfaction (Table 73 to 75). On need strength single participants ranked to "tell people what to do" and "to move one job higher" as more important than married participants, while the latter ranked to "have something to do" significantly higher (Table 73). On experienced need satisfaction, married participants ranked to "be imaginative", "have something to do" and "receive proper recognition" significantly higher than single participants (Table 74), but on expected need satisfaction the former ranked "to move one job higher" significantly lower than the latter (Table 75). There were no other significant differences related to marital status.

Hypothesis III E states that: Job meaning is higher the more dependents an individual has. Three quarters (3/4) of the correlations for both situational job characteristics and personal relevance supported this relationship and not one significant difference disconfirmed it. For the significant differences those

TABLE 72

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using t-tests for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means and standard deviations.

SCALE 16		SINGLE N=173	MARRIED N=120	t	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	18.85	22.80	-4.37	.00
	SD	7.31	7.83		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.48	14.79	-2.37	.02
	SD	4.55	4.72		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	15.95	17.54	-2.27	.02
	SD	5.56	6.13		
SCALE 17					
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	30.87	31.81	-1.54	.13
	SD	5.15	5.09		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.72	16.12	-0.88	.38
	SD	3.62	3.94		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.19	22.98	-1.27	.21
	SD	4.89	5.46		
SCALE 18					
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	26.32	26.83	-0.58	.56
	SD	6.25	8.06		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.73	14.26	0.91	.37
	SD	3.63	4.80		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	17.96	20.01	-2.62	.01
	SD	6.28	6.77		

TABLE 73

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		SINGLE N=172	MARRIED N=118	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	145.70 (5)	147.67 (4)	0.040	.84
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	154.44 (8)	134.96 (1)	3.822	.05
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	134.88 (2)	163.40 (7)	8.307	.00
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	148.11 (7)	144.16 (2)	0.160	.69
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	133.95 (1)	164.74 (8)	9.661	.00
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	140.75 (3)	154.85 (6)	2.025	.16
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	147.60 (6)	144.90 (3)	0.073	.79

TABLE 74

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		SINGLE N=172	MARRIED N=118	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	153.95 (7)	133.18 (2)	4.368	.04
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	153.44 (6)	133.92 (3)	3.935	.05
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	144.52 (4)	146.93 (5)	0.060	.81
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	148.48 (5)	141.15 (4)	0.552	.46
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	143.26 (2)	148.76 (7)	0.308	.60
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	154.23 (8)	132.77 (1)	4.676	.03
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	143.88 (3)	147.86 (6)	0.161	.69

TABLE 75

Comparisons between unemployed single and married participants using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 21		SINGLE N=172	MARRIED N=118	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	147.12 (7)	140.62 (2)	0.432	.51
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	149.99 (8)	136.36 (1)	1.895	.17
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	144.55 (4)	144.43 (5)	0.000	.99
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	143.18 (3)	146.46 (6)	0.113	.74
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	131.36 (1)	163.98 (8)	10.900	.00
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	145.81 (6)	142.56 (3)	0.108	.74
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	140.89 (2)	149.85 (7)	0.816	.37

with three dependents had significantly higher relationships between ideal and experienced stimulus value (Table 55), need strength and expected need satisfaction for to "tell people what to do" and for all three of the personal relevance measures of adequate "job conditions" (Table 56).

There were no significant differences between groups on rating situational job characteristics (Table 76), but significant differences of the personal relevance measures indicated that participants with three dependents ranked that their "religious beliefs are not interfered with" higher as a need strength and experienced as well as expected need satisfaction (Tables 77 to 79). There were no other significant differences relating to the number of dependents.

Hypothesis III F states that: Job meaning is higher for unemployed individuals with comparatively low educational background when compared to individuals with comparatively high educational background when occupation is held constant. This hypothesis was strongly supported by the findings. All of the relationships for situational job characteristics were higher for the group with the lowest education (high school) in this study (Table 55). Among the significant differences this group was significantly higher on the relationships between ideal and experienced structure, autonomy and total scale (when compared to college graduates), ideal and expected

TABLE 76

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using ANOVA for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means.

		# OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 16		1	2	3	F	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	20.32	20.64	22.74	1.151	.32
	N	225	39	27		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	13.77	14.23	15.11	1.051	.35
	N	225	39	27		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.72	17.15	16.26	0.182	.83
	N	225	39	27		
SCALE 17						
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	31.18	31.67	31.74	0.258	.77
	N	225	39	27		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.77	16.05	15.70	0.101	.90
	N	225	39	27		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.31	24.13	22.70	2.056	.13
	N	225	39	27		
SCALE 18						
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	26.48	26.13	27.33	0.251	.78
	N	225	39	27		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.81	13.23	14.00	2.807	.06
	N	225	39	27		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	18.50	19.87	20.37	1.539	.22
	N	225	39	27		

TABLE 77

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 19		1 N=223	2 N=37	3 N=26	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	138.63 (6)	149.36 (5)	121.00 (3)	1.873	.39
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	140.17 (8)	140.07 (2)	121.10 (4)	1.272	.53
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	135.67 (2)	153.65 (6)	141.21 (6)	1.650	.44
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	135.50 (1)	175.04 (8)	110.73 (1)	11.198	.00
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	136.91 (3)	141.75 (3)	147.90 (8)	0.492	.78
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	137.54 (5)	141.87 (4)	142.08 (7)	0.149	.93
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	137.47 (4)	160.72 (7)	114.42 (2)	5.098	.08

TABLE 78

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 20		1 N=223	2 N=37	3 N=26	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	137.43 (4)	131.15 (1)	148.09 (6)	0.652	.72
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	139.07 (7)	133.10 (2)	129.70 (4)	0.435	.81
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	135.81 (2)	137.86 (5)	152.72 (7)	0.980	.61
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	137.12 (3)	159.76 (8)	106.07 (1)	6.647	.04
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	138.27 (6)	135.82 (3)	132.93 (5)	0.115	.94
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	140.21 (8)	137.50 (4)	112.15 (2)	2.658	.27
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	138.05 (5)	148.29 (7)	115.43 (3)	2.519	.28

TABLE 79

Comparisons between unemployed participants with one, two or three dependents using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF DEPENDENTS				
SCALE 21		1 N=223	2 N=37	3 N=26	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	139.75 (7)	124.17 (1)	130.78 (5)	1.358	.51
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	136.83 (4)	156.20 (6)	109.35 (2)	4.999	.08
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	139.66 (6)	129.71 (3)	123.22 (4)	1.283	.53
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	135.01 (3)	174.14 (8)	99.07 (1)	13.908	.00
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	134.07 (1)	155.23 (5)	136.65 (7)	2.218	.33
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	138.09 (5)	133.76 (4)	131.78 (6)	0.205	.90
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	134.47 (2)	162.89 (7)	121.26 (3)	4.979	.08

structure (when compared to college graduates), autonomy (when compared to those with some college and college graduates) and total scale (when compared to those with some college) and in the relationship between experienced and expected structure (when compared to those with some college), autonomy and total scale (when compared to those with some college and college graduates).

On personal relevance, near three-quarters (30/42) of the correlations were higher for the group with the lowest education (high school), and only one significant difference was not in the predicted direction (college graduates had a higher relationship between experienced and expected need satisfaction for adequate "job conditions"; Table 56). The significant differences supporting the hypothesized relationship, indicated a higher relationship between need strength and experienced need satisfaction for receiving "proper recognition" (as compared to college graduates) for participants with a high school education. This group was also significantly higher on the relationship between need strength and expected need satisfaction for adequate "job conditions" (as compared to college graduates), and on experienced and expected need satisfaction for "to move one job higher", "receive proper recognition (as compared to those with some college) and adequate "job conditions" (as compared to college graduates).

Comparisons between educational groups on

situational job characteristics indicated no significant differences in rating each dimension (Table 80). There were, however, two significant differences in ranking need strength (Table 81). To "be imaginative" and "receive proper recognition" were ranked significantly higher by college graduates, but on expected need satisfaction only one significant difference, "to move one job higher", separated educational groups, with those who had some college giving this their highest ranking (Table 83). There were no significant differences between educational groups on experienced need satisfaction (Table 82).

The last Hypothesis III G states that: Job meaning is lower for individuals with a history of unemployment when compared to individuals who have never been unemployed before. There was relatively consistent support for this hypothesis for situational job characteristics, approximately two thirds (26/36) of the correlations, with significant differences indicating higher relationships between ideal and experienced total scale values for those who have never been employed, as compared to those unemployed once or three times previously (Table 55). On the personal relevance measures there was less support with only slightly less than half (31/63) of the correlations in the predicted directions, and one significant difference higher for those unemployed three times, as compared to those never

TABLE 80

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using ANOVA for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means.

SCALE 16		HIGH SCHOOL	SOME COLLEGE	COLLEGE GRAD.	F	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	20.71	19.98	22.03	1.025	.36
	N	132	126	38		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.08	13.90	14.29	0.106	.90
	N	132	126	38		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.67	16.48	17.84	0.769	.46
	N	132	126	38		
SCALE 17						
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	31.31	31.11	32.71	1.563	.21
	N	132	126	38		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.95	15.74	16.18	0.225	.80
	N	132	126	38		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.71	22.33	23.50	0.764	.47
	N	132	126	38		
SCALE 18						
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	26.06	26.83	26.84	0.423	.66
	N	132	126	38		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.20	14.67	14.89	0.615	.54
	N	132	126	38		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	19.82	18.10	18.03	2.512	.08
	N	132	126	38		

TABLE 81

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 19		N=118 HIGH SCHOOL	N=125 SOME COLLEGE	N=37 COLLEGE GRAD.	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	148.47 (7)	142.13 (7)	109.55 (1)	6.739	.03
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	131.60 (1)	146.82 (8)	147.51 (5)	2.511	.29
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	141.40 (4)	135.42 (3)	154.78 (8)	1.714	.42
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	140.17 (2)	139.16 (6)	146.08 (4)	0.221	.90
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	146.14 (5)	132.34 (1)	150.11 (6)	2.433	.30
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	157.78 (8)	132.63 (2)	111.97 (2)	11.477	.00
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	146.96 (6)	137.78 (5)	129.08 (3)	1.655	.44

TABLE 82

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 20		N=117 HIGH SCHOOL	N=124 SOME COLLEGE	N=37 COLLEGE GRAD.	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	139.74 (5)	142.96 (6)	127.18 (1)	1.118	.57
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	133.80 (3)	142.50 (5)	147.46 (6)	1.161	.56
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	145.06 (7)	133.15 (2)	143.19 (4)	1.453	.48
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	132.92 (2)	145.51 (8)	140.16 (2)	1.525	.47
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	131.65 (1)	143.01 (7)	152.57 (8)	2.378	.31
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	137.32 (4)	140.27 (4)	143.81 (5)	0.208	.90
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	146.01 (8)	132.74 (1)	141.57 (3)	1.710	.43

TABLE 83

Comparisons between unemployed participants with different levels of education using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

SCALE 21		N=129 HIGH SCHOOL	N=125 SOME COLLEGE	N=38 COLLEGE GRAD.	F	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	149.95 (6)	133.78 (3)	117.87 (1)	5.344	.07
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	133.28 (1)	142.57 (8)	141.32 (7)	0.882	.64
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	142.49 (5)	136.06 (5)	134.04 (3)	0.535	.77
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	140.07 (4)	139.41 (6)	130.31 (2)	0.464	.19
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	158.28 (8)	119.36 (1)	140.69 (6)	14.642	.00
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	151.33 (7)	127.27 (2)	135.83 (4)	5.630	.06
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	136.19 (2)	141.09 (7)	137.03 (5)	0.245	.89

previously unemployed (the former were higher on need strength and expected need satisfaction for to "move one job higher"; (Table 56). The significant differences in support of the hypothesized relationship found that need strength and expected need satisfaction was higher for to "tell people what to do" (as compared to those unemployed two or three times before) and "job conditions" (as compared to those unemployed once before). There was also a higher relationship between experienced and expected need satisfaction for to "tell people what to do" (compared with those unemployed three times before) and adequate "job conditions" (compared to those unemployed once before).

There were no significant differences between groups on either the rating or ranking of situational job characteristics and personal relevance (Tables 84 to 87).

SUMMARY

In this chapter the findings were reported in the order of the stated hypotheses. There were two major sets of hypotheses relating to work meaning and job meaning. Each of these sets included three subtopics for hypothesis testing; these were first, differences between employed and unemployed individuals, second, between individuals at four different stages of unemployment, and third, between unemployed individuals

TABLE 84

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one, two or three previous unemployment experiences using ANOVA for scales 16, 17 and 18 including means.

		# OF DEPENDENTS					
SCALE 16		0	1	2	3	F	P≤
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	21.20	21.08	18.39	18.86	1.025	.36
	N	196	36	46	35		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.09	14.92	13.09	13.34	0.106	.90
	N	196	36	46	35		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	16.78	17.75	16.20	14.91	1.452	.23
	N	196	36	46	35		
SCALE 17							
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	3.89	32.67	31.02	31.06	1.030	.38
	N	196	36	46	35		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	15.69	16.86	15.00	15.80	1.451	.23
	N	196	36	46	35		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	22.17	24.06	22.41	22.34	1.220	.30
	N	196	36	46	35		
SCALE 18							
STIMULUS VALUE	MEAN	26.33	27.89	26.15	25.17	0.784	.50
	N	196	36	46	35		
STRUCTURE	MEAN	14.23	15.78	14.13	14.06	1.398	.24
	N	196	36	46	35		
AUTONOMY	MEAN	18.69	21.00	18.98	16.69	2.397	.07
	N	196	36	46	35		

TABLE 85

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 19 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
		N=193	N=36	N=46	N=35		
SCALE 19		0	1	2	3	χ^2	P<
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	153.93 (3)	166.65 (6)	141.45 (1)	171.16 (8)	2.893	.41
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	155.45 (4)	158.82 (4)	155.80 (7)	151.94 (4)	0.107	.99
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	156.51 (6)	157.29 (3)	154.54 (5)	149.33 (2)	0.217	.96
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	156.36 (5)	162.14 (5)	142.48 (3)	161.03 (7)	1.370	.71
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	161.11 (8)	147.26 (1)	142.38 (2)	150.30 (3)	2.228	.53
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	150.41 (1)	154.81 (2)	178.38 (8)	154.23 (6)	3.739	.29
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	153.16 (2)	171.11 (8)	154.62 (6)	153.50 (5)	1.267	.74

TABLE 86

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 20 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
		N=191	N=36	N=45	N=35		
SCALE 20		0	1	2	3	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	151.79 (4)	153.58 (3)	167.10 (7)	149.66 (3)	1.204	.75
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	159.69 (8)	141.43 (2)	145.98 (3)	146.19 (2)	2.218	.53
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	150.92 (3)	164.42 (5)	154.37 (4)	159.61 (6)	0.892	.83
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	159.54 (7)	132.81 (1)	144.02 (2)	158.39 (5)	3.566	.31
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	146.83 (2)	166.14 (7)	182.32 (8)	144.24 (1)	7.063	.07
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	143.88 (1)	179.35 (8)	161.31 (6)	173.74 (8)	7.604	.06
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	153.66 (6)	165.60 (6)	141.46 (1)	160.03 (7)	1.716	.63

TABLE 87

Comparisons between unemployed participants with none, one two or three previous unemployment experiences using Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA for scale 21 including mean rank sums ($\bar{R}i$) and in parentheses the relative rank within each group.

		# OF TIMES UNEMPLOYED					
		N=189	N=36	N=45	N=35		
SCALE 21		0	1	2	3	χ^2	P≤
IMAGINATIVE	$\bar{R}$	149.10 (2)	157.54 (3)	148.17 (4)	175.60 (8)	2.966	.40
SOMETHING TO DO	$\bar{R}$	152.68 (5)	152.43 (2)	161.57 (8)	144.30 (2)	0.786	.85
TELL PEOPLE	$\bar{R}$	153.14 (6)	168.71 (7)	138.17 (1)	155.17 (4)	2.508	.47
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS	$\bar{R}$	153.51 (8)	149.57 (1)	144.14 (3)	165.14 (7)	1.240	.74
MOVE HIGHER	$\bar{R}$	151.69 (4)	164.61 (5)	153.11 (6)	147.97 (3)	0.800	.85
RECOGNITION	$\bar{R}$	148.22 (1)	164.96 (6)	161.16 (7)	156.04 (5)	1.688	.64
JOB CONDITIONS	$\bar{R}$	149.70 (3)	163.79 (4)	148.86 (5)	160.56 (6)	1.174	.76

with different biographical and demographical characteristics.

There were two dimensions each of work and job meaning that had been theoretically proposed, operationalized and measured. These dimensions were named: work acceptability and instrumentality for work meaning, and situational job variables and personal relevance for job meaning. The results of the comparisons were reported with the aid of tables for numerical illustrations and support. In the following chapter the purpose of this study will be discussed in light of the findings from the empirical data, as well as some limitations of this study and the concepts applied.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study is to: a) theoretically develop and apply the concept of meaning to the domains of work and job, b) separate the meaning of work from the meaning of job, c) operationalize the concepts of work and job meaning for unemployed individuals and d) explore the potentials for using meaning as a measure of work and job perceptions. It is specifically aimed at groups of unemployed individuals, who have been ignored in the literature on work and job, and for which no other concepts have been developed to meet their unique circumstances.

General Outline

In the literature review, Chapter I, the concept of meaning as it has been applied to the domains of work and job is presented, and it is recognized that: a) very few studies have applied this concept, and none have made a separation between work and job meaning, b) only limited attention has been given to the concept of work meaning and c) serious theoretical and methodological weaknesses are apparent in the empirical literature on this topic. This presentation was followed by (Chapter II) a proposed definition of meaning which was adopted from the literature and selected for its potential as being applicable and operationalizable to the

domains of work and job, as well as answering research questions specifically with regard to certain groups of individuals, here the unemployed, which have been ignored in the literature on work and job perceptions. In its application to the domains of work and job, specific dimensions of each of these concepts were selected from the literature as indicative of work meaning and job meaning respectively. The dimensions for work meaning were named acceptability and instrumentality, and the dimensions of job meaning were named situational and personal relevance. The relationships and differences between work and job meanings as here visualized, were also discussed as were their applicability and potential contributions to the literature on unemployment.

To test the dimensions of the models proposed, a set of propositions and hypotheses were derived from the literature on work and job meaning and unemployment (Chapter III). Measures were selected or developed on the basis of apparent consistency with the work and job dimensions of interest, and were evaluated using reliability and validity indicators (Chapter IV).

There were three major sets of comparisons made, that is, a) between unemployed and employed individuals within the same occupational category, b) between unemployed individuals at different stages of unemployment and c) between unemployed individuals with different biographical or demographical characteristics. Finally, the results were reported, with

reference to, and in the order of, the stated hypotheses (Chapter V).

In this chapter the implications and limitations of this study will be discussed on a conceptual level, as well as with regard to the specific empirical findings.

Conceptual Contributions and Limitations

It was stressed in the conceptual portion of this study that the concept of meaning is an inclusive concept which has dimensions that are common to other concepts. There is generally no disagreement in the literature on this point. There are however, basically two different views on whether or not empirical research should focus on actually measuring meaning, as Silverman (1970) argues, or that empirical research is already measuring meaning under different labels as argued by Kahn (1972).

In this study it was proposed, and an alternative suggested, that meaning can be measured and contribute to our understanding of work and job perceptions for groups of individuals where other concepts have either implicitly or explicitly made assumptions which are not being met by a specific group or situation. The group that was used, one which has been basically ignored in studies of work and job perceptions, was the unemployed.

It was found that by using the definitions adopted, as well as proposed theoretical dimensions and relationships, measures could be developed and applied that showed

acceptable levels of reliability and validity indicators for the groups of interest. This does not varify that meaning is being measured or should be measured, but it does support that what is being measured does vary systematically within and between individuals, and can be used as indicative of similarities and differences. Here it was found consistent with the literature to term these dimensions work and job meaning.

On the conceptual level, terminology aside, the major contribution of this study was its differentiation of work and job meaning. No other study has made a separation between these two domains, or been able to empirically show that they are separable. In this study it was found that although work and job, have not been well differentiated by definitions (c.f. Kahn, 1972) they have dimensions on which they are perceptually separable. Here those dimensions were termed as work acceptability and instrumentality for work meaning, and situational versus personal relevance for job meaning.

In general, it was proposed that the more significant work is to a person's life, and the more non-instrumental the valued outcomes of work, the more work meaning a person has. Job meaning, on the other hand, was viewed as having situation specific boundaries, and was proposed as the relationship between desired and actual situational variables and personal needs versus actual need satisfaction on the job.

While work and job have not been separated in the literature, many authors have attempted to conceptually as well as empirically separate or establish the relationship between work and non-work (or leisure). Meissner (1971), for example, in a study examined the relationship between work and leisure by testing three separate hypotheses derived from the literature. First, the compensatory hypothesis which states that individuals will try to fulfill in non-work situations certain needs which they cannot satisfy at work due to technical and social constraints of the work situation. Second, the spill-over or carry-over hypothesis which states that non-work behavior will be similar to the behavior required by the work situation. And third, that there are no relationships between work and non-work behaviors.

In testing these hypotheses, three dimensions (discretion, expressive-instrumental and social interaction) of both work and leisure were included in a study of 206 industrial workers from a large wood products manufacturing company. The findings generally supported a carry-over effect between work and leisure with regard to the degree of discretion and social interaction at work, and the extent to which off-work activities are high or low on these dimensions. On the other hand, ordering the three dimensions along a continuum from high to low in value, the findings suggested a compensatory effect between the different dimensions. The continuum proposed included discretion,

social interaction and expressive activities in this order of importance. The findings supported the hypothesis that when work prevents the development of discretionary skills time off work will be spent on social interactions and expressive activities, rather than discretionary activities. In addition, when work prevents social interaction, off work time will be spent on expressive activities in favor of either discretionary activities or social interactions.

In summary, this study suggests that both the carry-over and the compensatory effects may operate with regard to work and non-work situations, depending on whether they are measured along the same dimensions or across different dimensions of the same situations.

There are however two serious limitations of the above study. First, if the separation of the concepts of work and job as here proposed are applied, the findings could be interpreted to indicate that there is a carry-over effect between work activities on the job and work activities off the job or that this is all within the domain of work and there is no carry-over effect but that the same dimensions are being measured in and out of a job situation. This is consistent with the proposition and findings of the present study.

A second problem of the above study is that it does not consider the characteristics of the workers prior to entering the organization. These characteristics may make individuals choose or design jobs which are consistent with their

original preferences (c.f. high job meaning) or may make them compensate between work and job. The latter was suggested by the findings in this study on the relationship between educational level and work versus job meaning when occupation was held constant. That is work meaning was found to be higher but job meaning lower, as the educational level of unemployed participants increased. This suggest a compensatory effect between work and job as here defined or that work and job have different dimensions which may be used to compensate for each other, given certain personal, situational, or occupational characteristics.

In light of the above, the Meissner (1971) study does not suggest a separation or relationship between work and non-work but is consistent with a separation of work and job as proposed in this study. On the other hand, it does point to the difficulty of separating work or job from non-work or non-job activities, at least when measured along the same dimensions. This is basically the conclusion of Winter and Hansen (1976) who reviewed the literature on work and leisure. Instead, they emphasize the importance of allowing for individual differences and disregard the assumed polarity or fusion (c.f., compensatory versus spill-over effects) relationships between the two concepts. They suggest, in accordance with Parker (1971) the following dimensions of

each (p. 240):

Constraint _____ Freedom

Work	Work (Employment)	Work Obligations	Leisure in Work
Non-Work	Physiological Needs	Non-work Obligations	Leisure

This model does not assume that a particular activity can objectively be placed in one or the other of these categories. It only emphasizes that various activities are subjectively perceived as different along this continuum, and the importance of considering different aspects of both work and non-work related behavior. As Whitely (1978) points out, it may only be possible to study relative meaning of work versus non-work, and "leave the integration of work and non-work as problematic and the direction of causality as bi-directional" (p. 7). This view of work versus non-work is problematic when comparisons are made between groups as well as within groups of individuals over time since it does not offer any external criteria against which responses can be measured. On the other hand, it is proposed here that the subjective views which classify an activity as either work or non-work are of significance to physiological, psychological and behavioral outcomes.

If work can only subjectively be separated from non-work

and not on the basis of any particular activity or experience, then individuals may differ as to the situation in which an activity is performed or engaged in. A number of studies (e.g. Dubin, 1965; Orzack, 1969; Maurer, 1968) on the issue of "central life interest" (including the present study) have supported this notion with regard to job versus non-job, namely that individuals in different positions vary as to whether or not their interest is job or non-job oriented for the same experience. For the purpose of measuring job meaning, it therefore appears essential that the job situation is clearly identified and specified. Although, this may be difficult when specific groups of individuals are studied, for example the unemployed or self-employed. In this study a job was considered to be any activity engaged in prior to unemployment which made an individual qualify for unemployment insurance, according to the Department of Labor (1983). By extension, it also means any activity which disqualifies an individual for unemployment benefits, by categorizing them as employed by the same department. The situation in which this activity was engaged in was described by the unemployed participants themselves, in terms of last job, ideal job and next job for both situational and personal relevance dimensions of job meaning. There were no comparisons in this study between job and non-job nor with work versus non-work, as it is questionable if it is possible to make a distinction between the two that is not purely subjective were the same

dimensions to be used.

There are several limitations to defining, operationalizing and measuring work and job meaning. Most of these limitations that are of relevance here have been discussed, and alternatives suggested in the process of developing this study. However, two related issues and limitations to defining the concepts of work and job meaning need to be recognized. These are the selected level of analysis and the selection of time perspective.

The definition of meaning suggested in this review is psychological and as such only appropriate for the individual level of analysis. In the sociological literature however, a distinction is frequently made between two sub-disciplines, that is micro-sociology and macro-sociology. According to the general definition:

> Micro-sociology is seen as being concerned with the study of individuals in small groups and dyads, and macro-sociology with the study of whole societies and institutions (Kemeny, 1976).

This distinction is very similar to the separation of the two levels in the economic literature (c.f., Samuelson, 1973). At present however, it is not clear as to the exact relationship between these two levels. Some authors view them as distinctly different, and therefore will require different theoretical and methodological approaches. Others however perceive the levels as inter-related and suggest that

they do not require different approaches (c.f., Kemeny, 1976). To date there is no agreement on this issue, which will necessitate that a more specific definition is developed for the two levels. In the view of the present writer however, there is a difference between levels that depending on the topic and variables of interest, will require different theoretical and methodological approaches. In terms of work and job meanings, no study has actually attempted to define and operationalize these concepts, other than on the individual level. Only England (1979) has proposed this possibility, but has not yet suggested specific theoretical and methodological alternatives for other units of analysis (c.f. MOW, 1987). There are however, a number of options which have been explored in related literature, that need to be given further consideration (c.f., Cattell, 1949; Buckley, 1958; Morris and Murphey, 1959; Brown, 1961). These options are not of interest to this study although they are suggesting possibilities for studying work and job meanings on the organizational, industrial and cultural levels, which could be of interest to future research.

Related to the measurement of work meaning, is the problem of operationalizing this concept with regard to time perspective. England (1979; MOW, 1987) has stated that when it is of interest to measure the total working lives of individuals the phrase "the meaning of work", may suggest only present job or work situation. Instead, he suggests calling this area "the meaning of working" which in his view

is more inclusive. This raises the issue of time frames for defining and operationalizing work meanings. Whitely (1978), for example, observed that studies on job satisfaction have revealed very different results when satisfaction was measured directly versus indirectly. When it was measured directly, individuals tend to focus on the present situation and generally report higher satisfaction. On the other hand, when indirect measures have been applied individuals are retrospective and reported satisfaction lower. Furthermore, individuals vary in their time perspectives of past versus present and present versus future (Cottle, 1976). Some individuals tend to focus on the past, while others on the future, and the range of time in a person's awareness has been shown to vary. This may seriously affect the measurement and interpretation of work and job meanings if not considered and may create a problem when work and job meanings of different groups are compared. For example, to what extent are work and job meanings of the formally employed comparable to the unemployed?

In this study it was found that work meaning and the personal relevance of job meaning were higher for the employed participants when compared to the unemployed participants. The above should not have an effect on <u>work meaning</u> as defined and operationalized in this study, since time frame is not an issue here. <u>Job meaning</u> on the other hand, was very clearly specified as limited to the present job for the employed but the last job for the unemployed on

one of the referents. This could create a problem of interpretation. However, as a means to avoid this problem, it was not the rating or ranking of various job dimensions that was considered a measure of job meaning, but the relationship between two measures (last or present versus ideal job) which was considered as indicative of job meaning. This could still be biased by differences in time perspective if "ideal job" is not equally affected as "last" versus "present job." But at least for the situational job dimension this did not seem to be the case.

To test the conceptual dimensions of this study, measures were selected, evaluated, and applied to a sample of employed and unemployed individuals. The following focuses on the findings of the empirical study and possible implications of the findings.

Empirical Findings

In this study three sets of comparisons were made between: a) employed and unemployed participants b) unemployed participants at different levels of unemployment and c) unemployed participants with different biographical or demographical characteristics. In general it was proposed that; employment status per se is related to work and job meaning, with both being lower for the unemployed participants; systematic changes in work and job meaning take place over the duration of unemployment; and certain biographical and demographical characteristics may

effect or predispose an unemployed individual for certain meaning environments. Each hypothesis will now be restated with work and job meaning considered simultaneously, and the findings discussed as previously listed.

For unemployed individuals, work and a job have less meaning than to a comparable group of employed individuals.

The findings very strongly supported this proposition on work meaning, indicating that having a job is essential for developing certain work meanings, or the reverse-certain work meanings allow a person to obtain or maintain a job. On job meaning, the above proposition was well supported on the personal relevance dimension. Employed individuals perceived their needs to be better satisfied by their present job situation than unemployed individuals perceived their needs as having been satisfied by their last job environment. However, this proposition was not supported on the situational dimension of job meaning. It was found that although the employed rated their present job situational characteristics higher than the unemployed rated their last job situational characteristics the employed's ideal job situation was not as well met as that of the unemployed. In other words, the gap between ideal and experienced was bigger for the employed as compared to the unemployed. Here, this is interpreted as indicative of lower situational job meaning for the employed.

There are at least three possible implications of the above findings. First, having a job is related to work

meaning. This may be because job environments either reinforce certain work meanings or by selection procedures, including self-selection, only individuals with certain work meanings seek and/or obtain jobs.

Second, having a job is related to the personal relevance of job meaning. This suggests that having a job may lead to the satisfaction of some personal needs, and/or some individuals may seek and find the satisfaction of personal needs in job environments. A relationship between job and psychological well-being has been found by other studies (c.f. Kaufman, 1982), but never assessed using measures of job perceptions. It is not possible however, in this study to establish the causal link between work or job meaning and employment status, and thus should be the effort of future studies. The subsequent findings did not suggest that the presence of any personal (biographical or demographical) variables which could significantly account for the above differences.

Third, the hypothesis was not supported with regard to situational job meaning and having a job. This is interesting in light of the above discussion of possible differences in time perspectives. If the comparisons had been between last or ideal job (the unemployed) and present or ideal job (the employed), then the latter would have a higher score, but since it was <u>the relationship</u> between last and ideal versus present and ideal that was seen as indicative of job meaning the employed actually had lower

situational job meaning than the unemployed. This supports some observations of the interviewed members of employment services. Namely that individuals in this occupational category, mostly women, do not feel that their expectations are well met, and often change jobs in search of positions which will allow for advancement opportunities into managerial roles. It also lend support to the current shortage of qualified personnel in this area and the rapid growth of private employment services specializing on this occupational category. Much more research is needed to establish any causal relationships, but this study does suggest that a separation between work and job perceptions as measured here, may point to differences within and between groups that lead to different psychological, physiological or behavioral outcomes.

For unemployed individuals the meaning of work/job changes and work/job have increasingly less meaning as unemployment continues across four stages.

The findings provided very limited support for this proposition on both the work and job meaning measures. This may be because perceptions of work and/or job change immediately after job loss and then remain the same for the rest of unemployment period. Other possibilities are that different groups of individuals may respond differently to the unemployment experience, with some experiencing immediate changes in perceptions, maybe as an ego defensive strategy, and then possibly improving in work and job meanings as

unemployment is progressing, while others may change according to the predicted stages. It was not possible in this study to consider the alternatives for why there were so few significant differences, but future studies should consider work and job meanings for specific groups of unemployed to determine who may be more likely to suffer psychological, physiological and/or behavioral problems as a consequence of prolonged unemployment. It should be noted that although other studies (c.f. Kaufman, 1982), have found deterioration on psychological, physiological and behavioral dimensions over stages of unemployment, this may be the cause or the consequence of a perception which in itself may or may not change. The long term, or cumulative effects, of one and the same work and/or job meaning may cause the same outcome over time, as a drastic change in perceptions would in the short run. The questions to be answered by future research are therefore, a) If work and job meanings change in relation to stages of unemployment then for which groups (e.g. is occupational category a factor?) do they change and in what direction?, b) If meanings change once a situation changes, as in job loss, but then remain the same irrespective of the time interval involved then why have an increased severity of individual problems been noted? c) Are the work and job meaning concepts as here defined and operationalized appropriate for detecting differences in cognitions that may result over time of unemployment?

Work/job meanings vary with regard to different

biographical and demographical characteristics of a person.

There was a range in the support for this set of hypotheses from strong support to weak. Among the biographical and demographical characteristics that seem to be the most closely linked to differences in work and job meaning were; sex, age, marital status, number of dependents and education. Of the remaining two, race could not be assessed due to the small number of qualified participants, but this needs to be more systematically studied considering the large representation of minorities among the unemployed. The one characteristic that did not show many differences in work and job meaning was "the number of times previously unemployed." It was assumed that repeated unemployment would have the same effect as prolonged unemployment, and it did, but not in the direction proposed. Neither stages of unemployment nor the number of times unemployed showed noteworthy differences in work or job meaning.

For the characteristics that did show differences the one of most interest to the aim of this study was the proposed and supported difference in work and job meaning for level of education. Participants with some college or college graduates were found to have higher work meaning but lower job meaning, when compared to participants with a high school education. This reinforces the importance of separating work from job, and suggests some potentially interesting differences, which may also be reflected in the psychological, physiological and behavioral outcomes

of unemployment. Future studies should address this.

Limitations

Many limitations have already been discussed throughout this study, both in regard to theoretical issues as well as the methodological choices made. On a final note, however, it should be recognized that any research effort is to some extent affected by conditions of the broad external environment, and applied research is especially sensitive to such conditions. Concluding this study without recognizing some of the current economic, political and social forces therefore, would be ignoring some potentially powerful forces which affected it.

First, and maybe most significantly, it should be recognized that the unemployment conditions that prevailed when this data was collected were better in terms of low unemployment than they have been in the recent past. In the tri-state area, where the participants in this study lived, unemployment rates were recorded as low as 2 1/2 percent (Westchester, New York). It it impossible to say how this may have effected the results of this study, or if unemployment rates can be related to work and job perceptions. This should be looked at in future studies, while it must be considered here as another possible bias of the findings.

Second, political preferences reflect as well as reinforce perceptions in general, and specifically, in regard

to work and job. Tax reductions, spending beyond our national means, etc. can be either the cause or consequence of work and job perceptions. Some of these changes may be no more than passing trends while others may be the cause or consequence of major, long term, changes in work and job perceptions. In this study it is not possible to determine if, and/or to what extent, the findings may reflect such variations.

Third, the working population is growing older with most of the so called "baby-boomers" in their thirties. This too can effect work and job perceptions, as well as national politics, educational systems, and prevailing value structures in general. Again however, this could not be controlled for in this study and only future studies can indicate if systematic changes in perceptions can be attributed to this or other social changes.

In summary, this research effort showed that the concept of meaning, as here defined, could be applied and operationalized for the domains of work and job for a specific sample, namely, the unemployed, for which no other related concepts have been applied or operationalized. It has also shown that perceptions of work could be separated from perceptions of job, both conceptually and empirically. The empirical part if this study supported some of the proposed differences and relationships for the sample studied, and showed the direction for future empirical studies and conceptual development. The above was discussed

in recognition of limitations on the conceptual, methodological and interpretive levels.

APPENDIX A

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

Work and Job Meanings

Study Conducted By

The Department of Organizational Behavior
Baruch College of the
City University of New York
and
The Center for the Advancement of Public Policy
Iona College

Project Developed by:
Prof. Marie Louise Andersson
Department of Management
Iona College

Form A

Dear Ladies and Gentlemen,

The purpose of this study is to obtain information which can help organizations and society to better service and provide for the unemployed and more accurately assess the effects of unemployment.

In a society where unemployment is affecting all occupational levels and industrial sectors surprisingly little is known about the unemployed, especially in the contexts of work and jobs. This is in part due to the fact that by most standards an unemployed person is not working because he or she is without a job and for that reason is of no interest to research on these issues. Still it is well recognized that work and the act of working is by no means restricted to a job but can be a part of a wide range of situations and activities. Also, all individuals who have or have had a job are in the position of describing what a job means to them, and should be asked to do so. Especially since without this information our knowledge will be incomplete and our acts misguided at best.

In this study we, therefore, ask you to help us obtain this information. We will on the following pages ask you to tell us what work means to you, and what a job means to you, by asking you to rank, rate and describe different aspects of work, jobs, and yourself. The purpose, as stated above, is to obtain information for the long-term benefits of the unemployed as well as society at large. In providing us with this information be as honest as possible and remember there are no right or wrong answers. Your answers are anonymous, although we have to ask you to provide us with your social security number for follow-up purposes. This number will at no time be used to establish your identity but in the final analysis it is necessary to do separate analyses on the responses of those who did, and those who did not, find a job and this is the only means by which it can be done.

Your cooperation with this study is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Marie Louise Andersson

SECTION A
THE MEANING OF WORK

(Scale 1) I. Not everyone means the same thing when they talk about work. When do you consider an activity as work related. Choose four statements from the list below which best defines when an activity is "work" related. (Circle your answers)

1. if you do it in a work place
2. if someone tells you what to do
3. if it is physically strenuous
4. if it belongs to your task
5. if you do it to contribute to society
6. if, by doing it, you get a feeling of belonging
7. if it is mentally strenuous
8. if you do it at a certain time (for instance from 8 until 5)
9. if it adds value to something
10. if it is not pleasant
11. if you get money for doing it
12. if you have to account for it
13. if you have to do it
14. if others profit by it

(Scale 2) II. How important and significant is work in your total life? (circle your answer)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
one of the least important things in my life			of medium importance in my life			one of the most important things in my life

(Scale 3) III. How would you rank the following activities in order of importance to you from 1 = most important to 6 = least important

_____ leisure activities (like hobbies, sports, recreation and contacts with friends)

_____ community activities (like voluntary organizations, unions and political organizations)

_____ job activities (like completing tasks for which you are being rewarded)

_____ religious activities (like involvement with the church and worshiping)

_____ family activities (like playing and socializing with parents, siblings and children)

_____ work activities (like contributing time and effort to a cause which is financially and/or psychologically rewarding).

(scales I-III adopted with modifications from England, 1979)

(Scale 4) IV. How much time do you spend during an average day on thinking about work? (Circle one)

1. none
2. 1 - 4 hours
3. 5 - 8 hours
4. 9 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 16 hours

(Scale 5) V. How much time do you spend during an average day on the act of working? (Circle one)

1. none
2. 1 - 4 hours
3. 5 - 8 hours
4. 9 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 16 hours

(Scale 6) VI. How often are you mentally exhausted from work? (Circle one)

1. never
2. some of the time
3. most of the time
4. always

(Scale 7) VII. How often are you physically exhausted from work? (Circle one)

1. never
2. some of the time
3. most of the time
4. always

(Scale 8) VIII What does work mean to you in terms of the following alternatives. Please rank your answer in the order of importance from 1 = very important to 6 = least important.

_____ work gives you status and prestige
_____ work provides you with an income that is needed
_____ work keeps you occupied
_____ work permits you to have interesting contacts with other people
_____ work is a useful way for you to serve society
_____ work itself is basically interesting and satisfying to you

(Scale 9) IX. How rewarding are the following activities to you. Please rank your answer from 1 = very rewarding to 6 = very unrewarding.

_____ leisure activities
_____ community activities
_____ job activities
_____ religious activities
_____ family activities
_____ work activities

(Scale 10) X. Why is the activity chosen above (Q. IX) as 1 = very rewarding to you? (Circle one)

1. it gives you status and prestige
2. it provides you with an income
3. it keeps you occupied
4. it permits you to have interesting contact with other people
5. it is a useful way for you to serve society
6. it is itself basically interesting and satisfying to you

(Scale 11) XI. On your last job how much time during an average day did you spend on working? (Circle one)

a. 99%
b. 75%
c. 50%
d. 25%
e. 1%

(Scale 12) XII. How would you classify the time on your last job that you did not spend on working? (Circle one which is most descriptive)

a. personal (like eating lunch, having coffee breaks or going to the bathroom)
b. interpersonal (like talking to co-workers about non-job related topics.
c. leisure (like daydreaming or planning non-job related activities)
d. family (like contact with family members or taking care of family obligations)
e. religious (like praying)

(Scale 13 & 14) XIII If working is a part of job related activities it may also be a part of non-job related activities. What percentage of time do you spend working on the following activities when you are employed and when you are unemployed?

	employed	unemployed
1. leisure activities (hobbies, sports, etc.)	_____	_____
2. community activities (unions, political org. etc.)	_____	_____
3. religious activities	_____	_____
4. family activities	_____	_____
Total	100%	100%

SECTION B

THE MEANING OF A JOB

(Scale 15) I. Not everyone means the same thing when they talk about a job. When do you consider an activity as job related. Choose four statements from the list below which best defines when an activity is "job" related.

1. if you do it in a work place
2. if someone tells you what to do
3. if it is physically strenuous
4. if it belongs to your task
5. if you do it to contribute to society
6. if, by doing it, you get a feeling of belonging
7. if it is mentally strenuous
8. if you do it at a certain time (for instance from 8 until 5)
9. if it adds value to something
10. if it is not pleasant
11. if you get money for doing it
12. if you have to account for it
13. if you have to do it
14. if others profit by it

(adopted from England, 1979)

(Scale 16) II. Below are three scales measuring your perceptions of a job. Each scale is identical except for its referent which will be either your last, ideal, or expected future job.

The first scale refers to your last job. That is, the job that you had right before becoming unemployed. On this scale, as well as the following, please rate the below characteristics, by putting an X on the line which best describes your last job for each pair of adjectives. The closer you put the X to the adjective the more descriptive is that adjective of your last job.

1.	monotonous	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	challenging
2.	deadening	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	stimulating
3.	meaningless	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	meaningful
4.	dull	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exciting
5.	boring	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	interesting
6.	inexact	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exact
7.	general	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	detailed
8.	vague	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	precise
9.	dependent	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	independent
10.	guided	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	free
11.	closely supervised	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	not closely supervised
12.	governed	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	unrestricted

BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL TWELVE (12) SCALES

(Scale 17) III. This second scale refers to your ideal job, that is, the job you most like to have. On this scale, please rate the below characteristics, as you did on the previous scale, except here your are describing your ideal job.

1.	monotonous	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	challenging
2.	deadening	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	stimulating
3.	meaningless	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	meaningful
4.	dull	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	exciting
5.	boring	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	interesting
6.	inexact	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	exact
7.	general	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	detailed
8.	vague	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	precise
9.	dependent	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	independent
10.	guided	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	free
11.	closely supervised	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	not closely supervised
12.	governed	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	unrestricted

BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL TWELVE (12) SCALES

(Scale 18) IV. This third scale refers to your <u>next</u> (anticipated) <u>job</u>. That is, if you get a job tomorrow, what will it be like. Please rate the following characteristics, as you did on the previous two scales, but here you are describing your <u>next</u> (anticipated) <u>job</u>.

1.	monotonous	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	challenging
2.	deadening	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	stimulating
3.	meaningless	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	meaningful
4.	dull	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	exciting
5.	boring	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	interesting
6.	inexact	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	exact
7.	general	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	detailed
8.	vague	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	precise
9.	dependent	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	independent
10.	guided	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	free
11.	closely supervised	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	not closely supervised
12.	governed	——/——/——/——/——/——/——	unrestricted

BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL TWELVE (12) SCALES

(Scale 19) V. Below are three scales which address potential characteristics of a job. Each scale is identical except you are asked to indicate:

a) how important these characteristics are to you
b) how descriptive they are of your last job, and
c) how descriptive you think they will be of your next job.

The first scale is measuring how important the following eight characteristics are <u>to you</u>. Please rank from 1 (most important) to 8 (least important) each of these characteristics.

		Rank
1.	You can be imaginative and think up unique ways of doing things.	_____
2.	You have something to do most of the time.	_____
3.	You can tell people what to do.	_____
4.	Your religious beliefs are not interfered with.	_____
5.	There is a chance to move one job higher.	_____
6.	You receive proper recognition.	_____
7.	Job conditions, i.e. heating, lighting, are adequate.	_____
8.	You receive adequate pay for your efforts.	_____

(Scale 20) VI. The second scale is measuring how descriptive the following eight characteristics are of your last job. Please rank from 1 (most descriptive) to 8 (least descriptive) each of these characteristics.

		Rank
1.	You can be imaginative and think up unique ways of doing things.	____
2.	You have something to do most of the time.	____
3.	You can tell people what to do.	____
4.	Your religious beliefs are not interfered with.	____
5.	There is a chance to move one job higher.	____
6.	You receive proper recognition.	____
7.	Job conditions, i.e. heating, lighting, are adequate.	____
8.	You receive adequate pay for your efforts.	____

(Scale 21) VII. The third scale is measuring how descriptive you think the following eight characteristics will be of your next job. Please rank from 1 (most descriptive) to 8 (least descriptive) each of these characteristics.

		Rank
1.	You can be imaginative and think up unique ways of doing things.	____
2.	You have something to do most of the time.	____
3.	You can tell people what to do.	____
4.	Your religious beliefs are not interfered with.	____
5.	There is a chance to move one job higher.	____
6.	You receive proper recognition.	____
7.	Job conditions, i.e. heating, lighting, are adequate.	____
8.	You receive adequate pay for your efforts.	____

(Scales II-VII adopted from Guion & Landy, 1972)

(Scale 22) VIII. Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can and remember there are no right or wrong answers.

1. If you could not find a job in your field, which would you rather do? (circle a or b)
   a) Go on welfare
   b) Take a job as a car or dish washer that paid the same as welfare.

2. If you won the lottery and had enough money to live comfortably without having a job, do you think that you would want a job anyway, or would you not want a job (circle a or b)
   a) would not want a job
   b) would want a job anyway

3. If you answered b) to question 2, would you be willing to take the same type of job as your last job? (circle a or b)
   a) yes
   b) no

4. In your opinion, what is the most important about getting promoted? (circle a or b)
   a) getting more pay
   b) getting more respect from friends and neighbors

5. Which job would you choose if you could be sure of keeping either job? (circle a or b)
   a) better than average pay working on an assembly line
   b) less than average pay as a bank or sales clerk

6. What kind of a job would you rather have? (circle a or b)
   a) average pay for a job that is looked down on by the people you know
   b) low pay for a job that is respected by the people you know

7. If you could be sure that your income would go up steadily without getting a promotion, would you care about getting promoted? (circle a or b)
   a) yes
   b) no

(adopted with modifications from Tausky, 1969)

SECTION C
PERSONAL DATA

Social Security #: _____

Date: _____

Sex: Male _____ Female _____

Race: White _____ Black _____ Hispanic _____
Oriental _____ Other _____

Age: _____

Marital Status: Single _____ Married _____
Divorced _____ Widowed _____

# of dependents: _____

Highest education: _____

Special Skills: _____

Title on last job: _____

Date of termination (last job): _____

Date of first day on unemployment: _____

# of times unemployed before this time: _____

# of years in the work force: _____

Salary on last job: _____

Salary expected on next job: _____

# of job interviews to date: _____

Reason for termination of employment (last job): _____

_____

_____

COMMENTS: _____

_____

_____

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX B

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS FOR THE EMPLOYED

Work and Job Meanings

Study Conducted By

The Department of Organizational Behavior
Baruch College of the
City University of New York
and
The Center for the Advancement of Public Policy
Iona College

Project Developed by:
Prof. Marie Louise Andersson
Department of Management
Iona College

Form B

Dear Ladies and Gentlemen,

The purpose of this study is to obtain information which can help organizations and society to better understand the effects of unemployment. Your participation, as an employed person in this study, will allow us to develop a criteria against which the responses of a sample of unemployed persons within your occupational category can be compared. These comparisons will allow us to establish significant differences which can be attributed to having lost one's job.

Specifically, it is of interest to identify differences in meaning associated with work and jobs. On the following pages we, therefore, ask you to rank, rate and describe certain aspects of work, your job and yourself. In providing us with this information be as honest as possible, and remember, there are no right or wrong answers and all responses are anonymous.

Your cooperation with this study is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Marie Louise Andersson

Marie Louise Andersson

SECTION A
THE MEANING OF WORK

(Scale 1) I. Not everyone means the same thing when they talk about work. When do you consider an activity as work related. Choose <u>four</u> statements from the list below which best defines when an activity is "work" related. (Circle your answers)

1. if you do it in a work place
2. if someone tells you what to do
3. if it is physically strenuous
4. if it belongs to your task
5. if you do it to contribute to society
6. if, by doing it, you get a feeling of belonging
7. if it is mentally strenuous
8. if you do it at a certain time (for instance from 8 until 5)
9. if it adds value to something
10. if it is not pleasant
11. if you get money for doing it
12. if you have to account for it
13. if you have to do it
14. if others profit by it

(Scale 2) II. How important and significant is work in your <u>total</u> life? (circle your answer)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
one of the least important things in my life			of medium importance in my life			one of the most important things in my life

Scale 3) III. How would you rank the following activities in order of importance to you from 1 = most important to 6 = least important

_____ leisure activities (like hobbies, sports, recreation and contacts with friends)

_____ community activities (like voluntary organizations, unions and political organizations)

_____ job activities (like completing tasks for which you are being rewarded)

_____ religious activities (like involvement with the church and worshiping)

_____ family activities (like playing and socializing with parents, siblings and children)

_____ work activities (like contributing time and effort to a cause which is financially and/or psychologically rewarding).

(scales I-III adopted with modifications from England, 1979)

Scale 4) IV. How much time do you spend during an average day on thinking about work? (Circle one)

1. none
2. 1 - 4 hours
3. 5 - 8 hours
4. 9 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 16 hours

Scale 5) V. How much time do you spend during an average day on the act of working? (Circle one)

1. none
2. 1 - 4 hours
3. 5 - 8 hours
4. 9 - 12 hours
5. 13 - 16 hours

Scale 6) VI. How often are you mentally exhausted from work? (Circle one)

1. never
2. some of the time
3. most of the time
4. always

Scale 7) VII. How often are you physically exhausted from work? (Circle one)

1. never
2. some of the time
3. most of the time
4. always

Scale 8) VIII What does work mean to you in terms of the following alternatives. Please rank your answer in the order of importance from 1 = very important to 6 = least important.

_____ work gives you status and prestige
_____ work provides you with an income that is needed
_____ work keeps you occupied
_____ work permits you to have interesting contacts with other people
_____ work is a useful way for you to serve society
_____ work itself is basically interesting and satisfying to you

Scale 9) IX. How rewarding are the following activities to you. Please rank your answer from 1 = very rewarding to 6 = very unrewarding.

_____ leisure activities
_____ community activities
_____ job activities
_____ religious activities
_____ family activities
_____ work activities

Scale 10) X. Why is the activity chosen above (Q. IX) as 1 = very rewarding to you? (Circle one)

1. it gives you status and prestige
2. it provides you with an income
3. it keeps you occupied
4. it permits you to have interesting contact with other people
5. it is a useful way for you to serve society
6. it is itself basically interesting and satisfying to you

Scale 11) XI. On your present job how much time during an average day do you spend on working? (Circle one)

a. 99%
b. 75%
c. 50%
d. 25%
e. 1%

Scale 12) XII. How would you classify the time on your present job that you do not spend on working? (Circle one which is most descriptive)

a. personal (like eating lunch, having coffee breaks or going to the bathroom)
b. interpersonal (like talking to co-workers about non-job related topics.
c. leisure (like daydreaming or planning non-job related activities)
d. family (like contact with family members or taking care of family obligations)
e. religious (like praying)

Scale 13) XIII If working is a part of job related activities it may also be a part of non-job related activities. What percentage of time do you spend working on the following activities?

1. leisure activities (hobbies, sports, etc.) _____
2. community activities (unions, political org. etc.) _____
3. religious activities _____
4. family activities _____

Total 100%

SECTION B

THE MEANING OF A JOB

:ale 15) I. Not everyone means the same thing when they talk about a job. When do you consider an activity as job related. Choose four statements from the list below which best defines when an activity is "job" related.

1. if you do it in a work place
2. if someone tells you what to do
3. if it is physically strenuous
4. if it belongs to your task
5. if you do it to contribute to society
6. if, by doing it, you get a feeling of belonging
7. if it is mentally strenuous
8. if you do it at a certain time (for instance from 8 until 5)
9. if it adds value to something
10. if it is not pleasant
11. if you get money for doing it
12. if you have to account for it
13. if you have to do it
14. if others profit by it

(adopted from England, 1979)

cale 16) II. Below are two scales measuring your perceptions of a job. Each scale is identical except for its referent which will be either your present or ideal job.

The first scale refers to your present job. That is, the job that you have right now. On this scale, as well as the following, please rate the below characteristics, by putting an X on the line which best describes your present job for each pair of adjectives. The closer you put the X to the adjective the more descriptive is that adjective of your present job.

1.	monotonous	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	challenging
2.	deadening	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	stimulating
3.	meaningless	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	meaningful
4.	dull	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exciting
5.	boring	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	interesting
6.	inexact	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exact
7.	general	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	detailed
8.	vague	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	precise
9.	dependent	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	independent
10.	guided	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	free
11.	closely supervised	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	not closely supervised
12.	governed	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	unrestricted

BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL TWELVE (12) SCALES

Scale 17) III. This second scale refers to your ideal job, that is, the job you most like to have. On this scale, please rate the below characteristics, as you did on the previous scale, except here your are describing your ideal job.

1.	monotonous	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	challenging
2.	deadening	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	stimulating
3.	meaningless	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	meaningful
4.	dull	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exciting
5.	boring	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	interesting
6.	inexact	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	exact
7.	general	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	detailed
8.	vague	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	precise
9.	dependent	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	independent
10.	guided	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	free
11.	closely supervised	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	not closely supervised
12.	governed	____/____/____/____/____/____/____	unrestricted

BE SURE TO ANSWER ALL TWELVE (12) SCALES

(Scale 19) IV. Below are two scales which address potential characteristics of a job. Each scale is identical except you are asked to indicate:

a) how important these characteristics are to you
b) how descriptive they are of your present job.

The first scale is measuring how important the following eight characteristics are to you. Please rank from 1 (most important) to 8 (least important) each of these characteristics.

		Rank
1.	You can be imaginative and think up unique ways of doing things.	_____
2.	You have something to do most of the time.	_____
3.	You can tell people what to do.	_____
4.	Your religious beliefs are not interfered with.	_____
5.	There is a chance to move one job higher.	_____
6.	You receive proper recognition.	_____
7.	Job conditions, i.e. heating, lighting, are adequate.	_____
8.	You receive adequate pay for your efforts.	_____

(Scale 20) V. The second scale is measuring how descriptive the following eight characteristics are of your present job. Please rank from 1 (most descriptive) to 8 (least descriptive) each of these characteristics.

		Rank
1.	You can be imaginative and think up unique ways of doing things.	____
2.	You have something to do most of the time.	____
3.	You can tell people what to do.	____
4.	Your religious beliefs are not interfered with.	____
5.	There is a chance to move one job higher.	____
6.	You receive proper recognition.	____
7.	Job conditions, i.e. heating, lighting, are adequate.	____
8.	You receive adequate pay for your efforts.	____

(Scale 22) VI. Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can and remember there are no right or wrong answers.

1. If you could not find a job in your field, which would you rather do? (circle a or b)
   a) Go on welfare
   b) Take a job as a car or dish washer that paid the same as welfare.

2. If you won the lottery and had enough money to live comfortably without having a job, do you think that you would want a job anyway, or would you not want a job? (circle a or b)
   a) would not want a job
   b) would want a job anyway

3. If you answered b) to question 2, would you be willing to take the same type of job as your last job? (circle a or b)
   a) yes
   b) no

4. In your opinion, what is the most important about getting promoted? (circle a or b)
   a) getting more pay
   b) getting more respect from friends and neighbors

5. Which job would you choose if you could be sure of keeping either job? (circle a or b)
   a) better than average pay working on an assembly line
   b) less than average pay as a bank or sales clerk

6. What kind of a job would you rather have? (circle a or b)
   a) average pay for a job that is looked down on by the people you know
   b) low pay for a job that is respected by the people you know

7. If you could be sure that your income would go up steadily without getting a promotion, would you care about getting promoted? (circle a or b)
   a) yes
   b) no

(adopted with modifications from Tausky, 1969)

SECTION C
PERSONAL DATA

Date: _____

Sex: Male _____ Female _____

Race: White _____ Black _____. Hispanic _____
Oriental _____ Other _____

Age: _____

Marital Status: Single _____ Married _____
Divorced _____ Widowed _____

# of dependents: _____

Highest education: _____

Special Skills: _____

Title on present job: _____

Date of employment: _____

Have you ever received unemployment? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, how many times? _____

# of years in the work force: _____

Salary on present job: _____

COMMENTS: _____

_____

_____

THANK YOU!

FOOTNOTES

[1]In this dissertation a distinction will be made between work meaning and job meaning. It will be argued that although "meaning" is by definition the same across concepts, the learned dimensions of meaning are not. The latter appears especially true when the concepts of interest are within the same domain and have to an extent a vertical relationship to each other. However, the difference between work and job will not be discussed in this chapter since the literature has not in the past distinguished between these two concepts on their relative meanings. Instead "work meaning" or "the meaning of work" will be used to indicate both work and job meanings, unless otherwise indicated.

[2]The book by Friedman and Havighurst, 1954, could not be located by the present writer, but this chapter in Nosow and Form, 1962, attempts to summarize the basic findings. Ironically, the chapter does not include any discussion on the issue of retirement, even though it is entitled Work and Retirement after the original book title, The Meaning of Work and Retirement.

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