

The Web of Coping Resources and Pathways to Reemployment Following a Job Loss

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Structural equation modeling analyses of data from 2 longitudinal community studies of recently laid-off workers examined the interrelationships and pathways from personal coping resources to job-search intensity and the extent and quality of reemployment at 2 follow-ups (at 6 months and at 12 or 24 months). In both studies, the proposed models for predicting reemployment and reemployment quality provided a good fit to the data with the same pattern of results, which demonstrated that job-search motivation increased reemployment at all follow-ups but did not affect reemployment quality. At both the 6- and 12-month follow-ups, level of depressive symptoms decreased the extent and quality of reemployment. The results also highlighted the dual role of financial strain, which on the one hand facilitates reemployment by increasing job-search motivation and job-search intensity and on the other hand inhibits it by increasing depressive symptoms.

Since the Great Depression, social psychological research on job loss and unemployment has focused primarily on the negative mental health and physical outcomes of unemployment. Numerous studies document the negative impact of job loss on the mental health and well-being of unemployed workers (Feather, 1990; Kessler, Turner, & House, 1989; Warr, Jackson, & Banks, 1988), their spouses (Barling, 1990; Dew, Penkower, & Bromet, 1991; Liem & Liem, 1988), and their children (Barling, 1990). Of the wide array of negative mental health consequences of unemployment, financial distress and elevated depressive symptoms are the most widely documented outcomes (Feather, 1997).

At the same time, an elevated level of depressive symptoms was also conceptualized and investigated as a barrier to reemployment. Because depression is likely to decrease the intensity and the quality of the job-search effort, it may prolong the unemployment period. In line with this reasoning, Hamilton, Hoffman, Broman, and Rauma (1993) found, in a study of unemployment in the auto industry, that elevated

depressive symptoms predicted continued unemployment 6 and 18 months after a job loss. In contrast, a study by Kessler et al. (1989) found that psychological distress, as assessed by depressive symptoms, had a significant unexpected positive effect on reemployment. They found that those with elevated distress following job loss had a slightly increased likelihood of becoming reemployed at follow-up. The researchers attributed the unexpected positive effect of depression on reemployment to the specific job market conditions during their study, with rapidly improved economy after a recession. The contradictory findings of these studies may have to do with the unique sample of autoworkers in Hamilton et al.'s study and the specific economic conditions that prevailed during Kessler et al.'s study. Still, the question of whether high level of depressive symptoms after a job loss is a barrier to reemployment deserves additional investigation. The answer to this question is particularly important in the context of designing interventions to mitigate the adverse effects of unemployment and to facilitate the return to the job market. We believe that the question should be addressed by considering the coping trajectory of unemployed job seekers and by studying the factors that enhance or deplete their coping resources.

Several studies that tracked the coping trajectory of unemployed individuals have shown that reemployment reverses the negative effects of unemployment and restores the level of mental health that existed prior to the job loss (Iverson & Sabroe, 1988; Kessler, Turner, & House, 1988; Vinokur, Caplan, & Williams, 1987; Wanberg, 1977). For designing in-

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terventions to mitigate the adverse effects of unemployment, it is, therefore, important to investigate the coping resources that facilitate, and barriers that inhibit, the return to employment and productive work life.

Schwab, Rynes, and Aldag (1987) reviewed studies that focused on job search as a mediating coping process leading to reemployment. They described findings showing that unemployed individuals with higher self-esteem and confidence engage in more intensive job-search efforts and are more likely to find a job (p. 139). In a more recent review of the literature on job-search behavior, McFadyen and Thomas (1997) suggested that normative pressures might play an important role in the job-search process. They also highlighted the complex relationship among job expectations, length of unemployment, and the intensity of the search behavior.

Other recent studies focused on the relevance of various coping resources and behavior to reemployment (Leana & Feldman, 1995; Wanberg, 1997; Wanberg, Kanfer, & Rotundo, 1999; Wanberg, Watt, & Rumsey, 1996). These studies also demonstrated the effects on reemployment of job-seeking support (Wanberg et al., 1996) and behavior (Wanberg, 1997; Wanberg et al., 1999). Wanberg et al.'s (1999) study also provided a conceptual scheme that includes job-search motivation, competencies, and constraints as the determinants of job-search intensity leading to reemployment. This study showed that job-search efficacy, financial hardship, and motivational control are significant predictors of job-search intensity, and job-search intensity predicted later reemployment status. However, these studies regress reemployment on all the coping variables and do not provide information on the effects of some coping variables on others. In the most recent study (Wanberg et al., 1999), both the conceptual scheme and the analyses did not provide information on the structural relationships among the predictor variables. For example, competencies may have a direct influence on job-search intensity as well as an indirect one through their effect on motivation.

The primary goal of the present study is to fill this gap in knowledge regarding the structural relationships of most of the known predictors of reemployment and to clarify their direct and indirect effects on the intensity of job-search behavior and reemployment. To the extent that some or most of these relationships were demonstrated in past research, they were most often demonstrated using regression analyses that (a) did not account for interrelationship among independent variables and (b) did not provide

adequate tests of effects that are adjusted for the unreliability of the measures as implemented in structural equation analyses. Failure to provide adjustment for the relative unreliability of measures may result in biased estimates of the effects of the variables studied and may obscure the relative contribution of these variables to the outcomes that are examined. A secondary goal of this study is to test again and possibly resolve the conflicting results regarding the effects of depression on reemployment, including on quality of employment. Our study provides a test for these effects using (a) a structural model that is more adequately specified than those used in the past, (b) analyses that adjust for the unreliability of the measures, and (c) data from two large longitudinal community studies conducted in different periods and geographical locations.

More specifically, the present study attempts to meet these two goals with the following steps. First, we construct and describe a model that specifies the interrelationships among mastery, job-search self-efficacy, and job-search motivation as personal coping resources and financial strain and elevated depressive symptoms as psychological vulnerabilities that are relevant to the job-search process and to reemployment. Second, we test the model to determine which of these constructs influence job-search intensity and the level of reemployment directly or indirectly through the mediating effects of the other constructs. Third, we incorporate the same part of the structural model of the predictors of reemployment in a second model that focuses on the prediction of quality of the job for those individuals who became reemployed. Because the level of reemployment may not be correlated with its quality, it is quite possible that different constraints and coping resources influence the quality of reemployment more than its level. For example, it is possible that financially distressed job seekers will obtain more quickly full-time jobs but that these jobs are of lower quality.

Below we describe five sets of hypotheses that together form our first structural model (Model 1) depicting the direct and indirect paths of influence of the constructs on job search and reemployment. Each set of hypotheses is followed by a short description of its theoretical and empirical support and is represented by one or more paths as displayed in Figure 1. We then describe two additional sets of hypotheses. One set focuses on the effects of demographic variables on reemployment and all the preceding variables that are incorporated in Figure 1. The last set of hypotheses focuses on a second structural model (Model 2) for the prediction of quality of the job for

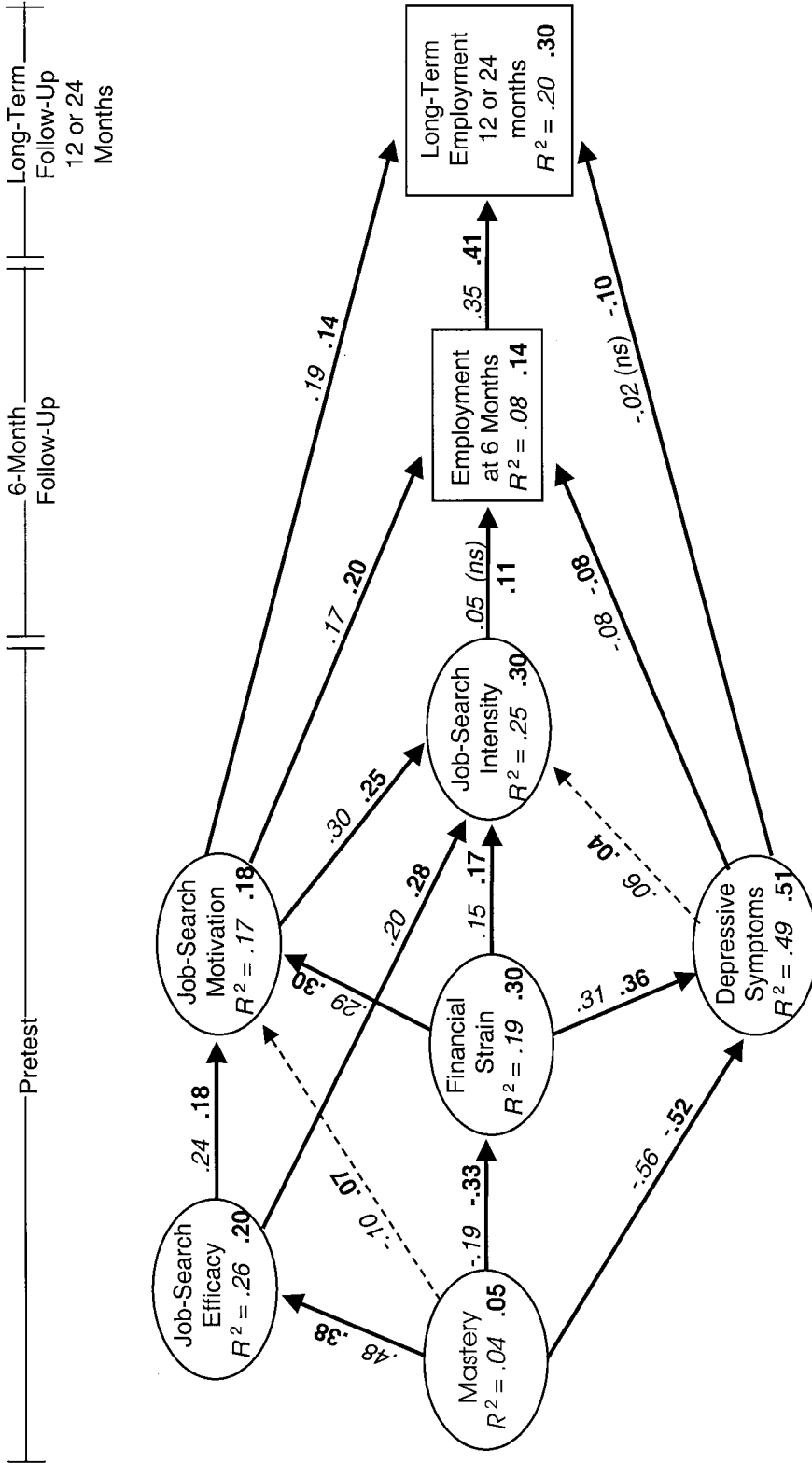


Figure 1. Structural equation model of the effects of baseline psychological and demographics predictors of reemployment at 6- and 12-month (Couples Employment Project [CEP] study) or 24-month (JOBS study) follow-ups. Figures in italics and bold are, respectively, for the JOBS and CEP studies. Not shown are the effects of the demographics on the psychological predictors and reemployment (see Table 1). All the solid line paths are statistically significant at .05 or above. In JOBS, $\chi^2(163, N = 700) = 426.9$, and in CEP, $\chi^2(163, N = 1,280) = 712.6$. Normed, nonnormed, and comparative fit indexes are, for the JOBS study, .91, .92, and .94, respectively, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .05; for the CEP study, .93, .92 and .95, and RMSEA = .05.

those individuals who became reemployed. This latter model includes the structural part of the model that appears in Figure 1 from the pretest phase to predict wage and quality of work life at the same two follow-ups.

Model 1: Extent of Reemployment as Predicted by the Influences Among Coping Resources and Their Effects on Coping Behavior and on Depression as a Barrier to Reemployment

Hypothesis Set 1: Sense of mastery (a) increases job-search motivation, (b) increases job-search self-efficacy, (c) reduces depressive symptoms, and (d) reduces financial strain.

We discuss these four paths of Hypothesis Set 1 individually below.

Hypothesis Set 1a: Sense of mastery increases job-search motivation.

High sense of mastery and control is likely to increase the job seeker's perception that the desired goal (i.e., reemployment) is within close reach through his or her job-search effort. The motivational drive and effort to reach a goal is stronger the closer one gets to the goal (Atkinson & Birch, 1970; Lewin, 1951). Therefore, the motivation to engage in job search to obtain the goal for those high in mastery is hypothesized to be stronger than the motivation of those with low mastery. The same idea is embedded in Bandura's (1986) writings on self-efficacy as a motivational component that influences specific behavior, as well as Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behavior and its emphasis on perceived control.

Hypothesis Set 1b: Sense of mastery increases job-search self-efficacy.

The hypothesis that mastery as a global expectancy orientation influences specific self-efficacy has been raised by Gist and Mitchell (1992) and also by Eden and Kinnar (1991), who viewed general self-efficacy, or mastery, as a moderator of the effects of experimental treatment on self-efficacy and behavior.

Hypothesis Set 1c: Sense of mastery reduces depressive symptoms as a barrier to reemployment.

A vast body of literature documented strong negative associations between various types and measures of personal agency (e.g., locus of control, perceived control, and mastery) and various types of psychological distress. For example, Holahan and Holahan (1987) and Rosenfield (1989) showed that

higher mastery is associated with lower levels of distress or depression. Turner and Noh (1988) demonstrated that both level of mastery and changes over time are independently predictive of depressive symptomatology.

Hypothesis Set 1d: Sense of mastery reduces financial strain.

Compared with individuals who are low on mastery, individuals who are high on mastery perceive themselves to be more capable of controlling their future outcomes. We hypothesize that they will perceive reemployment as more controllable and imminent. Because reemployment improves one's financial situation, those with higher mastery who see reemployment as more imminent will experience a lower level of financial strain. The individuals with a high sense of mastery and control are also more likely to perceive having greater control and skill in managing their current resources, and, consequently, they are less likely to experience financial strain.

Hypothesis Set 2: Job-search self-efficacy increases (a) job-search motivation and (b) job-search intensity.

Earlier studies have already demonstrated that self-efficacy increased job-search intention and job-search behavior (van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Wanberg et al., 1999).

Hypothesis Set 3: Financial strain increases (a) job-search motivation, (b) job-search intensity, and (c) level of depressive symptoms.

Most people depend on the income from a job to provide themselves and their families with the necessities of life and to sustain their accustomed standard of living. When they lose a job, they experience a substantial reduction in their income, which brings about financial strain. Financial strain that results from the loss of a job is, therefore, a motivator to search for another job to replace the lost income and avoid greater losses. An earlier study by Vinokur and Caplan (1987) showed that financial strain (referred to as *economic hardship*) was a predictor of several components of job-search motivation as well as job-search efforts. Finally, numerous studies in the literature have found that the financial strain produced by a job loss and sustained unemployment is the most prominent contributor to depressive symptoms (e.g., Broman, Hamilton, & Hoffman, 1990; Fryer & Payne, 1986; Kessler, Turner, & House, 1987; Vinokur & Schul, 1997).

Hypothesized Direct Effects of Coping Resources, Barriers, and Behavior on Reemployment

Hypothesis Set 4: Job-search motivation is a significant predictor of (a) job-search intensity and both are predictors of (b) extent of reemployment.

Reemployment is fundamentally a behavioral outcome. In a free-market society, the individuals are responsible for becoming employed and are free to choose their employment. Therefore, the intensity and quality of the individual's job-search behavior is an important pathway to his or her reemployment. Other factors, such as market demands for particular skills and demographic assets (e.g., younger age and education), also play an important role in obtaining employment. However, job-search behavior is the necessary condition that exposes job seekers to the potential employers before an assessment of their skills and other characteristics can take place. The higher the skill and the intensity of the job-search behavior, the greater the likelihood of finding and being offered a job. According to our theoretical framework, job-search intensity and quality are the sole mediators of the effects of the psychosocial variables on reemployment. In our two studies, however, job-search quality was not assessed, and job-search intensity was measured only at baseline and may have changed throughout the follow-up periods. Because of this limitation of our job-search measure to demonstrate the full mediation effect on reemployment, we hypothesize that both job-search motivation and depressive symptoms (discussed later) will also have a direct positive and negative influence, respectively, on reemployment.

Hypothesis Set 5: Level of depressive symptoms is a significant predictor of (a) low job-search intensity and (b) continued unemployment.

Numerous studies have demonstrated that job loss produces deterioration in mental health that is manifested in various measures of distress and demoralization, such as depressive symptoms (e.g., Kessler et al., 1989). There is reason to expect a causal process in the other direction as well, namely, that unemployed people who are demoralized and depressed are also depleted of mental and physical energy needed for mounting successful job-search activities. In the absence of an effective and vigorous job-search effort, continued unemployment is to be expected. Thus, the effects of job-search motivation and depressive symptoms on reemployment are predicted to be mediated by their impact on intensity of job-

search behavior and its quality (i.e., skillfulness). Whereas strong motivation increases job-search behavior, depressive symptoms indicate demoralization that diminishes the intensity and quality of the behavior. As mentioned earlier, support for the role of depression in prolonging unemployment is found in a longitudinal study of layoffs among autoworkers (Hamilton et al., 1993).

Hypothesis Set 6: Demographics influence reemployment and its quality directly, as well as indirectly, through their effects on coping resources and mental health.

Although reemployment was hypothesized to be influenced by the job seeker's job-search behavior, we must not forget that it is also influenced by the potential employer's hiring behavior. Ideally, in a free-market economy, the hiring behavior of the employer is assumed to be influenced solely by the market value of the job-related required skills offered by the job seeker. However, the employer choice is often influenced by other relevant and irrelevant characteristics of the job seeker to the job, such as age, gender, and race (Fallick, 1996). It is in this context that demographics and other social structural factors may play a significant role in one's likelihood of becoming employed or in the extent of reemployment. If we are to isolate the effects of the other factors (e.g., motivation and mental health) on reemployment, we must control for these social structural demographic factors. In addition to their direct impact on reemployment, social structural demographic variables also have an influence on the other mediating variables in our model. For example, age, gender, education, and minority status are associated with availability of coping resources (Hobfoll, 1989) and also with mental health outcomes such as depression (Mirowski & Ross, 1986). These associations were also found in samples of unemployed workers (Hamilton et al., 1993). Therefore, to control for the effects of the demographics, we added to all the variables in our model the influence of six demographic characteristics—age, gender, education, family income, race, and marital status—as well as the level of employment before the job loss (hours working per week) and its quality. Because of the role of the demographics as control variables, and to preserve the focus of our examination on the psychosocial variables, they are not shown in Figure 1. (Although not shown in Figure 1, the effects of the demographic variables are provided in Table 1.)

Table 1
Effects of Pre-Job-Loss Demographics (Standard Regression Coefficients, β s) on Personal Resources and Reemployment

Variable	Mastery	Job search efficacy	Motivation	Financial strain	Depressive symptoms	Job search	6-month reemployment	12/24-month ^f reemployment
JOBS II study (<i>N</i> = 756)								
Age					.02	.05	-.13**	
Gender ^a			-.09*		.18**	-.06	-.04	
Education ^b		.16**	.09*			.04		
Family income	.18**			-.31**	.10**			-.00
Race ^c	.13**		-.08*	.14**		.16**	-.04	
Marital status ^d			.15**					
Employment ^e			.04	.14**		-.01	.08*	.09**
CEP study (<i>N</i> = 1,487)								
Age					-.08**	.07**	-.08**	
Gender ^a			-.20**		.11**	-.11**	-.10**	
Education ^b		.21**	.05			.12**		
Family income	.24**			-.35**	.15**			.09**
Race ^c	.13**		-.09**	.08**		.14**	.13**	
Marital status ^d			-.04					
Employment ^e			.11**	.12**		.08**	.09**	.16**

Note. In estimating the model, only paths that were statistically significant in at least one of the two studies were included and are displayed in the table. CEP = Couples Employment Project.

^a Gender categories include 0 = male, 1 = female. ^b Education categories include 1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college, 4 = college graduate, 5 = graduate work above college. ^c Race categories include 0 = White, 1 = non-White. ^d Marital status include 0 = married, 1 = nonmarried or separated. ^e Employment was measured as number of hours working for pay per week. ^f 12-month and 24-month reemployment are the follow-ups, respectively, in the CEP and the JOBS study.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Model 2: Quality of Reemployment as Predicted by Direct Effects of Coping Resources, Barriers, and Search Behavior

In studies of the labor economy, wage rate serves as an objective indicator of job quality. In the present study, in addition to wage rate, we also used a measure of perceived job quality based on a wide array of conditions that may affect the subjective experience of the quality of employment. These two measures are the main dependent variables for our second model that focuses on quality of reemployment. The relevant hypotheses for this model are specified below.

Hypothesis Set 7a: Wage rate as an objective characteristic of job quality is a significant contributor to the subjectively assessed quality of the job.

Assessments of work satisfaction are either global (e.g., how satisfied is the employee with the job) or are based on combining several aspects of the job (e.g., the work itself, the supervision, the pay). Wage

is an important aspect of the job and has been demonstrated to be a major contributor to job satisfaction (Jencks, Perman, & Rainwater, 1988).

Hypothesis Set 7b: Depression is a barrier not only to reemployment but also to gaining quality employment.

That is, we hypothesize that the more depressed job seekers are more likely to settle for and accept jobs of lower quality. The depressed mood of these job seekers is likely to reduce their hope and level of expectations of what is possible for them. In addition, their employers are more likely to perceive or interpret their vulnerability as a deficiency and offer them lower wages and inferior work conditions.

Hypothesis Set 7c: Job-search intensity increases the quality of reemployment as those who engage in intensive search activities are more likely to encounter better job offers than those who engage in low-intensity, limited job search.

Hypothesis Set 7d: Job-search motivation, in contrast to its effect on reemployment, will not have a direct effect on job quality (i.e., wage or subjective job qual-

ity) because it is unlikely to be related to marketable skills that are valued by the employer.

Hypothesis Set 7e: Of the key demographic variables in the model, education, gender, and race are hypothesized to have the same influence of wage rate as found in labor economic studies on unemployment with lower education, female, and minority racial status predicted to have lower wage rate.

Method

The analyses reported in this study are based on data collected in two field studies: JOBS II (1991–1994) and Couples Employment Project (CEP, 1996–1998). These studies were conducted in Michigan and Maryland by partially overlapping teams of investigators from the University of Michigan and George Washington University. The basic design, data collection procedures, and instruments in the two studies were similar, and both studies included many of the same measures. Both studies also included a randomized experimental intervention to improve job-search skills. However, the intervention had a detectable impact on outcome measures (e.g., reemployment) only in the earlier study (for details, see Vinokur, Price, & Schul, 1995) but not in the later one. Therefore, for the present investigation that focuses on the natural processes of reemployment, we use only the data from the control groups of the JOBS study but the entire data set (control and experimental condition) of the CEP study.

Participants

JOBS II participants were recruited from four offices of the Michigan Employment Security Commission (MESCC) in southeastern Michigan, the state agency that provides unemployment insurance payments. Of the 2,004 participants, only the data from 756 participants from the control groups were used in the present investigation. Of the total of 1,487 participants in the CEP, 814 were recruited at the same MESCC offices in Michigan as JOBS participants, and 673 were recruited at the offices of the Maryland Department of Employment and Economic Development. The participants in both the JOBS and CEP study were workers who had recently lost a job ($M_s = 4.19$ and 6.49 weeks since job loss, for JOBS and CEP, respectively) and were unemployed for no longer than 15 weeks. In JOBS and CEP, respectively, median age was 34.33 and 38.00 years ($M_s = 35.84$ and 38.25 , $SD_s = 10.42$ and 9.92). The JOBS study included 45% men, 21% African Americans, 77% Whites, 44% married, and a mean of \$1,862 monthly income from their last job in 1990. The CEP included 56% men, 27% African Americans, 68% Whites, 80% married and 20% living as a couple for at least 4 months, and a mean of \$2,553 monthly income from their last job in 1996.

The demographic characteristics of both samples, and in particular the JOBS, resemble the profile of the U.S. unemployed population as reported by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (1992a). For example, the U.S. unemployed population during 1991 had a median age of 30.42 years and included 58% men, 20% African Americans, 76% Whites, 41% married, and monthly earnings of \$1,834.

Procedure

In both JOBS and CEP, respondents were approached by experienced interviewers while standing in line at the unemployment offices and were asked to volunteer for the study. Both studies included screening procedures at the state unemployment office to determine eligibility. The screening was based on a few introductory questions and a very short self-administered questionnaire. In both studies, eligible respondents were those unemployed for less than 13 or 15 weeks (in JOBS and CEP, respectively), still seeking a job, and not expecting to retire within the next 2 years or to be recalled back to their former jobs. In the CEP study, eligibility criteria also included being married or having a romantic partner for at least 4 months and not having a major depression for the last 4 weeks as assessed by the University of Michigan Composite International Diagnostic Interview short interview form from the Comorbidity Study (Kessler et al., 1998). The latter criterion resulted in the exclusion of 7.8% respondents from the study.

Data Collection

Time 1 (T1) pretest questionnaire in the JOBS study was mailed to the respondents with a \$5 respondent payment. T1 pretest in the CEP study was a personal interview at the respondent's residence and included a \$10 payment. Subsequent Time 2 (T2) and Time 3 (T3) follow-ups in both studies included mailed self-administered questionnaires with payments ranging from \$10 to \$20. The first follow-up in both studies was at 6 months (T2) and the second, long-term, follow-up (T3) was at 24 months in JOBS and at 12 months in CEP.

Of those who were screened and found eligible to participate in the JOBS study, 73% mailed back the pretest T1 questionnaire and were enrolled as study participants. In the CEP study, which included couples, only 23% of the eligible couples completed the T1 interview and became study participants. Of those who enrolled in the JOBS study, 89% and 81% mailed back the questionnaires at the 6-month and 24-month follow-ups. Of those who enrolled in the CEP study, 87% and 85% mailed back the questionnaires at the 6-month and 12-month follow-ups. In both studies, we found that compared with respondents, the nonrespondent group at the follow-ups was significantly younger, was less educated, and had a higher proportion of minorities. At pretest, the nonrespondents had lower income (prior to job loss) and higher financial strain. Although these differences between respondents and nonrespondents were statistically significant because of the large sample size, they were relatively small. Given the overall high response rate at the follow-ups in both studies, ranging from 81% to 89%, these differences were unlikely to introduce serious systematic bias to the findings.

Measures

Below we describe the subset of measures that were used for the analyses of the present investigation. Except where noted, the same measures were used in the two studies.

Demographics were assessed using standard survey questions for reporting age, gender, education, marital status,

family income prior to the job loss, and ethnic/racial identification. For the analyses described below, gender, marital status, and ethnic/racial identification were coded as dummy variables with a score of "0" assigned to respondents who were White, male, married, and, in the JOBS study, those living together with a partner. A score of "1" was assigned to respondents who were non-White (African Americans, American Indian, Asian or Pacific Islander, other), female, and nonmarried or separated, and, in the CEP study, not married but living with their partner. Family income prior to the job loss was reported on a scale with 21 or 23 bracketed income categories for JOBS or CEP study, respectively.

Depressive symptom level was measured with a subscale of 11 items ($\alpha = .90$ and $.93$ for JOBS and CEP, respectively) based on the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Derogatis, Lipmann, Rickels, Uhlenhuth, & Covi, 1974). The 11-item scale required respondents to indicate how much (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *extremely*) they had been bothered or distressed in the last 2 weeks by various depressive symptoms, such as feeling blue, having thoughts of ending one's life, or crying easily. The latent variable construct in our analysis was indicated by two subindices from the 11 items.

Financial strain was measured with a three-item index ($\alpha = .87$ and $.83$ for JOBS and CEP, respectively; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). Using 5-point scales, the respondents rated their current and anticipated economic hardship, such as difficulties living on their household income and living with a reduced standard of living. This scale was found to be highly correlated ($r = .76$) with commonly used economic hardship scales that focus on financially stressful events, such as borrowing money to pay bills. The latent variable financial strain construct in our analysis was indicated by the three items of the index.

Mastery. The conceptualization of sense of mastery (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978) overlaps with Rotter's (1966) construct of locus of control as general self-efficacy (Sherer et al., 1982). In addition, mastery and control are an important part of a person's self-esteem in Western cultures that value achievement; thus, items that assess personal control are embedded in the measure of self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965). Although conceptual differences among the concepts are appropriately drawn out in the literature (e.g., Maddux, 1995), there is still a great deal of overlap in the measures of these constructs (Eden & Aviram, 1993, p. 353). For that reason, in the JOBS II study, we used a measure of sense of mastery that reflected this overlap. Our measure was constructed by computing the mean scores of locus of control and self-esteem indices described below. The *locus of control* measure was based on a 10-item index ($\alpha = .68$) from Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (1966). These items were demonstrated by Gurin, Gurin, and Morrison (1978) to best capture a personal, rather than ideological, orientation and are very similar to those used in another widely used self-mastery scale (Pearlin, Menaghan, Lieberman, & Mullan, 1981). The *self-esteem* measure included ratings on 8 items from Rosenberg's (1965) Self-Esteem Scale ($\alpha = .83$). The ratings for the locus of control and the self-esteem scales were provided on 5-point scales ranging from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*). The latent variable mastery construct in our analysis was indicated by the two measures (i.e., locus of control and self-esteem). In the CEP study, *mastery* was assessed with Pearlin and Schooler's (1978) measure. The measure consisted of 7 items with 4-point scales ($\alpha = .78$) ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4

(*strongly agree*). The scales required the respondents to rate the degree of agreement with statements regarding personal control, such as "I have little control over the things that happen to me." The latent construct was indicated by two indicators; each consisted of the mean of 3 or 4 of the items from the scale. Although the assessment of mastery used in the two studies was based on different measures, they were shown to have nearly identical correlations with all of our demographic variables as well as the psychological ones (e.g., depression and financial strain), lending strong support to the convergent validity of the measures.

Job-search self-efficacy was assessed using a six-item index ($\alpha = .87$ and $.85$ for JOBS and CEP, respectively). Regardless of reemployment status, respondents were asked to rate on a 5-point scale their degree of confidence in being able to successfully perform six essential job-search activities, such as completing a job application or resume, using their social network to discover promising job openings, and getting their point across in a job interview.

Job-search motivation was an index (with α s of $.83$ and $.80$ for JOBS and CEP, respectively) constructed from the converted mean scores of three multi-item scales assessing the attitude (using 7-point response scales), subjective norms (using 5-point scales), and intention to engage in intensive job search (using a 5- and a 7-point scale). Before calculating the mean of this index, we converted the original three scales to produce a scale varying from 0 to 100. The job-search motivation latent construct was indicated in our structural analyses by the three measures that included attitude, subjective norms, and intention. These measures represent the core of the related constructs of Ajzen and Fishbein's theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) that are used for predicting social behavior. *Attitude toward job-search behavior* was measured by asking respondents to indicate the extent to which it was wise or foolish, beneficial or harmful, and useful or useless for them to try hard in the next 4 months to get a job. The respondents indicated their answers on a 7-point scale ranging from extremely wise (beneficial, useful) to extremely foolish (harmful, useless). This three-item index had a reliability alpha coefficient of $.86$ in JOBS and $.90$ in CEP. *Subjective norms toward job-search behavior* were assessed by asking respondents to indicate how hard his or her significant other thought she or he should try to get a job in the next 4 months and how hard other people who are important to him or her thought she or he should try to get a job in the next 4 months. These two items combined into an index with a reliability alpha coefficient of $.84$ in both JOBS and CEP. *Intention to engage in job-search behavior* was assessed through responses to the following questions: "In the next 4 months, how hard do you intend to try to find a job where you'd work over 20 hours a week?" and "In the next 4 months, how likely is it that you will try hard to get a job?" Response choices for the first item ranged from 1 (*not at all hard*) to 5 (*extremely hard*), whereas response choices to the second item range from 1 (*extremely likely*) to 7 (*extremely unlikely*). These two items were combined in an index with a reliability alpha coefficient of $.67$ in JOBS and $.80$ in CEP.

Job-search intensity in the JOBS study was a 10-item index that was used in earlier investigations (van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987). The Cronbach coefficient alphas of the scale were $.84$ in the JOBS study and $.79$ in CEP. In the JOBS study, respondents were asked

to report the number of times they engaged in each of 10 job-search activities over the past 30 days. The scores on the 10 items were converted to deciles and averaged to form the index. In the CEP study, the respondents were asked to rate how often they engaged in each of the 10 job-search activities in the last month from 1 = *not at all* to 6 = *every day* (Vuori & Vesalainen, 1999). The job-search behaviors covered by the items included reading the newspaper or other publications for job opportunities; checking with employment agencies; talking to friends, family, or other people for job leads; sending out a resume; filling out application forms; telephoning, writing, or visiting potential employers; going on a job interview; doing things to improve impression; contacting public employment service; and conducting information interviews.

Assessing reemployment. *Extent of reemployment* included the number of reported hours of paid work per week. *Wage rate* as an objective indicator of employment quality was based on the reports of the reemployed respondents of their hourly pay. The assessment of *subjective quality of reemployment* included an index ($\alpha = .78$ and $.81$ in JOBS and in CEP, respectively) based on nine rating scales developed by Andrews and Withey (1976). The rating scales required respondents to indicate how they felt about various aspects of their job on scales that varied from *terrible* (scored 1) to *delighted* (scored 7). The aspects of the job that were covered included coworkers, the company, supervisor, the work itself, the pay, chances for promotion, job security, skill utilization, variety of things at work, and the benefits.

Results

Overview of Analytic Procedures

We constructed and tested two basic structural models: one focused on reemployment, the other on job quality. The first model (see Figure 1) was based on Hypothesis Sets 1 through 6 regarding the relationship among mastery, financial strain, depression, and job-search motivation and intensity and their influence on reemployment. In the second model, we replaced the extent of reemployment at 6 months and at long-term follow-up (24 and 12 months, respectively, for JOBS and CEP) with wage rate and quality of work life, respectively, as the two major dependent variables. We also included wage rate as a predictor of quality of work life (Hypothesis Set 7). Because different subgroups of respondents were reemployed at each follow-up, we tested this model separately for each follow-up data set.

All of the models were tested by a confirmatory latent-variable structural analysis using the EQS program (Bentler, 1995). Our analyses were based on pairwise covariance matrices. Analyses based on the listwise matrices produced very similar results but with significant loss in statistical power. Reduction in statistical power was the result of a large proportion of cases being dropped because of missing data. Our

analyses also adjusted the sample size downward to compensate for missing data. We followed Raykov, Tomer, and Nesselroade's (1991) recommendation and report the following goodness-of-fit measures: normed fit index (NFI), nonnormed fit index (NNFI), and comparative fit index (CFI) as well as the misfit measure known as root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Indications for acceptable fit are provided by fit indices that exceed .90 and misfit RMSEA index under or equal to .06. The recruitment process in JOBS II included oversampling job seekers who were at high risk for depression. To adjust for the oversampling of high-risk individuals, we performed our structural modeling analyses on the weighted data (Kaplan & Ferguson, 1999). The weighting of the data served to restore the proportion of the high-risk respondents to their original proportion in the population from which they were recruited. The correlations among all our measures, their means, and standard deviations for the JOBS and CEP study are provided in the Appendix.¹

Model 1: Predicting Extent of Reemployment

Prior to testing the structural model as presented in Figure 1, we tested the adequacy of the measurement model of the six latent variables. For both the JOBS and the CEP studies, the test of the measurement model produced, respectively, $\chi^2(51, N = 700) = 135.05$ and $\chi^2(51, N = 1,280) = 184.73$, with acceptable goodness-of-fit values on all the measures (i.e., NFI, NNFI, and CFI all between .96 to .98, and with RMSEA = .049 and .040).

The results of the structural modeling analysis that pertain to our Hypothesis Sets 1 through 5 are presented in Figure 1 for both the JOBS data (in italics) and for the CEP data (in bold). The results that pertain to the effects of the demographic variables on the other variables in the model (Hypothesis Set 6) are provided in Table 1.

For both the JOBS and the CEP studies, the test of the model presented in Figure 1 produced, respectively, $\chi^2(163, N = 700) = 426.9$ and $\chi^2(163, N = 1,280) = 712.6$, with acceptable goodness-of-fit values on all the measures (i.e., NFI, NNFI, and CFI all between .91 to .95, and with RMSEA = .05). Thus,

¹ The matrices of correlations and covariances are available from Amiram D. Vinokur on request.

the model fit the data from these studies quite well.² Nearly all of the beta coefficients (28 of 32) of the paths described by Hypothesis Sets 1 to 5 were statistically significant ($p < .05$). There were only four exceptions that included the path from depressive symptoms to job-search intensity, from mastery to job-search motivation, and, in the JOBS study, from job-search intensity to reemployment at 6-month follow-up and from depressive symptoms to 24-month follow-up.

The findings provide consistent support for three of the four hypotheses in Hypothesis Set 1. There were statistically significant path coefficients in both JOBS and CEP data, respectively, indicating that mastery, as a coping resource, enhanced job-search efficacy ($\beta_s = .48, .38$), reduced level of depressive symptoms ($\beta_s = -.56, -.52$), and reduced financial strain ($\beta_s = -.19, -.33$). The results failed to support the hypothesis that mastery increases job-search motivation.

As predicted by Hypothesis Set 2, in both studies, job-search self-efficacy significantly increased job-search motivation ($\beta_s = .24, .18$) and job-search intensity ($\beta_s = .30, .25$).

In the same vein, in both studies, all of Hypothesis Set 3 regarding the effects of financial strain was also supported. Financial strain increased job-search motivation ($\beta_s = .29, .30$) and job-search intensity ($\beta_s = .15, .17$) and also elevated the level of depressive symptoms ($\beta_s = .31, .36$).

Regarding Hypothesis Set 4, there is consistent support for the hypotheses that job-search motivation increased job-search intensity ($\beta_s = .30, .25$) as well as reemployment in the 6-month follow-up ($\beta_s = .17, .20$) and the long-term follow-ups ($\beta_s = .19, .14$). Job-search intensity was a significant predictor of reemployment in the CEP study ($\beta_s = .11$) but not in JOBS ($\beta_s = .05, ns$). The difference here may be due to the fact that in the CEP study we used a new and improved measure of job-search intensity.

In Hypothesis Set 5, the results failed to support the hypothesis that depressive symptoms decrease job-search intensity, as both path coefficients were weak and not significant ($\beta_s = .06, .04$). In contrast, there was consistent evidence that depressive symptoms decrease reemployment in the 6-month follow-up ($\beta_s = -.08, -.08$) and also in the 12-month follow-up of the CEP study ($\beta = -.10$), but not in the 24-month follow-up of the JOBS study ($\beta = .02, ns$).

The results that pertain to the effects of demographics on reemployment and the other constructs (Hypothesis Set 6) are presented in Table 1. All the statistically nonsignificant paths of influence of the

demographic variables that were found in both studies were removed from the estimation procedure of the final model displayed in Figure 1. Therefore, Table 1 includes only paths that were statistically significant in at least one of the two studies, or in both.

As hypothesized, the extent of reemployment at 6-month follow-up was weakly but significantly lower for older job seekers ($\beta_s = -.13, -.08$). Similarly, the demographic variables also had various effects on the coping resources variables and on depressive symptoms. For example, in both studies, the significant predictors of higher job-search motivation were being male ($\beta_s = -.09, -.20$) and being White ($\beta_s = -.08, -.09$). And in both studies, the significant predictor of more intensive job-search was being non-White ($\beta_s = .16, .14$). Finally, as expected, a significant predictor of lower financial strain was pre-job-loss family income ($\beta_s = -.31, -.35$).

The results described in Figure 1 included five constructs that were assessed concurrently during pretest. Consequently, their causal relationships as described by the directional paths should be considered with caution. Additional analyses were performed to examine the fit of the data to the model when the causal direction of several of the paths was reversed. Theoretical considerations suggested that mastery and financial strain influence job-search motivation as described by the paths in Figure 1. Both mastery and financial strain experiences existed well before the job loss and the resultant motivation to look for a new one. However, the causal influence among mastery, financial strain, and depressive symptoms is open to question. Thus, we tested modified alternative models in which one, two, or all three of the paths connecting mastery, financial strain, and depressive symptoms were reversed. All of these alternative modified models showed significantly poorer fit to the data compared with our original model.

Model 2: Predicting Quality of Reemployment

The results of the structural modeling analyses that focused on the prediction of the quality of reemployment are presented in Table 2. Two separate analy-

² Unfortunately, because two measures across these studies were constructed differently (i.e., mastery and job-search intensity), it was not possible to conduct a rigorous comparison of the model for the two groups by analyzing them simultaneously.

Table 2

Standardized Regression Coefficients (β s) Indicating Effects of Pre-Job-Loss Demographics, Job-Search Motivation, Job-Search Intensity, and Depression on Wage Rate and Quality of Work Life: 6-Month and 12-Month Follow-Ups

Variable	JOBS II study				CEP study			
	6-month follow-up		24-month follow-up		6-month follow-up		12-month follow-up	
	Wage	QWL	Wage	QWL	Wage	QWL	Wage	QWL
Age	-.04	-.07	-.08	-.12*	-.03	-.05	-.04	-.07*
Gender ^a	-.03		-.08*		-.08**		.07*	
Education ^b	.12*		.15**		.16**		.08*	
Family income, pre-job-loss	.00		.06		.11**		.13**	
Race ^c	-.03		.04		-.10**		-.08**	
Wage, pre-job-loss	.45**	-.10	.50**	-.13*	.44**	-.12**	.51**	-.09*
Quality of work life, pre-job-loss		.23**		.21**		.13**		.17**
Wage at follow-up		.22**		.29**		.23**		.19**
Motivation	-.10	.03	-.01	.04	-.01	-.02	.02	.04
Depression	-.10*	-.05	-.09*	-.10*	-.06*	-.11**	.01	-.08*
Job search	.05		.00		.07*		.08*	
R ²	.27	.10	.39	.14	.43	.07	.46	.07
χ^2 (df)	327 (178)		377 (178)		510 (178)		527 (178)	
n	373		425		756		825	
NFI		.89		.89		.92		.93
NNFI		.92		.91		.93		.93
CFI		.94		.94		.95		.95
RMSEA		.048		.051		.050		.049

Note. In estimating the model, only paths that were statistically significant in at least one of the two studies were included and are displayed in the table. Wage was measured as dollars per hour and Quality of Work Life (QWL) by a 10-item index. CEP = Couples Employment Project; NFI = normed fit index; NNFI = nonnormed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

^a Gender categories include 0 = male, 1 = female. ^b Education categories include 1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college, 4 = college graduate, 5 = graduate work above college. ^c Race categories include 0 = White, 1 = non-White.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

ses, one for the 6-month follow-up and the second for the long-term follow-up, were conducted on the data set from each study. Separate analyses were necessary because each follow-up had a different subsample of reemployed respondents. The number of reemployed respondents in each of the two follow-ups of the JOBS study was 373 and 377, and in the CEP study, 756 and 825. As shown at the bottom half of Table 2, the CFI goodness-of-fit values are .94 or .95, and RMSEA misfit values are well below .06, indicating acceptable model fit.

The hypothesis that wage rate influences job quality (Hypothesis 7a) received full and consistent support. All the paths coefficients from wage rate to job quality (varying from .19 to .29) were statistically significant beyond .01. As for Hypothesis 7b, level of depressive symptoms was a statistically significant

predictor of lower wage rate in both follow-ups of the JOBS study (β s = $-.10$ and $-.09$) but only for the 6-month follow-up of the CEP study (β = $-.06$). It was also a statistically significant predictor of lower job quality in the CEP study (β s = $-.11$ and $-.08$) but only for the 24-month follow-up of the JOBS study (β = $-.10$). Thus, Hypothesis 7b received substantial support but not a completely consistent one.

Partial support was found for Hypothesis 7c suggesting that job-search intensity predicts a better job quality. In the CEP study, that also included an improved measure of job-search intensity: Job-search intensity predicted a higher wage rate in both follow-ups (β s = $.07$ and $.08$). As suggested by Hypothesis 7d, there were no effects of job-search motivation on any measure of job quality. Finally, regarding the effects of the demographic variables (Hypothesis Set

7e) on wage rate, as expected, education was a significant and consistent predictor of higher wage rate in all the follow-ups at both studies (β s = .12 and .15 in JOBS; β s = .16 and .08 in CEP). In the CEP study, but not in JOBS, pre-job-loss family income was a significant predictor of higher wage rate (β s = .11 and .13), and non-White race predicted lower wage rate (β s = -.10 and -.08).

Discussion

Using the same analytic structural modeling analyses, we examined data from two longitudinal studies of displaced workers in Michigan (JOBS study in 1990 to 1993) and Maryland (CEP study in 1996 to 1998) to identify the processes that lead to reemployment. The two studies shared an overlapping set of key measures assessing strains and coping resources that are hypothesized in the literature to predict or influence the extent of reemployment and its quality. The existence of these overlapping sets of measures made it possible to conduct parallel analyses and produce comparable findings. At the same time, it is important to note two important differences between the studies: One difference stems from the fact that recruitment of respondents to the CEP study was restricted to only married unemployed job seekers or those in a committed relationship; the other difference between the studies has to do with the economic context that existed during the period when the studies were conducted. The JOBS study was conducted during a period of a mild economic recession with a high unemployment rate of 8% (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1992b), whereas the CEP study was conducted during a period of economic expansion when the rate of unemployment rapidly decreased to 4.7% and below (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1997).

Despite the differences in the economic context during the periods in which the studies were conducted and some differences in the demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of marital status, the structural modeling analyses produced very similar patterns of results for both the model that focused on extent of reemployment and the model that focused on reemployment quality. All the models provided good and acceptable fit to the data. With two exceptions, the findings in both studies provided substantial support for all the study hypotheses (listed in Hypothesis Sets 1 through 7). The exceptions included the absence of support for Hypothesis Set 1a that mastery has a direct path of influence to job-

search motivation and for Hypothesis Set 5a that depressive symptoms decrease job-search intensity.

The direct pathways to reemployment and its quality were shown to be essentially the same in both studies. In both studies, job-search motivation at baseline had a significant beneficial impact on extent of reemployment both at the 6-month and at the long-term follow-ups (12 or 24 month). And, in both studies, the motivation had no detectable effect on any of the two measures of quality of reemployment. In both studies, level of depressive symptoms at baseline had a significant adverse effect on the extent of reemployment and its quality in terms of wage rate at the 6-month follow-up and in terms of subjective quality of work at the long-term follow-up. Each study had additional unique effects in one follow-up or the other. For example, depressive symptoms had an adverse effect on reemployment at the 12-month follow-up of CEP but not at the 24-month follow-up of JOBS. Together, 9 of the hypothesized 12 paths of influence from depressive symptoms to extent of reemployment and its quality are statistically significant. In both studies, older age is a significant predictor of unemployment at the 6-month follow-up (but not at the longer term follow-up), and education is a significant predictor of higher wage rate at every follow-up.

The web of pathways among coping resources and strains leading to job search is remarkably consistent across the two studies, with very similar path coefficients. Of the 11 hypothesized paths among these variables, the same 9 paths had statistically significant path coefficients in both studies; and, in both studies, the same 2 paths were not significant. In addition, the results demonstrated the central role of financial strain as a mediator of the effects of pre-job-loss variables (family income, race, and employment) and mastery on three of the more direct contributors to reemployment. That is, financial strain has a substantial direct impact on increasing job-search motivation and level of depressive symptoms as well as a modest impact on job-search intensity.

Earlier we pointed out that a number of studies have investigated the influence of coping resources on reemployment. Their findings served as the basis of several of the hypotheses that underlie the models we tested. However, the findings of the earlier investigations were typically based on regression analyses with results that did not reveal the structural relationship among the predictors and did not provide adjustment for the unreliability of the measures. Consequently, it was often not clear whether certain predictors have direct or indirect effects on the out-

comes, or both. Our investigation was, therefore, designed to fill this gap in knowledge regarding the interrelationship among predictors of job-search intensity and their contribution to reemployment and its quality. Our results also provide estimates that are adjusted for the measures' unreliability.

Overall, our structural equation analyses from the two studies replicated the basic findings of past research (e.g., Van Ryn & Vinokur, 1992; Wanberg, 1997; Wanberg et al., 1999) while integrating these findings into one comprehensive model that provided more accurate estimates of the various effects. In addition, the results helped to meet our secondary goal that was aimed at testing earlier conflicting results regarding the effects of depression on reemployment and also on reemployment quality. Here we demonstrated that elevated depressive symptomatology had an adverse effect on extent of reemployment at 6- and 12-month follow-ups but not at the 24-month long-term follow-up. These results strongly support those of Hamilton et al. (1993), which were based on a unique sample of unemployed workers in the automobile industry. Furthermore, our study extended the examination of the effects of depression on quality of reemployment and provided substantial evidence for its adverse effect on reemployment quality.

Although our tests of the reemployment model were supported by the findings, they also hint at two important weaknesses that hinge on the assessment of job-search behavior. One weakness of the model stems from the absence of an assessment of the quality of the job-search behavior. Obviously, it is not only the intensity of the search but also its quality or efficiency that contribute to successful reemployment. Another weakness is the possibility that the early assessment of job-search intensity at pretest, shortly after the job loss, does not reflect well how the search changes over time. It is quite possible that highly motivated individuals who remain unemployed intensify their job-search activities over time until they get a job, which explains the persistent positive effect of motivation at each assessment period. In contrast, shortly after losing a job, more highly depressed individuals may engage in a fair amount of search activities, which explains the absence of the hypothesized effect of depressive symptoms on job-search intensity at pretest. But, later on, when they fail to find a job, they become discouraged and reduce their job-search activities or settle for lower paying jobs. The latter accounts for the findings showing the adverse effects of level of depressive symptoms on reemployment and at 6-month and

12-month follow-ups and on wage rate in several follow-ups. These weaknesses suggest that future studies should attempt to assess both job-search intensity and its quality and should track these search efforts over the duration of the unemployment period until a job is found or other exit from the labor force (e.g., retirement) takes place.

Finally, our structural model for predicting reemployment (Figure 1) provides useful information for designing intervention programs to facilitate and promote the reentry of unemployed workers into the labor market. A number of such programs already focus on the enhancement of job-search efficacy (e.g., Eden & Aviram, 1993; Price & Vinokur, 1995), which contributes to job-search motivation and intensity. The results from the analysis of our model also suggests that such programs could increase their effectiveness, with appropriate components aimed at reducing the level of depressive symptoms, possibly by also addressing difficult financial issues that contribute to these symptoms.

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Appendix

Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations of Study Variables for JOBS II Study ($N = 756$; Below Diagonal) and for CEP Study ($N = 1,487$; Above Diagonal)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	M	SD
1. Age	—	-.07	.12	.33	-.16	.30	.03	.34	.09	.00	-.01	-.16	-.11	.02	.01	-.03	.02	.20	.19	-.03	-.05	38.25	9.92
2. Gender ^a	.03	—	.01	-.12	-.07	.02	-.31	-.18	-.03	-.01	-.30	-.13	.08	-.24	-.05	-.21	-.21	-.18	-.17	.02	.05	0.44	0.50
3. Education ^b	.02	.03	—	.48	-.10	.20	.05	.45	-.01	.13	.03	-.20	-.10	.09	.24	.07	.11	.43	.37	.07	.02	2.89	1.16
4. Family income ^c	.25	-.03	.25	—	-.30	.33	.14	.64	.12	.17	-.04	-.39	-.12	.10	.24	.07	.14	.48	.45	.08	.08	10.42	5.39
5. Race ^d	-.15	.05	.05	-.21	—	-.20	-.04	-.24	-.08	.06	-.04	-.14	-.11	.16	.01	-.10	-.04	-.23	-.19	-.10	-.06	0.33	0.47
6. Marital status ^e	-.26	.10	-.02	-.42	.07	—	.00	.24	.06	.05	-.04	-.14	-.11	-.03	.08	.07	.05	.18	.19	.08	.05	0.80	0.40
7. Pre-job-loss employment	.11	-.25	.00	.15	-.05	-.10	—	.10	.08	.04	.20	.05	-.02	.17	.08	.19	.28	.13	.15	.04	.02	45.11	10.34
8. Pre-job-loss wage	.33	-.16	.34	.51	-.11	-.17	.04	—	.11	.13	.09	-.22	-.13	.03	.22	.12	.17	.61	.59	.02	.04	12.88	7.33
9. Pre-job-loss QWL	.11	.13	-.04	.20	-.05	-.07	.00	.12	—	.16	-.01	-.14	-.16	.01	.13	.01	.09	.02	.06	.13	.18	4.52	0.98
10. Mastery	.14	.06	.10	.16	.05	-.09	.01	.17	.19	—	.02	-.31	-.55	-.01	.35	.03	.10	.12	.12	.17	.14	3.17	0.50
11. Job search motivation ^f	-.11	-.14	.09	-.11	.01	.15	.09	.05	.00	.07	—	.26	.11	.35	.16	.27	.25	.08	.13	-.04	.03	78.08	20.30
12. Financial strain	.00	-.08	-.12	.33	.16	.13	.07	-.11	-.09	-.20	.25	—	.44	.22	-.08	.07	-.02	-.18	-.15	-.12	-.09	2.67	1.10
13. Depressive symptom	-.01	.13	-.06	-.08	-.02	.08	.05	-.09	-.07	-.46	.00	.34	—	.05	-.21	-.06	-.13	-.13	-.07	-.14	-.11	1.79	0.77
14. Job-search intensity	-.01	-.07	.07	-.09	.18	.05	.04	.00	.06	.01	.32	.24	.04	—	.28	.18	.18	.09	.06	.01	-.01	3.26	0.86
15. Job-search efficacy	.01	.02	.19	.04	.06	.02	.06	.10	.07	.39	.23	.03	-.26	.24	—	.11	.14	.23	.16	.18	-.13	4.08	0.74
16. 6-month reemployment	-.13	-.10	.04	-.04	-.01	.09	.09	.07	-.02	.05	.21	-.02	-.08	.11	.08	—	.49	.05	.09	.12	.04	30.26	19.87
17. 12/24-month reemployment ^g	-.17	-.12	.07	-.01	-.05	.09	.15	.07	-.04	.05	.25	.02	-.05	.10	.17	.40	—	.15	.05	.12	.12	33.02	19.15
18. 6-month wage rate	.14	-.10	.25	.27	.03	-.20	.08	.50	.02	.21	-.10	-.13	-.16	-.07	.14	-.06	-.02	—	.74	.15	.06	13.29	8.82
19. 12/24-month wage rate ^h	.11	-.13	.35	.33	.04	-.12	.13	.58	-.01	.23	.03	-.06	-.15	.05	.22	.13	.15	.65	—	.08	.15	13.83	9.38
20. 6-month QWL	-.05	.07	-.02	.09	-.08	-.10	.16	.00	.21	.16	.02	-.14	-.09	.04	.15	.10	.10	.22	-.02	—	.52	5.01	.98
21. 12/24 month QWL	-.09	.03	-.04	.11	-.06	-.05	.05	.03	.20	.27	.07	-.05	-.12	-.01	.22	.00	.13	.12	.22	.33	—	4.98	1.00
M	35.85	0.55	2.87	2.82	0.23	0.56	43.02	9.93	4.37	3.71	79.23	3.05	1.85	5.57	3.85	26.12	30.22	9.64	10.40	4.63	4.73		
SD	10.42	0.50	1.11	1.40	0.42	0.50	9.90	4.44	0.96	0.52	18.86	1.02	0.72	1.78	0.78	20.30	20.02	6.28	5.29	1.07	1.05		

Note. CEP = Complex Employment Project; QWL = Quality of Work Life. All the correlations that are equal or larger than .08 and .05, respectively, in the JOBS II and CEP studies, are statistically significant at the .05 level.

^a Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. ^b Education: 1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college, 4 = college graduate, 5 = graduate work above college. ^c Family income was assessed in five bracketed categories in JOBS and 23 categories in CEP. ^d Race: 0 = White, 1 = non-White. ^e Marital status: 0 = married; 1 = nonmarried or separated (in CEP, living together). ^f In JOBS, the original scales were rescaled from 9 to 100, then averaged. ^g 12-month and 24-month are the follow-ups, respectively, in the CEP and the JOBS study.

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