

https://dspace.org/

Job search anxiety, transition resources and wellbeing

Britton, Thomas

2019

https://hdl.handle.net/10539/29418

Britton, Thomas. (2019). Job search anxiety, transition resources and wellbeing. University of the Witwatersrand, https://hdl.handle.net/10539/29418

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

Job Search Anxiety, Transition Resources, and Wellbeing



Thomas Britton

716691

Research Supervisor: Ian Siemers

A research report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MA by coursework and Research Report in the field of Organisational Psychology in the Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 15 March 2019

Plagiarism Declaration

I, Thomas Britton, declare that this research report is my own, unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any other degree of examination at this or any other university

Signed: _____

Date: _____

Word Count: 34880

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to the following people. Without these persons, this research report would not have been possible:

- Firstly, to Ian Siemers. Without your help, guidance and support as a supervisor, none of this would have been possible. Thank you so much for all your help throughout this process.

- Secondly, to my father for all the support you gave me, always believing in me.

- To my friends for always giving me support and motivation to keep on going.

- To the Master's class of 2018. The environment that was created made getting through this year a lot easier. So, thank you!

- To all the participants within my study. Without your input, none of this would have been possible.

Abstract

Multiple researchers have noted the impact of job search anxiety on the psychological wellbeing of individuals. This study sought to investigate whether the effects of job search anxiety are mitigated by the extent to which individuals possess particular transition resources. These resources, namely generalised self-efficacy, perceived control over finding employment, perceived social support, as well as the coping style a person finds most desirable to engage in when faced with a stress-inducing situation were utilised in accordance with Nancy Schlossberg's transition model. The outcome variable, namely psychological wellbeing, looked at symptoms of generalised anxiety as well as depression. The sample within the current study included (n = 218) exit level students from the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa. Pearson's Product Moment Correlations, multiple moderated regressions and Two-Way ANOVA's were executed to assess the primary research questions within the study. A significant positive relationship was found between job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing. However, despite the assertions that the theorist Nancy Schlossberg made within her transition theory as well as the theoretical connections illustrated within previous research, the transition resources highlighted within this study did not significantly moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing. Significant main effects were found between a portion of the moderator variables and the psychological wellbeing variables. The findings within the study have suggested that more work is needed to completely support Schlossberg's transition model.

Keywords: Job search anxiety, wellbeing, self-efficacy, perceived control, social support from family, social support from friends, social support from a significant other, task-oriented coping, avoidance-oriented coping, emotion-oriented coping

Table of Contents

Declaration ii
Acknowledgements iii
Abstract iv
Table of contents v
List of Tables ix
List of Figures xi

1. Introduction 1

2. Literature Review 3
2.1 Job Search Anxiety 3
2.2 Wellbeing 5
2.2.1 Depression 6
2.2.2 Generalised Anxiety 7
2.3 Job Search Anxiety and Wellbeing 8
2.4 Transition Resources 10
2.4.1 Schlossberg's Transition Theory 10
2.4.2 The Transactional Model of Stress 11
2.4.3 Schlossberg's Transition Theory and the stressor strain relationship 11
2.4.4 The Self 12
2.4.5 The Situation 15
2.4.6 Strategies 17
2.4.7 Support 19
2.5 Concluding Remarks 21
2.6 Rationale 22
2.7 Research and Sub-Research Questions 24

3 Methodology 26
3.1 Research Design 26

3.2 Sample and Sampling Strategy 26
3.3 Procedure 30
3.4 Instrumentation 31
3.4.1 Demographic Questionnaire 31
3.4.2 Job Search Anxiety Scale 32
3.4.3 General Self-Efficacy Scale 33
3.4.4 Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale 33
3.4.5 Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations Scale 34
3.4.6 Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support 35
3.4.7 The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale 35
3.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis 36
3.6 Ethical Considerations 37
3.7 Data Analysis 38
3.7.1 Simple Statistics 38
3.7.2 Reliability 38
3.7.3 Correlation 39
3.7.4 Hierarchical Multiple Moderated Regression 39
3.7.5 Two-Way ANOVA 39

4. Results 41
4.1 Descriptive Statistics for the Main Variables 41
4.2 Assumptions of Multiple Moderated Regression 43
4.2.1 Multicolinearity 43
4.2.2 Linearity 44
4.2.3 Measurement Error 44
4.2.4 Homoscedasticity 44
4.2.5 Normality 45
4.3 Correlations of Job Search Anxiety, Resources and Wellbeing 46
4.4 Analysis of Research Questions 48

5 Discussion 62
5.1 Key Findings 62
5.2 The Self 64
5.3 The Situation 65
5.4 Support 67
5.5 Strategies 70
5.6 Overview of all Findings 73
5.7 Limitations 75
5.8 Implications of Findings 75
5.9 Conclusion 77

6. Reference List 78

7. Appendices 91
Appendix A: Ethical Clearance 91
Appendix B: Letter to the Registrar Requesting Access 92
Appendix C: Letter to Course Coordinators Requesting Access 94
Appendix D: Letter to Lecturers Requesting Access 96
Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet 98
Appendix F: Demographical Questionnaire 99
Appendix G: Job Search Anxiety Scale 102
Appendix H: The General Self-Efficacy Scale 103
Appendix I: The Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale 104
Appendix J: The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations 105
Appendix K: The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support 106
Appendix L: The HADS 107
Appendix M: Evaluation Sheet for the Job Search Anxiety Scale 109
Appendix N: CFA for Job Search Anxiety Scale 111
Appendix O: Histograms for Main Variables 112
Appendix P: Tests for Linearity 118

Appendix Q: P-Plots for Normality Test of Standardized Residuals 127
Appendix R: Histogram's for Normality Tests of Standardized Residuals 128
Appendix S: Correlation Matrix for Independent and Moderator Variables 129

List of Tables

Table 1: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Gender 28
Table 2: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Age 28
Table 3: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Age 28
Table 4: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Race 28
Table 5: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Faculty Registration 29
Table 6: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Years at University 29
Table 7: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Part-Time/Full-time Employment 29
Table 8: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Previous Job Searching 29
Table 9: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Current Job Searching 30
Table 10: Sample Demographic Characteristic: Employment Bursary 30
Table 11: Item-Total Statistics for Perceived Control Scale 33
Table 12: Item-Total Statistics for Avoidance-Oriented Coping Scale 34
Table 13: Global Fit Statistic Values 36
Table 14: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Goodness-of-Fit Statistics 37
Table 15: Statistical Abbreviations Guide 41
Table 16: Descriptive Statistics for the Main Variables 41
Table 17: Normality Test after The Square-Root Transformation 42
Table 18: Collinearity Statistics 43
Table 19: Correlations for Job Search Anxiety and Wellbeing 46
Table 20: Correlations for Self-Efficacy and Wellbeing 46
Table 21: Correlations for Perceived Control and Wellbeing 47
Table 22: Correlations for Coping Styles and Wellbeing 47
Table 23: Correlations for Social Support and Wellbeing 48
Table 24: MMR for Self-Efficacy and Generalised Anxiety 49
Table 25: MMR for Self-Efficacy and Depression 50
Table 26: MMR for Perceived Control and Generalised Anxiety 50
Table 27: MMR for Perceived Control on Depression 51
Table 28: MMR for Family Support on Generalised Anxiety 51
Table 29: MMR for Family Support on Depression 52

Table 30: MMR for Friends Support on Generalised Anxiety 52
Table 31: MMR for Friends Support on Depression 53
Table 32: MMR for Significant Other Support on Generalised Anxiety..... 53
Table 33: MMR for Significant Other on Depression 54
Table 34: MMR for Avoidance-Coping on Generalised Anxiety 54
Table 35: MMR for Avoidance-Coping on Depression 55
Table 36: MMR for Task-Oriented Coping on Generalised Anxiety 55
Table 37: MMR for Task-Oriented Coping on Depression 56
Table 38: Between-Subjects Factors – Generalised Anxiety DV 57
Table 39: Levene's Test – Generalised Anxiety DV 57
Table 40: Between-Subjects-Effects - Generalised Anxiety DV 57
Table 41: Multiple Comparisons Emotion Coping - Generalised Anxiety DV 57
Table 42: Multiple Comparisons JSA Generalised Anxiety DV 58
Table 43: Between Subjects Factors – Depression DV 59
Table 44: Levene's Test – Depression DV 59
Table 45: Between-Subjects Effects – Depression DV 59
Table 46: Multiple Comparisons Emotion Coping – Depression DV 60
Table 47: Multiple Comparisons JSA Depression DV 60

List of Figures

Figure 1: The 4s Framework 12
Figure 2: Histogram for Job Search Anxiety Scale 112
Figure 3: Histogram for Self-Efficacy Scale 112
Figure 4: Histogram for Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale 113
Figure 5: Histogram for Perceived Social Support from Family Scale 113
Figure 6: Histogram for Perceived Social Support from Friends Scale 114
Figure 7: Histogram for Perceived Social Support from a Significant Other Scale 114
Figure 8: Histogram for Avoidance-Oriented Coping Subscale 115
Figure 9: Histogram for Task-Oriented Coping Subscale 115
Figure 10: Histogram for Emotion-Oriented Coping Subscale 116
Figure 11: Histogram for HADS-A Subscale 116
Figure 12: Histogram for HADS-D Subscale 117
Figure 13: Test for Linearity between JSA and Generalised Anxiety 118
Figure 14: Test for Linearity between JSA and Depression 118
Figure 15: Test for Linearity between SES and Generalised Anxiety 119
Figure 16: Test for Linearity between SES and Depression 119
Figure 17: Test for Linearity between PC and Generalised Anxiety 120
Figure 18: Test for Linearity between PC and Depression 120
Figure 19: Test for Linearity between Fam and Generalised Anxiety 121
Figure 20: Test for Linearity between Fam and Depression 121
Figure 21: Test for Linearity between Friends and Generalised Anxiety 122
Figure 22: Test for Linearity between Friends and Depression 122
Figure 23: Test for Linearity between Sig Other and Generalised Anxiety 123
Figure 24: Test for Linearity between Sig Other and Depression 123
Figure 25: Test for Linearity between CISS-T and Generalised Anxiety 124
Figure 26: Test for Linearity between CISS-T and Depression 124
Figure 27: Test for Linearity between CISS-A and Generalised Anxiety 125
Figure 28: Test for Linearity between CISS-A and Depression 125

Figure 29: Test for Linearity between CISS-E and Generalised Anxiety 126
Figure 30: Test for Linearity between CISS-E and Depression 126
Figure 31: P-Plots for Normality – Generalised Anxiety 127
Figure 32: P-Plots for Normality - Depression 127
Figure 33: Normality Test for Standardised Residual – Generalised Anxiety 128
Figure 34: Normality Test for Standardised Residual - Depression 128

Introduction

Every individual throughout their lives is subjected to various changes, otherwise known as transitions (Schlossberg, Goodman & Anderson, 2006). What makes a life event a transition is that it is an event that is filled with a level of uncertainty and challenge. These events occur between two stages of stability. Firstly, transitions necessitate the need for a person to relinquish certain aspects of their previous selves, such as the roles they formerly took up; secondly, transitions result in individuals being inducted into new roles (Schlossberg, 2006). A transition that affects most individuals across the general population at some point in time is that of finding employment (Boswell, Zimmerman & Swider, 2011). Among university students this is no different, as the primary reason most students attend university is to make themselves more employable (Balloo, Pauli & Worrell, 2015).

Within the South African context, unemployment levels currently sit at an estimate of just under 27% (Statistics South Africa, 2017). According to The World Bank (2013), youth unemployment rates have been shown to be up to two times higher than national unemployment rates across the world. Within the context of university graduates, having a degree is perceived to better a person's chances of becoming employed. However, graduate unemployment is an issue, where graduate unemployment in South Africa has been estimated at over 7% (Oluwajodu, Blaauw, Greyling, & Kleynhans, 2015). Out of the university graduates that do find employment, it is estimated that between 33% and 50% of these graduates are underemployed. This underemployment can be exemplified where graduates may undertake employment opportunities that do not offer high income levels or perform jobs that are temporary in nature (Bonaccio, Gauvin & Reeve, 2013).

There have been multiple reasons put forward as to why unemployment and underemployment rates among university graduates are high. Firstly, it has been suggested that some employers may be unwilling to recruit job seekers that lack on-the-job experience (Oluwajodu, Blaauw, Greyling, & Kleynhans, 2015). The growing number of university graduates has also resulted in a very competitive job searching environment amongst the tertiary educated population cohort, making finding employment more difficult. The issue of demand for university graduates, or lack thereof within certain fields has also been argued to be an issue. Due to the turbulent nature of some professions, not all of them may wish to consistently absorb new graduates, resulting in many graduates not being able to find the jobs they desire. With the introduction and advancement of technology (such as the introduction

of artificial intelligence), experts have also predicted that many jobs, including those that are filled by tertiary educated persons may be rendered impractical (Oluwajodu et al, 2015). For these reasons, it can be argued that the challenge of searching for employment is unlikely to decrease in the near future, resulting in job search anxiety levels to rise.

Based upon these factors, it seems that further studies into job search anxiety and related constructs is warranted. Understanding more about job search anxiety and potential factors that may mitigate the consequences that this anxiety may cause, allows for the further understanding about the contrasting effects that this stressor may have on the psychological well-being levels of exit-level students. It has been argued that persons who face unemployment are more vulnerable to experiencing heightened levels of depression and generalised anxiety (Paul & Moser, 2009; McKee & Ryan, 2005; Krueger & Mueller, 2011; Robertson, 2013; Klehe, & Van Hooft, 2018). This makes these persons more susceptible to experiencing poor physical health (Penninx, Milaneschi, Lamers & Vogelzangs, 2013) and negative behavioural changes such as lowered psychosocial functioning (Fried, & Nesse, 2014) thereby highlighting the importance of such issues.

The way in which persons manage a transition, such as moving into employment, and how effective they are in overcoming such an obstacle, has been argued to be influenced by the number of personal resources available to the individual. Schlossberg's transition model encapsulates this argument (Schlossberg et al, 2006). This study will test Schlossberg's theoretical framework within the context of the transition from university to finding full-time employment. The amount of research that focuses on this specific transition and the consequences it may result in is not plentiful, where in the South African context it is nearly non-existent. For this reason, further exploring and understanding this transition can be argued as desirable. Within the current study, job search anxiety and psychological well-being will be highlighted whilst various resources that may be relevant within the transition from university to employment according to Nancy Schlossberg's transition framework are explored. The current study will test whether these transition resources mitigate the negative psychological consequences a person may experience as a result of having high job-search anxiety.

Chapter One: Literature Review

In the section that follows, the construct of job search anxiety and wellbeing will be defined and discussed in the context of previous research. In addition, the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing will also be explored. Following this discussion, the resources that the author Nancy Schlossberg (2011) suggests are valuable in managing transitions will be put forward and explored, all of which can be argued to influence the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing.

1.1 Job Search Anxiety

The transition from an educational context towards employment has been described as an extremely important stage within a person's life (Schoon & Silbereisen, 2015). For a person to successfully negotiate this transition, they will have to engage in the activity of searching for a job. A job search refers to the activities of collecting information about the job market, specifically looking for what jobs exist within the labour market, examining what job openings may be available, and identifying the characteristics of each job (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio & Phillips, 1994). These behaviours are engaged in with the purpose of obtaining employment (Manroop, & Richardson, 2015). The process of having to search for a job has been described as a process that may be intimidating and difficult, particularly within the South African context (Ismail, 2017).

The authors Saks & Ashforth (2000) have conceptualised job search anxiety as a context specific form of anxiety relating to how a person feels about conducting a job search in its entirety. This study will use this notion to understand Job Search anxiety. Characteristics of this anxiety can be described by feelings such as nervousness towards finding a job, being worried about finding a job, and feeling tense about having to find a job (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Therefore, a person who has a low level of job search anxiety can be characterised as feeling calm, at ease, relaxed and content about the thought of having to find a job (Saks & Ashforth, 2000).

Searching for a job has been described as a process that can lead to distress (Barber et al, 1994; Bonaccio et al, 2013). Lin (2008) highlights that tasks relating to searching for a job can result in the emotional arousal of anxiety within a person. The reasons as to why this process may be characterised as emotionally arousing are plentiful. It has been suggested that searching for job openings, having the ability to market your skills to potential employers,

and finding relevant information within the field of desired employment all make the act of seeking employment anxiety inducing (Lin, 2008).

A person may have anxiety towards searching for a job due to their uncertainty about their ability to secure a job that they find desirable, or in their ability to find a job at all (Stumpf, Colarelli, & Hartman, 1983; Manroop, & Richardson, 2015). The uncertainty of not knowing what employers are looking for has also been outlined as to why a person may feel anxious towards searching for a job, particularly inexperienced job searchers such as university graduates (Barber, Daly, Giannantonio & Phillips, 1994). The achievement of finding a job has been described as very important for a person's confidence. Thus, finding employment can be described as a big aspect of a person's self-concept, highlighting that it may be an activity underlined by pressure (Barber et al, 1994; Manroop, & Richardson, 2015). The financial pressure placed on individuals can also foster distress towards needing to find a job, particularly amongst university graduates as they may face the challenge of paying off university loans, or other financial responsibilities that they may have to address (Manroop, & Richardson, 2015).

A person may experience anxiety towards conducting a job search as a person's willingness to find a job is often not the only factor that determines whether they are successful or not. This success has also been found to rest upon other circumstances. Firstly, a person's age may be perceived as a possible downfall regarding their likeliness of finding employment (Fielden, & Davidson, 1999; Lyons, Wessel, Chiew Tai, & Marie Ryan, 2014). Within the student context, this is important as most student graduates are between the ages of 21 and 27 (Higher Education and Training Republic of South Africa, 2011). Firstly, persons of this age may perceive themselves to lack the work experience needed to find a good job. Secondly, any unfavourable economic conditions the job searcher finds themselves within may negatively affect how a person feels about their ability to find a job (Fielden & Davidson, 1999). Thirdly, many jobs are not advertised, and finding out about these vacancies require a person to be able to network. A person may experience anxiety towards searching for a job as they may find that they may not have access to such networking channels, or they may appraise their ability to network as being low (Fielden & Davidson, 1999). Lastly, A prospective job searcher may also feel anxious towards searching for a job as they may have witnessed friends or family struggle with the activity, indicating that the activity is not easy (Fielden & Davidson, 1999).

With regards to the student population specifically, the return on investment a person may experience as a result of attending university and obtaining a degree is beginning to change. It has been suggested that modern day students are beginning to view their academic qualifications as less influential regarding their employability, primarily due to the perceived competitive nature of the job searching sphere within the student population (Tomlinson, 2008; Harry, Chinyamurindi, & Mjoli, 2018). Thus, it has been argued that student job search anxiety has only increased in recent years, highlighting the prominence of the issue in the present and future. With the possible negative effects that could follow from increased job search anxiety, the importance of further research in this area is also highlighted. As job search anxiety has been indicated to relate to the wellbeing people may experience (Klehe & Van Hooft, 2018), the section that follows further explores this the concept of wellbeing and relevant research in the area.

1.2 Wellbeing

Wellbeing in previous organisational psychology research has been widely examined within stressor-strain literature, where a stressor can be defined as something that may induce a stress response within the wider population, and a strain can be understood as the negative reaction a person may have to a stressor (Thatcher & Milner, 2003; Scott & Charteris, 2003). An example of this may be the lowering of a person's sense of psychological wellbeing (Garst, Frese & Molenaar, 2000). There have been multiple accounts of wellbeing within this broader stressor-strain literature, however, central to our understanding will be the transactional model of stress (discussed in further detail later), particularly as this is the theoretical framework within which that Schlossberg (2011) locates herself.

There have been many conceptions of psychological wellbeing and the measuring of it has been executed through multiple methods and interpretations (Sinclair, Wang & Tetrick, 2013). With regards to the principles and measurement of wellbeing, two broad areas have been identified. Firstly, wellbeing may be considered as an affective state, where wellbeing is measured as a universal concept which falls on a continuum of bad to good. Thus, wellbeing measured in this form identifies how a person may feel specifically with regards to their psychological health. Examples of this are feelings such as depression or anxiety (Warr, 2012). On the other hand, wellbeing can also be measured through thoughts as well as feelings that are looked at within the context of a specific theme. Examples of such measures include that of burnout, satisfaction or engagement (Warr, 2012). This study has exercised the

measurement of wellbeing through depression and anxiety, two concepts which have been found to show close relations (Durand & Barlow, 2012). Firstly, these two concepts have been chosen to be used within this study for reasons of universality; secondly, these concepts have been described as the two of the most popular methods of assessing a person's individual psychological wellbeing (Warr,1990).

Depression

A multitude of conceptions regarding what can be understood as depression have been put forward, where the earliest conception of depression dates to the nineteenth century. At present, the most widely accepted source of what constitutes a psychiatric illness is that of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. Within this manual, depression has been placed under the umbrella term of a 'mood disorder' (Durand & Barlow, 2012). A mood disorder refers to when a person may experience undulations in their mood (Durand & Barlow, 2012). Depression has been specifically referred to as when a person may psychologically feel like they are of no worth, where there is a decline in their mood, or experience an impairment regarding their usual ability to feel pleasure or ability to show interest (Durand & Barlow, 2012).

There have been many measures that have been developed to identify whether a person may have symptoms of depression. This study shares the popular conception of Snaith (2003), where he acknowledges that depression may consist of a wide range of areas of distress. He acknowledged that creating a questionnaire that attempts to measure all the various components that have been used to describe the term would be problematic, as it would fail to produce a detailed and in-depth amount of information that may be explored (Snaith, 2003). For this reason, Snaith focused his operationalization of the concept through a person's inability to feel pleasure (Snaith, 2003). These feelings include a person's inability to enjoy things that they usually do, show an impaired ability to share humour, excitement and happiness, and indicate a reduction in self-care.

Depression is important to understand and mitigate against as it may have multiple negative consequences for a person's functioning within society as well as their somatic health. Regarding somatic health, it may result in increases in the risk of cardiovascular disease, obesity, and hypertension (Penninx, Milaneschi, Lamers & Vogelzangs, 2013). Depression may also result in a decrease in a person's psychosocial functioning such as on their private

lives, ability to socialize, as well as the quality of personal relationships a person may have (Fried, & Nesse, 2014).

With regards to the student population specifically, depression may have a multitude of negative consequences for this cohort. Firstly, it has been argued to hamper student academic productivity and performance (Hysenbegasi, Hass, & Rowland, 2005). Research suggests that students that may experience symptoms of depression are more inclined to avoid attending lectures, as well as being less likely to execute tasks given to them from lecturers such as homework. Other consequences such as lowered concentration levels and poor eating habits have all been argued to be more prevalent amongst this group in comparison to groups that do not indicate depressive symptoms (Cress, & Ikeda, 2003). The second indicator of psychological wellbeing that will be looked at within this study is that of generalised anxiety.

Generalised Anxiety

Research on what is referred to as anxiety is plentiful. Generalised anxiety can specifically refer to a person's mood, where this mood may be characterised by negative feelings such as tension and unease usually focused and based on future events or circumstances (Barlow & Durand, 2012). How this tension or unease can be experienced within individuals is plentiful, such as a person experiencing physiological changes such as having an increase in their heart rate or increase in the amount of tightness they may feel in their muscles. A person can also experience deviations in their usual behaviours, such as displaying a degree of restlessness or concern (Barlow & Durand, 2012). Within the context of this study, a generalised form of anxiety has been chosen, where a person with anxiety is characterised as experiencing both physiological changes such as the feeling of butterflies within their stomach, and behavioural changes such as not being able to sit and feel relaxed (Snaith, 2003).

Understanding generalised anxiety is important as it may have many detrimental effects to a person and their ability to function effectively. Firstly, generalised anxiety may lead to a decrease in a person's ability to engage in proactive social behaviour which may result in attempts to try and avoid social interaction (Wu, Luo, Broster, Gu & Luo, 2013). Generalised anxiety can also result in the degrading of the functioning of a person's immune system (Leonard, & Song, 1996). These persons may also suffer from dietary concerns, such as the inability to consume enough amounts of food (Mayer, Craske, & Naliboff, 2001). A person with generalised anxiety may also experience insomnia and may even engage in suicidal thinking (Choueiry et al, 2016).

Generalised anxiety, just like with depression, may negatively impact the student population in a multitude of different ways. Firstly, a study was undertaken amongst university students and found results suggesting that a relationship exists between student generalised anxiety and poor physical health symptoms (Hazlett-Stevens, Craske, Mayer, Chang, & Naliboff, 2003). Generalised anxiety amongst students has also been illustrated to result in students wishing to stop attending university and having lowered levels of concentration, thus, negatively impacting upon academic achievement. However, research regarding the relationship between generalised anxiety and academic performance is contested, where some research suggests that there is no significant difference between the academic performance between students with generalised anxiety and students without it (Andrews, & Wilding, 2004). How job search anxiety and wellbeing are related will be discussed below.

1.3 Job Search Anxiety and Wellbeing

Various transitions that people must go through throughout their lives can be characterised as stress inducing and have been even been described as 'traumatic' (Schlossberg et al, 2006). These transitions may have a detrimental effect on a person's psychological wellbeing (Schlossberg et al, 2006). As highlighted above, an important transition that majority of the population must go through is that of finding employment, a transition that is most common among school or university graduates (Balloo et al, 2015).

The effect of persons such as university graduates needing to conduct a job search and the impact this may have on mental health, can partly be illustrated within unemployment literature. A meta-analysis conducted by Paul and Moser (2009) specifically looked at the relationship between unemployment and mental health, where 237 cross-studies were utilized, and 87 longitudinal studies were explored. Their findings suggested that persons who are not employed and are searching for employment are more likely to experience psychological issues such as increased anxiety and depression in comparison to persons that are employed (Paul & Moser, 2009). This finding was also emphasised in Mckee and Ryan's (2005) meta-analysis which utilized 104 empirical studies. The reasoning for the deterioration of mental health scores amongst those that are unemployed is seemingly plentiful, however, an important reason that has been highlighted is due to the stressor of having to find a job. It has been found that unemployed persons rate searching for a job as one of the primary causes of their stress and sadness (Paul & Moser, 2009; Krueger & Mueller, 2011). Within the context of exit-level students, this relationship can be argued to

exist due to the presence of the psychological desire of finding employment within this group. Previous research specifically suggests that university graduates indicate an increase in mental health scores once they have successfully navigated the act of a job search and have found employment (Paul & Moser, 2009).

Research suggests that persons who experience high levels of job search anxiety may experience depressive moods (Klehe, & Van Hooft, 2018). The reasoning for this may be due to issues such as the amount of job search opportunities to which a person may have access, where an economic context characterised by high levels of unemployment may lower a person's opportunities for finding a job (Klehe, & Van Hooft, 2018). Within the South African context, this is relevant as the unemployment rate and underemployment rate in this context is currently high as indicated above. Therefore, one could argue that job searchers within this context are likely to experience impaired levels of wellbeing due to their job search anxiety, particularly if job search anxiety levels are high.

Searching for a job requires a person to be able to manage the uncertainty of not knowing whether their job search will be successful, they must know which skills they should market and how they should portray themselves to potential employers. All these activities have indicated to be stress inducing and may result in job seekers experiencing increased levels of depression (Roberston, 2013). The anxiety of searching for a job has not only been found to have negative effects on a person's wellbeing, but it has also been indicated that persons find general activities more stressful on days that they conduct job searches; indicating that job search anxiety may have spill over effects onto other tasks that people engage in, further influencing their levels of wellbeing (Krueger & Mueller, 2011). Research also suggests that persons who struggle with their indecisiveness regarding finding a job may experience higher levels of anxiety. This indicates that a person who is anxious about finding employment that will suit them may have impaired levels of psychological wellbeing (Robertson, 2013).

In addition to this research above that demonstrates a link between job search anxiety and indicators of wellbeing, there is a wealth of research that also demonstrates that there are a range of variables that may impact upon the extent of this relationship. In the section that follows, and using Schlossberg's model of transitions, we discuss moderators of this relationship.

1.6 Transition Resources

1.6.1 Schlossberg's Transition Theory

Nancy Schlossberg has developed a model for looking at the changes that constantly face adults, she named these changes 'transitions' (Schlossberg, Goodman & Anderson, 2006). Schlossberg defined a transition as any type of event within a person's life that may cause a change relating to the relationships they may have, the routines they may follow, the assumptions they have, and the roles that they follow (Schlossberg et al, 2006).

Schlossberg et al (2006) speaks about different types of transitions people may experience. Firstly, a person may go through an anticipated transition where the person expects the transition to occur. An example of this can be events such as becoming married or finding employment. Secondly, a person may go through an unanticipated transition, where the person does not expect the transition to take place. An example of this can be losing a job, falling sick and having to stop working, or going through a divorce to name but a few. Lastly, a person may have to experience a non-event transition, where the person expects the transition to take place, but it does not. An example of this can be planning for a marriage but it does not occur or expecting to find employment, but this does not actually materialize (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Within this study, we looked at persons who are anticipating a transition, which in this case is transitioning from university to employment. Furthermore, this will be an anticipated transition as the participants that were included in this study are persons who have not yet transitioned but will be in the near future.

As Schlossberg locates her model within the theoretical framework of the transactional model of stress, the next section briefly turns to this model so as to provide an outline for the discussion of the Schlossberg's transition model. In the current study, Schlossberg's model serves to identify the various resources that individuals may draw upon to successfully negotiate transition of seeking employment.

1.6.2 The Transactional model of stress

Within stressor strain research, a prominent model that has been used is the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986; Thatcher & Milner, 2003; Schlossberg et al, 2006). The transactional model of stress suggests that people may be subjected to various stressors which may induce strain responses, however, people may react differently to these stressors. According to this model, the reason for individual differences in stressor strain responses are due to the resources a person perceives themselves to possess. During the event of exposure to a possible stressor, individuals engage in several stages of cognitive appraisal, this appraisal process has two elements (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986). Firstly, the individual will appraise whether the stressor they face is a challenge or not. If they see it as a challenge, they will then appraise the resources to which they have access that may be used to cope with the stressor. From this appraisal, strain can occur when the person appraises themselves to have insufficient resources to manage to the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986). How this model of stress and Schlossberg's transition model are related will be discussed below.

1.6.3 Schlossberg's Transition Theory and the stressor strain relationship

Nancy Schlossberg situated her transition theory within the transactional model of stress framework. The model acted as a background theory to her research. Schlossberg highlighted the importance of how a person appraises a transition, where a person may view the transition positively or negatively (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Schlossberg accepts the notion that persons may react to stressors differently where she suggests that people may be faced with very similar transitions, however, the way people manage and cope with these transitions may differ (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Schlossberg highlights the reasoning for this to be a result of primary and secondary appraisal. Firstly, she argues that the way in which a person copes with transition is, in part, due to how they may appraise this event. Firstly, the person will appraise whether the transition they face is a challenge or not. If they see it as a challenge, they will then appraise the resources they have access to which they can use to cope with the transition (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Schlossberg described the resources people may use that can help them cope with a transition in a four-quadrant framework.

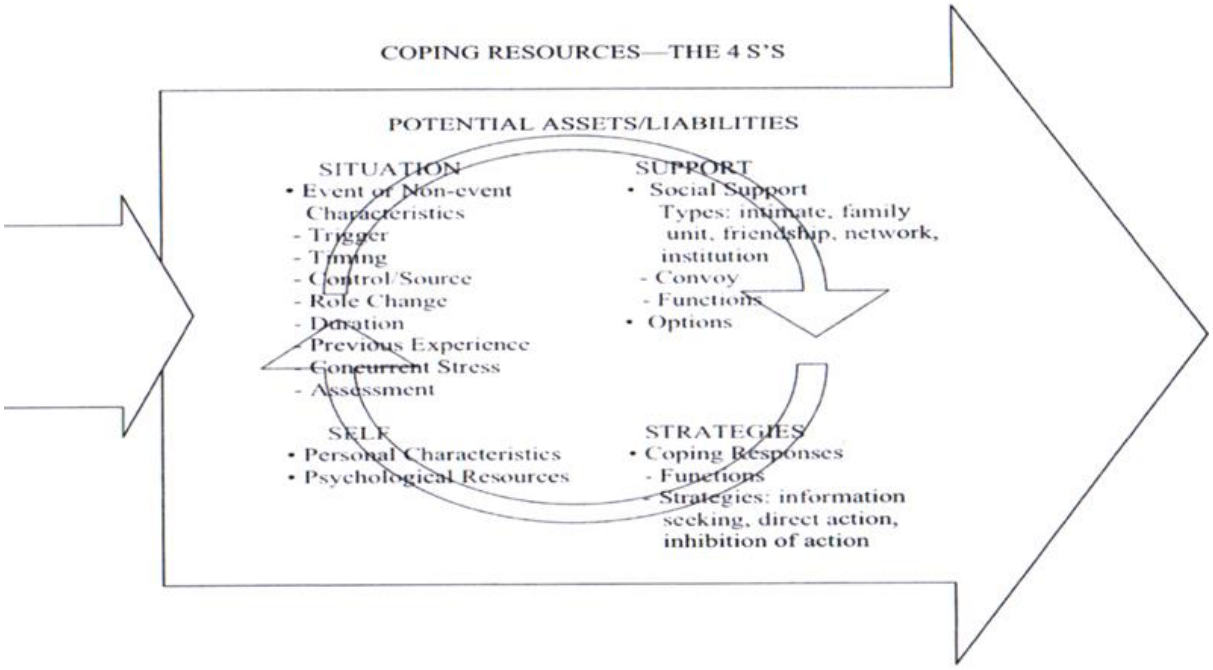


Figure 1: The 4 S's framework (From counselling adults in transition by Schlossberg et al., 1995, p. 56.

Within this framework, a person appraises the resources to which they have access from four quadrants, namely the Situation, the Self, Support and Strategies. From this conceptualisation, the more resources a person perceives themselves to possess, the more likely they are to effectively manage a transition and avoid its negative effects upon wellbeing.

1.6.4 The Self

Schlossberg (2011) speaks about the quadrant of the 'Self'. Within this quadrant she highlights that every person has a variety of 'personal and demographic characteristics', as well as 'psychological resources' that can assist with managing a transition more effectively. When Schlossberg refers to personal and demographic characteristics, she is referring to a person's socio-economic status, gender, age, their physical health, and their ethnicity and culture. When Schlossberg refers to psychological resources, she speaks about these being personality resources a person may have that can assist them with a transition. These include a multitude of personal factors, such as a person's ego-development, the level of optimism they hold, their self-efficacy levels, and their commitment, values and resilience (Schlossberg et al, 2006).

Within the context of this study, a person's self-efficacy was argued to be of great importance. Within this study, it is argued that if a person believes that they are capable of overcoming challenges, the negative effects upon wellbeing of job-search anxiety maybe mitigated. The term self-efficacy stemmed from the work of Albert Bandura (1994). The term has been addressed by Bandura as a task-specific concept, referring to how a person perceives their ability to gather motivation, use resources that they cognitively possess, and their ability to generate ways that they may use to navigate and exercise control over a specific tasks or situations with which they may be faced (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Fielden, & Davidson, 1999). However, a more generalized definition of self-efficacy has been provided, which refers to a person's ability to exercise the resources mentioned above to not only specific events or tasks, but towards a multitude of tasks. When self-efficacy is assessed in this generalized form, it can be described a measure that is a core self-evaluation (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Schlossberg defined self-efficacy in a universalistic frame regarding transitions, where self-efficacy "depends on the individual's belief that he or she can cause an intended event to occur and can organize and carry out the courses of behaviour necessary to deal with various situations" (Schlossberg et al, 2006, pg 71).

Literature on self-efficacy has suggested that it may have an influence on stressor-strain relationships. More specifically, research suggests that self-efficacy can be a moderator in the stressor-strain relationships (Dong Xie, 2007). Self-efficacy has been argued to be very important with regards to the arousal of negative psychological states such as anxiety within individuals (Rusu, Chiriac, Salagean, & Hojbota, 2013), where research suggests that when a person is faced with various demands, if they have high levels of self-efficacy, they are more likely to indicate higher levels of psychological wellbeing (Bandura, 1994). For this reason, a person's self-efficacy has been labelled as a coping mechanism that individuals may use to alleviate the negative effects of stressors (Rusu et al, 2013).

Self-efficacy can be described as a desirable measure within the context of this study because as indicated above, a person's self-efficacy levels has been argued to be a determining factor regarding how successful they may be at overcoming challenges and demands. If a person perceives themselves to have a lowered ability to harness their motivation, cognitively process information effectively, and an inability to exercise their control over events that they are faced with, this may result in that person being less likely to perceive themselves as being

able to successfully negotiate various challenges within their lives (Fielden & Davidson, 1999).

Multiple literature on how self-efficacy may link to a person's job search anxiety exists. Much of this research emphasises that a person's appraised self-efficacy levels may indicate how likely they are to be able to adapt to finding a job and whether they can manage a challenge such as this effectively. Persons who boast higher levels of self-efficacy may perceive themselves as more likely to manage the challenge of a job search more effectively than persons that do not (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004). It suggests that general self-efficacy is a good predictor of how a person can adapt to finding a job (Fugate, Kinicki & Ashforth, 2004). It has also been found that when a person has a positive belief of their capabilities of finding a job, the task of finding a job is perceived as less threatening (Rusu, Chiriac, Salagean & Hojbota, 2013). Research suggests that persons with higher levels of self-efficacy regarding finding employment are more likely to be healthier than those with lower levels of self-efficacy. This has been illustrated where a person who is more confident regarding their abilities of finding a job, the higher their mental health scores (Vansteenkiste, Lens, Witte & Feather, 2005). Research also suggests that persons who perceive themselves to have lowered levels of self-efficacy are less likely to want to execute job search activities, which makes it more likely for them to experience higher depression levels (Fielden & Davidson, 1999).

Although the research above generally views self-efficacy as impacting upon job search anxiety, an alternative conceptualisation of the relationship between these variables may be extracted from literature. As job search anxiety represents an appraisal on an individual's relationship to a specific task and event, it is conceivable that a person may possess moderate to high levels of general self-efficacy but nonetheless be anxious about the specific task of seeking employment. In this construction, when a person perceives seeking employment as demanding, possessing high levels of self-efficacy may moderate the negative effects upon psychological wellbeing that may have otherwise be expected. This is line with Schlossberg's framework where research suggests that a person's perceived self-efficacy may affect the relationship between the way a person feels about conducting a job search and their overall psychological wellbeing.

.

1.6.5 The Situation

Schlossberg (2011) refers to the situation as the characteristics that face the person regarding the transition at hand. These include the trigger of the situation, which looks at what causes a transition to occur; the timing of the transition, which looks at whether a transition occurs at a time that a person deems desirable; and role change, whether a transition forces a person to change roles is considered. The duration of the transition is also emphasised, along with whether or not the person has had an experience with a similar transition to that of the transition they are going through at present. Schlossberg et al (2006) also emphasises the concurrent stress a person may be faced with at the time of the transition, and also looks at the persons outlook on the transition, specifically if they view it in a positive or negative manner. Lastly, and most importantly for the study at hand, Schlossberg highlights a person's perceived 'control' over the transition (Schlossberg et al, 2006). This factor is desirable within the context of this study because we are looking at an anticipated transition rather than a transition that is currently occurring, and as Schlossberg argues, a transition may be intentional, or it may be forced upon a person. However, whether it is forced upon a person or is intentional, how a person reacts and deals with the transition can be influenced by an individual's perceived control (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Control is something that is appraised, where it can be described as the perceived capabilities a person believes themselves to possess to deal with the stressor at hand (Zakowski, Hall, Klein, & Baum, 2001).

Research suggests that persons who perceive themselves as having control over situations in their lives are more likely to navigate these challenges successfully than persons who do not (Wanberg, 1997). This may also apply to anticipated transitions. If a person perceives themselves to have more control over a future situation they may have to face, it is more likely that they will perceive themselves as more likely to be successful in executing the transition in comparison to someone who does not (Wanberg, 1997). Within the context of this study, we are looking at a transition that is forced upon an individual but is also anticipated, the transition of finding employment. Most students are forced to find some form of employment for when they exit university (Balloo et al, 2015). We are specifically interested in how a much control a person perceives themselves to have over executing this transition of conducting a job search to find employment.

A job search is something that is self-regulated and a person's job search is up to them and under their control (Veiga, 2013). Research suggests that having perceived control over a job search is very important within a very competitive labour market (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). People who perceive themselves to have control over finding a job are more likely to become employed (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). Reasons for this have been argued that person's with perceived control are more likely to be more confident in seeking a job, and thus, are more confident in their ability to find employment. So much so, that previous research suggests that persons with high levels of perceived control are less likely to engage in a multitude of job searches, but rather only specific searches due to their confidence in their ability of being able to find employment (Saks & Ashforth, 1999).

The level of perceived control a person has over a situation and life events has been illustrated to influence a person's psychological wellbeing scores, where persons who indicate higher levels of perceived control of situations are more likely to boast higher levels of wellbeing (Wanberg, 1997; Fielden et al, 1999; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). With regards to the relationship between job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing, it has been suggested that the amount of control a person perceives themselves to have over finding employment is an important resource to have. This is because research suggests that persons who perceive themselves to possess more control over the situation of finding employment are likely to experience increases in their psychological wellbeing (Mckee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005), where Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki (2002) specifically indicate that these persons are likely to experience less symptoms of generalised anxiety and depression. After their assessment of existing literature, Song, Zhang, & Shi (2007) have argued that when a person's employment expectation is high, this expectation should actually moderate the relationship between the anxiety of having to search for a job and wellbeing.

It can be argued that job searchers within the South African context may be exposed to experiencing lowered levels of perceived control over finding employment. Previous research highlights that contexts that are characterised as having economic conditions that are not entirely favourable, such as economic contexts being characterised with high unemployment rates, may result in the lowering of a person's perceived control over finding employment. This has been argued to be a result of the limited number of job opportunities that persons may be exposed to within these contexts (Klehe, & Van Hooft, 2018). As mentioned earlier, within the South African context, unemployment rates are high. Therefore, the argument that

job searchers may have lowered levels of perceived control over finding employment is concerning. Having perceived control over finding a job may mitigate the negative consequences that may be caused by the anxiety of needing to perform a job search as highlighted above.

1.6.6 Strategies

When Schlossberg (2011) speaks about the 'strategies' quadrant, she refers to the coping responses a person may have when faced with a transition. Schlossberg argues alongside the postulations of Lazarus and Folkman that the event a person is faced with is essential in their influence upon wellbeing, but the coping strategies that they may use to manage the event should be considered as even more important. Schlossberg argues that the coping strategies a person uses may limit the strain inducing consequences that a stressor may cause (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Previous research does emphasise this point where it has been found that coping may influence a person's wellbeing levels and can affect the outcome of the specific situation in which a person finds themselves (Miller, 2010). In our case, the situation is a person's ability to look for a job. It can be argued that various coping strategies may help a person manage with their job search anxiety more effectively and may improve their wellbeing. However, because people may use different coping styles, research suggests that some coping strategies may further the distress of a person rather than improving it (Miller, 2010). Schlossberg agrees with this notion that a person's coping style may further the distress of a person rather than improving their wellbeing. For this reason, an individual's coping style can provide evidence of whether they are more likely to handle a stressor more effectively.

Researchers, including Schlossberg (2006), agree on the fact that there are at least two main coping styles, namely task-oriented coping and emotion-oriented coping (Endler & Parker, 1994). Task-oriented coping can be described as when a person directly confronts the stressful situation with which they may be faced, such as creating solutions to the problem and focusing on how to deal with it (Smith, Saklofske, Keefer & Tremblay, 2015). Emotion-oriented coping refers to when a person reacts to a stressor through emotional responses where they attempt to regulate their feelings and emotions towards the stressor (Smith et al, 2015).

Research suggests that a person who undertakes task-oriented coping when dealing with a stressor is more likely to experience higher levels of wellbeing, such as lower anxiety and

depression levels, than individuals who do not (Smith et al, 2015). With regards to how the coping style may mitigate the relationship between conducting a job search and psychological wellbeing, it has been argued that task-oriented coping is beneficial for increasing a person's psychological wellbeing levels (Song, Zhang, & Shi, 2007). Other research, however, has contradicted these findings, where it has been suggested that persons who engage in task-focused coping in this context may experience lowered levels of psychological wellbeing. It is suggested that conducting a job search, in some cases, may have detrimental effects to the job searcher rather than beneficial (Song et al, 2007). In certain instances, it can be argued that a person exercising a task-oriented coping strategy may have lowered levels of psychological wellbeing, at least in the short term. This argument is based on the premise that if a stressor is perceived to be out of the control of a person, engaging in task-oriented coping may be likely to cause more distress rather than improve their wellbeing. A person engaging in this coping style may believe that their efforts will still not result in managing the stressor (Zakowski et al, 2001), which in this case is that of finding employment. For the most part however, it has been argued that task-oriented coping has the most effective influence on a person's psychological wellbeing particularly in the context when a person perceives themselves to have high levels of control over the stressor (Zakowski et al, 2001).

The emotion-oriented coping style has generally been argued to lead to a person having negative emotions about the stressor which may have a detrimental influence on a person's psychological wellbeing. In this instance, their anxiety and depression levels may rise rather than fall when utilising in this form of coping (Endler & Parker, 1994). Persons who engage in emotion-oriented coping may do so due to them perceiving that they cannot deal with the stressor, which may help in the short-term regarding distress levels but may cause greater stress in the long term as the stressor is still prominent (Solove, Fisher & Kraiger, 2014). Therefore, within the context of conducting a job search, it can be argued that it is more desirable to manage this stressor using task-oriented coping rather than emotion-oriented coping (Solove et al, 2014). However, as mentioned above, when a person perceives themselves as having lowered levels of control over a particular situation, it can be argued that an emotion-oriented coping method may be more advantageous, as the person may be targeting something that they can change, namely their emotions, rather than trying to focus on something that they perceive that they cannot, such as the situation at hand (Zakowski et al, 2001).

Endler & Parker (1994) highlight a third coping style namely avoidance coping. This method of coping refers to when a person may engage in some form of aversion away from the situation at hand or may distract themselves away from the situation as to avoid having to deal with it. The reason for adopting this third coping style alongside the previous two types is due to its relevance to job search success within previous literature, where it has been suggested that avoidance coping causes a person who needs to conduct a job search to delay doing so (Huysse-Gaytandjieva, Groot & Pavlova, 2013). Research suggests that persons who avoid stressful activities such as searching for a job are more likely to experience high levels of depression and generalised anxiety than persons who do not engage in avoidant coping activities (Ferarri, 1994; Huysse-Gaytandjieva et al, 2013). Therefore, if a person copes with a stressful situation through avoidance, it is likely they may have lower levels of wellbeing. This suggests that a person who has job search anxiety but copes with the situation through avoidance, is more likely to experience higher levels of depression and anxiety. A person's coping style can be argued as a resource that may mitigate the potential negative wellbeing consequences induced by the anxiety of looking for a job.

1.6.7 Support

When Schlossberg (2011) refers to this quadrant, she refers to support as a 'relationship transaction' that occurs between two or more persons. These transactions can stem from a variety of sources, where each source can be categorised independently (Schlossberg et al, 2006). The sources of support a person may have access to according to Schlossberg are that of intimacy, family, from friends, and from a community. Within the context of this study, the sources of support that have been focused on are that of family, friends, and significant others. These three sources have been argued as being the most popular within current literature on the topic (Lai & Ma, 2016).

Social support has been argued as vital for dealing with stressful situations. More specifically, research suggests that it may mitigate strain resultant from a stressor and can have a positive impact on the psychological health of a person (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988; Schlossberg et al, 2006; de Carvalho, 2015). The authors Lazarus and Folkman argued that social support may increase a person's psychological wellbeing for two broad reasons. Firstly, social support can increase the amount of positive feelings they have about themselves and their life situations. Within the context of searching for employment, this is important as it may assist these individuals to overcome the anxiety related to searching for a

job. Secondly, the amount of support a person may receive can act as buffer and may help them absorb the negative psychological effects that stressful situations or events may cause (Mckee-Ryan et al, 2005). Thus, within the context of persons searching for employment, it can be argued that the amount of social support a person may have access to can potentially alleviate the negative consequences that may be experienced as a result of having to find employment.

Firstly, the social support source of a 'significant other' may refer to a relationship a person has with another that is intimate in nature. These relationships are often described as consisting of having trust, where individuals share their close and personal details about themselves with each other (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Schlossberg emphasises that these traits are important for a person to be able to manage and cope with stressful transitions. Having access to this type of support can be characterised as having someone that may be around when an individual is in need, being able to share the joys and sorrows one may experience with someone else, having someone that can provide a source of comfort, and having someone that pays attention to their feelings (Zimet et al, 1988). It has been argued that these persons can help ease the job search process for their partners by being able to share the anxiety of finding a job (Gush, Scott & Laurie, 2015).

Families and understanding of the relationships that revolve around them have been investigated by many authors. A large portion of this previous literature has centred on the characteristics that are present within these relationship systems and how these can assist with a person managing stressful situations. These systems act as a type of unit in which a person may find themselves (Schlossberg et al, 2006). It has been argued that a person who has access to support through family may experience heightened levels of psychological wellbeing in comparison to those who do not; findings, however within this context are contested (Siedlecki, Salthouse, Oishi, & Jeswani, 2013). The quality of support that a person may receive from their family rather than the quantity also needs to be considered. Here, the quality of support that a person may receive is often seen as more important than the quantity they receive. In the study conducted by Siedlecki et al (2013), however, it was found that both quantity and quality may be argued as a psychological resource. With regards to the relationship between social support from family and searching for a job, it has been argued that this form of support may alleviate the negative consequences of searching for employment. This is due to family members being able to share the anxiety a person may have towards finding employment, just like a significant other may do so (Gush et al, 2015).

The significance of the social support source of friends has also been emphasised. Losing such a support system may have severe psychological effects on a person, which in turn may make stressful life events such as transitions more difficult to manage (Schlossberg et al, 2006). This type of support can be characterised by having persons other than a significant other or members from their family to try and assist with difficulties, share successes and failures, and tackle problems (Zimet et al, 1988). Within the context of searching for employment, it has been argued that friends can benefit the job searcher by giving them direction and helping them make decisions about their job search (Gush et al, 2015).

1.7 Concluding Remarks

From the discussion above it can be seen that there is ample research linking job-search anxiety, psychological wellbeing and transition resources. For the current study, guided by Schlossberg, the transactional model of stress may be considered as the dominant framing principal; this is specifically true with regards to the model's construction of the stressor-strain relationship. In the context of seeking employment, an individual's primary appraisal in the transactional process would be their evaluation of whether or not they perceive finding employment as a stressor –in the current study this is evaluated through the variable of job-search anxiety. As job search anxiety is characterised by nervousness, worry and feelings of tension about having to find a job (Saks & Ashforth, 2000), job search anxiety could be seen as a negative evaluation of the job-transition faced by the individual.

Continuing with the transactional model, secondary appraisal would consist of a person's evaluation of the availability of resources used to negate or buffer any stressor experienced. In the current research and informed by Schlossberg, this would include perceived levels of general self-efficacy, levels of perceived control over conducting a job search, access to social support sources, and the coping styles utilised. If we accept the transactional model of stress and Schlossberg's assertions, an individual's wellbeing, measured through their generalised anxiety and depression levels, should be influenced by the degree of job-search anxiety they experience; this relationship however, will be moderated by a person's evaluation of the transition resources to which they have access.

1.8 Rationale for the current study

Through the exploration of previous research illustrated above, this study attempts to expand on current research regarding the psychological wellbeing of students. Research suggests that there are a multitude of factors that may influence the perceived psychological health of a person. Transitions that person's encounter have been argued to be one of these (Schlossberg et al, 1995). Transitions can be stress-inducing experiences, experiences that may negatively impact upon a person's perceived psychological health and wellbeing (Schlossberg et al, 1995). As indicated above, a transition that a majority of university students face is that of transitioning from university to full-time employment (Balloo et al, 2015). This study focuses on this transition, where the relationship between the anxiety a person may have towards finding employment, otherwise known as job search anxiety, and their perceived psychological wellbeing will be explored. It is also necessary to further explore the factors which may mitigate the negative consequences that students could experience as a result of their job search anxiety. More specifically, factors that help students cope, manage, and deal with the effects of the act of seeking employment.

Within the South African context, unemployment and underemployment levels have been illustrated to be high (Statistics South Africa, 2017). For these reasons, it can be argued that student job search anxiety is likely to be high within this context. As indicated above, there is a significant relationship between the amount of anxiety a person has toward searching for employment and their psychological wellbeing (Paul & Moser, 2009; Krueger & Mueller, 2011; Robertson, 2013 & Klehe, & Van Hooft, 2018). The psychological wellbeing of students can be argued as an important issue. This is due to previous research arguing the relationship between psychological wellbeing and academic success, as well as its impact on a multitude of other factors specific to academic studies (Hysenbegasi et al, 2005; Cress et al, 2003; Hazlett-Stevens et al, 2003; Andrews et al, 2004). Thus, if we can mitigate some of these issues, there are positive benefits that may flow, not just at an individual level, but possibly for universities as well.

The theorist Nancy Schlossberg has put forward a multitude of resources that a person may draw upon to assist them in executing a transition that may also mitigate the negative consequences a person may experience as a result of having to transition (Schlossberg et al, 2006). There is a very limited amount of research testing Schlossberg's claims, particularly within the job searching sphere. This study is an initial attempt to do so. The potential

moderators that will be emphasised within this study from Schlossberg's transition model include a person's perceived levels of self-efficacy, perceived control over the situation where in this study is specifically a person's perceived control over job search outcomes, perceived levels of social support, as well as the coping strategies a person finds most desirable when having to deal with stressful situation. It can be argued as important to test Schlossberg's moderation claims, so that if they are shown to exist, strategies can be considered to enhance individual wellbeing levels.

Research and Sub-Research Questions

Main Research Question

Is the relationship between Job Search Anxiety and Wellbeing moderated by the transition resources an individual perceives themselves to hold?

Sub-Research Questions

1.) Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
2.) Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
3.) Does perceived control over job search outcomes moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
4.) Does perceived control over job search outcomes moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
5.) Does perceived social support from family moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
6.) Does perceived social support from family moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
7.) Does perceived social support from friends moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
8.) Does perceived social support from friends moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
9.) Does perceived social support from a significant other moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
10.) Does perceived social support from a significant other moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
11.) Does task-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?
12.) Does task-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?
13.) Does avoidance-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?

14.) Does avoidance-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?

15.) Does emotion-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?

16.) Does emotion-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?

Chapter Two: Methodology

The chapter that follows will describe which methods and techniques were utilised within the current study. This comprises of the research design utilised, the sample and the sample strategy used, the procedure followed to execute the research at hand, which instruments were used to measure the variables and constructs in question, the ethical considerations that were accounted for, and the statistical analysis techniques used to explore the data.

Research Design

The research design this study applied was a quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional correlational design. It is a quantitative design as the data used in this research was tested empirically through various statistical analysis (Black, 1999; Hathaway, 1995). The design is non-experimental in nature as it has not included any manipulation of the independent variable, namely job search anxiety. Furthermore, a control group has not been employed, and as a result, random assignment was not possible (Salkind, 2012). It is Cross-sectional as the collection of data occurred once (Setia, 2016). Lastly, the design is correlational as a relationship between variables has been looked at, namely job search anxiety, well-being and the transition resources, namely self-efficacy, perceived control over job search outcomes, the subscales of the coping inventory for stressful situations, and the perceived social support subscales (Salkind, 2012).

Sample and Sampling Strategy

The sample that best fitted this study was from the student population, more specifically students approaching exit from university. These students were either 3rd year, 4th year, honours or master's students and were spread across four faculties, namely Humanities, Engineering & The Built Environment, Commerce Law and Management, and the faculty of Science. The study aimed to obtain a minimum of 200 participants. All of the students were acquired from the University of the Witwatersrand in Johannesburg, South Africa.

A non-probability convenience, purposive sample was used. The sample is a non-probability sample because every person in the general student population did not have a chance to be selected to participate in this study (Feild, Pruchno, Bewley, Lemay & Levinsky, 2006). The sample is a convenience sample as the students who participated volunteered to do so (Etikan, 2016). Furthermore, the proposed sample for this study was purposive; this is because the participants had to have the required characteristic of being an exit level student

(Etikan, 2016). Exit level students were selected due to them being most likely to be exercising the most job search activities out of all students, and thus have the most job search anxiety.

A total of 272 responses of the survey were received, comprising of 116 online surveys, and 156 paper-and-pencil surveys. A total of 45 surveys had to be excluded due to participant's failing to fully complete the job search anxiety scale, the self-efficacy scale, the perceived control over job search outcomes scale, the coping inventory for stressful situations scale, the social support scale, and/or the HADS measure. For these reasons, a final sample of 227 was utilised, where all participants currently study at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. Not all of the participant's whose responses were utilised in the analysis fully completed the demographics section. These responses were not disposed of as they did not influence the analysis, but the indication of such missing values has been reported on within the demographic tables describing the sample below.

176 females and 49 males were included in the sample, with two participants choosing not to answer this question. The ages of the participants within the sample ranged from 18 to 42, where (M= 22.23; Median= 22; SD = 2.649), where the greater part of the sample fell between the ages of 22 and 36 years old. 146 participants stated that they are registered within the Humanities faculty (64.3%), 9 within the Engineering & the Built Environment faculty (4%), 21 within the faculty of Science (9.3%), and 47 within the Commerce, Law and Management faculty (20.7%). The number of years the participants had been at university ranged from 1 to 7 years, where two participants stated that they had been at university for 1 year (0.9%), 2 for two years (0.9%), 130 for three years (57.3%), 38 for four years (16.7%), 31 for five years (13.7%), 11 for six years (4.8%), and 3 for seven years (1.3%). 217 participants stated that they were full-time students, and 8 part-time students. 177 participants in the sample stated that they had been involved in a job search (78%), where 49 said that they had not (21.6%). 117 participants stated that they were currently involved in a job search (51.5%), and 109 said that they were not (48%). 218 said they were not on a bursary that ensured employment when they graduated (96%), 8 said that they were (3.5%), whilst one participant did not answer this question (0.4%). For the purposes of this research, the 8 participants that stated that they were on a bursary that guaranteed employment after graduation were excluded from the study. The participant that did not respond to this question was also removed. Thus, the overall sample used for this study was 218 participants (n = 218).

Table 1

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	49	21.6
Female	176	78.2
Missing	2	.9
Total	227	100

Table 2

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Age

Mean	22.23
Median	22
Mode	21
Standard Deviation	2.649
Total	220
Missing	7

Table 3

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Age

Age	Frequency	Percentage (%)
18-21	99	43.6
22-26	110	48.5
27-31	7	3.1
32-36	3	1.3
36+	1	.4
Total	220	96.9
Missing	7	3.1

Table 4

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Race

Race/Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Black	105	46.3
Coloured	13	5.7
White	71	31.3
Indian	29	12.8
Asian	2	.9
Other	5	2.2
Total	225	99.1
Missing	2	.9

Table 5

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Faculty Registration

Faculty Registration	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Humanities	146	64.3
Engineering & the Built Environment	9	4
Science	21	9.3
Commerce. Law & Management	47	20.7
Total	223	98.2
Missing	4	1.8

Table 6

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Years at University

Years at University	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	2	.9
2	2	.9
3	130	57.3
4	38	16.7
5	31	13.7
6	11	4.8
7	3	1.3
Total	217	95.6
Missing	10	4.4

Table 7

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Part-time of full-time student?

Part-time/Full-time?	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Part-time	8	3.5
Full-time	217	95.6
Total	225	99.6
Missing	2	.4

Table 8

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Previously been involved in a job search

Previously been involved in a job search	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	177	78
No	49	21.6
Total	226	99.6
Missing	1	.4

Table 9

Sample Demographic Characteristic: Current involvement in a job search

Currently involved in a job search	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	117	51.5
No	109	48
Total	226	99.6
Missing	1	.4

Table 10

Sample Demographic Characteristic: On a bursary that ensures employment after graduation

Bursary ensuring employment after graduation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	8	3.5
No	218	96
Total	226	99.6
Missing	1	.4

Procedure

The procedure that was undertaken to execute the collection of the relevant sample to provide the relevant data needed for the current study will be described here. A letter was firstly provided to the registrar of the University of the Witwatersrand requesting permission for students to participate in this research (See Appendix B), where this permission was granted, and ethical clearance was obtained (See Appendix A). Once this permission was granted, letters were then sent to the relevant course co-ordinator's requesting access to their students to participate in this study (See Appendix C). Once this was achieved, letters were sent to the relevant lecturer's requesting permission for their students to participate via email (See Appendix D). Once granted, the questionnaires were distributed. Depending on the preference of the lecturer, we chose to distribute the questionnaires both electronically via the universities online platform named SAKAI and through hardcopies handed out in lectures. Both included the participant information sheet (See Appendix E).

Every participant was notified via the participant information sheet that completing the survey was completely voluntary, it should not take longer than 25 minutes, and participants may withdraw from the study up until they submit their questionnaire as identifying their questionnaire would not be possible due to anonymity. Specifically, regarding the distribution

of physical questionnaires, the researcher and the lecturers made it clear that the above aforementioned points were heard and understood before receiving the questionnaire, as well as having this information supplied to them within the participant information sheet. All hardcopy answers were collected and placed into a box at the conclusion of each lecture and held in a secure location. The online link for students to complete the survey was left open to complete for 2.5 months. Once the required number of questionnaires had been completed, an excel spreadsheet was compiled, consisting of the responses of both the physical as well as the electronic responses to the questionnaire so that the data could be cleaned and analysis on the data could be performed and interpreted.

Instrumentation

Seven instruments were used and were integrated to form one questionnaire. Firstly, a demographic questionnaire was included which contained questions pertaining to the demographic information of the participants. Secondly, a modified version of The State Trait Anxiety Inventory was distributed to measure participants job search anxiety (Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene & Jacobs, 1983). Perceived transition resources were measured in a battery that included four measures. Firstly, The Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale was used to measure how much control participants perceived themselves to have over their job search (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support was used to indicate the level of social support the participants believed they possessed (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, Farley, & 1988). This was followed by the General Self-Efficacy scale which measured the participants psychological resources they perceived themselves to possess (Schwarzer & Jerusalem (1995). The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (Endler & Parker, 1990) was used to measure how a participant may strategize with dealing with a transition such as finding a job. Lastly, the well-being of participants was measured through the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (Zigmond & Snaith, 1983).

Demographic Questionnaire (See Appendix F)

This was a self-developed questionnaire with close-ended questions which was included to obtain demographic information that was able to provide information of the sample that was obtained. This information included the participants age, gender, the faculty of the participant, the year of study the participant is in, and whether the person was studying part-time or full time. Participants were also asked whether they have ever been involved in a job

search, whether they are currently searching for a job or not, and whether they are on a bursary that ensures employment for when they graduate.

The Job Search Anxiety scale (See Appendix G)

This is a self-developed measure that will be future referenced as Britton, Siemers and Israel. It was built based on The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory developed by Spielberger (1983). The State-Trait Anxiety Inventory is a measure of anxiety with two sub-scales. The 'State' subscale identifies a person's present state of anxiety at a particular moment, whereas the 'Trait' subscale identifies a person's general state of anxiety (Barnes, Harp & Jung, 2002). Barnes, Harp & Jung (2002) conducted a meta-analysis where 816 studies that used the measure were included. This study found an average reliability of .92 for the measure across the studies. Furthermore, an average reliability for the 'State' subscale was .91 and .89 for the 'Trait' scale. The authors Saks and Ashforth (2000) conducted a study where they executed the measurement of job search anxiety by using 10 items from the 'State' subscale, where they asked participants to rate how each item makes them feel about executing a job search. Saks and Ashforth (2000) found a reliability of .91 for the subscale. This study followed this precedent, thus, only 10 items from the 'State' scale were used. Participants were asked to rate how each item makes them feel about conducting a job search on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree. An example of an item is 'I feel self-confident about my ability to search for a job'. Items 1, 6, 9 and 10 were reverse scored. Given that not all of the 10 items utilised by Saks and Ashforth were specified from the broader 'State' subscale, a brief pilot study on the scales face validity, content validity, lack of ambiguity, no double-barrelled statements, reverse meaning, social desirability, offensiveness and repetition of items were tested. This consisted of two experts within the field of Organisational Psychology. From the results of this pilot study, recommendations on the wording of some of the items were given. These were changed (see Appendix M).

A reliability analysis was conducted on the scale, where the Cronbach alpha found for this scale was found to be 0.86. With regards to the interpretation of Cronbach alpha coefficients, what is described as a desirable score is slightly contested. It has been suggested that any score below .70 is low and therefore questionable. However, it has been argued that scores of above .60 are sufficient (Streiner, 2003). This study will make use of the .60 cut-off. With regards to this job search anxiety scale, an internal consistency of .86 is good.

The General Self-Efficacy Scale (See Appendix H)

The General Self-efficacy scale used in this study was developed by the authors Schwarzer & Jerusalem (1995). This scale is a self-perception measure of a person's general self-efficacy where a person was given 10 items, each item providing a statement regarding their self-efficacy. A person could rate their responses on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 equals 'not at all true' and 5 equals 'always true'. An example of an item in this scale is 'If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution'. Scholz, Gutiérrez Doña, Sud & Schwarzer (2002) tested whether the measure is a universal construct by testing it in 25 different samples across the world and found an average internal consistency across the samples of .86, with the lowest internal consistency being found was .75 and the highest being .91. In this study, the internal consistency found was 0.84. Thus, indicating a good level of reliability (Streiner, 2003).

The Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale (See Appendix I)

The Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale was developed by Saks and Ashforth (1999). This scale measured the level of control a participant perceived they had regarding conducting a job search. More specifically, it focused on whether they believed that they knew what to do to find a job, and how to do it. The internal consistency of this measure has been indicated as .74 (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). It is a 5-item scale rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1-Strongly disagree to 6-Strongly agree. An example of an item is 'Finding a job is totally within my control'. Items 2, 4 and 5 were reverse scored. The Cronbach alpha within this study was found to be 0.66. Looking at the Item-total statistics table (see table 11), the Cronbach alpha score was bettered to 0.70 if item 2 was deleted. Furthermore, item 2 indicated a low item-total correlation in comparison with all of the other items, a correlation of .19 (see table 11). For these reasons, item 2 was removed from the analysis.

Table 11: *Reliability Analysis of the Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes scale*

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	**Scale Variance if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Squared Multiple Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
PC1	13.85	7.79	.46	.24	.59
PC2	14.44	10.51	.19	.06	.69
PC3	13.11	9.63	.34	.14	.64
PC4	13.39	7.44	.64	.43	.49
PC5	13.54	8.08	.46	.32	.59

The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (See Appendix J)

This scale was developed to measure a person's perception of how they may cope with a stressful situation. The inventory was developed by Endler and Parker (1990) which contained 48 items (Boysan, 2012). However, they later narrowed the scale down to 21 items (Boysan, 2012). The measure has three sub-scales, namely the 'Task-Oriented' subscale, the 'Emotion-Oriented' subscale and the 'Avoidance' subscale, each consisting of seven items. An example item within the Task-Oriented subscale is 'I focus on the problem and see how I can solve it'. An example item of the Emotion-Oriented subscale is 'I become very upset', and lastly, an example item of the Avoidance subscale is 'I take time off and get away from the situation'. The author Boysan (2012) found a reliability for the Task-Oriented subscale of .72, the Emotion Oriented scale of .77, and the Avoidance subscale of .74. The items on this scale are measured on a 5-point scale (ranging from 1= not at all to 5 = very much).

The Cronbach alpha found for the Task-Oriented subscale within this study was 0.82. The Emotion-oriented subscale was 0.89, and for the Avoidance subscale 0.71. However, if item 1 of the Avoidance subscale was deleted, the Cronbach alpha coefficient would increase to 0.74. Furthermore, item 1's item-total correlation of .12 is low in comparison to the other items within the subscale (see table 12). For this reason, item 1 was deleted.

Table 12: *Reliability Analysis of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations Avoidance subscale*

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	**Scale Variance if Item Deleted**	**Corrected Item-Total Correlation**	**Squared Multiple Correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted**
CISS1	16.68	25.12	.12	.03	.74
CISS4	16.51	20.21	.46	.48	.67
CISS7	17.17	21.19	.40	.37	.68
CISS9	17.24	19.72	.50	.33	.66
CISS15	16.99	20.64	.45	.29	.67
CISS18	16.92	19.04	.57	.54	.64
CISS21	17.01	20.46	.42	.39	.68

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Appendix K)

This scale was developed by Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet & Farley (1988), and measures how a person subjectively rates the amount of social support they have access to. This measure is made up of 12 items and consists of three sub-scales which each identify a different type of social support a person may have access to, namely family support, friends support, and support from a significant other (Zimet et al, 1988). The reliability of the scale has been found to be .88. The reliability for the family support scale was .85, friends support was .75, and significant other was .72 (Zimet et al, 1988). An example of an item within the family support subscale is 'I get the emotional help and support I need from my family'. 'I can count on my friends when things go wrong' is an example of an item in the friend's social support subscale, and lastly an example of the significant other subscale is 'there is a special person who is around when I am in need'. The items are all measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1=Very strongly disagree to 7= Very strongly agree. Within this study, Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.93, 0.93, and 0.95 were found for the Family, Friends and Significant Other subscales respectively.

The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (See Appendix L)

The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (The HADS) is a self-report scale that identifies traits of generalised anxiety and depression for persons and was constructed by the authors Zigmond and Snaith (1983). The scale is made up of two subscales, the HADS-A which tests for generalised anxiety, and the HADS-D which tests for symptoms of depression. Bjellanda et al (2002) conducted an analysis on 15 studies that have used The HADS and found an average reliability for the HADS-A between the studies of .83, where the reliability ranged from .68 to .93, and the HADS-D ranged from .67 to .90 with an average of .82. An item example of the HADS-A is 'I can sit at ease and feel relaxed'. This is rated on a 4-point scale ranging from 'definitely' to 'not at all.' An example item of the HADS-D is 'I still enjoy the things I used to enjoy', and this is rated on a 4-point scale from 'definitely as much' to 'hardly at all'. Items 1, 3, 5, 6, 10, 12, 13, 14 were reverse scored. Within the current study, the Cronbach alpha for the generalised anxiety subscale was found to be 0.84, and the Depression subscale 0.75.

3.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis is a statistical technique used to test whether the theory that has been put forward in literature matches up within the data collected by the researcher. For this reason, confirmatory factor analysis can be referred to as a 'measurement model', where a model is put forward from previous literature, and through a confirmatory factor analysis, it is determined whether the model put forward fits the data (Lee, 2016). What makes a confirmatory factor analysis different to an exploratory factor analysis is that instead of letting each indicator/item load onto a factor on its own, in this analysis the researcher fixes which item should load onto each factor. This allows for the researcher to test the relationship between specific latent and manifest variables using the data they obtained (Lee, 2016).

The reason why this analysis is desirable in this context was because a new scale was developed, namely the job search anxiety scale. Confirmatory factor analysis allowed the researcher to test whether the construct put forward was actually present within the data obtained. Within a confirmatory factor analysis, what is referred to as a 'latent variable', is something that is not able to be measured directly but can be measured through a number of manifest variables. Latent variables are most commonly represented as circles, and manifest variables as squares (Lee, 2016). Within this study, Job Search Anxiety was the latent variable assessed, where the 10 items that made up this scale were the manifest variables.

It has been suggested that the following cut-offs should be used when identifying the fit of a measurement model:

Table 13: Global Fit Statistic values.

Global Fit Statistic	
Chi-Squared/ df (cmin/df)	< 3 Good, < 5 Sometimes Permissible
P-value	>.05
CFI	> .95 Great; > .90 Traditional; > .80 Sometimes Permissable
GFI	>.95
AGFI	>.80
RMSEA	<.05 Good; .<05 - .10 Moderate; >.10 Bad
P-CLOSE	>.05

Values adapted from (Hair et al, 2006)

Table 14: Confirmatory Factor Analysis goodness-of-Fit statistics

	CMIN	CMIN P-value	CFI	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	RMSEA P-CLOSE
JSA	22.7	p> 0.05	1	.98	.96	.000	.95

CFA Model: Goodness-of-Fit Statistics

The measurement model of the job search anxiety scale was tested against the fit statistics presented in table 14 above. Commentating on the scale's respective fit statistics, all of the fit statistic tests were met apart from the Chi-square test. However, the Chi-square value has been argued to be the least reliable way of assessing model fit (Byrne, 2010). For this reason, no decision on lack of model fit was made from this test. Therefore, it can be argued that the job search anxiety scale used within this study illustrated model fit (see Appendix N).

3.6 Ethical Considerations

This section outlines all of the ethical considerations that had to be considered in order to conduct this research in a manner that was ethically and morally sound. The starting point of the study before any data could be collected was to firstly obtain ethical clearance from the University of the Witwatersrand's Human Research Ethics Committee to conduct the study on university students. This permission was given (see Appendix A).

Firstly, all information about the study was provided to the participants regarding what the study was about and what their obligations were in the participant information sheet (see Appendix E). This participant information sheet included information stating that their information would be kept confidential and their answers were anonymous. To ensure this, no identifying information of the students was requested. All IP addresses were deleted from any electronic data, and all responses are reported at the group level; thus, no individual responses were described. Furthermore, only my supervisor and I had access to the data, and all data received was stored on a password protected computer and all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. Participation was voluntary, and participants were allowed to withdraw from the research at any time before they submitted their questionnaire but not after submission as due to anonymity, as after submission retrieval of questionnaire's was not possible. The study did not harm, danger or stress the participants at any time during the participation of the research. Because there is no use of deception, debriefing of participants was not necessary, however, a summary of the results can still be made available to participants, so they request.

3.7 Data analysis

At the conclusion of data collection, all the data received was captured and placed onto an Excel spreadsheet. This allowed the researcher to transfer this data onto SPSS version 25. Once this was achieved, the data was cleaned so that statistical analysis could be undertaken. The statistical techniques of correlation, as well as multiple moderated regression analyses were undertaken on the scales and subscales within the data. For one of the subscales, Two-Way ANOVA's were undertaken. Descriptive statistics, normality assessments, and summary statistics were also performed. Tests of reliability through internal consistency were undertaken, where Cronbach Alpha scores of each scale and subscale within the data were produced and analysed.

3.7.1 Simple Statistics.

At its core, a descriptive statistic is something that summarizes the data at hand (Miles, & Banyard, 2007). For this reason, the researcher exercised the use of descriptive statistics so that the data used within this study could be understood in an easy and clear manner. Importantly, descriptive statistics did not allow the researcher to draw any conclusions from the data, only summarise it. Descriptive statistics comprises of measures of central tendency. These include looking at the mean, median and mode of the various scales and subscales within the data as well as their frequencies (Miles et al, 2007). Measures of spread are also included within this realm, where the standard deviations and ranges of the scales and subscales were viewed in the current study (Miles et al, 2007). Normality was also looked at through the use of histograms and the assessment of skewness and kurtosis coefficients of each of the scales and subscales, however, a more detailed discussion of this can be found in Chapter Three.

3.7.2 Reliability.

Reliability can be described as a way of assessing whether or not the measurements used by a researcher to assess or capture a particular construct or constructs were sufficient. The most common form of reliability used in quantitative research is that of internal consistency (Miles et al, 2007). This form of reliability assesses whether all of the questions used to measure a scale or subscale all measure the same construct. Thus, it can be used to determine whether the questions are all measuring the same thing. This form of reliability measurement is represented as a Cronbach Alpha score, otherwise known as 'r'. This score falls on a measure of 0-1. It has been argued that any Cronbach Alpha score of above 0.70 and below 0.95 is

desirable. However, it has been argued that alpha can be sufficient for scores above 0.60 (Streiner, 2003).

3.7.3 Correlation.

This study exercised the use of Pearson's product-moment correlation. This assesses how strong the relationship is between two constructs or variables. Along with this information, if a significant relationship is found, it also indicates the direction of such a relationship. More specifically, this form of correlation creates what is known as a line of best fit between the data points of two variables (Field, 2009). How the strength of the relationship between these two variables is identified is through the calculation of the distance between these data points and the line of best fit. Thus, the closer the distance, the stronger the relationship is between the two variables or constructs in question (Field, 2009). When this relationship is reported, it is named 'r', where the relationship is measured on a scale of 0 to -1 for negative relationships and 0 to +1 for positive relationships. Scores lower than +- .30 are considered as 'weak'; scores between +-.30 and +- .50 are moderate; +- .50 to +-.70 are strong; and any relationships at +- .70 or more are considered very strong (Field, 2009).

3.7.4 Hierarchical multiple-moderated regression.

The data in this study were analysed using hierarchical multiple-moderated regression. The aim of multiple regression is to identify whether a variable is predicted by at least two other variables (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In multiple-moderated regression, an interaction term is added which allows the inspection of whether the relationship between variables is affected by a third variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The first step in hierarchical multiple-moderated regression is to assess whether there is a main effect between your independent and dependent variables. Once this has been established, a main effect is tested between the moderator variable and dependent variable. And lastly, the interaction term is added to inspect whether the relationship between the independent and dependent variables are influenced by a third variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

3.7.5 Two-Way ANOVA

A Two-Way ANOVA analysis was also executed on one of the subscales within this study. A Two-Way ANOVA undertakes a comparison of the means within two separate variables. The main focus within this technique is to assess if a significant interaction between the two independent variables exists on the dependent variable. Within this technique it also includes

the assessment of main effects, which look at the mean differences of the independent variables on the dependent variable separately (Fields, 2009).

Chapter Three: Results

The chapter that follows illustrate the data analysis undertaken within this study. Firstly, the descriptive statistics will be looked at for each scale. Secondly, the assumptions for moderated multiple regression will be described and tested for. The correlations between the independent and moderator variables and the dependent variables will be provided. Lastly, the analysis on each of the research questions will be illustrated.

Table 15: Statistical Abbreviations Guide

Abbreviations	**Variable**
JSA	Job Search Anxiety
SES	Self-Efficacy
PC	Perceived Control over job search outcomes subscale
CISS-A	Avoidance-coping subscale
CISS-E	Emotion-oriented coping subscale
CISS-T	Task-oriented coping subscale
PSS-Fam	Social support from family subscale
PSS-Fri	Social support from friend's subscale
PSS-SO	Social support from a significant other subscale
HADS-A	Generalised Anxiety subscale
HADS-D	Depression subscale

3.1 Descriptive statistics for the main variables

Table 16: Descriptive statistics

Variable	**N**	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
JSA	218	3.51	.64	-.29	-.41
SES	218	3.65	.46	-.40	.88
PC	218	3.61	.81	-.18	-.00
CISS-A	218	2.82	.74	.08	-.26
CISS-E	218	3.04	.90	.17	-.72
CISS-T	218	3.67	.56	-.42	.69
PSS-Fam	218	5.31	1.49	-1.02	.52
PSS-Fri	218	5.21	1.36	-1.07	1.11
PSS-SO	218	5.24	1.62	-.96	.15
HADS-A	218	1.66	.63	.13	-.73
HADS-D	218	.85	.51	.44	-.40

It has been suggested that a researcher should not perform parametric tests with data that is not normally distributed (Fields, 2013). In order to test whether data is normally distributed, the researcher can test the skewness and kurtosis coefficients of each variable, as well as

looking at the histograms of each variable. The skewness coefficient assesses whether the data for a specific variable is symmetrical or not. The kurtosis coefficient assesses the peak of the data for a specific variable. It has been suggested that in order to have normally distributed data, the skewness coefficient should not be smaller than -1 and bigger than +1; and the kurtosis coefficient for the variable should also not fall below -1 and should not exceed +1 (Huck, 2004). A further way to assess the distribution of data is through the assessment of a histogram. A histogram allows the researcher to assess the curve of the data. If the curve represents a bell-shape, the data can be argued to be normally distributed. If the data is represented by a histogram whose majority sits on the left or the right of the graph, the data can be argued to be skewed (Miles & Banyard, 2007). In the current study, all three of these tests were used to assess the normality of the data. The skewness and kurtosis coefficients are represented under table 16 above.

After the inspection of these tests, the researcher noted that the Perceived Social Support from Family and Friends' subscales each indicated data that was not normally distributed. For this reason, a square-root transformation was utilised. What this allowed the researcher to do was to bring the observed values for each subscale closer together. Importantly, this impacts larger data points much greater than smaller data points. For this reason, this technique allows the researcher to bring the tales of the data closer together (Osborne, 2002). For both subscales, they were skewed to the right. In exercising this technique with data skewed to the right, the researcher must reverse score the data for the transformation to work. Important to note, when interpreting the results of such data, the researcher is limited to only speaking about the strength of a given relationship. And the researcher when interpreting the results must be cognisant that the data is reverse scored. These considerations have been made in the interpretations of the results highlighted later on in this chapter.

The above-mentioned technique was performed, the results of which have been presented under Table 17 below. The histograms (Appendix O) presented in the appendices are that of the transformed variables.

Table 17: Normality test after the Square-root transformation

	Skewness	Kurtosis
PSS-Fam	.51	-.48
PSS-Fri	.47	-.02

3.3 Assumptions of Moderated Multiple Regression

In order to be able to perform a moderated multiple regression, previous researchers suggest that various assumptions need to be met before this analysis can be deemed as valid. The assumptions that have been collectively put forward by a multitude of authors have been explored below (Field, 2009).

3.3.1 Multicollinearity

The assumption of multicollinearity assesses whether the independent variable and moderators correlate with each other or not (Field, 2013. In order for this assumption to be met, the researcher does not want to find high correlations between these variables. The reason for this is because if high correlations are found, it can be argued that the variables are measuring the same construct. The strength of such relationships that may be considered as problematic are anything above .80. The multicollinearity assumption can also be assessed by looking at collinearity statistics of the data. These statistics are represented by the Tolerance and VIF scores. The tolerance score should be no smaller than .10, and the VIF score should not be larger than 10 (Field, 2013).

After analysing these results for this dataset, it is clear that there are no high correlations between any of the moderator variables and independent variable in this study (see Table 20). This is because all of the Tolerance scores for both the generalised anxiety subscale and depression subscales were found to be all greater than 1, and the VIF scores were not larger than 10. Furthermore, no correlations were found to be greater than .80 between the independent and moderator variables (see Appendix S). Therefore, it can be argued that the assumption of multicollinearity has been met.

Table 18: Collinearity statistics

	Collinearity statistics	
Variables	Tolerance	VIF
JSA	.76	1.32
SES	.71	1.41
PC	.86	1.16
CISS-A	.84	1.20
CISS-E	.72	1.39
CISS-T	.74	1.36
PSS-Fam	.71	1.42
PSS-Fri	.67	1.49
PSS-SO	.64	1.55

3.3.2 Linearity

This assumption assesses whether there is a linear relationship that exists between the independent and dependent variables. This can be assessed through the generation of partial plots for each relationship between an independent variable or moderator variable and the dependent variable. This is executed by assessing the line of best fit onto the graph. In order to meet the linearity assumption, the researcher should wish to see a loess line that is linear and horizontal rather than curved in nature (Field, 2009). The researcher analysed these results, and after the assessment of the various Loess lines, only the Emotion-oriented coping subscale was found to possibly have linearity concerns for both dependant variables, namely generalised anxiety and depression. Please refer to Appendix 'P' for these results. For this reason, a multiple moderated regression analysis was not undertaken for this subscale, rather a Two-Way ANOVA was utilised.

3.3.3 Measurement error

The assumption of measurement error refers to the assessment of how reliable the scales that are used within a study are (Field, 2009). This reliability is most commonly assessed through the use of Cronbach alpha coefficients, where coefficients above .60 can be argued to produce low amounts of measurement error (Field, 2009). Within the current study, all the Cronbach alpha coefficients found for all the scales and subscales were above .60. For these values, refer to chapter two above. Therefore, it can be argued that this assumption has been met.

3.3.4 Homoscedasticity

This assumption assesses whether the variances of the data points within the data are similar or not. This becomes problematic if they are not, and sub-populations within the dataset have differing variances. This test can be determined by assessing the shape of the partial plots of the residuals, represented as scatterplots (Field, 2009). To assess this assumption, the shape of the scatterplots should be rectangular in shape. After assessing the partial plots displayed under Appendix 'P', the emotion-oriented subscale can be argued to display heteroscedastic data for the generalised anxiety subscale. Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity can be argued to have been violated for this subscale. For this reason, a multiple moderated regression analysis was not undertaken for this subscale, but rather a Two-Way ANOVA was executed.

3.3.5 Normality

This assumption assesses whether the standardized residuals from the data are normally distributed. What is being focused on here is the random error found between the independent variables and dependant variable within the regression model. To assess this assumption, the researcher looked at the Normal P-Plot of Regression of the Standardized Residual's (See Appendix Q). To make an argument for the standardized residuals being normally distributed, there should not be very many deviations away from the line provided in the graph (Field, 2013). As the plots for both dependent variables, namely generalised anxiety and depression, there were not many deviations and normality can be argued to be present. A second way to assess normality can be executed by looking at the Histogram of the Regression Standardized Residual (See Appendix R). This histogram should represent a bell-curve. Therefore, as the histograms for both the generalised anxiety and depression subscales indicate, it can be argued that the assumption of normality has been met.

3.4 Correlations for Job Search Anxiety and Transition Resources with Wellbeing

The authors Barron & Kenny (1986) have been considered as one of the leaders of multiple moderated regression analysis. These authors have argued that before a moderation analysis is undertaken, it is important to look at how well the independent variable and the moderator variables relate with the dependent variables in the study. The results of the correlations will be illustrated and discussed in the tables that follow.

Table 19: Pearson's correlation coefficients for Job Search Anxiety and Generalised Anxiety and Depression (n = 218)

	Job Search Anxiety
Generalised Anxiety	.38**
	.000
Depression	.28**
	.000

From the Pearson's correlations above, the results indicate there is a significant relationship between job search anxiety and a person's generalised anxiety and depression levels. The relationship between Job Search Anxiety and Generalised Anxiety suggests a moderate relationship, whilst for the dependent variable of depression, a weak relationship is present. Both of these relationships are positive. Thus, higher levels in job search anxiety are moderately associated with higher levels of generalised anxiety and depression.

Table 20: Pearson's correlation coefficients for Self-efficacy and Generalised Anxiety and Depression (n = 218)

	Self-efficacy
Anxiety	-.21**
	.00
Depression	-.27**
	.00

With regards to the relationship between Self-Efficacy and Generalised Anxiety and Depression levels above, there are significant relationships present here. These relationships are both weak negative in nature for both Generalised anxiety and depression, where the data indicates that the higher the levels of self-efficacy are moderately associated with lower levels of generalised anxiety and depression.

Table 21: Pearson's correlation coefficient's for Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale and Generalised Anxiety and Depression (n = 218)

	Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes
Anxiety	-.10
	.14
Depression	-.16**
	.02

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The above table highlights that there is a negative relationship between a person's perceived control over job search outcomes and the depression levels they may experience. Thus, these results suggest that higher levels of perceived control over job search outcomes are moderately associated with lower depressive symptoms. Regarding the relationship between a person's perceived control over job search outcomes and generalised anxiety symptoms, the data suggests that there is no significant relationship between these variables.

Table 22: Pearson's correlation coefficients for the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations subscales and Generalised Anxiety and Depression (n = 218)

	Avoidance-oriented Coping	**Emotion-oriented coping**	**Task-oriented coping**
Anxiety	.134*	.64**	-.16*
	.04	.00	.021
Depression	.04	.48**	-.24**
	.56	.00	.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The results from the current study suggest that avoidance-oriented coping strategies are positively associated with generalised anxiety, where higher levels of avoidance -oriented coping are moderately associated with higher levels of generalised anxiety. No significant relationship was found between avoidance-oriented coping and depressive symptoms. Emotion-oriented coping strategies do indicate a significant moderate positive relationship with anxiety and depression symptoms. Thus, higher levels of emotion-oriented coping are moderately associated with higher generalised anxiety and depression symptoms. With regards to task-oriented coping preferences, this data suggests a significant weak negative relationship with symptoms of generalised anxiety and depression. Therefore, higher levels of task-oriented coping are associated with lowered levels of symptoms of generalised anxiety and depression.

Table 23: Pearson's correlation coefficients for Perceived Social Support subscales and Generalised Anxiety and Depression (n = 218)

	Family	Friends	Significant Other
Anxiety	.067	.05	-.01
	.34	.44	.913
Depression	.25**	.26**	-.16*
	.00	.00	.02

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 22 highlights the relationship between perceived support from family, friends and a significant other with anxiety and depression symptoms. Before interpretation, it is important to highlight the way this is interpreted. This is because a Square root transformation was undertaken on the variables of the family and friends support scales respectively and were reverse scored as indicated above. The results indicate that neither perceived support from family, friends and a significant other have a significant relationship with symptoms of generalised anxiety. However, perceived support from family, friends and a significant other indicate a significant weak negative relationship with symptoms of depression. The Table suggest a positive relationship between the social support from family and friend subscales, however, these correlations are negative due to the reverse scoring mentioned above. Therefore, this suggests that higher levels of perceived social support from family, friends and a significant other are moderately associated with lower depressive symptoms.

3.5 Analysis of research questions

For each of the regression models utilised in this analysis, the structure was very similar in nature. There are two dependent variables, namely generalised anxiety and depression. Both generalised anxiety and depression were entered into separate models rather than together. Firstly, generalised anxiety was entered into the regression equation as the dependent variable, followed by job search anxiety as the independent variable. And lastly, each moderator was entered into the equation, (self-efficacy, perceived control over job search outcomes, the coping inventory for stressful situations subscales, and the perceived social support subscales) resulting in 7 multiple moderated regressions. The same process was executed for the dependent variable of Depression. In order to assess whether a moderation was present, the interaction terms of the independent variable and each of the moderator variables were assessed. For there to be a moderation, the interaction term should result in a significant result (Barron & Kenny, 1986). The main effects were also observed within each moderated regression, where a main effect can be described as the association from either the

independent variable on its own towards the dependent variable, or a moderator variable's association with the dependent variable. Therefore, both the dependent variables, namely generalised anxiety and depression were regressed onto the independent variable job search anxiety, as well as the moderator variables (self-efficacy, perceived control over job search outcomes, the avoidance and task-oriented coping subscales, and the perceived social support subscales). For the emotion-oriented subscale, Two-Way ANOVA's were undertaken. Firstly, the interaction terms of job search anxiety and emotion-oriented coping onto each dependent variable, namely generalised anxiety and depression were assessed. Secondly, the mean group differences were assessed for job search anxiety and emotion-oriented coping for generalised anxiety and depression.

3.5.1 Research question 1: *Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 24: Moderated multiple regression for generalised anxiety and job search anxiety and self-efficacy (n = 218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.34	.068	5.99	.00
SES	-.17	.10	-1.72	.09
JSA*SES	-.06	.13	-.511	.61

R-Square = .16

Overall model significance: $F(3, 21) = 13.24$, $p < 0.0001$

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether self-efficacy moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .34) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains approximately 16% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.2 Research question 2: *Does self-efficacy moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 25: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and self-efficacy (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.18	.060	3.06	.00
SES	-.26	.073	-3.48	.00
JSA*SES	.020	.098	.20	.84

R-Square = .12
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 9,09, p < 0.0001

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether self-efficacy moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta = .18) was found between job search anxiety and depression, as well as negative main effect between self-efficacy and depression (beta = -.26). Thus, job search anxiety and self-efficacy explain approximately 12% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.3 Research question 3: *Does perceived control over job search outcomes moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 26: Moderated multiple regression for generalised anxiety and job search anxiety and perceived control over a job search (n = 218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.39	.07	5.38	.00
PC	.02	.06	.378	.71
JSA*SES	-.06	.08	-.73	.46

R-Square = .14
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 10,84 p < 0.0001

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived control over job search moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .39) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains approximately 14% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.4 Research question 4: *Does perceived control over job search outcomes moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 27: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and perceived control over job search (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.21	.06	3.34	.00
PC	-.05	.05	-.99	.32
JSA*PC	-.08	0.67	-1.27	.21

R-Square = .09
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 6.55, p = 0.0001

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived control moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta= .21) was found between job search anxiety and depression, where job search anxiety explains approximately 9% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.5 Research question 5: *Does perceived social support from family moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 28: Moderated multiple regression for generalised anxiety and job search anxiety and perceived social support from family (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.36	.06	5.60	.00
PSS-Fam	.06	.10	.62	.54
JSA*PSS-Fam	-.00	.14	-.00	.99

R-Square = .14
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 11.26, p < 0.0001

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived support from family moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .36) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains approximately 14% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

5.5.6 Research question 6: *Does perceived social support from family moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 29: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and perceived social support from family (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.21	.06	3.83	.00
PSS-Fam	.27	.08	3.35	.00
JSA*PSS-Fam	-.00	.14	-.00	.99

R-Square = .13
Overall model significance: $F(3, 214) = 9.05$, $p < 0.0001$

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived social support from family moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A positive main effect (beta = .21) was found between job search anxiety and depression. Secondly, a main effect was also found between perceived social support from family and depression. It is important to highlight the interpretation of this main effect. This is because a Square root transformation was undertaken on this variable and was reverse scored as indicated above. Thus, the results suggest a positive main effect between perceived social support from family and depression. However, this is in fact a negative main effect (beta = -.27). Therefore, job search anxiety and perceived social support from family explains approximately 13% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.7 Research question 7: *Does perceived social support from friends moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 30: Moderated multiple regression for generalised anxiety and job search anxiety and perceived support from friends (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.37	.07	5.64	.00
PSS-Fri	.04	.12	.36	.72
JSA*PSS-Fri	.12	.18	.69	.49

R-Square = .14
Overall model significance: $F(3, 214) = 11.43$, $p < 0.0001$

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived social support from friends moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety.

A significant positive main effect (beta = .37) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains approximately 14% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.8 Research question 8: *Does perceived social support from friends moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 31: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and perceived social support from friends (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.21	.06	3.67	.00
PSS-Fri	.31	.09	3.46	.00
JSA*PSS-Fri	-.03	.16	-.20	.84

R-Square = .13
Overall model significance: $F(3, 214) = 9.31$, $p < 0.0001$

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived social support from friends moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta = .21) was found between job search anxiety and depression. A significant main effect was also found between perceived social support from friends and depression. Again, a square root transformation was undertaken on this variable and was also reverse scored. Therefore, a significant negative main effect (beta = -.31) was found between perceived social support from friends and depression. Thus, job search anxiety and depression explain approximately 13% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.9 Research question 9: *Does perceived support from a significant other moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 32: Moderated multiple regression for generalised anxiety and job search anxiety and perceived support from a significant other (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.38	.06	5.97	.00
PSS-SO	.02	.02	.81	.42
JSA*PSS-SO	-.05	.04	-1.38	.17

R-Square = .15
Overall model significance: $F(3, 214) = 13.72$, $p < 0.0001$

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived support from a significant other moderate's the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .38) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains 15% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.10 Research question 10: *Does perceived support from a significant other moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 33: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and perceived social support from a significant other (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.21	.06	3.48	.00
PSS-SO	-.04	.02	-1.73	.09
JSA*PSS-SO	-.04	.04	-.93	.35

R-Square = .10
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 5.72, p < 0.0009

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether perceived social support from a significant other moderate's the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta = .21) was found between job search anxiety and depression, where job search anxiety explains approximately 10% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.11: Research question 11: *Does avoidance-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 34: Moderated multiple regression for anxiety and job search anxiety and avoidance-oriented coping (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.36	.06	5.58	.00
CISS-A	.07	.05	1.41	.16
JSA*CISS-A	-.11	.08	-1.42	.16

R-Square = .16
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) 15.81 = p < 0.0001

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether avoidance-oriented coping moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .36) was found between job search anxiety and generalised

anxiety, where job search anxiety explains approximately 16% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.12 Research question 12: *Does avoidance-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

Table 35: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and avoidance-oriented coping (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.22	.06	3.71	.00
CISS-A	.01	04	.12	.90
JSA*CISS-A	-.09	.07	-1.32	.19

R-Square = .09
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 5.98 p < .0005

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether avoidance-oriented coping moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta = .22) was found between job search anxiety and depression, where job search anxiety explains approximately 9% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.13 Research question 13: *Does task-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

Table 36: Moderated multiple regression for anxiety on job search anxiety and task-oriented coping (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.36	.07	5.30	.00
CISS-T	-.10	.07	-1.32	.19
JSA*CISS-T	-.07	.10	-.07	.95

R-Square = .15
Overall model significance: F(3, 214) = 12.68 p < 0.0000

The MMR did not result in a significant result regarding whether task-oriented coping moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. A significant positive main effect (beta = .36) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, where job search anxiety explains 15% of the variance in generalised anxiety symptoms.

3.5.14 Research question 14: Does task-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?

Table 37: Moderated multiple regression for depression on job search anxiety and Task-oriented coping (n=218)

Variable	Beta	Standardized Error	t	P-value
JSA	.19	.06	3.27	.00
CISS-T	-.18	.06	-3.20	.00
JSA*CISS-T	.00	.07	.05	.96

R-Square = .11
Overall model significance: $F(3, 214) = 9.79$, $p < .0001$

The MMR did not end in a significant result regarding whether task-oriented coping moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and depression. A significant positive main effect (beta =.19) was found between job search anxiety and depression. A significant negative main effect (beta = -.18) was also found between task-oriented coping and depression. Thus, job search anxiety and task-oriented coping explain approximately 11% of the variance in depressive symptoms.

3.5.15 Research question 15: *Does emotion-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety?*

As indicated above, the assumption of linearity and homoscedasticity was violated for this variable. For this reason, a Two-Way ANOVA was conducted. This was executed by dividing up the job search anxiety scale into three groups using percentiles. The first group indicated low job search anxiety which included scores that fell below the 33rd percentile, the second group indicated moderate job search anxiety which included scores that fell between the 33rd and 67th percentile, and the third group indicated high job search anxiety which included job search anxiety scores that fell after the 67th percentile. The emotion-oriented subscale was also divided into three groups, where scores between 1 and 2 were grouped as low emotion-oriented coping, scores of 3 were grouped as moderate emotion-oriented coping, and scores between 4 and 5 were grouped as high emotion-oriented coping.

Table 38: Table illustrating Between-Subjects Factors

	Group	N
Job Search Anxiety	1	72
	2	63
	3	83
Emotion-oriented coping	1	114
	2	72
	3	32

Table 39: Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

		Levene	Df1	Df2	Sig.
HADSA	Mean	1.93	8	209	.06
	Median	1.60	8	209	.16

Table 40: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	22.59	8	2.82	9.14	.00
Intercept	401.09	1	401.09	1298.66	.00
CISS-E	10.36	2	5.18	16.77	.00
JSA	2.75	2	1.37	4.45	.01
CISS-E*JSA	.25	4	.06	.21	.94
Error	64.55	209	.31		
Total	687.19	218			
Corrected Total	87.14	217			

Table 41: Multiple Comparisons

	(I) CISS-E	(J) CISS-E	Mean difference	Std Error	Sig.
Tukey HSD	1	2	.22*	.08	.02
		3	-.67*	.11	.00
	2	1	-.22*	.08	.02
		3	-.89*	.12	.00
	3	1	.67*	.11	.00
		2	.89*	.19	.00

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 42: Multiple Comparisons

	(I) JSA	(J) JSA	Mean difference	Std Error	Sig.
Tukey HSD	1	2	-.18	.10	.134
		3	-.50*	.09	.000
	2	1	.18	.10	.134
		3	-.32*	.09	.002
	3	1	.50*	.09	.000
		2	.32*	.09	.002

*Significance at the .05 level.

As illustrated under table 38, Levene's Test was not significant. Therefore, the test for homogeneity of variances was not violated (Fields, 2013). The interaction term displayed under table 40 was not significant $F(4,209) = .206$, $p = .94$. Thus, no moderating effect was present for this research question, where emotion-oriented coping did not moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety.

Group differences between job search anxiety and symptoms of generalised anxiety were found to be significant $F(4,209) = .21$, $p = .01$, as illustrated under table 40. Thus, there are differences in the amount of generalised anxiety symptoms experienced across the differing levels of job search anxiety. These differences can be interpreted under the 'mean difference' column under Table 42, where persons who have high levels of job search anxiety significantly indicate higher levels of generalised anxiety in comparison to persons who reported low levels job search anxiety. Persons with high levels of job search anxiety significantly indicated higher levels of generalised anxiety in comparison to the participants who indicate moderate levels of job search anxiety. No significant differences were found between persons with low levels of job search anxiety in comparison to the moderate job search anxiety group.

Group differences were found between emotion-oriented coping and generalised anxiety $F(4,209) = .21$, $p = .00$, as illustrated under Table 40. These differences can be interpreted under the 'mean difference' column under Table 41. Person's with lower levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of generalised anxiety than persons with moderate levels of emotion-oriented coping. Persons with high levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of generalised anxiety than persons with a low level of emotion-oriented coping. Lastly, persons with high levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of generalised anxiety than persons with moderate levels of emotion-oriented coping.

3.5.16 Research question 16: *Does emotion-oriented coping moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression?*

As indicated above, the assumption of linearity was violated for this variable. For this reason, a Two-Way ANOVA was conducted. This was executed by dividing up the job search anxiety scale into three groups using percentiles. The first group indicated low job search anxiety which included scores that fell below the 33rd percentile, the second group indicated moderate job search anxiety which included scores that fell between the 33rd and 67th percentiles, and the third group indicated high job search anxiety which included job search anxiety scores that fell after the 67th percentile. The emotion-oriented scale was also divided into three groups, where scores between 1 and 2 were grouped as low emotion-oriented coping, scores of 3 were grouped as moderate emotion-oriented coping, and scores between 4 and 5 were grouped as high emotion-oriented coping.

Table 43: Table illustrating Between-Subjects Factors

	Group	N
Job Search Anxiety	1	72
	2	63
	3	83
Emotion-oriented coping	1	114
	2	72
	3	32

Table 44: Levene's Test of Equality of Error variances

		Levene	Df1	Df2	Sig.
HADSD	Mean	1.26	8	209	.27
	Median	1.07	8	209	.39

Table 45: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	14.45	8	1.81	8.79	.00
Intercept	113.82	1	113.82	553.55	.00
CISS-E	7.68	2	3.84	18.67	.00
JSA	1.56	2	.78	3.79	.02
CISS-E*JSA	.27	4	.07	.33	.86
Error	42.98	209	.21		
Total	216.77	218			
Corrected Total	57.42	217			

Table 46: Multiple Comparisons Emotion-Oriented Coping

	(I) CISS-E	(J) CISS-E	Mean difference	Std Error	Sig.
Tukey HSD	1	2	.21*	.07	.00
		3	-.54*	.09	.00
	2	1	-.21*	.07	.00
		3	-.75*	.10	.00
	3	1	.54*	.09	.00
		2	.75*	.10	.00

Table 47: Multiple Comparisons Job Search Anxiety

	(I) Jsa_test2	(J) Jsa_test2	Mean difference	Std Error	Sig.
Tukey HSD	1	2	-.022	.08	.96
		3	-.316*	.07	.00
	2	1	.022	.08	.96
		3	-.29*	.08	.00
	3	1	.32*	.07	.00
		2	.29*	.08	.00

As illustrated under Table 43, Levene's Test was not significant. Therefore, the test for homogeneity of variances was not violated (Fields, 2013). The interaction term displayed under table 44 was not significant $F(2,209) = .33$, $p = .86$. Thus, no moderating effect was present for this research question, where emotion-oriented coping did not moderate the relationship between job search anxiety and depression.

Significant group differences were found between job search anxiety and symptoms of depression $F(2,209) = 3.79$, $p = .02$, as illustrated under table 45. Thus, there are differences in the number of depressive symptoms experienced across the differing levels of job search anxiety. These findings can be interpreted under the 'mean difference' column under Table 47. Person's with moderate levels of job search anxiety indicate lower levels of depression than persons with high levels of job search anxiety. Persons with low levels of job search anxiety indicate lower levels of depression than persons with high levels of job search anxiety.

Significant group differences were found between emotion-oriented coping and depression $F(2,209) = 18.67$, $p = .00$, as illustrated under Table 46. Person's with lower levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of depression than persons with moderate levels of emotion-oriented coping. Persons with high levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of depression than persons with a low level of emotion-oriented coping.

Persons with high levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of depression than persons with moderate levels of emotion-oriented coping.

Chapter Four: Discussion

In this section, the results presented in chapter three will be critically assessed. This will be executed within the context provided in Chapter One. This study intended to assess whether various transition resources proposed by the theorist Nancy Schlossberg, namely self-efficacy, perceived control over job search outcomes, perceived social support as well as an individual's coping strategies moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing. Within this discussion, each transition resource will be explored individually. This will be followed by the limitations of the current study, its implications for future research this study provides, and the conclusion.

4.1 Key Findings

Finding employment has been described as a task that is challenging. This has been argued to be no different for university graduates (Oluwajodu et al, 2015). As a result, searching for a job has been argued to be 'stress-inducing' and may negatively impact upon individual psychological wellbeing levels (For e.g. McKee-Ryan et al, 2005). For these reasons, it was anticipated that there would be a significant relationship between the variables of job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing. The results in this study were found to be aligned with what previous research suggests (Mckee-Ryan et al, 2005; Paul & Moser, 2009), where positive correlations were found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety ($r = .38$, $p = .00$) as well as between job search anxiety and depression levels ($r = .28$, $p = .00$), highlighting that higher levels of job search anxiety are associated with higher levels of generalised anxiety and depression (see table 18 above). In each of the moderated regression equations, positive main effects were also found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, as well as for job search anxiety and depression. This indicates that job search anxiety does explain a percentage of the variance in psychological wellbeing levels a person may experience, again aligning with what previous research has suggested (For e.g. McKee-Ryan et al, 2005).

These findings are important as the consequences of lowered psychological wellbeing levels amongst students have been argued to have a multitude of negative consequences. These consequences within the university context may include having lowered academic performance, poor lecture attendance and lowered concentration levels (Andrews, & Wilding, 2004; Cress, & Ikeda, 2003). In addition broader consequences such as lowered life satisfaction, having the inability to enjoy things that one usually does, showing an impaired

ability to share humour, excitement and happiness, a reduction in self-care, and a decrease in physical health have all been associated with increased levels of depression and anxiety (Hysenbegasi et al, 2005; Hazlett-Stevens et al, 2003). The university student cohort has been illustrated to be one of that is high-risk regarding mental health threats, where it is common for depression and generalised anxiety symptoms within this cohort to be higher than many other parts of the population (Yu, Shek, & Zhu, 2018). For this reason, as well as for the negative consequences of poor student wellbeing levels indicated above, the importance of identifying ways to mitigate the negative consequences of this relationship is very important. In part, this study hopes to inform such practices.

Due to the finding of a significant relationship between job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing, a proactive stance should be adopted to try and manage student job search anxiety. This can be executed through teaching students various job searching skills. For example, interviewing has been argued as a critical part of the job searching process. It has been argued that teaching persons various interviewing skills may make the job search process easier and provide persons with more confidence in their job searching ability (Doll, 2017). Educating persons on how to write a curriculum vitae has also been illustrated to make the job search process easier (Risavy, 2017) and teaching person's how to conduct a job search has been found to have significant effects in assisting individuals seeking employment (Reddan, 2008). Thus, finding ways to aid job searchers at university may help minimize the amount of job search anxiety students may experience thereby positively impacting upon the health and wellbeing of students.

The second key objective of this research was to investigate Nancy Schlossberg's transition model. More specifically, her hypotheses that certain resources have mitigating effects on the negative consequences a person may experience as a result of having to experience, or potentially foresee that they will have to experience, a transition (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Within this study, Schlossberg's theoretical framework was tested in relation to the transition from university to full-time employment. Within this context we have not found much evidence in support for all of the claims that Schlossberg is making. No moderating effects were found between any of the proposed moderating variables and job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing levels, however, some main effects were found between the moderator variables and psychological wellbeing. These results will be explored in more detail below.

4.2 The Self

Under the quadrant of the self, the current studies focus was on the variable of self-efficacy as indicated above. The researcher firstly conducted a correlation analysis between self-efficacy, generalised anxiety and depression. The results indicated significant relationships, where a significant negative relationship ($r = -.21$, $p = .00$) was found between self-efficacy and generalised anxiety, and a significant negative relationship ($r = -.27$, $p = .00$) was also found between self-efficacy and depression. These results coincide with results suggested in other studies, where it is to be expected that persons with higher self-efficacy levels are associated with lower levels of generalised anxiety and depression (Bandura, 1994; Rusu, Chiriac, Salagean, & Hojbota, 2013).

Secondly, the researcher investigated whether self-efficacy acted as a moderator between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, and job search anxiety and depression. The results indicated that self-efficacy had no significant moderation effect with regards to these two relationships. Previous research has indicated that self-efficacy can act as a moderator within stressor-strain relationships (Dong Xie, 2007). It has been argued by Bandura, however, that self-efficacy should be a task-specific concept in order to have a sufficient effect on stressor strain relationships (Dong Xie, 2007). Bandura argues that self-efficacy is something that is generated through two main criteria. Firstly, Bandura argues that it can stem from vicarious experience. This refers to when an individual may observe someone execute the task they wish to complete. This allows for a person develop the ability to persuade themselves that they can execute such a task or challenge because someone else already has (Ghaderi & Salehi, 2011). Secondly, Bandura argues that self-efficacy forms from previous accomplishments. If an individual succeeds at a particular task that is similar to a task they must execute in the present, Bandura argues that they are more likely to feel positive in their abilities to execute it (Ghaderi et al, 2011).

One possible explanation for this non-significant finding can be related to Schlossberg's universal depiction of self-efficacy. As indicated above, it has been argued that self-efficacy should be operationalized in a task-specific rather than a universalistic manner. However, previous literature contradicts this argument, where previous studies have illustrated that generalized self-efficacy may act as a moderator within stressor-strain relationships, and not just task-specific self-efficacy (Grau, Salanova, & Peiro, 2001). Given the findings of the current research, it is clear that further research here is warranted. Whilst we did not

demonstrate a moderating relationship in the current context, an alternative operationalisation of Schlossberg's ideas (i.e. task-specific self-efficacy) may yield different results.

The researcher also assessed whether there are main effects between self-efficacy and generalised anxiety and depression. No significant main effect was found between self-efficacy and generalised anxiety. However, a significant negative main effect was found between self-efficacy and depression (Beta = -.26, p = .00). The finding of a main effect between self-efficacy and depression is not surprising after the inspection of what previous authors have found (see Tahmassian, & Moghadam, 2011). This is important as focusing on bettering student self-efficacy within a student context could yield improvements to psychological wellbeing. The authors Priesack & Alcock (2015), as well as Siddiqui (2015), have found that higher self-efficacy levels not only positively impacted psychological wellbeing levels, but also upon academic achievement thus highlighting the positive benefits high levels of student self-efficacy may have.

The non-significant main effect between self-efficacy and generalised anxiety can be argued as surprising. It has been suggested that generalised anxiety and self-efficacy typically indicate a strong relationship (Ghaderi et al, 2011; Rusu et al, 2013), where previous authors have illustrated that persons with higher levels of self-efficacy are less likely to experience heightened symptoms of generalised anxiety (Mckee-Ryan et al, 2005).

4.3 The Situation

As described in the literature review, this study focused on control when considering Schlossberg's notion of situation specific transition resources. It has been argued that a person's perceived control over a situation is important, not only because they are more likely to navigate challenges more successfully, but also because these persons may be characterised as experiencing higher levels of psychological wellbeing than those that do not (Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002). Previous research has tested a person's perceived control in two ways, namely by looking at a person's general perceived control over life outcomes, or by looking at a person's perceived control over a specific situation. Within this study, the latter was looked at, where a person's perceived control specific to being able to find employment was investigated. The researcher firstly conducted correlation analysis between this variable and depression and generalised anxiety. Firstly, there was no significant relationship found between perceived control over a job search and generalised anxiety. This goes against what previous literature suggests, where a significant relationship between the

two variables can be expected (Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002). However, a significant negative relationship was found between perceived control over job search outcomes and depression ($r = -.16$, $p = .02$), where these results suggest that having higher levels in perceived control over job search outcomes are associated with lower levels of depression. This finding coincides with what previous has found (Fielden et al, 1999; Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005). The consequences of this finding is that within the student context, introducing ways to help increase perceived control over finding employment may have a positive impact upon student health and wellbeing, where Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, (2002) specifically indicate that persons who have higher scores of perceived control over finding employment are more likely to indicate higher levels of psychological wellbeing.

The researcher also explored whether a person's perceived control over a job search moderated the relationship between their job search anxiety and psychological wellbeing, specifically generalised anxiety and depression levels. The multiple moderated regression analysis did not reveal a significant moderating effect regarding a person's perceived control over a job search on the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety and depression levels. Furthermore, no main effects were found between a person's perceived control over a job search and generalised anxiety or depression. However, a significant main effect was present between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety (Beta = .39, $p = .00$), as well between job search anxiety and depression (Beta = .21, $p = .00$). Again, it can be argued as surprising that no significant main effects were found between a person's perceived control over a job search and wellbeing, as previous research has found main effects present (Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005).

A possible explanation for the results indicated above may be found in research conducted by the author Wanberg (1997). In Wanberg's study, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire at the time that they became unemployed, and then complete another questionnaire three months later. In this questionnaire, participants indicated how much control they perceived themselves to have over finding a job and their levels of wellbeing, specifically depression and anxiety. No significant results were found between whether a person's perceived control over finding employment influenced their depression and anxiety scores when they were assessed immediately after becoming unemployed. However, when the same experimental group were assessed three months later, the results suggested that having perceived control over finding a job was related to the engagement in proactive job

searching behaviour whilst unemployed, which may lead to better wellbeing. Thus, these results suggest that only once a person is unemployed may the variable of perceived control over finding employment have an impact. As such, it may be argued that a person's perceived control over searching for a job may not have a significant effect on a person's mental health up until they are unemployed for a period of time. This is supported by the fact that majority of previous research in this domain has utilised samples of individuals that were already unemployed (Mckee-Ryan & Kinicki, 2002; McKee-Ryan, Song, Wanberg, & Kinicki, 2005).

4.4 Support

Schlossberg's quadrant named 'support' focuses on a multitude on different types of support to which a person may have access. Social support has been argued to play a role in impacting a person's psychological health (Schlossberg et al, 2006; de Carvalho, 2015). Within the current study, the researcher focused on three forms of social support, namely perceived social support from family, friends, and a significant other. The researcher firstly looked at whether any relationships were present between the three types of perceived social support and indicators of wellbeing, namely generalised anxiety and depression. No significant correlations were found for perceived social support from family, perceived social support from friends, and perceived social support from a significant other in relation to generalised anxiety. This does go against what previous literature suggests (Siedlecki, Salthouse, Oishi, & Jeswani, 2013; Gush et al, 2015). However, significant correlations were found between the three perceived social support sources and depression, where perceived social support from family indicated a significant positive relationship ($r = .25$, $p = .00$) with depression, perceived social support from friends a significant positive relationship ($r = .26$, $p = .00$) with depression, and lastly perceived social support from a significant other indicated a significant negative relationship ($r = -.16$, $p = .01$) with depression. Regarding the family and friends' subscales, it is important to acknowledge that these subscales were reverse scored due to the square root transformations performed on them. Thus, the results indicate positive relationships, but they should be interpreted as negative relationships. Therefore, higher levels of perceived social support from family, friends and significant others are associated with lower levels of depression, rather than higher. These results are supported within previous literature (Siedlecki, et al, 2013; Gush et al, 2015). These findings are important within the context of student wellbeing as increasing the amount of social support students may have access to may be associated with higher levels of their psychological wellbeing.

Dupont, Galand & Nils (2015) highlight various sources of social support are not only beneficial for individual psychological wellbeing, but also for academic performance. Thus, providing students with social support not only has beneficial consequences for the student, but for universities as well.

The researcher then looked at whether the three types of social support moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, and job search anxiety and depression. Firstly, the result for whether perceived social support from family moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety was not significant. A positive main effect was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety (Beta = .36, p = .00). A positive main effect was also found between job search anxiety and depression (Beta = .21, p = .00), as well as between perceived social support from family and depression (Beta = .27, p = .00). As indicated above, the interpretation of this must be considered with caution due to the reverse scoring of this subscale. Thus, the results indicated a significant negative main effect between perceived social support from family and depression, which suggests that increased perceptions of support from family are related to lower symptoms of depression. This is in line with what has been found by previous researchers (Siedlecki et al, 2013; Gush et al, 2015). However, no significant main effect was found between perceived social support from family and generalised anxiety. This result has been contested in previous literature, where some studies have indicated that a positive relationship should exist, where others have found what the current study suggests (Siedlecki et al, 2013).

With regards to the whether there was a moderating effect from perceived social support from friends in the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing, no significant was found. A significant main effect was present between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety (Beta = .37, p = .0000), but no main effect was present between perceived social support from friends and generalised anxiety. Furthermore, main effects were found to exist between job search anxiety and depression (Beta = .21, p = .00), as well as between perceived social support from friends and depression (Beta = .31, p = .00). This subscale was also reverse scored due to the square root transformation undertaken on it as indicated above. Thus, the results indicate a negative relationship where the higher a person's perceived social support from friends, the lower their depressive symptoms. The meta-analysis conducted by Mckee-Ryan et al (2005) illustrated that social support from friends should directly influence on a person's mental health scores, particularly in the context of searching for a job. Thus, the

non-significant finding between generalised anxiety and perceived social support from friends can be argued as contrary to expectations. However, it has been argued that perceived social support from friends may not positively impact upon a person's mental health. Possible explanations for this could include having an increased vulnerability to feelings of not being able to support themselves (Lepore, Glaser, & Roberts, 2008).

Lastly, with regards to whether or not perceived social support from a significant other moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, and job search anxiety and depression, both results were not significant. A significant main effect was present between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety (Beta = .38, p = .00), as well as between job search anxiety and depression (Beta = .21, p = .00). No significant main effects were found between perceived social support from a significant other and generalised anxiety or depression. According to Schlossberg (2006), having support from a significant other should mitigate the negative consequences that may result from an individual perceiving themselves to have to execute a transition. Social support from a significant other may allow a person to share their anxiety about searching for a job with that significant other (Gush et al, 2015).

In concluding this quadrant of support, it is counter to expectations that no moderating effects were present for perceived social support in the relationship between the job search anxiety a person may be experiencing and their depression levels, as a recent study has found this relationship (Lim, Lee, Jeon, Yoo, & Jung, 2018). However, this study did conceptualise job search anxiety in a different manor to that of the study executed by Lim et al (2018) where it was conceptualised as 'job seeking stress'. This job seeking stress was operationalised through five subscales. Lim et al (2018) operationalized it using the following constructs. Firstly, they operationalized it within the context of personality changes in relation to having to find a job, such as becoming angry. Secondly, they looked at it through substance dependence, such as whether or not a person was losing their appetite as a result of having to find a job. Thirdly, they assessed it within the context of the family environment, such as asking persons whether they are stressed about finding employment because of their family's economic circumstances. Employment market perceptions were also assessed, such as indicating whether or not the job seeker perceived there to be jobs available that he or she found desirable. Lastly, it was measured through a person's efficacy towards finding employment, such as stating whether or not they had enough skills to find a job (Lim et al, 2018). It is clear that the operationalisation of the constructs within the current study and that

of the study mentioned above are different, where the current study operationalised the construct within a context of having anxiety towards finding employment in general. It could be argued that different results may have been found if the more specific operationalisation utilised by Lim et al (2018) was exercised.

4.5 Strategies

The fourth and final resource quadrant Nancy Schlossberg referred to was that of Strategies. Within this quadrant she refers to the coping responses a person may have when faced with a transition (Schlossberg et al, 2006). Previous research has argued that the coping responses a person may engage in may influence their levels of wellbeing (Miller, 2010). This study focused on three coping strategies, namely task-oriented coping, avoidance-oriented coping, and emotion-oriented coping.

Firstly, it has been argued that persons who engage in task-oriented coping strategies are more likely to experience heightened levels of psychological wellbeing than persons who do not (Smith et al, 2015). Within the current study, the correlation results between task-oriented coping and generalised anxiety and depression supported the potential for this relationship, where a significant negative correlation between task-oriented coping and generalised anxiety ($r = -.16$, $p = .02$) was found. This indicates that higher levels in task-oriented coping are associated with lower levels of generalised anxiety. Similar results were found for the correlation between task-oriented coping and depression ($r = -.24$, $p = .00$), again indicating a negative correlation, where higher levels of task-oriented coping are associated with lower levels of depression.

The questions of whether task-oriented coping had a moderating effect on the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety as well as between job search anxiety and depression were then assessed. Both of these moderated regression analyses were insignificant. Previous research has indicated that within the context of searching for employment, task-oriented coping is likely to have a positive impact regarding an individual's mental health scores (Song, Zhang, & Shi, 2007) but this was not the case in the current study. A significant negative main effect (beta = -.18, $p = .00$) however, was found between task-oriented coping and depression, indicating that the results of this research do not contradict what previous research suggests completely, where task-oriented coping does explain some of the variance in symptoms of depression.

The second type of coping style, namely avoidance-oriented coping has been also been argued to relate to individual psychological wellbeing, where persons who display higher levels of avoidance-oriented coping styles are also likely to display higher levels of depression and anxiety in comparison to persons that do not (Ferarri, 1994; Huysse-Gaytandjieva et al, 2013). In our analysis, a significant positive correlation ($r = .14$, $p = .04$) was found between avoidance-oriented coping and generalised anxiety, indicating that higher levels of avoidance coping are associated with higher levels of generalised anxiety. However, no significant correlation was found between avoidance-oriented coping and depression. This non-significant relationship is not aligned with what previous literature indicates (Ferarri, 1994; Huysse-Gaytandjieva et al, 2013).

Regarding whether avoidance-oriented coping moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, as well as whether it moderates the relationship between job search anxiety and depression, neither moderations were significant. A significant main effect (Beta = .36, $p = .00$) was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, as well as between job search anxiety and depression (Beta = 22, $p = .00$). However, no significant main effects were found between avoidance-oriented coping and generalised anxiety, as well as between avoidance-oriented coping and depression. It has been suggested that persons who avoid stressful activities such as searching for a job are more likely to experience high levels of depression and anxiety than persons who do not engage in avoidant coping activities (Ferarri, 1994; Huysse-Gaytandjieva et al, 2013), thus, it can be argued that these results are again not aligned with what previous literature suggests.

Lastly, the third coping style identified within the current study of emotion-oriented coping has been argued to negatively impact upon mental health scores (Endler & Parker, 1994). Regarding the correlation results found within the current study, significant positive correlations were found between both emotion-oriented coping and generalised anxiety ($r = .64$, $p = .00$), and emotion-oriented coping and depression ($r = .48$, $p = .00$), illustrating results that previous research has suggested. Thus, higher levels of emotion-oriented coping are associated with higher levels of generalised anxiety and depression.

Secondly, for this subscale, two-way ANOVA's were undertaken. The first Two-Way ANOVA looked at whether emotion-oriented coping moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety. The interaction term was not significant ($F(4,209) = .206$, $p = .94$), thus, no moderating effect was present for this research question. However,

significant mean differences were found between the job search anxiety groups, where the highest job search anxiety group indicated higher levels of generalised anxiety than the moderate ($p = .00$) as well as the low job search anxiety group ($p = .00$). Significant mean differences in generalised anxiety were also present between low, moderate and high levels of emotion-oriented coping ($p<.0005$), where the high emotion-oriented group illustrated the highest amount of generalised anxiety; the lowest emotion-oriented group illustrated the second highest amount of generalised anxiety; and the moderate emotion-oriented group illustrated the lowest amount of generalised anxiety.

For the research question of whether emotion-oriented coping moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and depression, the results mirrored that of the research question mentioned above where this result was also insignificant ($F(2,209) = .33$, $p = .86$) Significant mean differences were found between the job search anxiety groups where the highest job search anxiety group indicated higher levels of generalised anxiety than the moderate ($p = .00$) as well as the low job search anxiety groups ($p = .00$). Furthermore, significant mean differences in depression in the three levels of emotion-oriented coping were found ($p < .0005$), where high emotion-oriented coping group indicated the highest number of depressive symptoms, the lowest emotion-oriented group illustrated the second highest amount of depression, and the moderate emotion-oriented group illustrated the lowest number of depressive symptoms.

It has been argued that persons who exercise the use of emotion-oriented coping are more likely to experience deterioration in their psychological wellbeing (Endler & Parker, 1994). Thus, the finding that the highest group of emotion-oriented coping illustrated the highest amount of generalised anxiety and depression can be argued as conforming to previous research. However, previous literature has suggested that the effects of using emotion-oriented coping is not always negative. It has been argued that the use of emotion-oriented coping when faced with a stressor may be beneficial for the wellbeing of the individual in the short term (Solove et al, 2014; Zakowski et al, 2001). When interpreting the results found within the current study, the arguments suggesting emotion-oriented coping may not always be negative can be partially supported as the group scoring moderate levels of emotion-oriented coping scored lower on generalised anxiety and depression than the lowest emotion-oriented group, suggesting that engaging in some form of emotion-oriented coping may be beneficial. However, according to the arguments from Solove et al (2014) and Zakowski et al (2001), these persons may experience the negative effects of engaging in this form of coping

once they exit university as they will still be required to find employment. In this vein, engaging in moderate amounts of emotion-oriented coping may assist them in the short term, but it can be argued that these persons may still experience the negative consequences in the long term.

4.6 Overview of all findings

The current study intended to assess whether various transition resources proposed by the theorist Nancy Schlossberg, namely self-efficacy, perceived control over job search outcomes, perceived social support as well as an individual's coping strategies moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing. The findings within the study did not illustrate much evidence in support for all of the claims that Schlossberg has made as no significant moderations were found. That said, main effects were present between self-efficacy and depression, perceived social support from family and depression, perceived social support from friends and depression, task-oriented coping and depression, emotion-oriented coping and depression, as well as between emotion-oriented coping and generalised anxiety. Nonetheless, we should interpret these results with caution because there are multiple limitations within this study that need to be considered. These are highlighted in the section that follows.

4.7 Limitations

It is important to acknowledge that there are limitations that must be considered so that one does not overgeneralize the results found within this study. Firstly, the research design of this study was a quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional correlational design. Because the design can be described as non-experimental, causality is limited (Santrock, 2005). This is because of an absence of covariation, where there was no definitive evidence suggesting that the variables within the study were empirically correlated with each other. The studies degree of non-spuriousness was also limited, as no random assignment was possible. Lastly, the degree of temporal precedence should also be considered, where there were no clear demonstrations indicated highlighting that the changes in the dependant variables namely generalised anxiety and depression preceded after value changes in the independent variables within the study (Santrock, 2005). For these reasons, the researcher was only able to speak about the relationships and associations between the variables within this study, namely job search anxiety, generalised anxiety, depression and the transition variables. The non-probability nature of the sample obtained also limited the degree of generalisability that could

be placed on the results, as not all members of the population had an equal chance of becoming selected to participate (Leedy, 1989).

The issue of how persons respond to mental health screening assessments should also be considered. Research suggests that not all persons who complete a mental health screening tests will answer in a manner that accurately represents their mental health. It has been argued that many persons who do have multiple symptoms such as depression and anxiety do not illustrate these in such assessments (Pract, 2005). Thus, it is possible that the possible inaccuracy of the self-report nature of the HADS should be acknowledged.

Within the current sample that was utilised, the time that the surveys were completed by the participants could have negatively impacted the results of the study. The participants completed the surveys between the months of August and September. This meant that not all of the participants were currently involved in a job search. This is exemplified as 117 of the participants indicated that they were currently involved in a job search, where 109 participants indicated that they were not. It could be argued that a person may have access to the resources that Schlossberg was referring to such as social support, but these resources may not be acting as moderators because they were not currently applying for jobs and these resources were not actually being activated.

The operationalization of self-efficacy could also be a limitation to this study. As indicated above, theorists such as Bandura (1994) have indicated that self-efficacy should be measured as a task-specific concept, where self-efficacy within this study was measured in a generalised form. It can be argued that if the more task-specific operationalisation of the concept was utilised, the result found within the study may have been different.

4.8 Implications of findings

The results of the current study does have implications for theory regarding Nancy Schlossberg's transition model, as well implications for practice. Taking into consideration the limitations represented above, the current section will highlight what theoretical implications the current study has provided, as well as what practical implications the current study may have.

Firstly, regarding the theoretical implications of the current study, the results have suggested that more work is needed to completely support Schlossberg's model. Schlossberg has put forward the notion that various transition resources that a person may have access to may have a mitigating effect on how a person responds to having to manage a transition, where some persons may experience negative effects on their mental health when faced with a transition whilst other persons may not (Schlossberg et al, 2006). However, as indicated above, some of the problems might have been with how the transition model was operationalized rather than inherently the model itself, such as how the construct of self-efficacy was measured. The timing of when the sample was collected may also have had an impact on the results as discussed above.

A second theoretical implication provided by the current study was that a new job search anxiety scale was adapted from the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (1983). Within current literature, the term has not been spoken about in a great amount of detail. This study integrated the existing literature related to the topic and built the argument of job search anxiety and produced a scale relating to it. A confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken on the adapted scale highlighting that the scale indicates good fit. The scale also showed good internal consistency. Thus, it is a scale that may be used by other researchers in the future. The scale also produced predictions that we expected it to with regards to psychological wellbeing. This illustrated possible good construct validity of the scale.

The results of the current study also provided multiple practical implications. Although no moderations were present, there were some significant results found, such as significant main effects as well as significant differences found within the Two-Way ANOVA's run. Firstly, a positive main effect was found between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety as well as between job search anxiety and depression. These results indicate that if universities minimize the extent to which students may experience job search anxiety, this may positively impact upon the psychological wellbeing levels students may experience.

Negative main effects were found between generalised self-efficacy and depression, social support from friends and depression, social support from family and depression, as well as between task-oriented coping and depression. Furthermore, significant differences were found between low, medium and high levels of emotion-oriented coping, where person's with high levels of emotion-oriented coping indicate higher levels of generalised anxiety and depression in comparison to person's who illustrate moderate and lower levels of emotion-oriented coping. From these results, it can be argued that if we enhance the availability of the resources such as helping exit-level students grow their self-efficacy beliefs, as well as provide an environment that can enhance social support, and educate students about the benefits of engaging in task-oriented coping, student wellbeing levels may be positively impacted. As indicated above, interventions that assist in the betterment of student psychological wellbeing may have positive spill over effects for students as well as for universities such as having higher lecture attendance and students completing homework more often, all resulting in bettered levels of academic productivity and performance levels (see Hysenbegasi et al, 2005). Students may also experience bettered health benefits such engaging in healthier eating (Cress et al, 2003).

Based on what has been mentioned above, if we enhance individual self-efficacy levels, provide person's with more perceived control over finding employment, increase the amount of social support students have access to, help students cope with stressors such as finding employment in more active ways, as well as reduce student job search anxiety, positive benefits may follow regarding student psychological wellbeing.

4.9 Conclusion

The object of the current study was to test whether various transition resources put forward by the theorist Nancy Schlossberg moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing. The results indicated that none of the transition resources put forward from Schlossberg's framework moderated the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing. This provided further insight into Schlossberg's claims, where theoretically, it can be argued that more work is needed to completely support Schlossberg's transition model.

Whilst assessing the moderating effects of the various transition resources on the relationship between job search anxiety and wellbeing, main effects were also addressed. The results suggested that main effects were present between job search anxiety and both generalised anxiety and depression. Main effects were also found between self-efficacy and depression, social support from friends and depression, social support from family and depression, as well as between task-oriented coping and depression. These results indicate that it is essential for universities to try and assist their students in increasing these resources as it may result in positive spill over effects not only for the individuals, but also for the university itself.

In conclusion, the results from the research indicated that relationships exist between job search anxiety and generalised anxiety, job search anxiety and depression, as well as between various transition resources taken from Schlossberg's transition model and psychological wellbeing.

Reference List

Andrews, B., & Wilding, J. (2004). The relation of depression and anxiety to life-stress and achievement in students. *British Journal of Psychology, 95*(4), 509-521. doi: 10.1348/0007126042369802

Balloo, K., Pauli, R., & Worrell, M. (2015). Undergraduates' personal circumstances, expectations and reasons for attending university. *Studies in Higher Education, 42*(8), 1373-1384. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2015.1099623

Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), Encyclopedia of human behavior (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.

Barber, A., Daly, C., Giannantonio, C., & Phillips, J. (1994). Job Search Activities: An Examination of Changes Over Time. *Personnel Psychology, 47*(4), 739-766. doi: 10.1111/j.1744-6570.1994.tb01574.x

Barnes, L., Harp, D., & Jung, W. (2002). Reliability Generalization of Scores on the Spielberger State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 62*(4), 603-618. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013164402062004005

Baron, R., & Kenny, D. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bjellanda, I., Dahlb, A., Haugc, T., & Neckelmann, D. (2002). The validity of the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale An updated literature review. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 52*, 69-77.

Black, T. (1999). *Doing quantitative research in the social sciences*. London: SAGE.

Bonaccio, S., Gauvin, N., & Reeve, C. (2013). The Experience of Emotions During the Job Search and Choice Process Among Novice Job Seekers. *Journal of Career Development, 41*(3), 237-257. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0894845313486354

Boswell, W., Zimmerman, R., & Swider, B. (2011). Employee Job Search. *Journal of Management, 38*(1), 129-163. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206311421829

Boysan, M. (2012). Validity of the Coping Inventory For Stressful Situations - Short Form (CISS-21) in a non-clinical Turkish sample. *Dusunen Adam: The Journal f Psychiatry And Neurological Sciences, 25*, 101-107. http://dx.doi.org/10.5350/dajpn2012250201

Byrne, B. (2010). *Structural Equation Modelling with AMOS* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.

Choueiry, N., Salamoun, T., Jabbour, H., El Osta, N., Hajj, A., & Rabbaa Khabbaz, L. (2016). Insomnia and Relationship with Anxiety in University Students: A Cross-Sectional Designed Study. *PLOS ONE, 11*(2). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0149643

Cress, C., & Ikeda, E. (2003). Distress under Duress: The Relationship between Campus Climate and Depression in Asian American College Students. *NASPA Journal*, *40*(2). doi: 10.2202/0027-6014.1224

De Carvalho, M. (2015). *Clarifying the Role of Social Support in the Relationship between Stressors and Strains at Work: The Effect of Self-Construals* (Masters). San Jose State University.

Doll, J. (2017). Structured Interviews: Developing Interviewing Skills in Human Resource Management Courses. *Management Teaching Review, 3*(1), 46-61. doi: 10.1177/2379298117722520

Dong Xie. (2007). Buffering or Strengthening: The Moderating Effect of Self-Efficacy on Stressor—Strain Relationship. *Journal of Career Assessment, 15*(3), 351-366. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1069072707301231

Dupont, S., Galand, B., & Nils, F. (2015). The impact of different sources of social support on academic performance: Intervening factors and mediated pathways in the case of master's thesis. *European Review of Applied Psychology*, *65*(5), 227-237. doi: 10.1016/j.erap.2015.08.003

Durand, V., & Barlow, D. (2012). *Abnormal psychology: An Integrative Approach* (6th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.

Endler, N., & Parker, J. (1994). Assessment of multidimensional coping: Task, emotion, and avoidance strategies. *Psychological Assessment*, *6*(1), 50-60. doi: 10.1037//1040-3590.6.1.50

Etikan, I. (2016). Comparison of Convenience Sampling and Purposive Sampling. *American Journal Of Theoretical And Applied Statistics*, *5*(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Feild, L., Pruchno, R., Bewley, J., Lemay, E., & Levinsky, N. (2006). Using Probability vs. Nonprobability Sampling to Identify Hard-to-Access Participants for Health-Related Research. *Journal Of Aging And Health*, *18*(4), 565-583. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0898264306291420

Ferarri, J. (1994). Dysfunctional procrastination and its relationship with self-esteem, interpersonal dependency, and self-defeating behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *17*(5), 673-679. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(94)90140-6

Field, A. (2009). Discovering statistics using SPSS statistics (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Fielden, S., & Davidson, M. (1999). Stress and Unemployment: A Comparative Review and Research Model of Female and Male Managers. *British Journal of Management*, *10*(1), 63-93. doi: 10.1111/1467-8551.00112

Flatau, P., Galea, J., & Petridis, R. (2000). Mental Health and Wellbeing and Unemployment. *The Australian Economic Review*, *33*(2), 161-181. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-8462.00145

Fried, E., & Nesse, R. (2014). The Impact of Individual Depressive Symptoms on Impairment of Psychosocial Functioning. *Plos*, *9*(2). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0090311

Fugate, M., Kinicki, A., & Ashforth, B. (2004). Employability: A psycho-social construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 14-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2003.10.005

Gale, C., & Davidson, O. (2007). Generalised anxiety disorder. *BMJ*, *334*(7593), 579-581. http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39133.559282.be

Garst, H., Frese, M., & Molenaar, P. (2000). The temporal factor of change in stressor-strain relationships: A growth curve model on a longitudinal study in East Germany. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, *85*(3), 417-438. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.3.417

Ghaderi, A., & Salehi, M. (2011). A Study of the Level of Self-Efficacy, Depression and Anxiety Between Accounting and Management Students: Iranian Evidence. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *12*(8), 1299-1306.

Gowan, M., Riordan, C., & Gatewood, R. (1999). Test of a model of coping with involuntary job loss following a company closing. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(1), 75-86. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.84.1.75

Grau, R., Salanova, M., & Peiro, J. M. (2001). Moderator effects of self-efficacy on occupational stress. *Psychology in Spain*, 5, 63-74.

Gush, K., Scott, J., & Laurie, H. (2015). Job Loss and Social Capital: The role of family, friends and wider support networks. *Institute for Social And Economic Research*.

Hair, J., Anderson, R., Tatham., & Black, W. (2006). Multivariate Data Analysis. New Jersey: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Harry, T., Chinyamurindi, W., & Mjoli, T. (2018). Perceptions of factors that affect employability amongst a sample of final-year students at a rural South African university. *SA Journal Of Industrial Psychology*, *44*. doi: 10.4102/sajip.v44i0.1510

Hathaway, R. (1995). Assumptions underlying quantitative and qualitative research: Implications for institutional research. *Research in Higher Education*, *36*(5), 535-562. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/bf02208830

Hazlett-Stevens, H., Craske, M., Mayer, E., Chang, L., & Naliboff, B. (2003). Prevalence of irritable bowel syndrome among university students. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, *55*(6), 501-505. doi: 10.1016/s0022-3999(03)00019-9

Higher Education and Training Republic of South Africa. (2011). *Statistics on Post-School Education and Training in South Africa*. Pretoria.

Huppert, F. (2009). Psychological Well-being: Evidence Regarding its Causes and Consequences. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, *1*(2), 137-164. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01008.x

Huysse-Gaytandjieva, A., Groot, W., & Pavlova, M. (2013). Why Do Some Employees Fall into and Fail to Exit a Job-Lock Situation?. *Journal of Environmental And Public Health*, *2013*, 1-14. http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2013/839349

Hysenbegasi, A., Hass, S., & Rowland, C. (2005). The impact of depression on the academic productivity of university students. *The Journal of Mental Health Policy and Economics*, *8*, 145-151.

Infurna, F., Gerstorf, D., Ram, N., Schupp, J., Wagner, G., & Heckhausen, J. (2016). Maintaining perceived control with unemployment facilitates future adjustment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 93*, 103-119. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2016.01.006

Ismail, S. (2017). Graduate employability capacities, self-esteem and career adaptability among South African young adults. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *43*(0). doi: 10.4102/sajip.v43i0.1396

Judge, T., Locke, E., Durham, C., & Kluger, A. (1998). Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *83*(1), 17-34. doi: 10.1037//0021-9010.83.1.17

Kansky, J., & Diener, E. (2017). Benefits of Well-Being: Health, Social Relationships, Work, and Resilience. *Journal of Positive Psychology And Wellbeing*, *1*(2), 129-169.

Klehe, U., & Van Hooft, E. (2018). *The Oxford Handbook of Job Loss and Job Search* (1st ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Krueger, A., & Mueller, A. (2011). Job Search, Emotional Well-Being, and Job Finding in a Period of Mass Unemployment: Evidence from High-Frequency Longitudinal Data. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, *2011*(1), 1-57. http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/eca.2011.0001

Lai, C., & Ma, C. (2016). The mediating role of social support in the relationship between psychological well-being and health-risk behaviors among Chinese university students. *Health Psychology Open*, *3*(2), 205510291667810. doi: 10.1177/2055102916678106

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

Leedy, P. D. (1989). Practical research: planning and design (4th ed.) USA: Macmillan Publishing Company.

Lee, G. (2016). *Business Statistics: From Scratch to intermediate with SAS.* (1st ed.). Randjiesfontein: Silk Route Press.

Leonard, B., & Song, C. (1996). Stress and the immune system in the etiology of anxiety and depression. *Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior*, *54*(1), 299-303. doi: 10.1016/0091-3057(95)02158-2

Lepore, S., Glaser, D., & Roberts, K. (2008). On the positive relation between received social support and negative affect: a test of the triage and self-esteem threat models in women with breast cancer. *Psycho-Oncology*, *17*(12), 1210-1215. doi: 10.1002/pon.1347

Lin, Y. (2008). *Job Search Self-Efficacy of East Asian International Graduate Students* (Ph.D.). University of Missouri-Columbia.

Lim, A., Lee, S., Jeon, Y., Yoo, R., & Jung, H. (2018). Job-Seeking Stress, Mental Health Problems, and the Role of Perceived Social Support in University Graduates in Korea. *Journal of Korean Medical Science*, *33*(19). doi: 10.3346/jkms.2018.33.e149

Llewellyn, D., Lang, I., Langa, K., & Huppert, F. (2008). Cognitive function and psychological well-being: findings from a population-based cohort. *Age and Ageing*, *37*(6), 685-689. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/ageing/afn194

Lyons, B., Wessel, J., Chiew Tai, Y., & Marie Ryan, A. (2014). Strategies of job seekers related to age-related stereotypes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *29*(8), 1009-1027. doi: 10.1108/jmp-03-2013-0078

Manroop, L., & Richardson, J. (2015). Job Search: A Multidisciplinary Review and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *18*(2), 206-227. doi: 10.1111/ijmr.12066

Mayer, E., Craske, M., & Naliboff, B. (2001). Depression, anxiety, and the gastrointestinal system. *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry, 8*, 28-36.

McKee-Ryan, F., Song, Z., Wanberg, C., & Kinicki, A. (2005). Psychological and Physical Well-Being During Unemployment: A Meta-Analytic Study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(1), 53-76. doi: 10.1037/0021-9010.90.1.53

McKee-Ryan, F., & Kinicki, A. (2002). Coping with job loss: A life-facet perspective. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), International review of industrial and organizational psychology (Vol. 17, pp. 1–29). Chichester, UK: Wiley

Meyer, D. (2014). Job Creation, a Mission Impossible? The South African Case. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 5*(16), 65-77. http://dx.doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n16p65

Miles, J., & Banyard, P. (2007). *Understanding and Using Statistics in Psychology: A Practical Introduction.* Sage Publications Ltd.

Miller, T. (2010). *Handbook of stressful transitions across the lifespan* (pp. 111-127). New York: Springer.

Oluwajodu, F., Blaauw, D., Greyling, L., & Kleynhans, E. (2015). Graduate unemployment in South Africa: Perspectives from the banking sector. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 13*(1). http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v13i1.656

Osborne, J. (2002). Notes on the use of data transformations. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation, 8*(6).

Paul, K., & Moser, K. (2009). Unemployment impairs mental health: Meta-analyses. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74*(3), 264-282. doi: 10.1016/j.jvb.2009.01.001

Penninx, B., Milaneschi, Y., Lamers, F., & Vogelzangs, N. (2013). Understanding the somatic consequences of depression: biological mechanisms and the role of depression symptom profile. *BMC Medicine, 11*(1). doi: 10.1186/1741-7015-11-129

People | Statistics South Africa. (2017). Retrieved from http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=737&id=1

Pract, J. (2005). The effectiveness of case-finding for mental health problems in primary care. *British Journal of General Practice, 55*(518), 665-669.

Priesack, A., & Alcock, J. (2015). Well-being and self-efficacy in a sample of undergraduate nurse students: A small survey study. *Nurse Education Today, 35*(5), 16-20. doi: 10.1016/j.nedt.2015.01.022

Reddan, G. (2008). The benefits of job-search seminars and mock interviews in a work experience course. *School of Physiotherapy and Exercise Science, Griffith University*.

Risavy, S. (2017). The Resume Research Literature: Where Have We Been and Where Should We Go Next? *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, *7*(1), 169. doi: 10.5539/jedp.v7n1p169

Robertson, P. (2013). The well-being outcomes of career guidance. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, *41*(3), 254-266. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03069885.2013.773959

Rusu, A., Chiriac, D., Salagean, N., & Hojbota, A. (2013). Job search self-efficacy as mediator between employment status and symptoms of anxiety. *Romanian Journal f Applied Psychology*, *15*(2), 69-75.

Saks, A., & Ashforth, B. (1999). Effects of Individual Differences and Job Search Behaviors on the Employment Status of Recent University Graduates. *Journal f Vocational Behavior*, *54*(2), 335-349. doi: 10.1006/jvbe.1998.1665

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1999). Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes Scale [Database record]. Retrieved from PsycTESTS. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/t10329-000doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1999.1714

Saks, A., & Ashforth, B. (2000). Change in Job Search Behaviors and Employment Outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *56*(2), 277-287. http://dx.

Salkind, N. (2012). *Exploring research* (8th ed., pp. 10-20). Boston: Prentice Hall.

Santrock, J. W. (2005). Psychology (7th ed.) Dallas: Mcgraw/Hill.

Schlossberg, N., Goodman, J., & Anderson, M. (2006). *Counselling adults in transition: Linking practice with theory* (3rd ed.). New York: Springer.

Schlossberg, N.K. (2011). The challenge of change: The transition model and its applications. American Counselling Association, 48, 159-162.

Schlossberg, N., Waters, E., & Goodman, J. (1995). *Counselling Adults in Transition: Linking Practice with Theory* (2nd ed.). New York: Springer.

Scholz, U., Gutiérrez Doña, B., Sud, S., & Schwarzer, R. (2002). Is General Self-Efficacy a Universal Construct? *European Journal Of Psychological Assessment*, *18*(3), 242-251. http://dx.doi.org/10.1027//1015-5759.18.3.242

Schoon, I., & Silbereisen, R. (2015). *Transitions from School to Work*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs (pp. 35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Scott P and Charteris J (2003). Stress; strain – what's in a name? *Ergonomics SA*, 15: 67-69.

Setia, M. (2016). Methodology series module 3: Cross-sectional studies. *Indian Journal of Dermatology*, *61*(3), 261. http://dx.doi.org/10.4103/0019-5154.182410

Siddiqui, S. (2015). Impact of Self-Efficacy on Psychological Well-Being among Undergraduate Students. *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, *2*(3).

Siedlecki, K., Salthouse, T., Oishi, S., & Jeswani, S. (2013). The Relationship Between Social Support and Subjective Well-Being Across Age. *Social Indicators Research*, *117*(2), 561-576. doi: 10.1007/s11205-013-0361-4

Sinclair, R., Wang, M., & Tetrick, L. (2013). *Research methods in occupational health psychology* (pp. 76-89). New York: Routledge.

Smith, M., Saklofske, D., Keefer, K., & Tremblay, P. (2015). Coping Strategies and Psychological Outcomes: The Moderating Effects of Personal Resiliency. *The Journal of Psychology*, *150*(3), 318-332. doi: 10.1080/00223980.2015.1036828

Snaith, P. (2003). The Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, *1*(29).

Solove, E., Fisher, G., & Kraiger, K. (2014). Coping with Job Loss and Reemployment: A Two-Wave Study. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *30*(3), 529-541. doi: 10.1007/s10869-014-9380-7

Song, Z., Zhang, S., & Shi, K. (2007). *Job Search and Stress: A daily Repeated Measure Study*. National University of Singapore.

Spielberger, C., Gorsuch, R., Lushene, R., & Jacobs, G. (1983). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Form Y)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Streiner, D. (2003). Starting at the Beginning: An Introduction to Coefficient Alpha and Internal Consistency. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *80*(1), 99-103. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa8001_18

Stumpf, S., Colarelli, S., & Hartman, K. (1983). Development of the Career Exploration Survey (CES). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *22*(2), 191-226. doi: 10.1016/0001-8791(83)90028-3

Tahmassian, K., & Moghadam, M. (2011). Relationship Between Self-Efficacy and Symptoms of Anxiety, Depression, Worry and Social Avoidance in a Normal Sample of Students. *Iranian Journal of Psychiatry And Behavior Sciences*, *5*(2), 91-98.

Thatcher, A., & Milner, K. (2003). Stressor (Stress) Strain: Expanding on a name. *Ergonomics SA*.

Tomlinson, M. (2008). 'The degree is not enough': students' perceptions of the role of higher education credentials for graduate work and employability. *British Journal of Sociology Of Education, 29*(1), 49-61. doi: 10.1080/01425690701737457

Vansteenkiste, V., Lens, W., Witte, H., & Feather, N. (2005). Understanding unemployed people's job search behaviour, unemployment experience and well-being: A comparison of expectancy-value theory and self-determination theory. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *44*(2), 269-287. doi: 10.1348/014466604x17641

Veiga, S. (2013). *Perceived Progress, Affect, And Intensity: The Role of Approach-Avoidance Temperament And Optimism In Job Search* (Ph.D). University of Missouri-Columbia.

Vinokur, A., & Van Ryn, M. (1993). Social support and undermining in close relationships: Their independent effects on the mental health of unemployed

Wanberg, C. R. (1997). Antecedents and outcomes of coping behaviors among unemployed and reemployed individuals. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 731–44.

Warr, P. (1990). The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *63*(3), 193-210. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00521.x

Warr, P. (2012). How to Think About and Measure Psychological Well-being. In M. Wang, R. Sinclair & L. Tetrick, *Research Methods in Occupational Health Psychology*. New York: Press/Routledge.

World Bank Publications. (2013). *World Development Report 2013 (*p.50). Washington, DC.

Wu, T., Luo, Y., Broster, L., Gu, R., & Luo, Y. (2013). The impact of anxiety on social decision-making: Behavioral and electrodermal findings. *Social Neuroscience*, *8*(1), 11-21. doi: 10.1080/17470919.2012.694372

Yu, L., Shek, D., & Zhu, X. (2018). The Influence of Personal Well-Being on Learning Achievement in University Students Over Time: Mediating or Moderating Effects of

Internal and External University Engagement. *Frontiers In Psychology*, *8*. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02287

Zakowski, S., Hall, M., Klein, L., & Baum, A. (2001). Appraised control, coping, and stress in a community sample: A test of the goodness-of-fit hypothesis. *Annals of Behavioral Medicine*, *23*(3), 158-165. doi: 10.1207/s15324796abm2303_3

Zimet, G., Dahlem, N., Zimet, S., & Farley, G. (1988). The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *52*(1), 30-41. http://dx.doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa5201_2

Appendix A: Ethical Clearance

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

OFFICE OF THE DEPUTY REGISTRAR

24 July 2018

Thomas Britton
Student number 716691
Masters Candidate
School of Human and Community Development

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

"Job Search Anxiety, Transitionability and Wellbeing"

This letter serves to confirm that the above project has received permission to be conducted on University premises, and/or involving staff and/or students of the University as research participants. In undertaking this research, you agree to abide by all University regulations for conducting research on campus and to respect participants' rights to withdraw from participation at any time.

If you are conducting research on certain student cohorts, year groups or courses within specific Schools and within the teaching term, permission must be sought from Heads of School or individual academics.

Ethical clearance has been obtained. (Protocol Number MORG/18/002 1H)

Nicoleen Potgieter
University Deputy Registrar

<u>Appendix B</u>: Letter to the registrar requesting access to student sample

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Thomas Britton and I am conducting research for the purpose of obtaining a Master's Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of this degree I am required to conduct research and subsequently present a research report on the findings obtained. My research concerns itself with the notion of job search anxiety and its relation with student health and wellbeing.

More specifically, I aim to explore how specific resources can moderate the relationship between the anxiety a person has towards searching for a job and the degree of wellbeing they may experience. Understanding the impact of job search anxiety upon university students is important, particularly given the context of graduate unemployment and underemployment. It is necessary to further explore the factors which may mitigate the negative consequences that students could experience because of their job search anxiety. Specifically, these factors include helping students cope, manage and deal with the act of seeking employment.

I am requesting permission to conduct my research at The University of the Witwatersrand among third and fourth year students.

Depending on the preference of the lecturers, questionnaires will either be distributed to the students physically or electronically to complete. If the participants fill out the hardcopy questionnaire, this will be done in class. The questionnaire will approximately take 25 minutes to complete. All information about the study will be provided to the participants including their obligations in the form of a participant information sheet. This participant information sheet will include information stating that their information will be kept confidential and their answers will be anonymous. To ensure this, no identifying information of the students will be requested. All IP addresses will be deleted from any electronic data, and all responses will be reported at the group level; thus, no individual responses will be described. Furthermore, only my supervisor and I will have access to the data, and all data received will be stored on a password protected computer and all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. Participants final submission of the questionnaire will be considered as consent. Participants will be allowed to withdraw from the research at any time before they submit their questionnaire but not after submission as identifying which questionnaire belongs to which participant will not be possible. The study will not harm, danger or stress

the participants at any time during the participation of the research. Because there is no use of deception, debriefing of participants will not be necessary, however, a summary of the results will be made available to participants so they request.

Your consent for me to execute this study would be greatly appreciated. If you wish to raise any issues, you may contact me or my supervisor immediately. If you wish to obtain a copy of my questionnaire or have a discussion regarding my research, please contact me and we will organise a meeting.

Kind regards,

Thomas Britton	Ian Siemers	Colleen Bernstein
Email: 2mbritho@gmail.com	Email: ian.siemers@wits.ac.za Tel: (011) 717 4586	Email: Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

Appendix C: Letter to the Course Co-ordinator requesting access to students

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Thomas Britton and I am conducting research for the purpose of obtaining a Master's Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of this degree I am required to conduct research and subsequently present a research report on the findings obtained. My research concerns itself with the notion of job search anxiety and its relation with student health and wellbeing.

More specifically, I aim to explore how specific resources can moderate the relationship between the anxiety a person has towards searching for a job and the degree of wellbeing they may experience. Understanding the impact of job search anxiety upon university students is important, particularly given the context of graduate unemployment and underemployment. It is necessary to further explore the factors which may mitigate the negative consequences that students could experience because of their job search anxiety. Specifically, these factors include helping students cope, manage and deal with the act of seeking employment.

I am requesting permission to conduct my research amongst third and fourth year students studying the course you are co-ordinating.

Depending on the preference of the lecturers, questionnaires will either be distributed to the students physically or electronically to complete. If the participants fill out the hardcopy questionnaire, this will be done in class. The questionnaire will approximately take 25 minutes to complete. All information about the study will be provided to the participants including their obligations in the form of a participant information sheet. This participant information sheet will include information stating that their information will be kept confidential and their answers will be anonymous. To ensure this, no identifying information of the students will be requested. All IP addresses will be deleted from any electronic data, and all responses will be reported at the group level. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the data, and all data received will be stored on a password protected computer and all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. Participants final submission of the questionnaire will be considered as consent. Participants will be allowed to withdraw from the research at any time before they submit their questionnaire but not after submission as identifying which questionnaire belongs to which participant will not be possible. The study will not harm, danger or stress the participants at any time during the participation of the research. Because there is no use of deception, debriefing of participants will not be

necessary, however, a summary of the results will be made available to participants so they request.

Your consent for me to execute this study would be greatly appreciated. If you wish to raise any issues, you may contact me or my supervisor immediately. If you wish to obtain a copy of my questionnaire or have a discussion regarding my research, please contact me and we will organise a meeting.

Kind regards,

Thomas Britton	Ian Siemers	Colleen Bernstein
Email: 2mbritho@gmail.com	Email: ian.siemers@wits.ac.za Tel: (011) 717 4586	Email: Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

Appendix D: Letter to the lecturers requesting access to students

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Thomas Britton and I am conducting research for the purpose of obtaining a Master's Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of this degree I am required to conduct research and subsequently present a research report on the findings obtained. My research concerns itself with the notion of job search anxiety and its relation with student health and wellbeing.

More specifically, I aim to explore how specific resources can moderate the relationship between the anxiety a person has towards searching for a job and the degree of wellbeing they may experience. Understanding the impact of job search anxiety upon university students is important, particularly given the context of graduate unemployment and underemployment. It is necessary to further explore the factors which may mitigate the negative consequences that students could experience because of their job search anxiety. Specifically, these factors include helping students cope, manage and deal with the act of seeking employment.

I am requesting permission to conduct my research in your department among third and fourth year students.

Depending on your preference, questionnaires will either be distributed to the students physically or electronically to complete. If the participants fill out the hardcopy questionnaire, this will be done in class. The questionnaire will approximately take 25 minutes to complete. All information about the study will be provided to the participants including their obligations in the form of a participant information sheet. This participant information sheet will include information stating that their information will be kept confidential and their answers will be anonymous. To ensure this, no identifying information of the students will be requested. All IP addresses will be deleted from any electronic data, and all responses will be reported at the group level. Only my supervisor and I will have access to the data, and all data received will be stored on a password protected computer and all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. Participants final submission of the questionnaire will be considered as consent. Participants will be allowed to withdraw from the research at any time before they submit their questionnaire but not after submission as identifying which questionnaire belongs to which participant will not be possible. The study will not harm, danger or stress the participants at any time during the participation of the research. Because there is no use of deception, debriefing of participants will not be

necessary, however, a summary of the results will be made available to participants, so they request.

Your consent for me to execute this study would be greatly appreciated. If you wish to raise any issues, you may contact me or my supervisor immediately. If you wish to obtain a copy of my questionnaire or have a discussion regarding my research, please contact me and we will organise a meeting. feel free to contact me and we can arrange a meeting at a suitable time.

Kind regards,

Thomas Britton	Ian Siemers	Colleen Bernstein
Email: 2mbritho@gmail.com	Email: ian.siemers@wits.ac.za Tel: (011) 717 4586	Email: Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

Appendix E: Participant Information Sheet

Psychology
School of Human & Community Development
University of the Witwatersrand
Private Bag 3, WITS, 2050
Tel: (011) 717 4500 Fax: (011) 717 4559

Hello,

My name is Thomas Britton and I am conducting research for the purpose of obtaining a Masters Degree in Organisational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. As part of this degree I am required to conduct research and subsequently present a research report on the findings obtained. My research concerns itself with the notion of job search anxiety and its relation with student health and wellbeing.

I would like to invite you to take part in this research.

Participation in this research will involve you accessing a questionnaire electronically or by answering a physical questionnaire in class. The questionnaire will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. Firstly, your participation in the study is completely voluntary. The information collected from this questionnaire will be kept confidential and your answers will be anonymous. To ensure this, no identifying information of yours is requested. All IP addresses will be deleted from any electronic data, and all responses will be reported at the group level; thus, no individual responses will be described. Furthermore, all data received will be stored on a password protected computer and all hard copy questionnaires will be destroyed. You are allowed to withdraw from the research at any time before you submit your questionnaire but not after submission as it will not be possible to identify your individual questionnaire. This study will not harm, danger or stress you as a participant at any time during the participation of the research. A summary of the results will be made available to you if you request them.

Your consent for you to participate would be greatly appreciated. If you have any concerns, do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor.

Kind regards,

Thomas Britton	Ian Siemers	Colleen Bernstein
Email: 2mbritho@gmail.com	Email: ian.siemers@wits.ac.za Tel: (011) 717 4586	Email: Colleen.Bernstein@wits.ac.za

Appendix F: Demographical Questionnaire

Please answer the questions below by choosing the correct option or filling in the information requested. Please note that the following demographic questions are for statistical purposes only and are in no way meant to be offensive.

1. What is your gender?

□ Male

□ Female

2. What is your age? (in years)

[ ] years old

3. Which race/ethnicity best describes you? (This information is only used for the purpose of describing the sample)

□ Black □ White □ Coloured

□ Indian □ Asian □ Other (please specify) _____

4. What is your home language?

□ Afrikaans

□ English

□ IsiNdebele

□ IsiXhosa

□ IsiZulu

□ Sepedi

□ Sesotho

□ Setswana

□ SiSwati

□ Tshivenda

□ Xitsonga

5. At which high school did you matriculate?

_____

6. What type of high school did you attend?

□ Private

□ Public urban

□ Public township

□ Public rural

□ Other (please specify)

_____

7. What was the approximate size of your high school?

□ Less than 300 learners

□ Between 300 & 600 learners

□ Between 600 & 1000 learners

□ More than 1000 learners

8. Are you from Johannesburg? If not, please specify where you are from.

□ Yes

□ No (please specify where you are from) _____

9. With which faculty are you registered?

□ Humanities

□ Health Science

□ Engineering & the Built Environment

□ Science

□ Commerce, Law & Management

10. How many years have you been at university?

□ 1 year

□ 2 years

□ 3 years

□ 4 years

□ Other (please specify)

_____

11. Are you a part-time or full-time student?

□ Part-time

□ Full-time

12. What are your term-time living arrangements?

□ University res

□ Rented accommodation

□ With parents

□ With other family

□ With friends

□ Other (please specify)

_____

13. Have you ever been involved in a job search?

□ Yes

□ No

14. Are you currently involved in a job search?

□ Yes

□ No

15. Are you on a bursary that ensures employment when you graduate?

□ Yes

□ No

Appendix G: Job Search Anxiety Scale

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.) I feel self-confident about my ability to search for a job.					
2.) I feel stressed about the idea of starting a job search.					
3.) I am worried about being able to find a job in the current economic climate.					
4.) I am nervous about approaching organisations to find a job.					
5.) I feel confused about what organisations are looking for in job applicants.					
6.) I feel positive about having to find a job.					
7.) I am tense when I think about having to find a job.					
8.) I am concerned that I will not be able to find my dream job.					
9.) I feel it will be easy for me to find a job.					
10.) I feel comfortable in my ability to obtain a job.					

Appendix H: The General Self Efficacy Scale

	Not at all true	Hardly ever	Sometimes True	Mostly True	Always True
1.) I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough					
2.) If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want					
3.) It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals					
4.) I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events					
5.) Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle to unforeseen situations					
6.) I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort					
7.) I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities					
8.) When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions					
9.) If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution					
10.) I can usually handle whatever comes my way					

Appendix I: The Perceived Control Over Job Search Scale

1 = "Strongly Disagree" to 6 = "Strongly Agree".

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Finding a job is totally within my control						
My ability to find a job is controlled by the labour market						
I can influence the outcomes of my job search						
I do not have very much control over finding a job						
Finding a good job depends on things I can't control						

Appendix J: The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

Please indicate how much you engage in each activity when you encounter a difficult, stressful, or upsetting situation where 1= “not at all” and 5 = “Very much”:

	1	2	3	4	5
1.) Take some time off and get away from the situation					
2.) Focus on the problem and see how I can solve it					
3.) Blame myself for having gotten into this situation					
4.) Treat myself to a favourite food or snack					
5.) Feel anxious about not being able to cope					
6.) Think about how I solved similar problems					
7.) Visit a friend					
8.) Determine a course of action and follow it.					
9.) Buy myself something					
10.) Blame myself for being too emotional about the situation					
11.) Work to understand the situation					
12.) Become very upset					
13.) Take corrective action immediately					
14.) Blame myself for not knowing what to do					
15.) Spend time with a special person					
16.) Think about the event and learn from my mistakes					
17.) Wish that I could change what had happened or how I felt					
18.) Go out for a snack or meal					
19.) Analyze my problem before reacting					
20.) Focus on my general inadequacies					
21.) Phone a friend					

Appendix K: **The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support**

Scoring:	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
All Questions	**Very strongly disagree**	**Strongly disagree**	**Mildly disagree**	**Neutral**	**Mildly agree**	**Strongly agree**	**Very strongly agree**

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1.) There is a special person who is around when I am in need							
2.) There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows							
3.) My family really tries to help me							
4.) I get the emotional help and support I need from my family							
5.) I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me							
6.) My friends really try to help me							
7.) I can count on my friends when thing go wrong							
8.) I can talk about my problems with my family							
9.) I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows							
10.) There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings							
11.) My family is willing to help me make decisions							
12.) I can talk about my problems with my friends							

Appendix L: The HADS (Hospital, Anxiety and Depression Scale)

1.) I feel tense or 'wound up'

Most of the time	
A lot of the time	
From time to time, occasionally	
Not at all	

2.) I still enjoy the things I used to enjoy

Definitely as much	
Not quite so much	
Only a little	
Hardly at all	

3.) I get sort of frightened feeling as if something awful is about to happen

Very definitely and quite badly	
Yes, but not too badly	
A little, but it doesn't worry me	
Not at all	

4.) I can laugh at the funny side of things

As much as I always could	
Not quite so much now	
Definitely not so much now	
Not at all	

5.) Worrying thoughts go through my head

A great deal of the time	
A lot of the time	
From time to time, but not too often	
Only occasionally	

6.) I feel cheerful

Not at all	
Not often	
Sometimes	
Most of the time	

7.) I can sit and feel relaxed

Definitely	
Usually	
Not often	
Not at all	

8.) I feel as if I am slowed down

Definitely	
Usually	
Not often	
Not at all	

9.) I get sort of frightened feeling like 'butterflies' in the stomach

Not at all	
Occasionally	
Quite often	
Very often	

10.) I have lost interest in my appearance

Definitely	
I don't take as much care as I should	
I may not take quite as much care	
I take just as much care as ever	

11.) I feel restless as I have to be on the move

Not at all	
Occasionally	
Quite often	
Very often	

12.) I look forward with enjoyment to things

Not at all	
Occasionally	
Quite often	
Very often	

13.) I get sudden feelings of panic

Very often indeed	
Quite often	
Not very often	
Not at all	

14.) I can enjoy a good book or radio or TV program

Not at all	
Occasionally	
Quite often	
Very often	

Appendix M Evaluation sheet for questionnaire Job Search Anxiety

Name: _____ Job Title _____

Description of Job Search Anxiety:

Job Search Anxiety can be conceptualised as a context specific form of anxiety relating to how a person feels about conducting a job search in its entirety. Characteristics of this anxiety can be described as feelings such as nervousness towards finding a job, being worried about finding a job, and feeling tense about having to find a job (Saks & Ashforth, 2000). Therefore, a person who has a low level of job search anxiety can be characterised as feeling calm, at ease, relaxed and content about the thought of having to find a job (Saks & Ashforth, 2000).

Instructions:

1. Please could you read through the list of questions provided and tick whether you believe the question relates to the construct we are trying to measure (based on the description of the construct above).
    - Very representative of the construct
    - Somewhat representative of the construct
    - Not representative of the construct
2. In addition, please could you change the working of any items so that, when modified, they would be somewhat representative of the construct, if need be.
3. Lastly, could you rate our scale as a whole by checking the items in the last table and provide any additional comments.

Judge each item based on the construct definition:

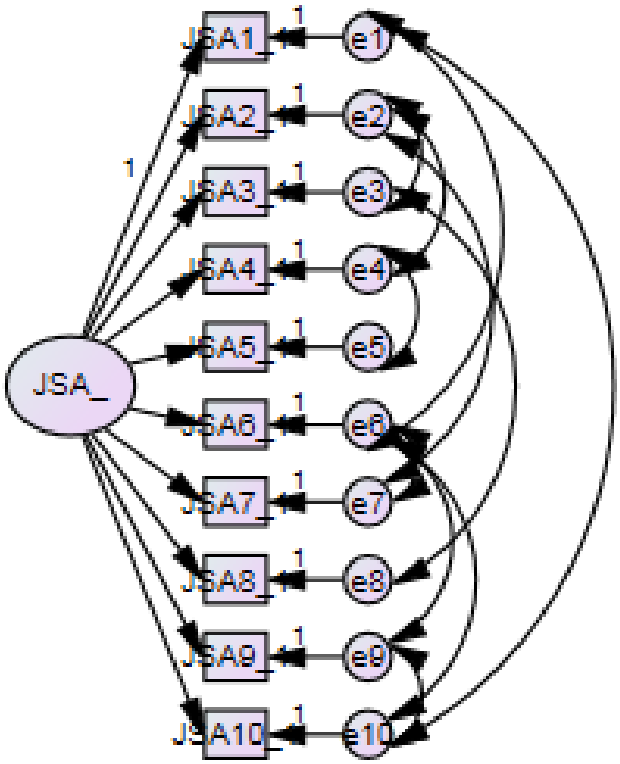
	Representative of construct:		
	Very	Somewhat	Not
1. I feel calm about conducting a job search.			
2. I am tense about conducting a job search.			
3. I feel at ease about conducting a job search.			
4. I feel confused about conducting a job search.			
5. I feel nervous about conducting a job search.			
6. I feel comfortable about conducting a job search.			
7. I am worried about conducting a job search.			
8. I feel strained about conducting a job search.			
9. I am relaxed about conducting a job search.			

10. I feel concerned about conducting a job search.			

Checklist for questionnaire:

	Rating (No ⟶ Yes)	Comment
Face validity i.e. When looking at it, does it measure what it says it measures? Is it easy to answer, clear and understandable?	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Content Validity i.e. Does it measure what it says it measures (both constructive and destructive conflict).	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Lack of ambiguity i.e. Any questions that were vague or you were uncertain about	**1 2 3 4 5**	
No double-barrelled statements i.e. I like to go out AND talk to people	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Reverse meaning i.e. are there any questions that have opposite views to what is being measured and opposite views to the definition?	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Social desirability i.e. if you were an employee at work, would you be okay completing such a scale? Was it too long? Did you feel it would be harmful to you or your career in anyway?	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Offensiveness i.e. did the scale offend you in any way?	**1 2 3 4 5**	
Repetition i.e. too many questions that ask the same thing to the point where it is not useful (Please indicate the question numbers in the comment box)	**1 2 3 4 5**	

Appendix N: CFA Job Search Anxiety



Appendix O: Histograms for main variables

Figure 2: Histogram for Job Search Anxiety scale

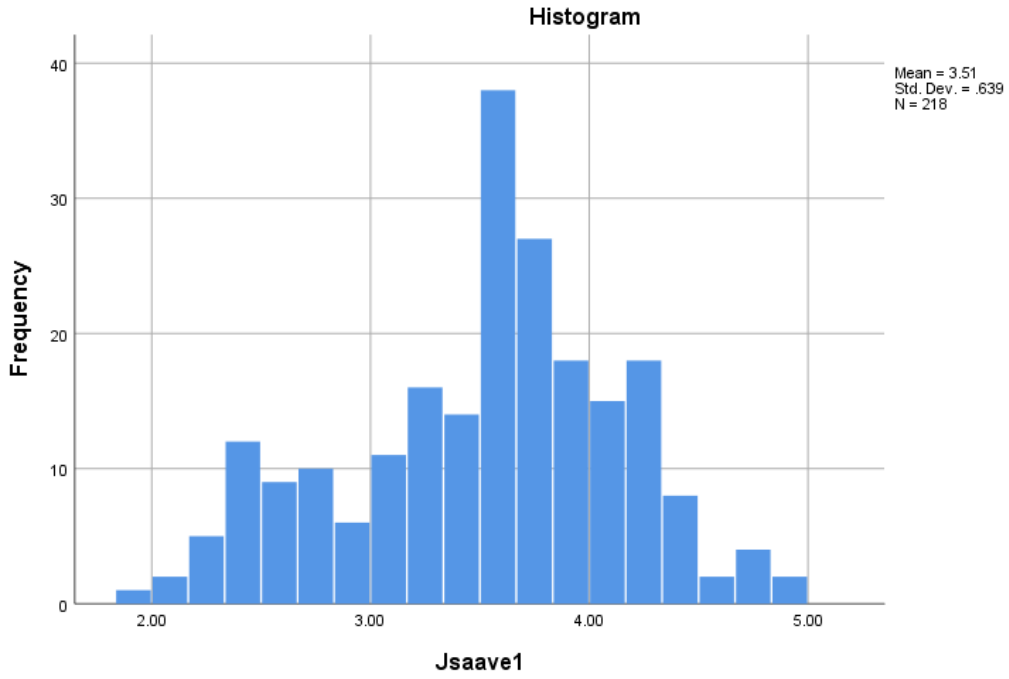


Figure 3: Histogram for The Generalized Self-efficacy scale

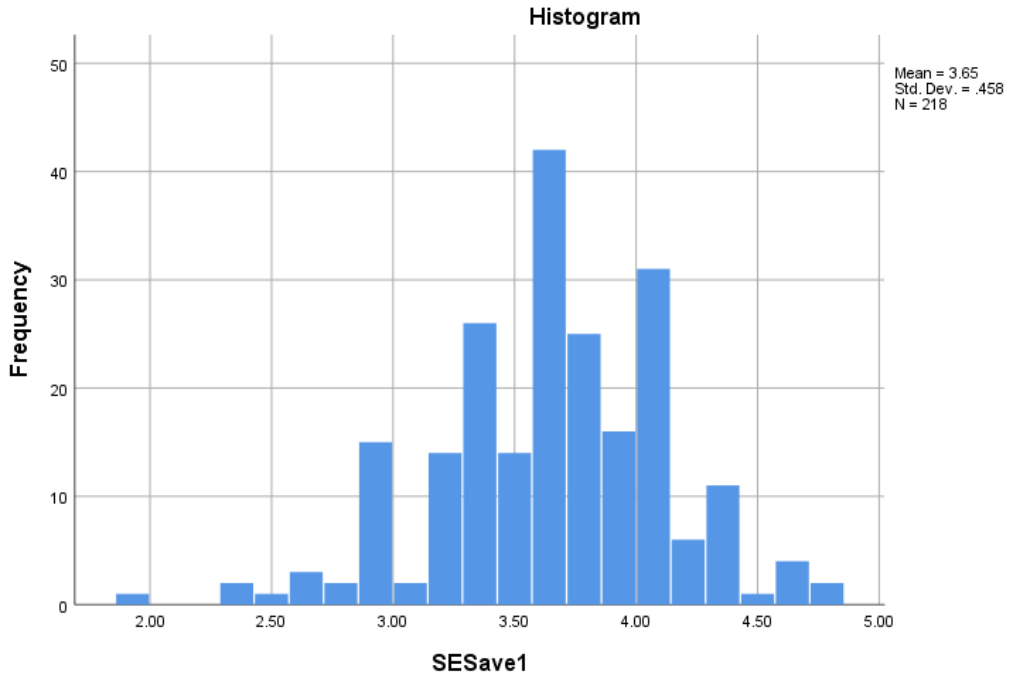


Figure 4: Histogram for Perceived Over Job Search Outcomes Scale

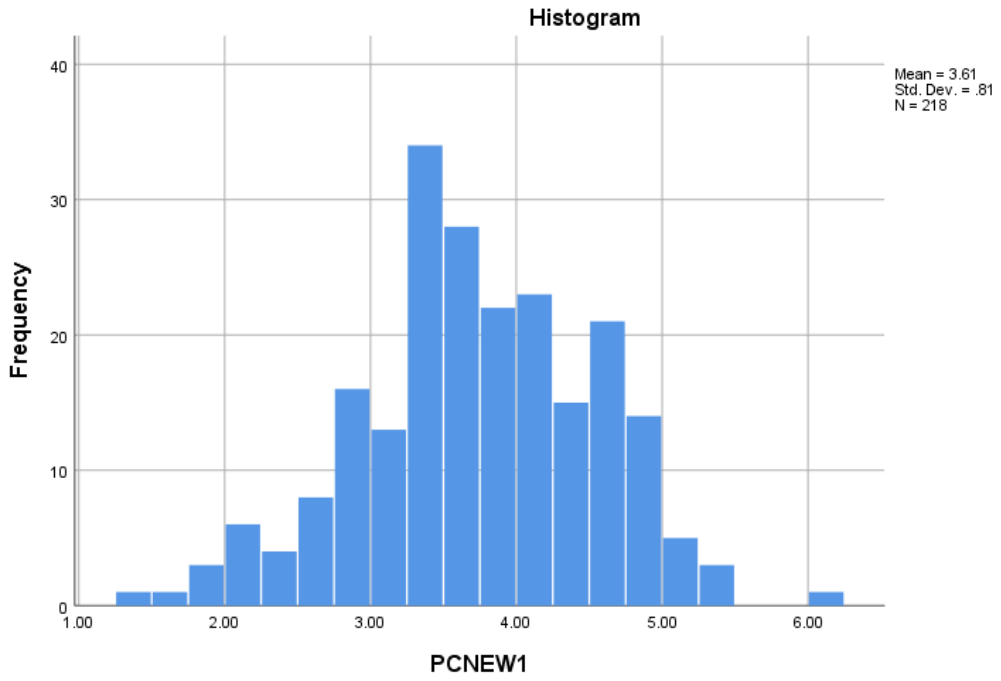


Figure 5: Histogram for Perceives Social Support from Family subscale

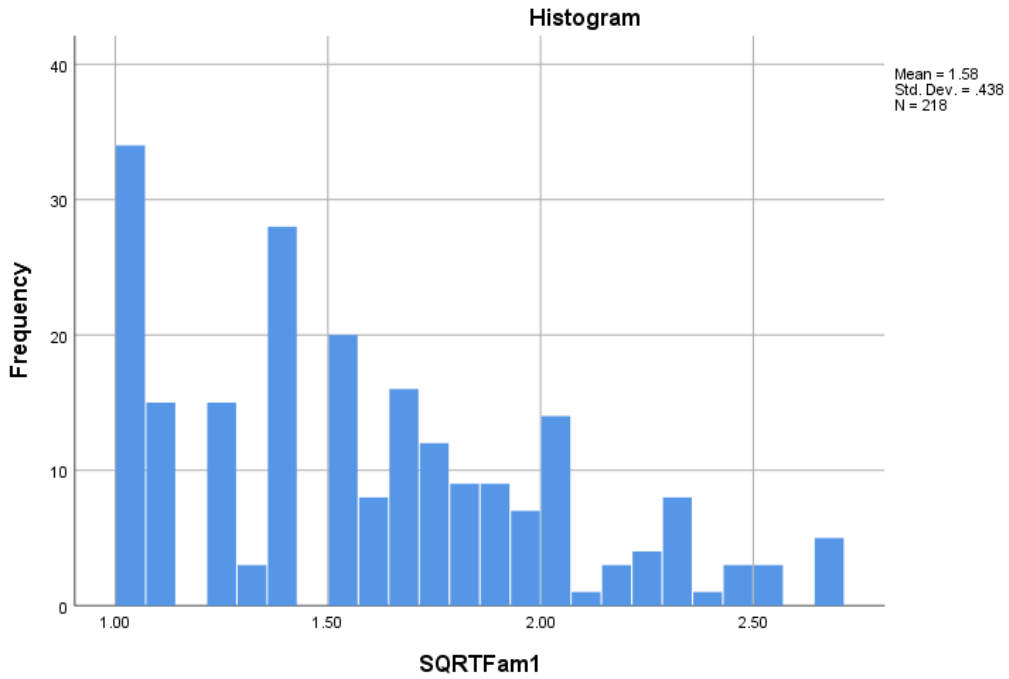


Figure 6: Histogram for Perceived Social Support from Friends subscale

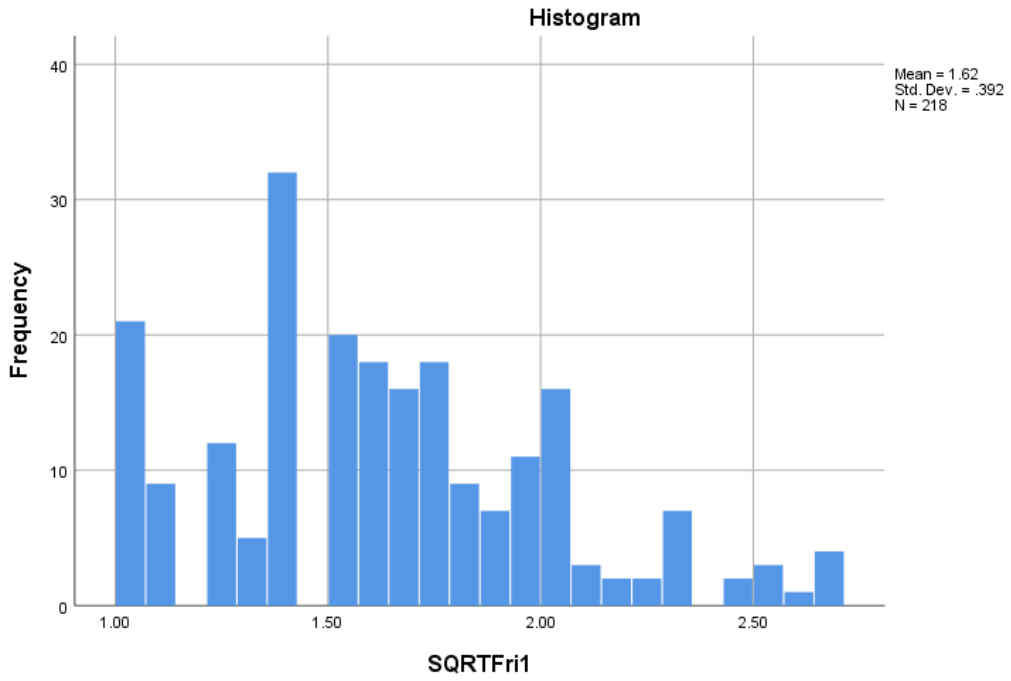


Figure 7: Histogram for Perceived Social Support from a Significant Other subscale

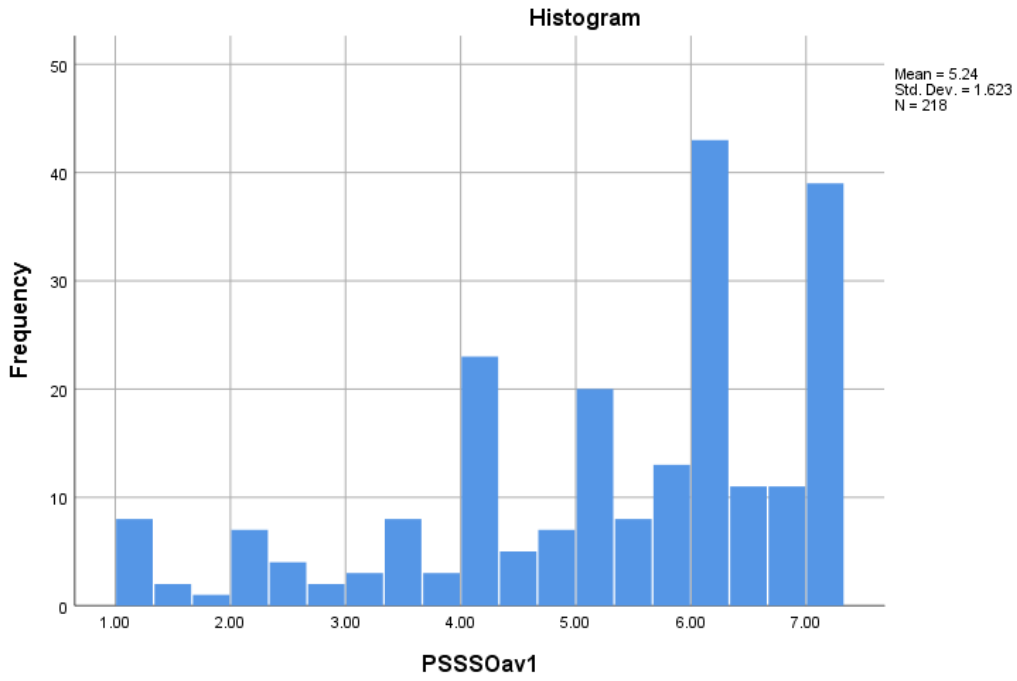


Figure 8: Histogram for Avoidance subscale of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

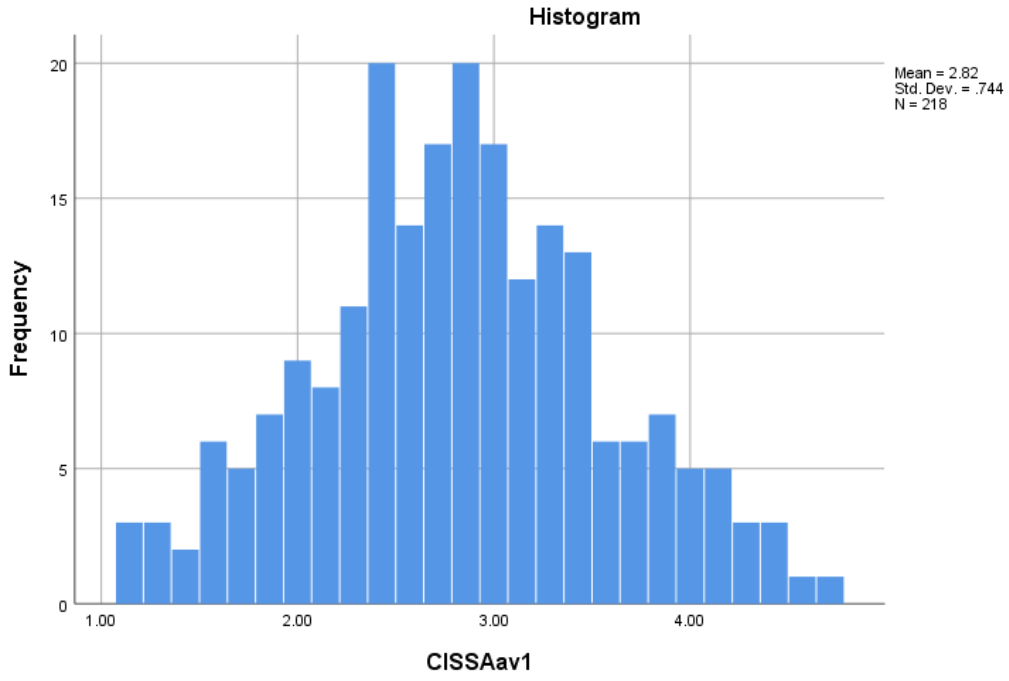


Figure 9: Histogram for the Task-oriented subscale of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

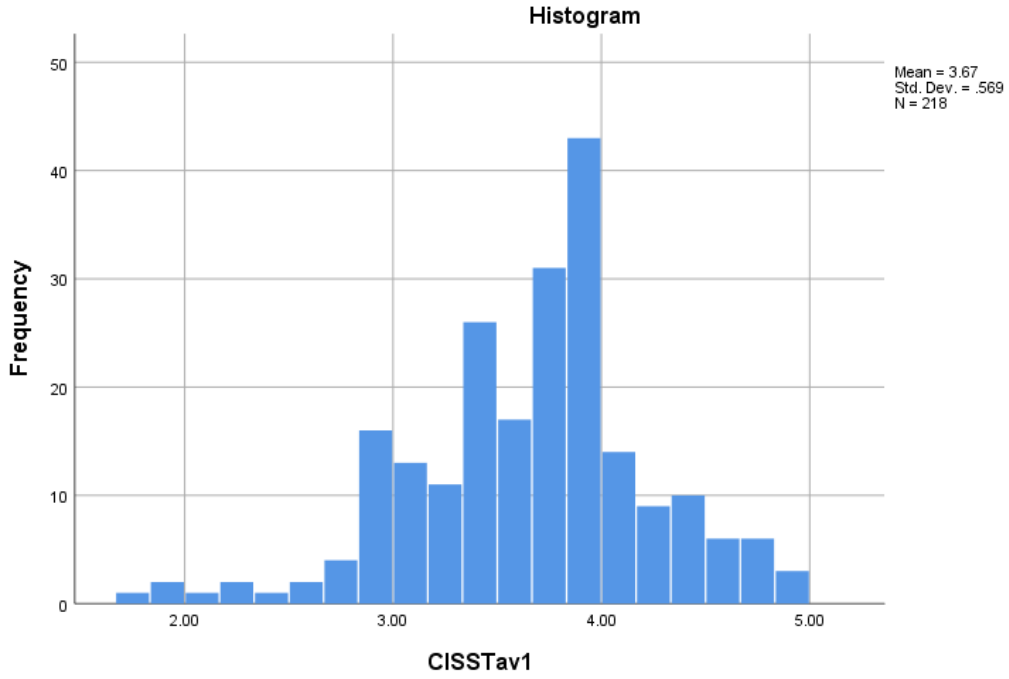


Figure 10: Histogram for the Emotion-oriented subscale of the Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations

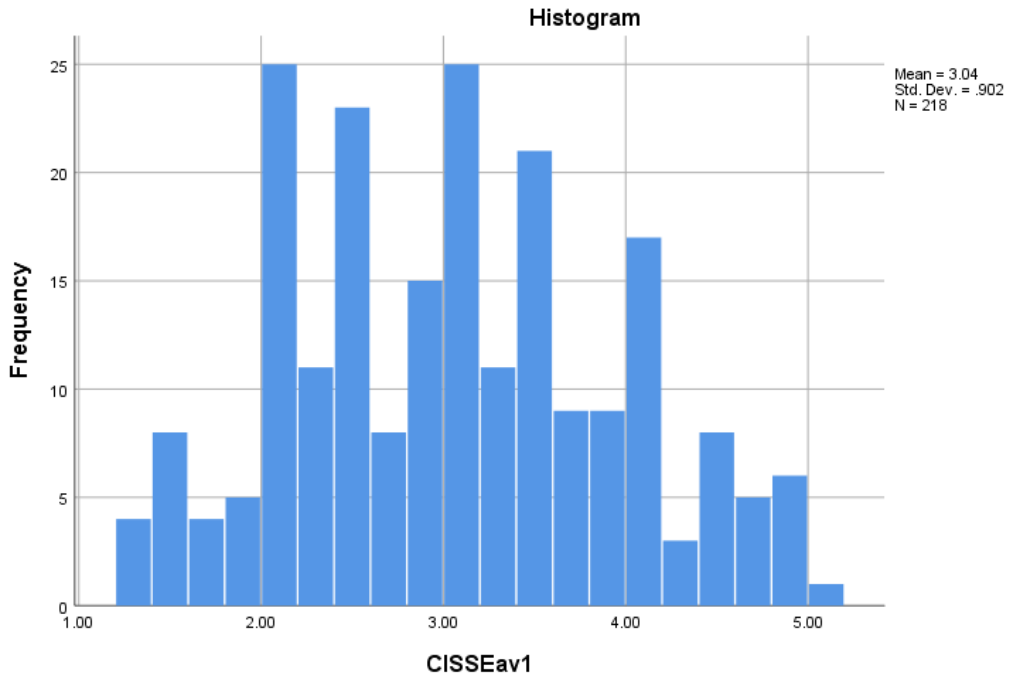


Figure 11: Histogram for the HADS-Anxiety subscale

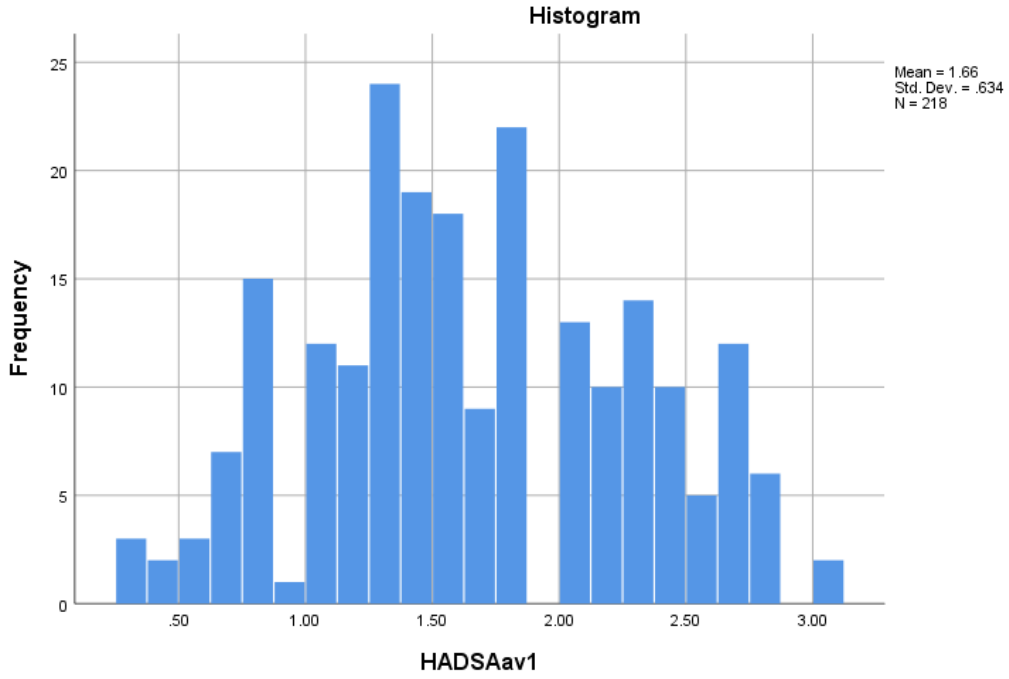
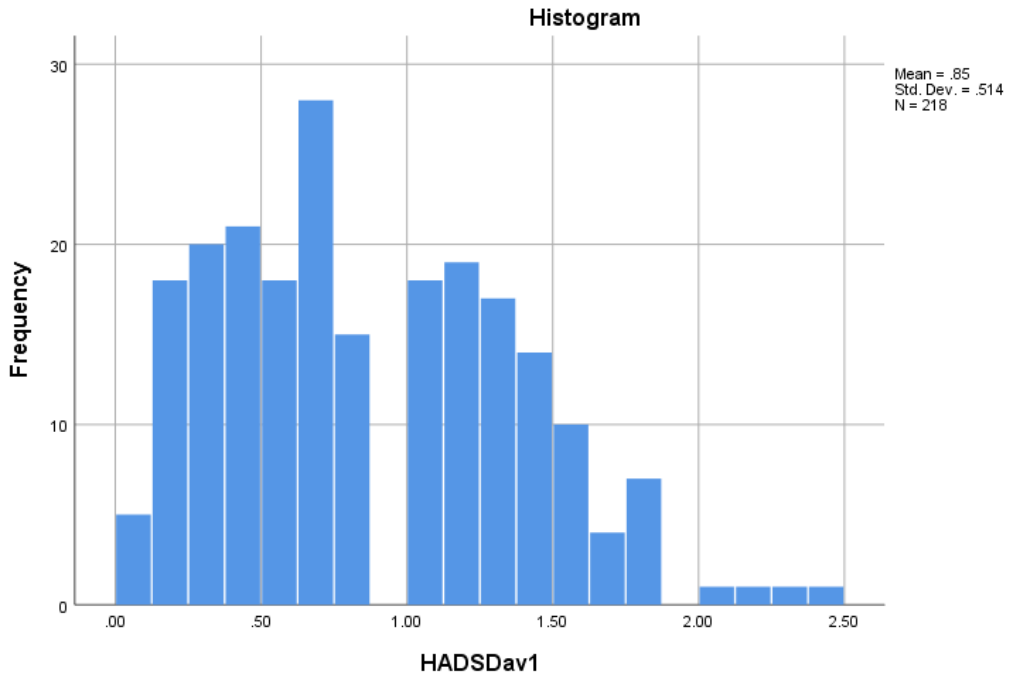


Figure 12: Histogram for the HADS-Depression subscale



Appendix P: Tests for Linearity

Figure 13: Test for Linearity between Job Search Anxiety and Generalised Anxiety

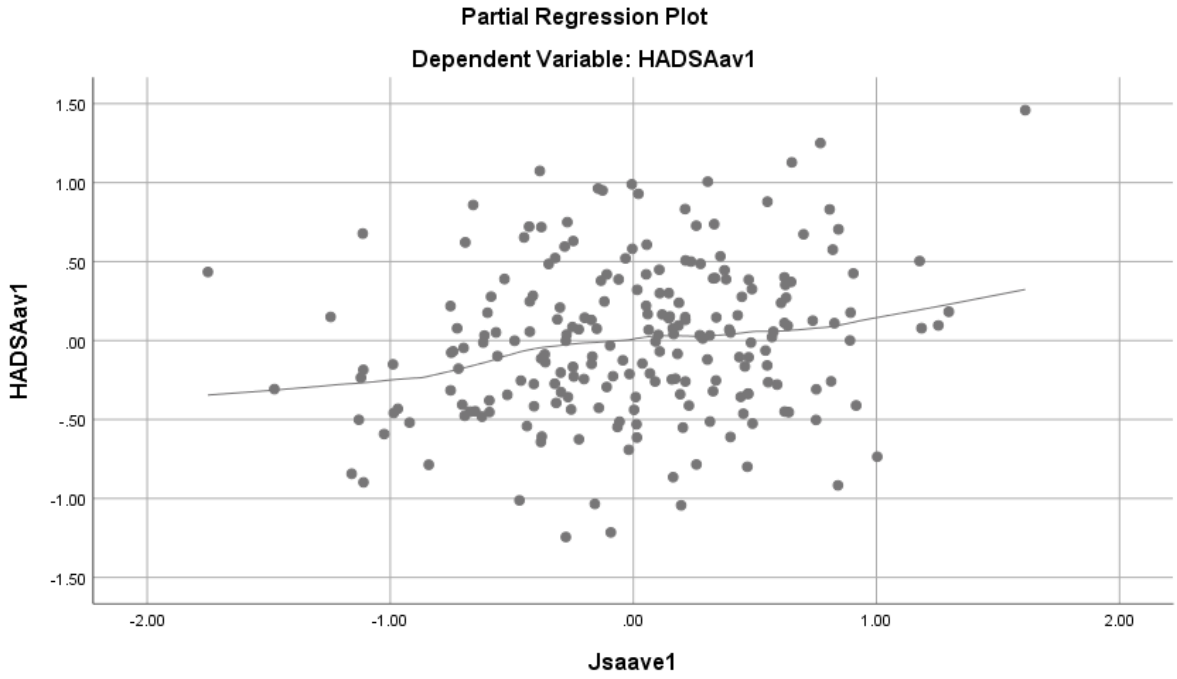


Figure 14: Test for linearity between Job Search Anxiety and Depression

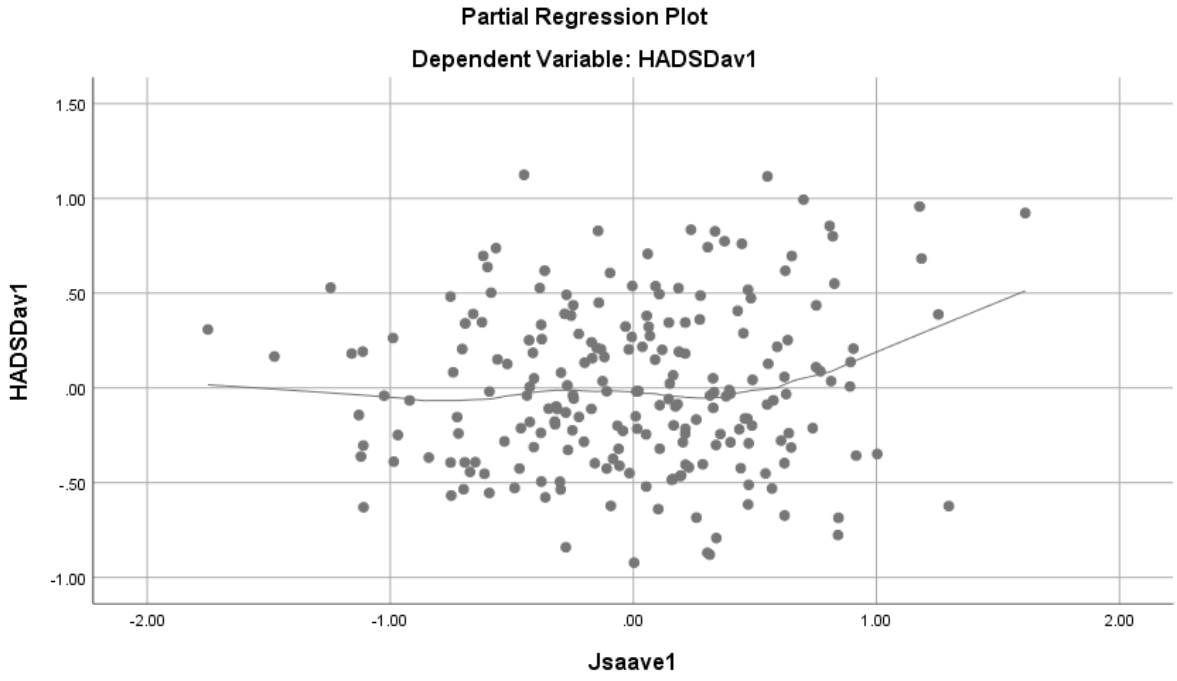


Figure 15: Test for linearity between self-efficacy and generalised anxiety

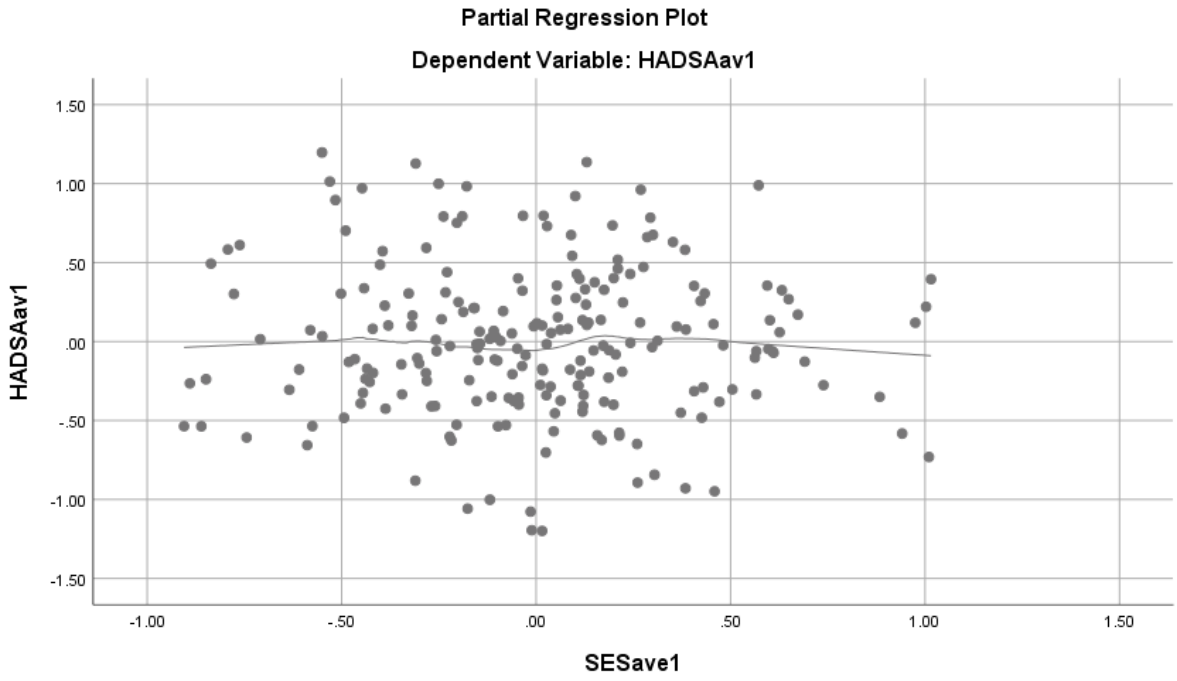


Figure 16: Test for linearity between self-efficacy and depression

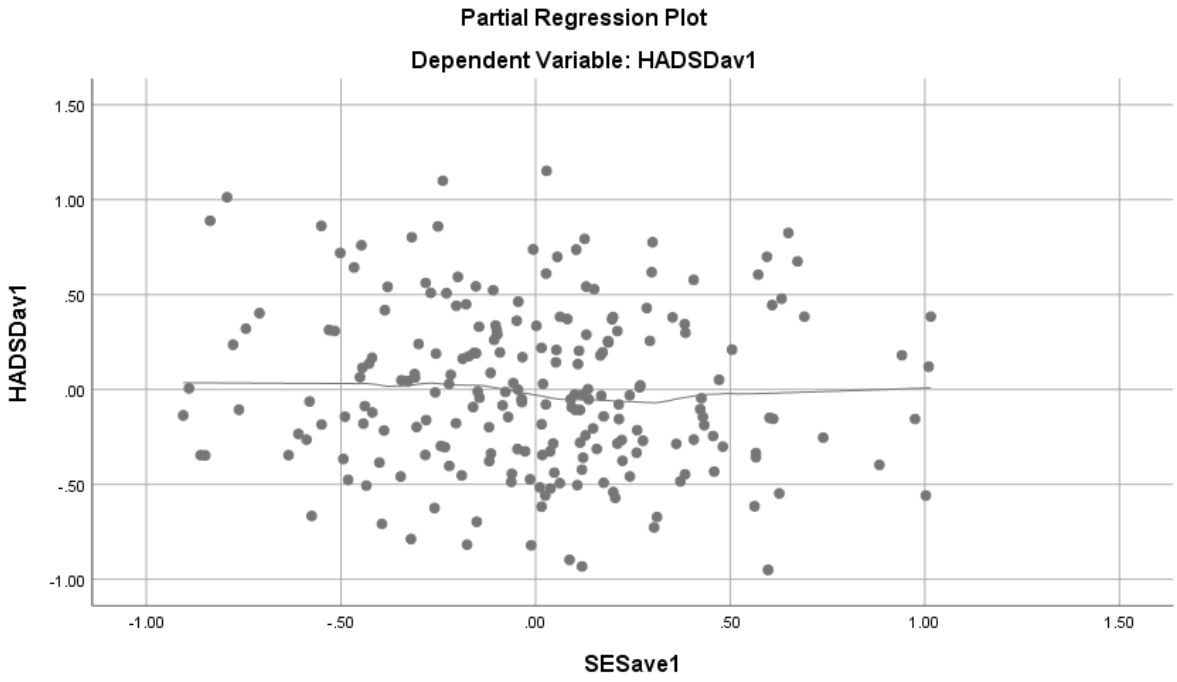


Figure 17: Test for linearity between Perceived Control Over Job Search Outcomes and Generalised Anxiety

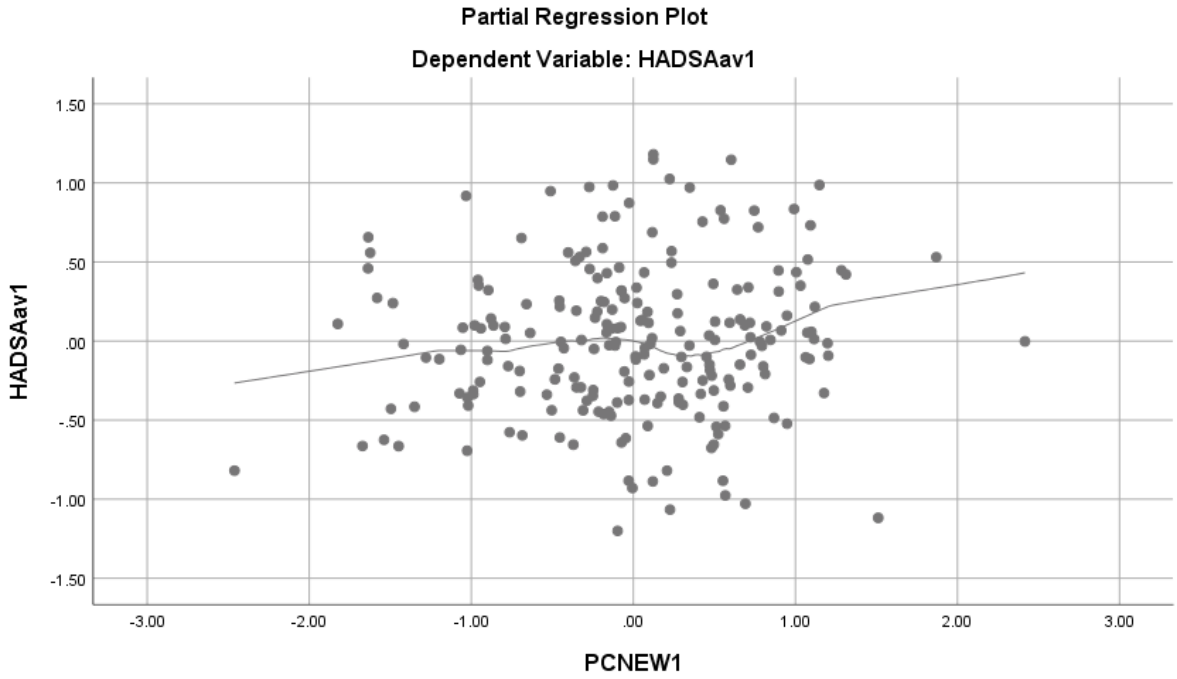


Figure 18: Test for linearity for Perceived Control over Job Search Outcomes and Depression

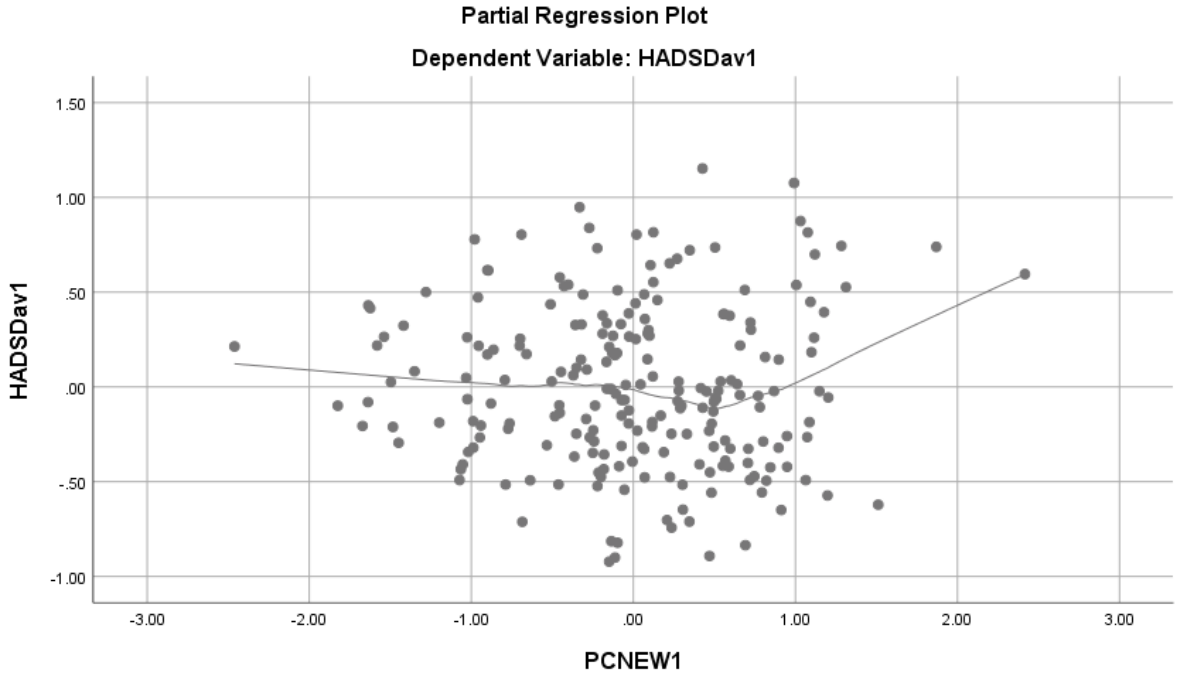


Figure 19: Test for linearity between perceived social support from family and generalised anxiety

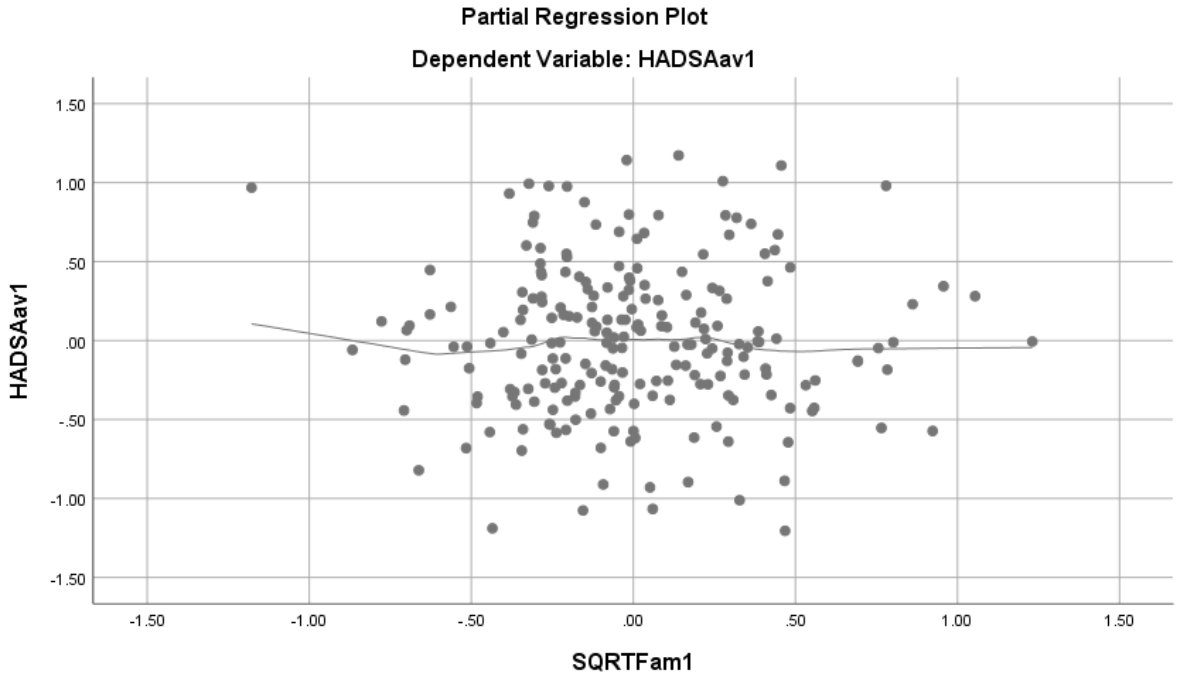


Figure 20: Test for linearity between perceived social support from family and depression

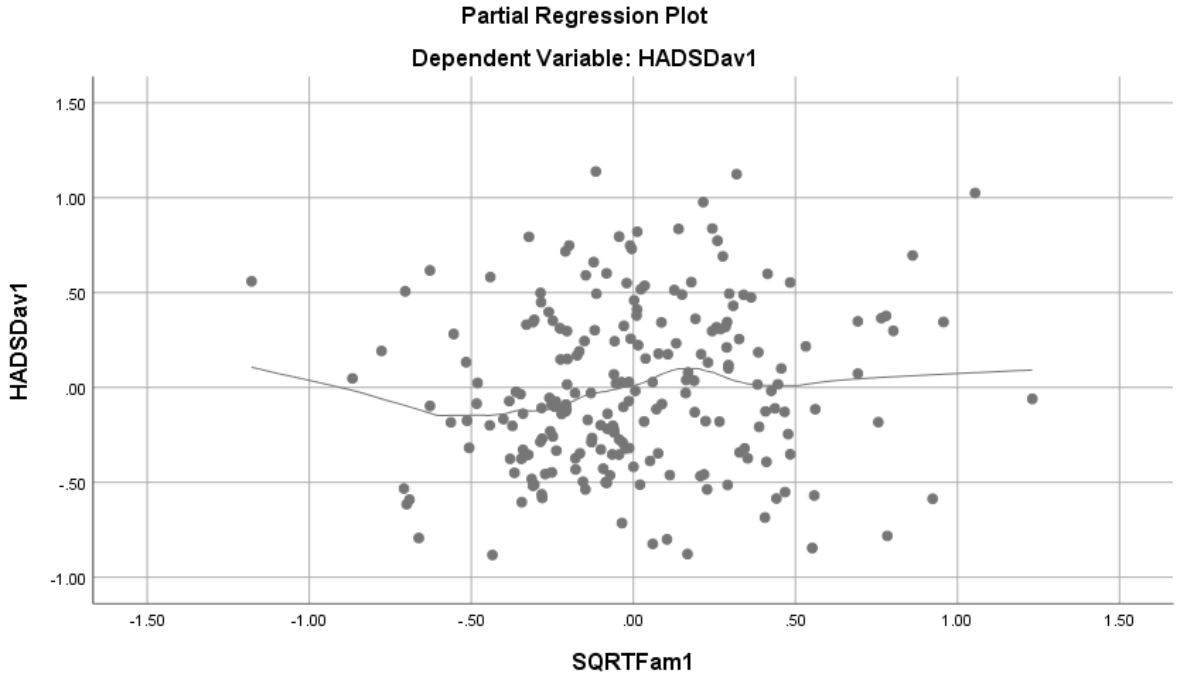


Figure 21: Test for linearity between perceived social support from friends and generalised anxiety

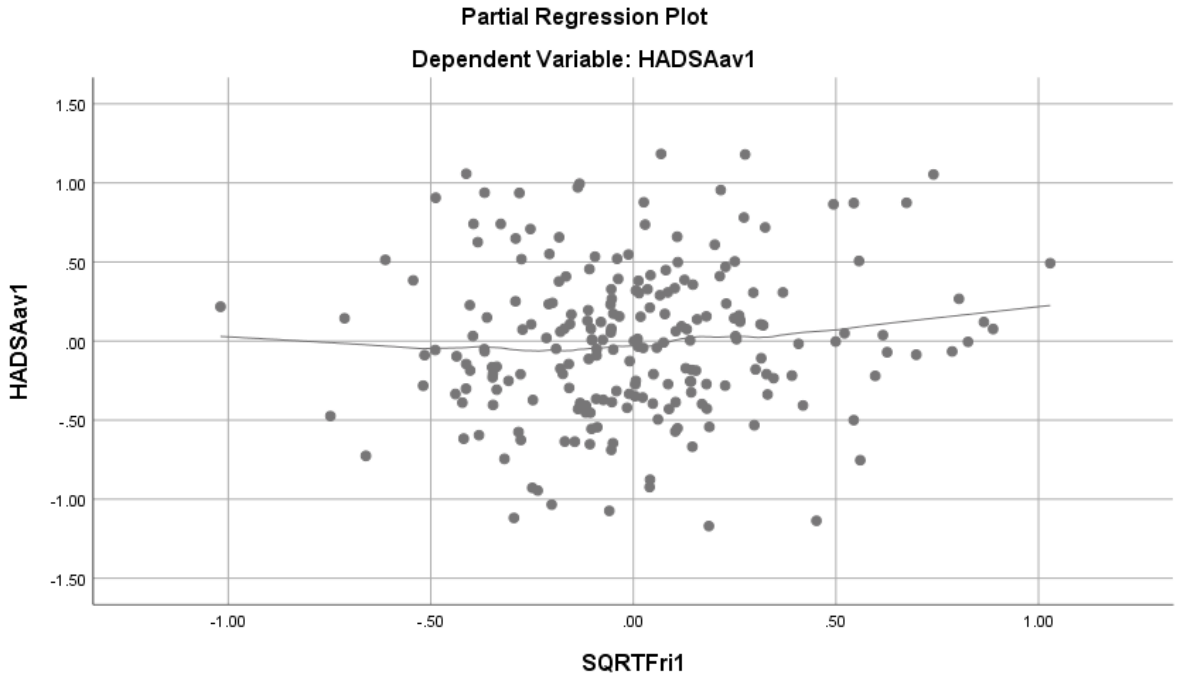


Figure 22: Test for linearity between perceived social support from friends and depression

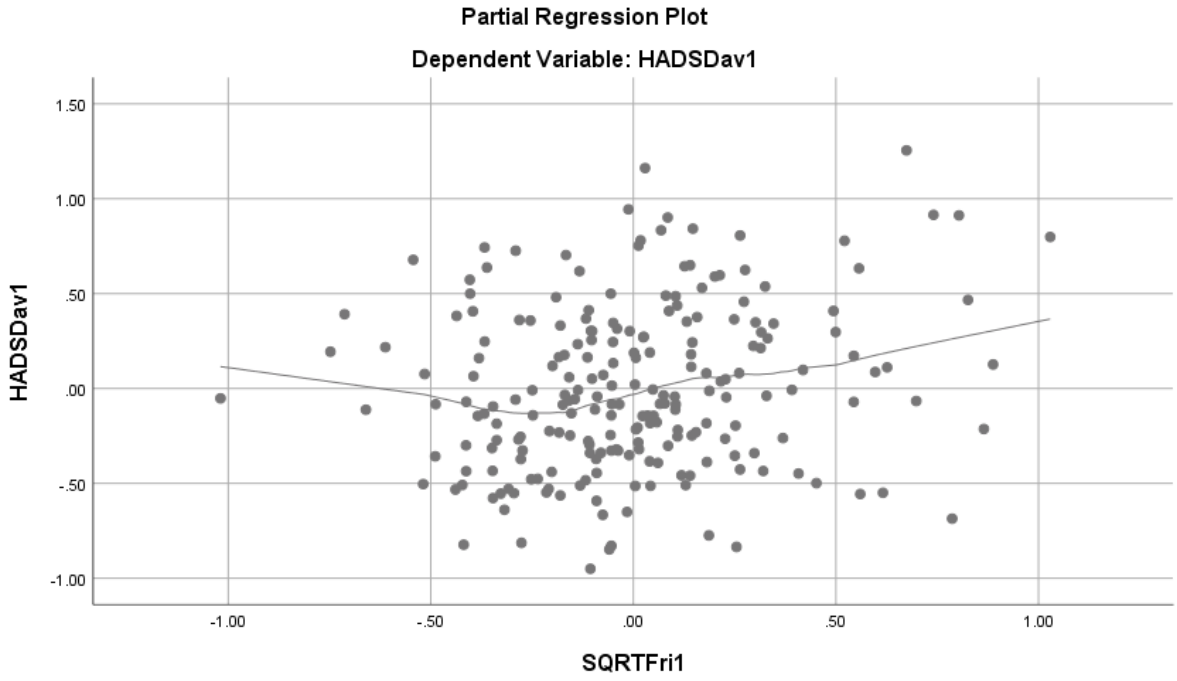


Figure 23: Test for linearity between perceived social support from a significant other and generalised anxiety

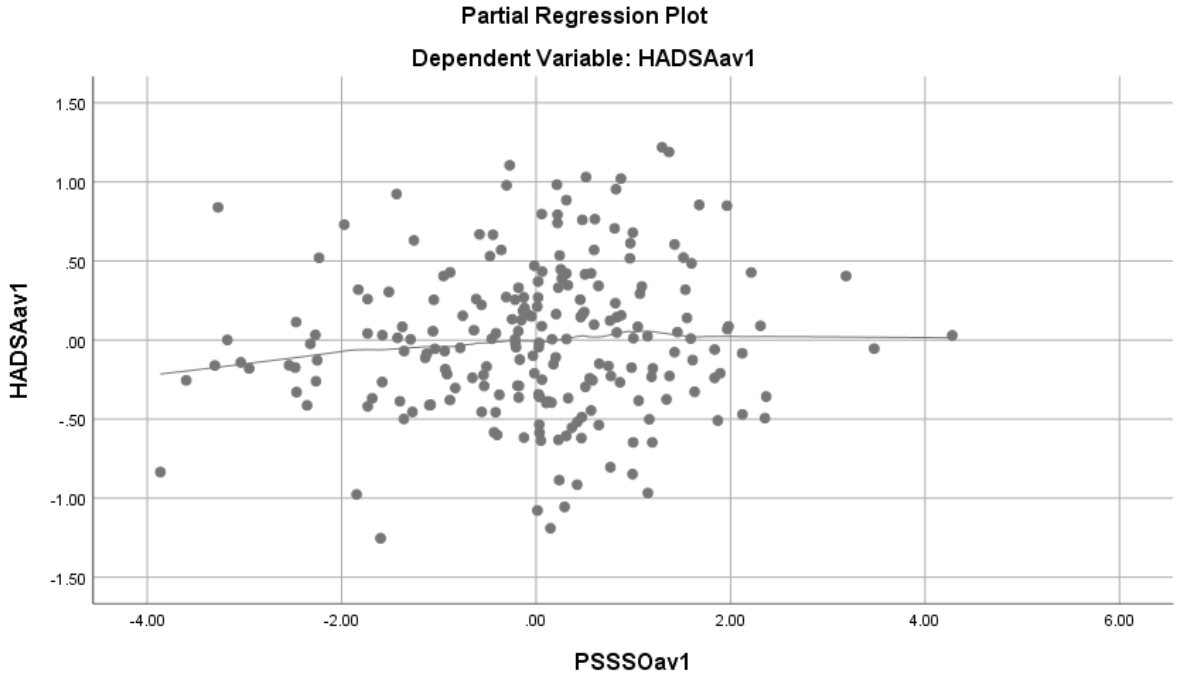


Figure 24: Test for linearity between perceived social support from a significant other and depression

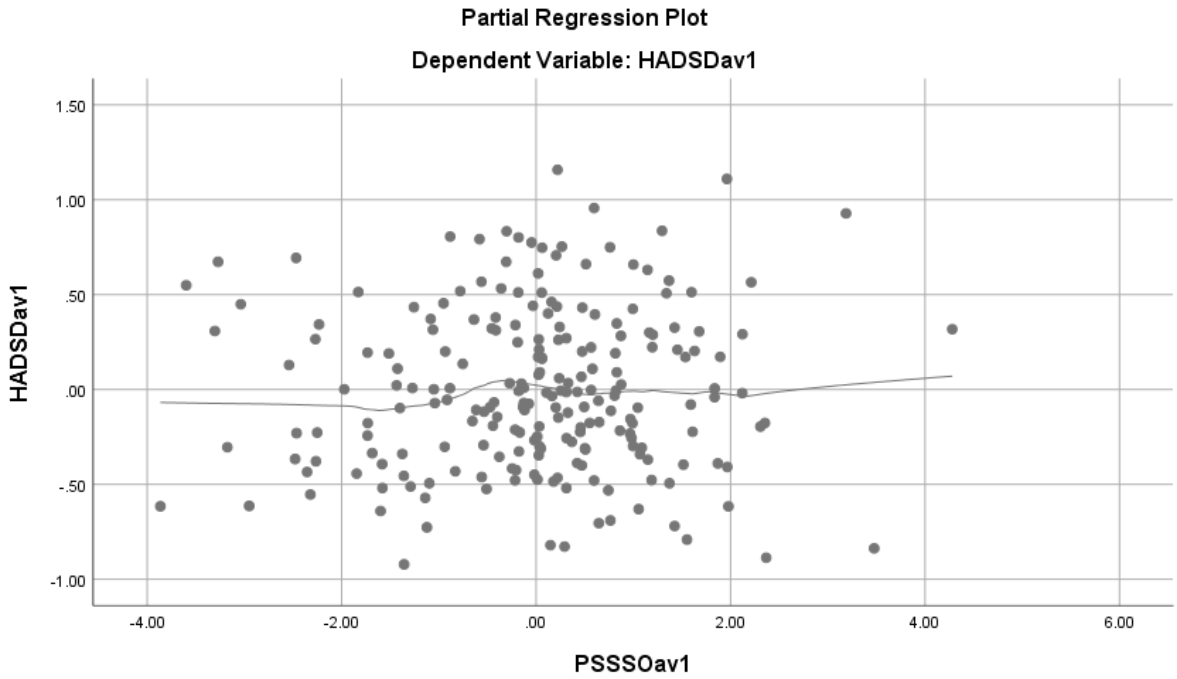


Figure 25: Test for linearity between task-oriented coping and generalised anxiety

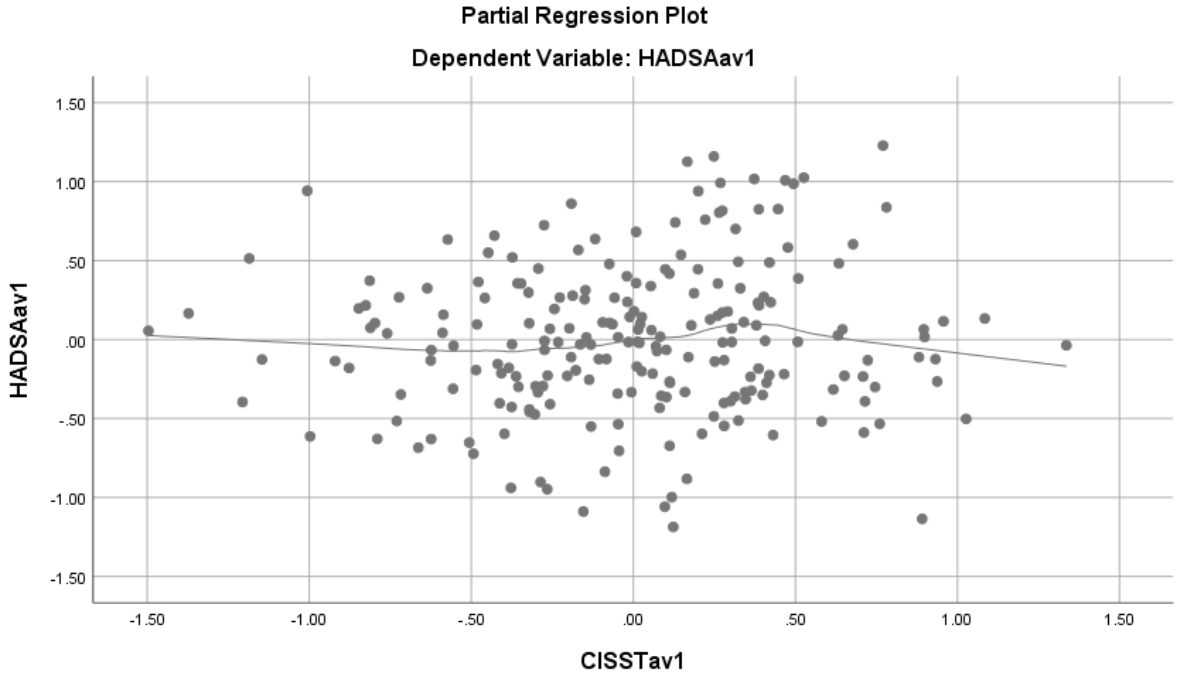


Figure 26: Test for linearity between task-oriented coping and depression

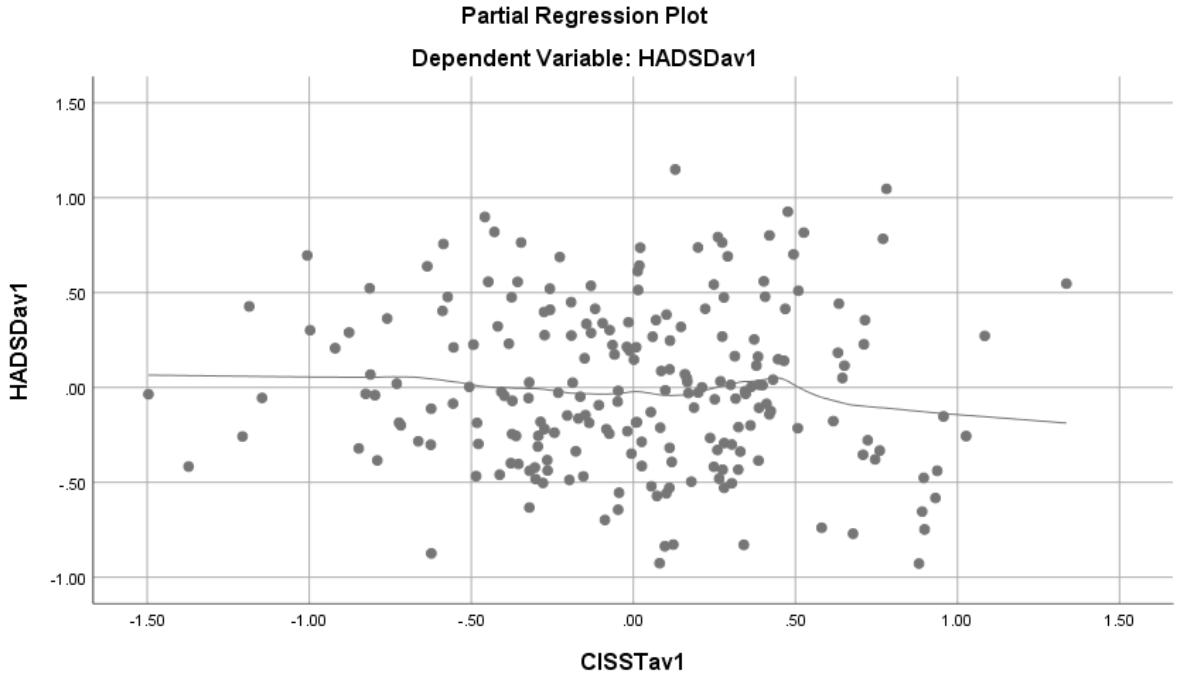


Figure 27: Test for linearity between avoidance-oriented coping and generalised anxiety

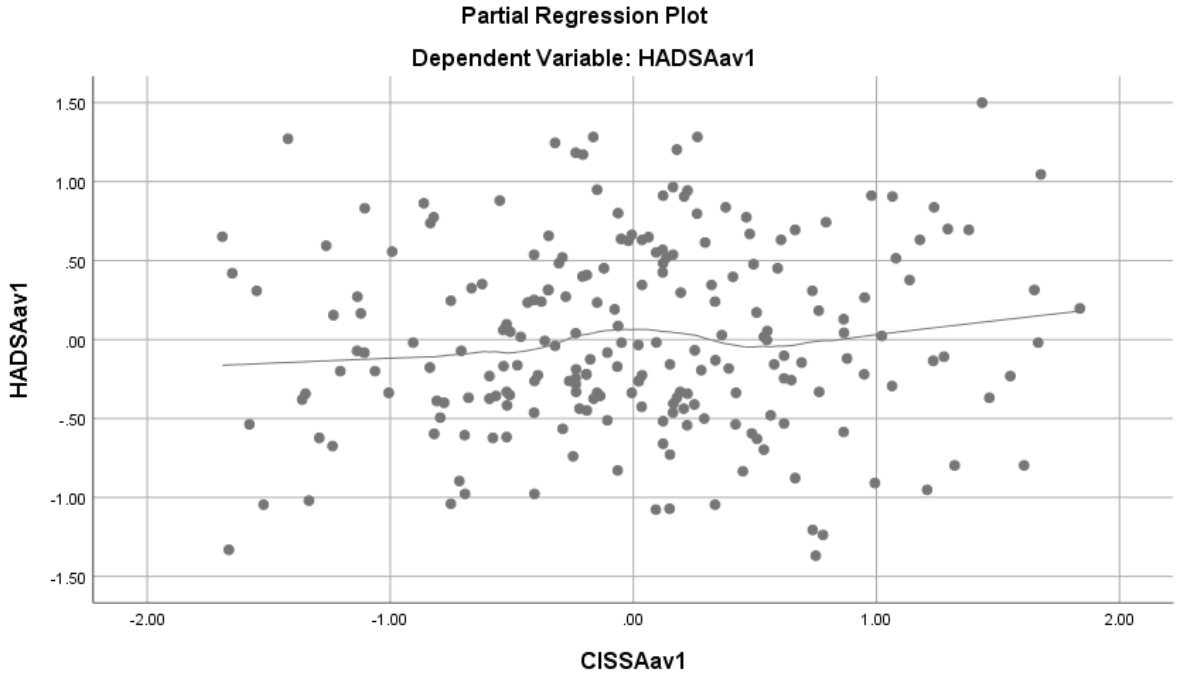


Figure 28: Test for linearity between avoidance-oriented coping and depression

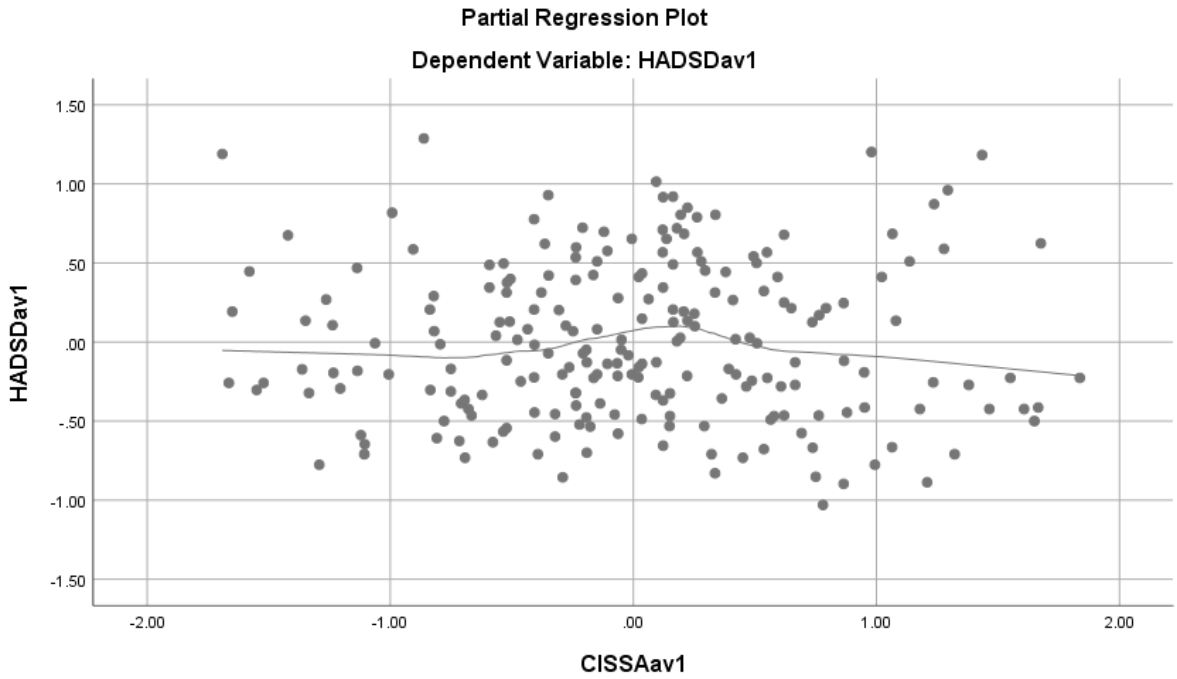


Figure 29: Test for linearity between emotion-oriented coping and generalised anxiety

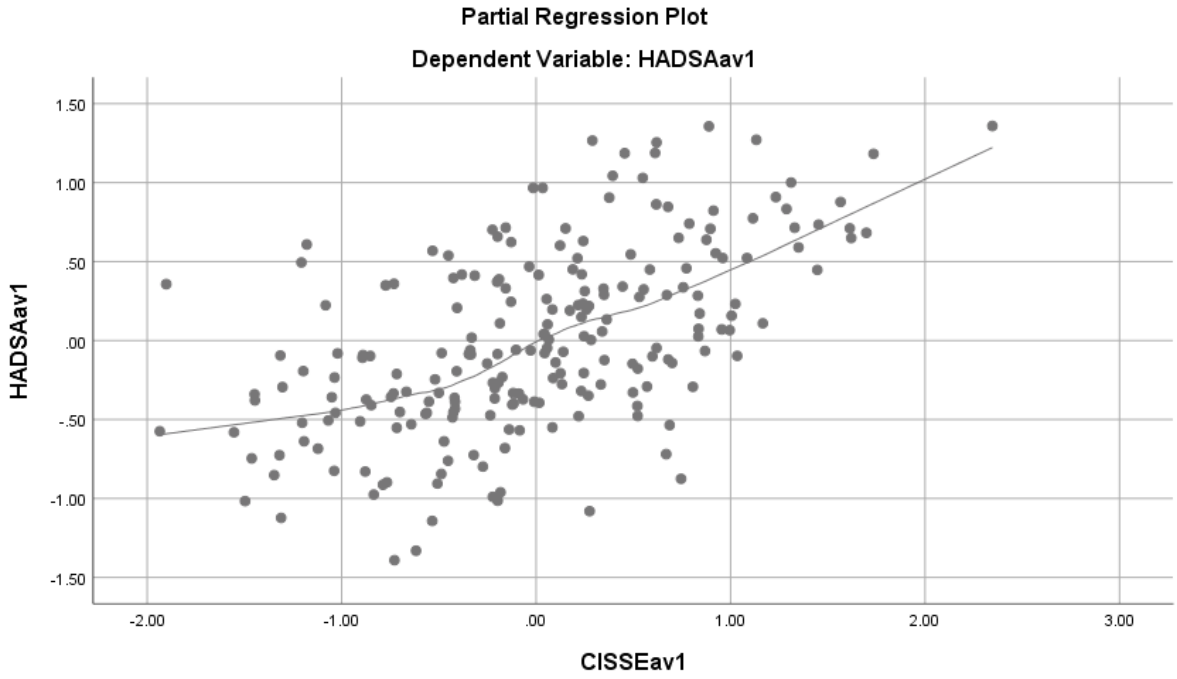
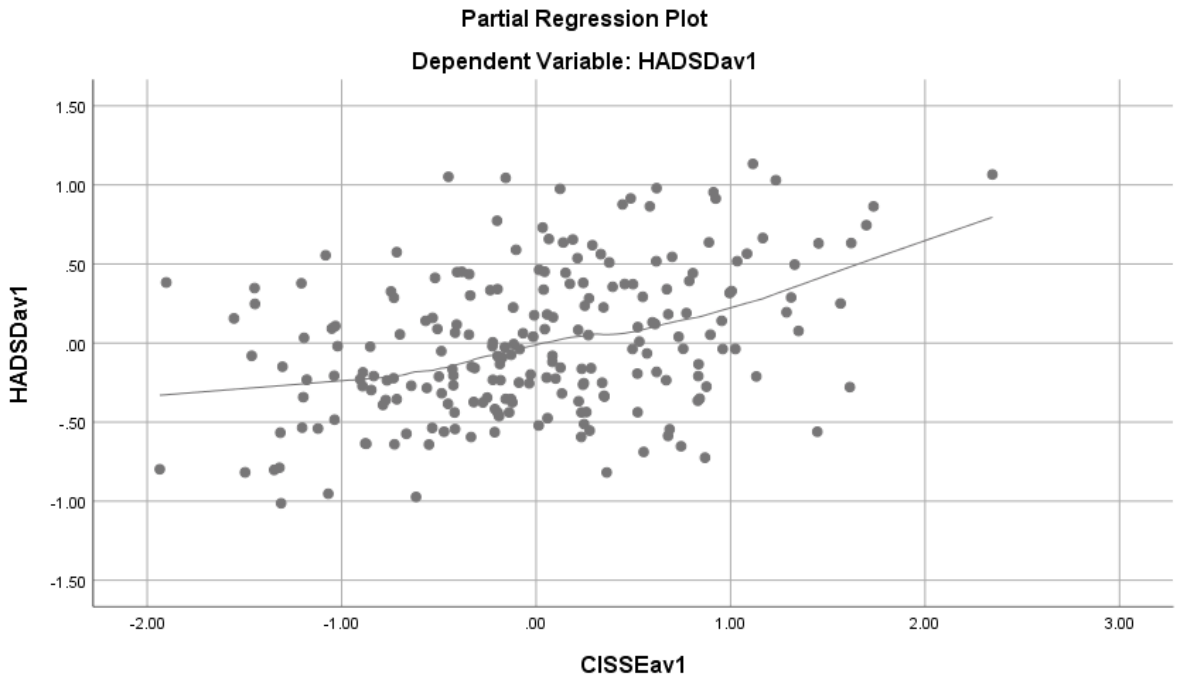


Figure 30: Test for linearity between emotion-oriented coping and depression



Appendix Q: P-Plot's for Normality Test of standardized residual's

Figure 31: P-Plot's for Normality – Generalised Anxiety

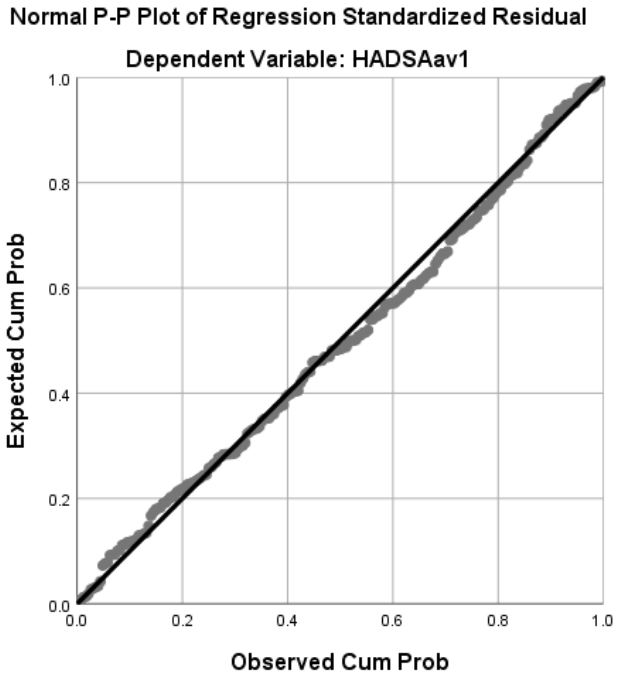
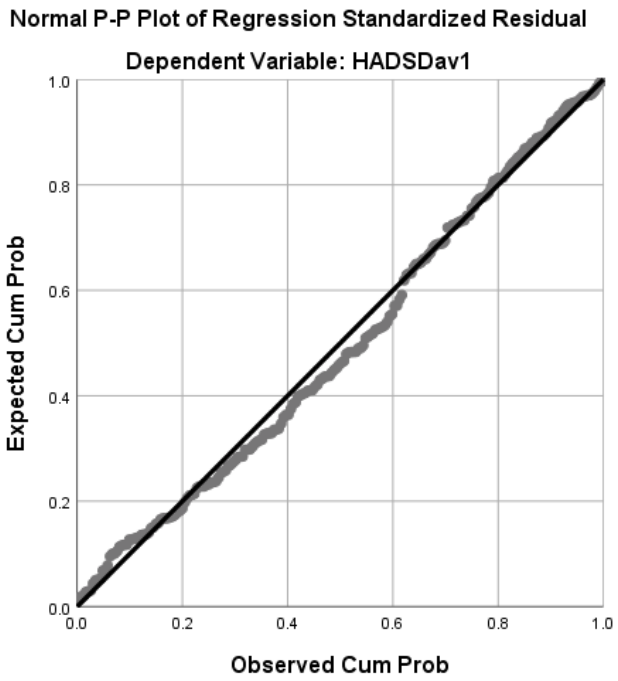


Figure 32: P-Plot's for Normality - Depression



Appendix R: Histogram's for Normality tests of standardized residual's

Figure 33: Histogram for Normality test of standardized residual – Generalised Anxiety

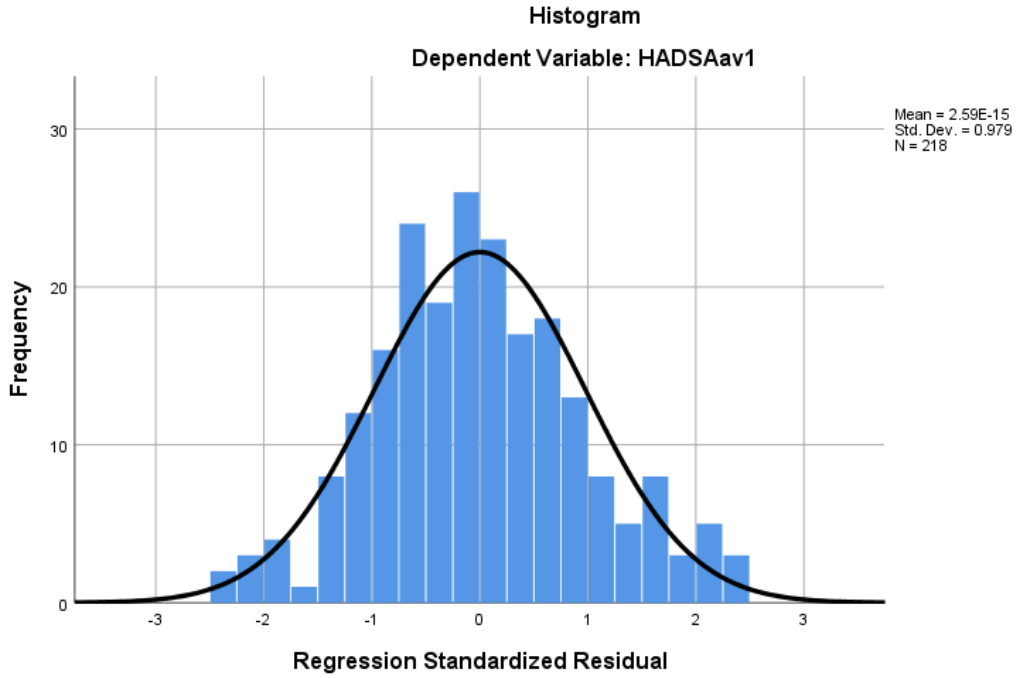
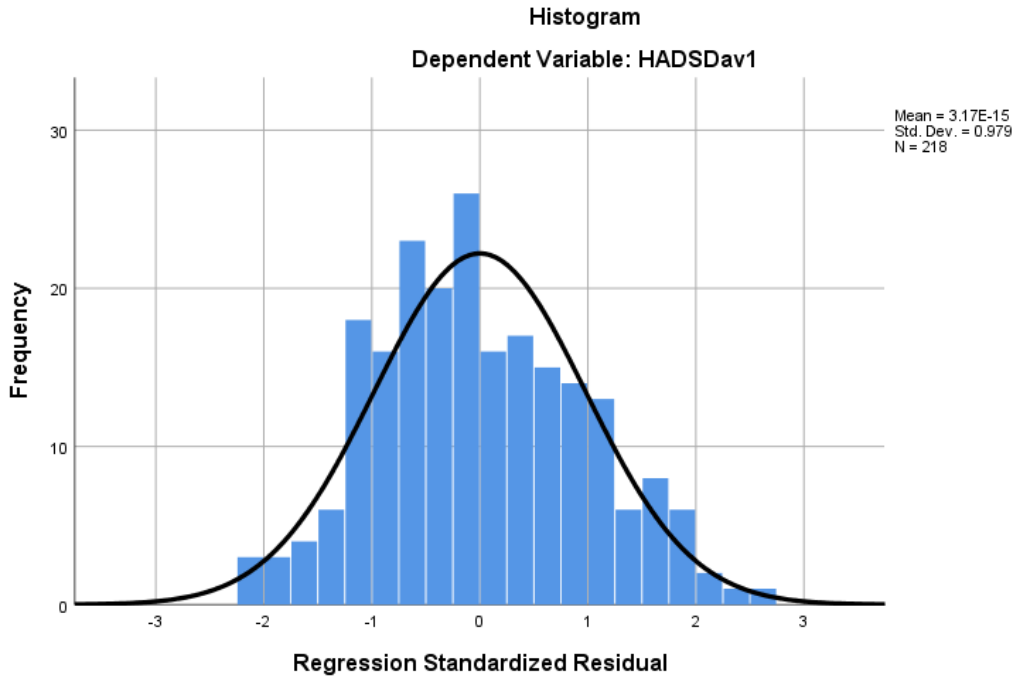


Figure 34: Histogram for Normality test of standardized residual - Depression



Appendix S: Correlation Matrix for Independent and Moderator Variables

		Jsaave1	SESave1	PCNEW1	CISSTav1	CISSEav1	CISSAav1	PSSSOav1	PSSFAMav1	PSSFriav1
Jsaave1	Pearson Correlation	1	-.219**	-.336**	-.188**	.270**	.121	-.133	-.059	-.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000	.005	.000	.074	.050	.390	.331
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
SESave1	Pearson Correlation	-.219**	1	.133	.484**	-.151*	-.006	.167*	.082	.210**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.050	.000	.026	.934	.013	.227	.002
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
PCNEW1	Pearson Correlation	-.336**	.133	1	.105	-.100	-.069	.118	.106	.128
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.050		.121	.140	.314	.082	.118	.060
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
CISSTav1	Pearson Correlation	-.188**	.484**	.105	1	-.201**	-.021	.096	.066	.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.121		.003	.755	.156	.332	.100
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
CISSEav1	Pearson Correlation	.270**	-.151*	-.100	-.201**	1	.241**	-.058	-.106	.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.026	.140	.003		.000	.396	.117	.875
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
CISSAav1	Pearson Correlation	.121	-.006	-.069	-.021	.241**	1	.213**	.165*	.209**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074	.934	.314	.755	.000		.002	.015	.002
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
PSSSOav1	Pearson Correlation	-.133	.167*	.118	.096	-.058	.213**	1	.467**	.505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.050	.013	.082	.156	.396	.002		.000	.000
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
PSSFAMav1	Pearson Correlation	-.059	.082	.106	.066	-.106	.165*	.467**	1	.415**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.390	.227	.118	.332	.117	.015	.000		.000
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218
PSSFriav1	Pearson Correlation	-.066	.210**	.128	.112	.011	.209**	.505**	.415**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.331	.002	.060	.100	.875	.002	.000	.000	
	N	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218	218

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).