

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ABUSE, WORK SOCIAL SUPPORT,
VALUE-RICH WORK AND INTRAPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES
IN EMPLOYED WOMEN

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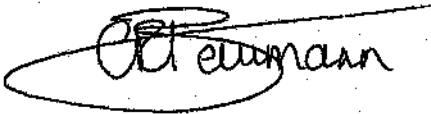
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A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Arts, University of the Witwatersrand,
Johannesburg, in partial fulfilment for the requirements of the degree of Master of Arts.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Arts at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg 1998. It has not been submitted before for any other degree or at any other university.

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Chiara Romaine Baumann". The signature is written in black ink and is enclosed within a large, hand-drawn oval.

CHIARA ROMAINE BAUMANN

ON THE 29TH DAY OF JANUARY 1998.

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A B S T R A C T

The present research aimed to illustrate a link between the two domains of work and abuse. It was an investigation into the various relationships which exist between spouse abuse and intrapersonal and alternative interpersonal coping resources in employed women. The intrapersonal coping resources identified in past literature and currently examined included self-esteem and level of depression. Alternative interpersonal resources provided by the work sphere were also included for investigation; namely work social support and value-rich work. A mixed quantitative-qualitative research design yielded measures on the five variables of spouse abuse, self-esteem, depression, work social support, and value-rich work; as well as on the two dimensions of physical and non-physical violence, and an additional variable of work support obtained from counselling programmes. The final sample consisted of 106 female employees from a variety of occupational groups. A content analysis of information regarding workplace counselling programmes and its effect on self-esteem and depression generated insignificant results. However, quantitative analyses via Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients, one-way ANOVA's and multiple moderated regressions, illustrated very strong support for the remaining hypotheses. This implied that significant relationships did exist between abuse and the coping resources of self-esteem, depression, work support and value-rich work.

As the shades of darkness are drawn
down about her, blocking out any possible
sign of life she once knew ;...

You can see the sorrow in her eyes,
once shining so brightly, now bloodshot
from all those terrifying and sleepless nights...

How could this man, she'd once loved
so deeply, hurt her so badly ? She had
done everything he'd asked ! Was it that
he'd just stopped loving her ? Was he
jealous ? She'd given him no cause to be !...

When shall she be saved by peaceful death ;
for this she feels, is the only answer, the only way
she'll escape this, 'torture in love', and find
her freedom from this terror, pain, and fear,
her once so-called, 'love', has brought into her
fading life.

Anonymous

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Empirical data reported in the literature regarding domestic violence suggest that the phenomenon is multidimensional. Within a given family, its occurrence in one form frequently predicts its occurrence in another; that is - spouse, child and sibling violence tend to coexist (Jouriles & Le Compte, 1991; Straus & Gelles, 1986). The following study focuses on one category of domestic violence, namely spouse battering, and more specifically wife abuse.

Domestic violence, also referred to as partner abuse, spousal assault, spouse abuse or spouse battering may be defined as any physical, sexual or psychological behaviour "carried out with the intention or perceived intention of causing...pain or injury to another person" (Straus & Gelles, 1986, p467). It is violence between adults who are intimates, regardless of their marital status, living arrangements or sexual orientations (Lystad, Rice & Kaplan, 1996).

For facilitation of discussion and to ensure a thorough understanding of the present study, it is important to note from the beginning that the words wife and husband denote a current cohabiting or steady female and male partner, respectively, as well as a legal spouse. In addition, the terms domestic violence, battering, assault and abuse will be used interchangeably; and will connote behaviours such as coercion, emotional humiliation, degradation or torment, verbal assault, economic deprivation and exploitation, minor aggressive acts of throwing, slapping and shoving, as well as major aggressive acts of beatings, forced sex, threats with a deadly weapon and homicide (Lystad et al, 1996; McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990).

The following thesis is an exploration in the area of spouse abuse, integrating this highly personal and complex area of investigation into the world of work. It is a discovery adventure into the lives of employed women which attempts to gain information about the prevalence of abuse within the female working population; but more importantly to examine the relationships which exist between the variables of abuse, its two dimensions of physical and non-physical abuse, and various coping resources. Two sets of coping resources have been identified, namely intrapersonal coping resources which include self-esteem and level of depression; and interpersonal coping resources provided by the work sphere, such as work social support and value-rich work.

The study is divided into six chapters. The first and present chapter presents the rationale and goals of the investigation. The second attempts to outline some of the most important evidence uncovered concerning abuse, whilst chapter 3 provides a thorough review of the intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources under examination in this study. The fourth chapter continues to outline the methodological procedures and techniques employed in implementing the investigation. The fifth presents an analysis of the results and findings obtained from the mixed quantitative and qualitative data collection; whilst the final and sixth chapter will discuss the findings and limitations of the study, as well as suggestions for further research in the area.

1.1. RATIONALE

Numerous documents have been forwarded which focus on the characteristics, causes and consequences relating to violence against women (eg Alexander, 1993; Blackman, 1989; Feinhauer, Callahan & Hilton, 1996; Walker, 1979). However, recently there has been a growth in the attention given to therapeutic issues and processes relevant to female survivors of spouse abuse.

One view in forwarding help for these women is to aid them in improving their intrapersonal coping resources which are eroded by the debilitating effects of violence. Within this study such resources are defined as the individual's internal psychological characteristics and include the variables of self-esteem and an active orientation towards decision-making as opposed to inactive tendencies of depression.

Nurius, Furrey and Berliner (1992) and Eckenrode (1983) have found that in order for these coping resources to be mobilized and converted into coping resources, reinforcement for desired behavioral change is necessary. Such reinforcements which emerge due to the interaction of the individual with others and the environment are termed interpersonal coping resources. Although research has highlighted positive social support from family and friends as one of the most significant sources of reinforcement, other studies have contradicted this notion. In such cases, support has been found to be inadequate or totally absent. Family and friends may ignore the abusive situation or have even been found to side with the batterer (Dutton, 1992).

Thus the present research identifies the need for greater attention to be given to Nurius et al's (1992) study of the coping capacity of women, as well as to differing patterns through which stressors and alternative coping resources may bear upon an individual's ability to cope. Similarly, it is a study aimed at exercising Orava, McLeod and Starpe's (1996) perspective that alternative interventions be designed to encourage women to make decisions and experience competence and mastery in the environment and in so doing assist in altering negative self-perceptions. Alternative coping responses, for example becoming involved in

work may be a necessary intervention. However, it must be remembered that unless the intrapersonal cognitive coping resources of the victim can be improved through satisfactory interpersonal coping resources, such alternatives would be difficult to achieve.

The goal of the present study is to explore the relationships between intrapersonal coping resources and alternative interpersonal coping resources in the workplace. It is thought that as positive social support has been found to alleviate some of the stressors attached to abuse, further investigations into alternative support networks may have similar effects. This study will investigate whether relationships in the work sphere - for example, with colleagues and supervisors might offer alternative supportive effects; as might other counselling or support programmes provided by employers.

Another interpersonal coping resource which has been found to be effective in the alleviation of stress symptoms experienced by employees and which will be assessed within the presented research, has been value-rich work. Literature regarding value-rich work explains how work which is positive and meaningful, and holds value for the employee has been found to relieve stress-related symptoms and thus improve coping resources.

In addition to examining alternative and additional coping resources, the following research is an attempt to spark an awareness of this social problem within the broader societal context. Through an exploration of these workplace variables, the workforce may be made more aware of the significance which value-rich work and supportive work cultures can contribute in enhancing the psychological well-being of their employees.

Due to the previous buffering effects of social support and work values, both are expected to

be positively related to self-esteem and negatively related to depression. However, it is important to emphasize that coping efforts can be double-edged. This means that if no support exists or if work relationships are in any way reflective of the detrimental aspects of the abusive spousal relationship, a greater negative impact on the esteem and psychological state of the women may be observed. Similarly, if work is meaningless and unrewarding, there may be no effect or a negative impact on the stress symptoms characteristic of women in abusive relationships.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 2

THEORIES OF SPOUSE ABUSE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Violence is a culturally transmitted 'disease' of epidemic proportions in contemporary societies, and domestic violence has become one of its most insidious expressions (Carden, 1994). Over the past two decades prevalence estimates of partner aggression have uncovered an insurmountable problem (Cascardi & Vivian, 1995). The problem of spousal violence as highlighted by Straus, Gelles and Steinmatz's (1980) 1975 national survey in the United States has raised scientific interest in the subject.

In 1990, of 6 008 790 crimes of violence against persons of age 12 and older reported in a national crime victimization survey (US Department of Justice, 1992), 39% were perpetrated by a member of the victim's family or by a person in a relationship with the victim. Fifty-eight percent of those reported involved the spouse or ex-spouse of the victim (Carden, 1994).

In South Africa, the lack of statistics and absence of a large-scale national survey to date, makes it difficult to provide a definitive statement on the prevalence of spouse battering in the country. Statistics concerning the incidence of spouse abuse from police records, hospitals or

social service organizations may be inaccurate because partner abuse is often not reported and if it is, is documented under categories of 'assault', 'disturbing the peace' or 'relationship problems' (McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990).

Research (Kaplan, 1996; McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990; Walker, 1994) has illustrated that a link does exist between broader societal violence and violence within the family. Thus in South Africa where crime is reaching saturation point in society, an anticipated impact on the statistics of wife battering is obvious.

Before focusing on the various risk factors and consequences of this disease spreading through society, it is important that the reader becomes contextualised within the concept and cycle of domestic violence. In entering the world of abusive relationships and the theories surrounding it, it becomes less difficult for the reader to understand the complexities of this occurrence which will be outlined in the following sections.

2.2. THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF WIFE ABUSE

Walker (1979) provided the first transactional account of wife abuse after a series of intensive interviews with more than 120 battered women, known as the "cycle theory of violence". This cycle has three distinct phases (as shown in Figure 1) which vary both in time and intensity for the same couple and between different couples. The phases include :-

- (1) the tension-building phase
- (2) an explosion or acute battering phase
- (3) the honeymoon phase

(Carden, 1994).

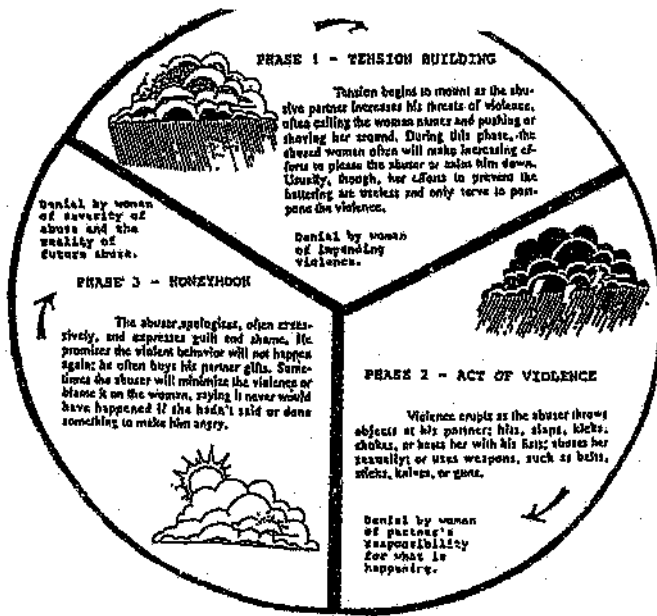


FIGURE 1 : THE CYCLE OF VIOLENCE (WALKER, 1979)

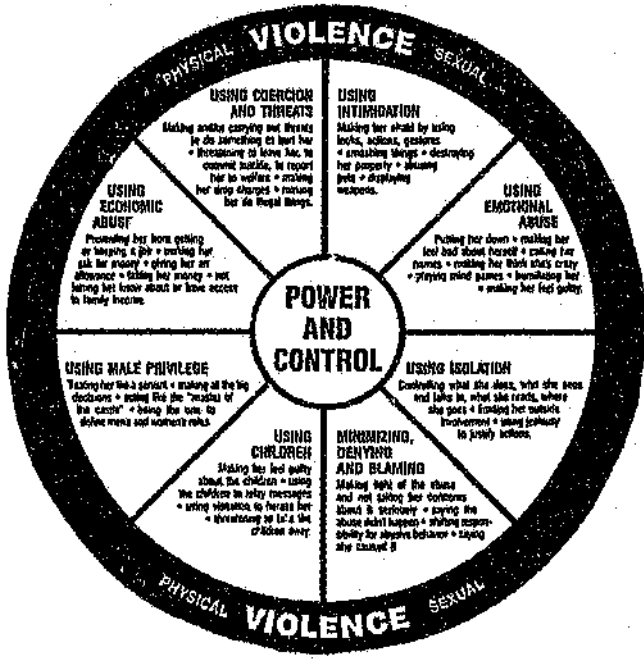


FIGURE 2 : POWER AND CONTROL TACTICS (GARDEN, 1994)

The tension-building phase which can last from several months to several years, involves minor battering incidents. It is at this stage that batterers often use one or more control tactics as defined in Figure 2. Consequently it is also at this stage that most women report feeling a sense of control over the violence and experience feelings of self-blame, denial, anger, fear of the anticipated beating, and rationalizations for the ongoing abuse.

The explosion phase is described as a psychologically and physically paralysing event. Walker (1984) reports that the general feeling which permeates from women who have experienced this stage of abuse is the absolute futility of trying to escape.

After severe battering has occurred, the relationship then enters a honeymoon phase which lasts longer than Phase 2 (2 hours to 2 days), but shorter than Phase 1. Here, the perpetrator demonstrates contrite and loving behaviour, tearfully apologises and promises never to be violent again (Carden, 1994). Such behaviour reinforces the positive feelings the woman has towards her husband.

Dutton and Painter (1981) explain that such imbalances and alternation between abusive and loving behaviours predispose victims to traumatic bonding - "the formation of strong emotional attachments under conditions of intermittent maltreatment" (p 146).

Ochberg (1980) explains that women enter a type of pathological transference whereby the battered woman develops the same transference to her batterer that develops between a hostage and hostage takers in a hijack situation. The transference includes positive feelings towards the captor and negative feelings towards the authorities responsible for the rescue. It is based on terror, dependence, gratitude and paradoxically a survival effect.

In accordance with these arguments, Walker (1979) theorises that it is this symbiotic bonding which forces the woman into a state of "learned helplessness" (Walker, 1979). Similarly, Janoff-Bulman (1989) and Lystad et al (1996) concur that battered women develop adaptive defence mechanisms that offer immediate protection for minimal survival. They may even rationalize the violence, becoming passive and compliant to avoid the violence at all costs.

Walker (1979), supported by Browne (1987) and Gelles and Straus (1988) continues to explain that as the abusive relationship continues, so the honeymoon phase shortens, until eventually it disappears. It is also important to note that although the cycle theory of violence has received abundant evidence, cycle patterns differ from couple to couple and within the same couple over time.

2.3. RISK FACTORS OF SPOUSE ABUSE

From the cascades of complementary and contradictory research performed on abuse all over the world, one thing is clear and that is that spouse abuse is widespread. Numerous studies have forwarded evidence which suggests that wife assault attacks couples of every race, religion, social class and educational level (Carden, 1994; McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990; Straus & Gelles, 1986; Straus et al, 1980). However, in comparison, further studies into certain psychosocial characteristics suggest higher risk potential of domestic violence perpetration.

2.2.1. SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

Lystad et al (1996) comment that although domestic violence affects all socioeconomic classes, socioeconomic disadvantage does increase risk. Reasons presented in this regard is that men who do not earn high salaries or who may rely on their wives for income, are often left feeling frustrated and almost powerless (McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990). Lystad et al (1996) reinforce this perspective when they continue to explain that in abusive relationships, the risk factor is not so much the social status, but power imbalance in the relationship.

Coleman and Straus (1986), Sonkin (1985), Straus and Gelles (1990) have reported that connected to inequality within the marriage are rigid stereotypical attitudes about sex roles. They continue to illustrate that highest prevalence rates of abuse are detected in male-dominated dyads where the male spouse holds traditional stereotypical attitudes, whilst lowest incidence of abuse are found in more egalitarian spousal dyads, that is, where power is shared.

In line with these arguments, a study by Hornung, McCullough and Suigimoto (1981) suggests that status inconsistencies and incompatibilities between spouses can increase the likelihood of abuse. More specifically, incompatibilities in the educational attainments of spouses has been found to affect the level and type of abuse experienced.

For example, overachievement by a man is associated with a lower incidence of abuse; whilst overachievement by a woman is often associated with a higher prevalence of abuse. Hornung et al (1981) continue to document that where the woman's education is relatively lower than her male counterpart, a higher incidence of spousal violence to the point of life-threatening violence can result.

Lystad et al (1996) have indicated that traditional males measure a woman's feelings for them and their power in the relationship by how well the woman meets his sex role expectations. If there is a power imbalance within the marriage, Lystad et al (1986) suggest that perhaps the violence acts as compensatory behaviour for the husband's lack of power in other areas of the marriage.

Else, Wonderlich and Beatty (1993) agree that in order to compensate for their lack of power in their relationships, batterers exhibit characteristics such as poor problem-solving skills and hostility traits. Similarly, Hilberman (1980) states that status inconsistencies between spouses leave the batterers with feelings of inadequacy which manifest in a great deal of jealousy and a high need for nurturance. If these instincts and needs are not accommodated, violence results.

In addition to attitudinal factors which are born from the culture of the individuals, other demographic variables have also been highlighted which exercise an increase in the risk factors of women abuse. Such variables include age, number of children within the family and racial differences (Neff, Holamon & Schluter, 1995).

2.2.2. AGE

Although literature forwarded by Fagan and Wexler (1987) and Shield, McCall and Hannecke (1988) has indicated that women between the ages of 17 and 28 have been found to have increased risk of assault by their partners, specific studies into the effects of age on abuse is inconclusive and scarce.

2.2.3. NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Similarly to the effects of age on the severity of abuse, little evidence has been portrayed with regards to the effect that number of children in the family has on the level of abuse experienced between spouses.

However, due to the jealousy factor which leads many men to abuse their wives (Hilberman, 1980), it is assumed that as more children enter the family, so the attention and affection of the woman is split between spouse and children. This leaves less time and effort for the mother to accommodate the needs of the man, and thus a greater possibility of jealousy.

Although there is no conclusive evidence supportive of this theory, more concrete research by Dutton (1992) has shown that women who have children are less likely to leave their abusive husbands. Such victims remain in the abusive relationship as they do not want to leave their children behind with the abusive partner; but simultaneously do not have the finances to support a family on their own.

2.2.4. RACE

A further demographic variable which has been found to have contradictory effects in the domain of abuse, is race. Again, Hotaling and Sugarman (1986) warn that little empirical data is available regarding family violence in different race groups. However, of those existing studies, the majority indicate that higher rates of spouse assault have been indicated among black couples than white couples (Hampton, Gelles & Harrop, 1989; Straus et al, 1980). Cazenave and Straus (1979) also indicated that the black husbands in their study were more

likely to report slapping their wives in the last year, as well as reporting using more severe violence against their wives, than white males.

Additional studies (Fagan, Stewart & Hansen, 1983; Straus et al, 1980) into the effects of race on levels of spousal violence and socioeconomic differences (such as, lower levels of education, occupation and income, and higher rates of unemployment among blacks) present higher observed levels of spousal violence among blacks. Here, evidence implicates that racial differences involve more than socioeconomic differences but that cultural factors have greater determining influences.

Such observations are especially relevant in South Africa where an overwhelming culture of violence has developed; that is, a situation in which violence becomes accepted as a norm rather than as an aberration.

Donzelot (1979) argues that the family cannot be viewed in isolation from social processes. McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) document that in South Africa the crises introduced with Apartheid and the consequent migrant labour system forced breakdowns in family functioning and an erosion of traditional patriarchal power. Such humiliations of racism subsequently produced a sense of impotence and rage amongst black males which has manifested in violence against women.

In contrast to these opinions, three further studies have emerged from the literature and illustrated that intimate violence failed to make a racial distinction in the severity of abuse experienced. Rouse (1988) investigated possible differences between white, black and hispanic university students who experienced abuse in their dating relationships. Sorenson and Telles

(1991) examined marital violence rates between white and Mexican women. Gondolf, Fisher and McFerron (1988) analyzed data from approximately 5700 interviews with battered women. In all cases the investigators forwarded the position that marital violence is colour-blind.

From the aforementioned knowledge concerning the risk factors, it becomes obvious that many contradictions and inconclusive evidence exists in this area. In South Africa where the population is so diverse, additional information concerning the effect of certain demographic variables, such as race and education, are extremely important in drawing closer to an understanding of this destructive occurrence in society.

In order to clarify and confirm past findings, and gain new and thorough insights into the risk factors of abuse within the South African context, the present study identifies the need to examine the relationships which exist between various biographical characteristics and the dimensions and severity of abuse.

2.4. POSTTRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER IN BATTERED WOMEN

Despite increasing research on physical violence and sexual aggression against women, researchers are still struggling to understand all the ways women are seriously harmed by abuse. Trauma and posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) frameworks as applied to domestic violence are a couple of ways in which investigators have attempted to explain the experience and develop techniques for dealing with the consequences of violence (Babich & Voit, 1992; Browne, 1993; Dutton & Hemphill, 1992).

Examinations by Houskamp and Foy (1991) and Kemp, Green, Hovanitz and Rawlings (1995) have deduced that both the intensity of physical violence and length of time over which the battering relationship persists, heightens the susceptibility of victims to PTSD. More physical and verbal abuse, more injuries, a greater sense of threat and more forced sex in the relationship, all coincide with the experience of greater distress symptoms for the battered woman (Kemp et al, 1995).

Past abuse or trauma, for example being a victim of child abuse, has also been found to be a strong predictor of whether or not an abused woman will report stronger symptoms of PTSD (Kramer & Green, 1991; Roth, Wayland & Woolsey, 1990).

Hilberman and Munson (1978) describe how in a similar way to combat veterans, disaster victims, rescue workers, and other PTS patients, assaulted victims express behavioral and emotional symptoms of PTSD. These symptoms include feelings of severe agitation, anxiety and anticipatory terror. Battered women often are unable to relax or sleep, experiencing violent nightmares in the night. During the daytime they become passive and lacking in energy. They recount feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and despair, and regularly view themselves as powerless to change their lives.

Frequent somatic symptoms have also been reported, such as headaches, asthma, gastrointestinal symptoms and other chronic pains (Lystad et al, 1996). Suicide attempts are also not uncommon.

Janoff-Bulman and Frieze (1983) discuss how traumatic events, such as wife battering, have such severe consequences as the basic assumptions which people hold about themselves and their world become shattered under such an experience. Coping with victimization thus entails minimizing threat to these assumptions, and searching for meaning which can be done in adaptive or maladaptive ways (Epstein, 1991).

Marshall (1993a; 1993b) continues to explain that when the trauma is ongoing and caused by a partner the likelihood that women will cope in maladaptive ways may be increased. When the trauma includes additional ongoing psychological abuse, the likelihood of maladaptive coping is increased even further.

Here, it becomes important to note that even though most past studies examining the causes, theories and consequences of abuse mainly focused on physical and sexual assaults, recent investigations (including the present study), have begun to recognize the severe detrimental scarring which psychological and emotional battering can leave on the victim.

Marshall (1996) explains that psychological battering is likely to be much more prevalent and has the potential to pervasively affect a woman as it targets perceptions, thoughts, feelings and behaviour; which consequently affects how a woman views herself, partner, relationship and others.

Loving (1994) emphasizes that the reason why emotional abuse impacts so intensely on the individual is due to the fact that psychological and verbal aggression is an ongoing process in which one individual systematically diminishes and destroys the inner self of another. Often the continuous discounting of the woman's needs and feelings as unimportant contribute to a

profound sense of loneliness and sadness. This continues until eventually the victim begins to experience these aspects of the self as seriously eroded or absent (ibid).

Marshall (1996) stresses that it is important to remember that men can be psychologically abusive without being violent or sexually aggressive. Yet, emotional assault in and of itself can cause serious harm. Most measures and procedures into abuse are developed to reflect the experiences of women in shelters or as identified in hospitals and through police reports. This limits researchers' knowledge and understanding to the psychological abuse sustained by physically battered women. Thus the present study sought to gain an understanding of the psychological abuse which has invaded the general population of employed women.

2.5. INTERVENTIONS FOR ABUSED WOMEN

The effects of abuse are continuous for most women because of intrusive memories, flashbacks, feelings of re-experiencing the trauma. These symptoms are often pathologized rather than interpreted as survival mechanisms. Similarly, most women who display coping strategies are blamed for causing their own abuse and held responsible for what are essentially normal reactions to abnormal situations (Walker, 1994).

Interventions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels have been suggested by McKendrick and Hoffman (1990) in an attempt to assist battered women in improving available coping resources.

Primary intervention strategies which eliminate conditions which lead to the occurrence and maintenance of wife battering need to be developed. Besides altering certain mindsets which

exist in the culture of South Africa, they suggest that adequate welfare systems are crucial in intervening in the problem of wife abuse at the primary level. Such a system would involve a viable partnership between the state and the voluntary sector in providing services and material resources. Such interventions are necessary as by Kalmuss and Straus (1982) shows that economic dependence rather than psychological dependence keeps women in abusive relationships.

At secondary levels support needs to be offered to women by educating the community and public about the severity of abuse which exists, as well as refuges where abused women may seek assistance for assault. New services, emergency refuges and shelters, such as POWA and the Cape Town Crisis Centre also need to be created.

It is through offering the battered women accommodation in a supportive environment, removed from immediate danger, that the victim is given an opportunity to break free from traumatic bonding, overcome her severe isolation, and decide on a future direction for her life.

Tertiary interventions aim to assist those whose lives have been affected by violence, that is, treatment and counselling approaches for both battered women and the batterers themselves, so as to prevent future abuse. Therapies, such as crisis intervention, psychotherapy, group therapy and in a minority of cases marital therapy, are all employed in an attempt to reduce the destructive effects of violence.

Douglas (1987) writes that the decision to stay or leave the abusive relationship is one for the battered victim to make. Interventions and coping resources are media which assist battered women in gaining a sense of mastery over their lives.

Various coping resources have been identified in order to assist individuals in achieving this goal.

Social support networks, for example from shelter houses, as well as from the abused victim's family and friends, are resources which have been found to be important factors in increasing the individual's ability to regain a sense of self-worth, reduce the stressful impacts of violence and restore psychological health and well-being (Mitchell & Hodson, 1983; Tan, Basta, Sullivan & Davidson, 1995).

However, in some cases support has been found to be inadequate or totally absent. A shortage of shelter houses, as well as inaccessibility of such support systems to the majority of the uneducated population is one reason for the inadequacy of support. More significantly additional cases have reported that family and friends may ignore the abusive situation or have even been found to side with the batterer on occasions (Dutton, 1992). In such instances the exacerbation of the destructive effects on the esteem and depression experienced by the battered victim is not surprising.

The pervasive consequence which echoes in both the aetiology and maintenance of the abusive relationship is loss and the fear of loss. Russell & Uhlermann (1995) describe how battered women experience grief at many levels - loss of the ideal relationship, loss of self-esteem, loss of control and self-determination, loss of happiness. Dezin (1984) has emphasized that violence may be an attempt to regain through the use of emotional and physical force something that has been lost. However, paradoxically, violence destroys the intimacy it hopes to regain.

In response to the probable lack of resources available to abused women in dealing with such great losses, the following study is an attempt to explore coping resources which may exist and aid victims in reconstructing their sense of self. Such resources (explored in the following chapter) include those which lie within the personal characteristics of the victimized individual, as well as those alternative resources which the individual may gain from her interactions with others in the working sphere.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW (CONT)

INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Theorists have provided evidence as to why abuse women continue in the relationship. Basic reasons which have emerged include economic dependence, psychological commitment (Strube & Barbour, 1983), lack of social support (Mitchell & Hodson, 1983), and self-blame (Trimpey, 1989). Gondolf (1988) reported that of those seeking shelter, approximately one-third of battered women return to their batterers; and Prange (1985) explains that women who return to their abusers attribute the violence to their own personal defectiveness.

Similarly additional research into spouse abuse has forwarded findings which illustrate the relationships of abuse with feelings of self-blame, anxiety, powerlessness, lack of control, and other symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder which arise as a consequence of violent encounters (Alexander, 1993; Barnett, Blackman, 1989; Martinez & Keyson, 1996; Feinauer, Callahan & Hilton, 1996; Hoff, 1990; Orava, McLeod & Sharpe, 1996; Valentine & Feinhauer, 1993). These symptoms which have been found to have a profound impact on the complexity which the victim has to face in her decision of whether or not to leave the abusive relationship (Blackman, 1989; Follette, 1996) Walker (1979) termed learned helplessness.

Walker (1984) continues to explain that learned helplessness arises when the violence eventually depletes the woman and her motivation to help herself. Similar to Orava, McLeod and Sharpe (1996), Kaplan (1996) and Follette, Polumsy, Bechtle and Naugle (1996), Walker recognizes that this demotivation to help oneself manifests due to certain strains of being a battered victim. These include the behavioral construct of apathy, the cognitive construct of problem-solving difficulty and the affective constructs of depression and low self-esteem. As mentioned previously, such responses are characteristic of PTS symptoms and reduce the intrapersonal coping effectiveness of the woman.

Nurius et al (1992) re-emphasize the destructive effects of abuse on the intrapersonal symptoms of low self-esteem and high levels of depression which consequently alter the individual's ability to cope and survive. Thus investigators of the past and within the present study seek a more precise understanding of the relationship between abuse and these symptoms of self-esteem and depression.

3.2. INTRAPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES

3.2.1. SELF ESTEEM

Overall the association between abuse and self-esteem, which refers to cognitions about one's worth and value, (Dutton, 1992), appears to be well-documented; that is that increased abuse is related to lowered self-esteem (Aguilar & Nightingale, 1994; Mitchell & Hobson, 1983). However, whether women of low self esteem are likely targets for battering relationships or that battering causes low self esteem is not entirely clear (Aguilar & Nightingale, 1994).

According to Dutton (1992), battered women demonstrate their lower self-esteem by believing that they do not deserve or are not worthy of better treatment by their partner, and at times believe themselves to be less worthy than any other women who have not been battered, somehow believing that the abuse has diminished their value as a human being.

Hoff (1990) confirms that battering exacts an enormous toll on the woman's acceptance of herself, and is closely linked with her sense of power or lack thereof in her marital relationship. Here, exposure to violence within an abusive relationship produces a cognitive set resembling learned helplessness. Thus implying that women remain in abusive relationships because they learn to be helpless - learn that they are unable to control or prevent their husbands' outbursts yet simultaneously feeling a sense of responsibility for provoking the assault against them. They are trapped in a situation where they are both in control and out of control. This opinion coincides with those of Browne (1986) and Finn (1986) that physically abused women perceive their lives to be controlled by external factors.

Whilst most research has focused on physically abused victims (who have been found to experience adverse psychological consequences), Aguilar and Nightingale (1994) and Feraro (1979) have found that psychological abuse, such as fear and humiliation does contribute to long-term effects on women's self-esteem. Follingstad, Rutledge, Berg, Hause and Polek (1990) also illustrated that emotional abuse which was restricting and controlling (for example, being told who they can see and being denied access to finances) had a negative effect on a woman; and within their study had more debilitating effects on self-esteem than the physical abuse experienced.

These findings were confirmed by Aguilar and Nightingale (1994) who also explained that it may be due to lowered self-esteem that women learn helplessness and find it particularly difficult to make life changes that require regaining control of their lives.

The type of abuse experienced and when the abuse occurred have also been related to the level of self-esteem (Aguilar & Nightingale, 1994). Thus further investigations into type of abuse would need to be administered. Women who experience physical abuse are more likely to view their relationships as abusive due to the fact that our society has clearly labelled physical aggression as abusive. However, from Aguilar and Nightingale's (1994) study it is evident that the incorporation of the less easily definable variable of emotional abuse also needs to be recognized, as emotionally battered women may be particularly vulnerable to lowered self-worth.

3.2.2. DEPRESSION

There has been convincing research (eg Jaffe, Wolfe, Wilson & Zak, 1985, 1986; Orava et al, 1996; Walker, 1994) relating abuse to feelings of depression. Cascardi and O'Leary (1992) reported that as the frequency and severity of physical violence experienced by an abused woman increases, her self-esteem decreases and her depressive symptomatology increases. Kemp, Rawlings and Green (1991) and Gelles and Harrop (1989) re-emphasize that psychological distress increases with the level of husband-to-wife violence, and that the more severe the history of abuse the greater the depression that results.

Based on Beck's cognitive theory of depression, this psychological state is "a manifestation of felt hopelessness regarding the attainment of goals when responsibility for the hopelessness is attributed to one's personal defects" (Greene, 1989, p650). This statement highlights the fact that, in congruence with Cascardi and O'Leary (1992) findings, depression is closely linked to the low levels of esteem encountered by victims of abuse.

Russell and Uhlermann (1994) have indicated that depression and low self-esteem are prominent amongst women in abusive relationships and even amongst women who have attempted to leave the relationship. One explanation is that the battered woman, similar to a non-battered woman with serious relationship problems with a man, is faced with the loss of an idealized relationship and of the roles associated with that relationship. The depression they feel is part of the grieving process of loss.

Dutton (1992) adds that the abused victim feels emotional pain and sadness due to the losses not only of hope about the future, but also due to the loss of sense of identity and self-worth, loss of home and loss of income tied with that relationship. The depression they

These reported feelings of grief have also been identified as resulting from the battered woman's social isolation. Browne (1987), Mitchell and Hobson (1983), Tan, Bast, Sullivan and Davidson (1995) have shown that abusive men do tend to socially isolate their victims from friends, family and situations conducive to meeting new people. In addition, Valentine and Feinhauer (1993) report that finding supportive relationships outside the family are also crucial in overcoming symptoms of abuse. Dutton (1992) comments that often the abused victim gives up enjoyable or rewarding activities, for example being with friends and family as an attempt to reduce the batterer's anger.

However often this only compounds the batterer's intentions of social isolation, as Russell and Uhlermann (1994) and Schutte, Malouff and Doyle (1988) have discovered that control and intimidation are exacerbated in the absence of support, because there are fewer people to whom the victim can turn to if she decides to try and leave the abusive relationship.

From the above evidence it is certain that abuse does destroy the individual's sense of self which manifests in negative feelings of depression and poor self-esteem. In response to this sense of hopelessness, Nurius et al (1992) suggest that the individual's poor intrapersonal coping resources can be accommodated if the individual has alternative interpersonal resources which can compensate for the negative effects of abuse. These interpersonal resources help to mobilise the individual's coping capacity into coping skills by reducing the low self-esteem and depression experienced.

3.2. COPING CAPACITY

Thus Nurius et al (1992) state that in order to aid battered women in their coping efforts, researchers need to better discern significant factors that are amenable to change and over which the women have control. These have to do with improving their coping capacity, and specifically with increasing their intrapersonal cognitive coping resources, namely - level of self esteem and reduced levels of depression.

As previously noted in order for these coping resources to be converted into active coping responses, reinforcement for desired behavioral change from external supports, that is, from interpersonal coping resources need to be present. One of the main interpersonal coping resources which has been highlighted in the abuse literature has been social support,

particularly from friends and family. However, studies in this field provide contradictory information.

The majority of literature on support from both family and friends offers the view that positive support networks have a buffering effect on stress symptoms (Brubaker, 1993; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Tan et al, 1995), and are important factors in battered womens' abilities to recover from violence at the hands of their partners.

An analysis of the literature on social support reveals the existence of three major conceptualisations of social support in assisting abused victims, namely gratification, equalization and contextual threat reduction (Ellis, 1992). Thoits (1982) explains that social support is "the degree to which a person's needs (socioemotional and material) are gratified through interactions with others" (p147). Here, support is equated with the satisfaction of needs by others.

In comparison, Lazarus (1981) cited in Viano (1992), conceives of social support as social interactions with others that induce perceptions that the resources others provide (emotional, cognitive and material) are equal to or greater than the demands by individuals experiencing life-event stress. Thus support means reducing the gap between perceived stress and available resources.

The third theory of social abuse or the threat reduction model forwarded by Brown (1981) conceptualises support as a cognitive appraisal. Stressful life events, such as abuse, threaten stable contextual meanings in an individual's life. Social support in response allows for

interactions that inculcate stable meanings that assist abused victims in readjusting and repairing from such threats.

In comparison, to the positive effects which social support can have on the individual, further studies have illustrated that often support offered by family and friends of the battered woman is totally inadequate, or may even have reverse buffering effects on the stress symptoms experienced by women if little or no support exists (Dutton, 1992).

Gurly (1989) comments that in some cases social obstructionism replaces support and thwarts the woman's efforts to respond to the abuse. For example, family members may encourage a woman to return to her batterer and "give him another chance", may discourage her from leaving in the first place, and have even been found to testify for the batterer in a case of criminal prosecution against him, disregarding their knowledge of previous abuse (Dutton, 1992).

Thus it becomes obvious that alternative and additional external supports and coping resources are required to aid women who are feeling the adverse impact of spousal violence. One domain which perhaps can offer such alternatives is that of the working sphere.

3.4. ALTERNATIVE INTERPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES

Research in the work domain has demonstrated that worksite coping resources including satisfactory psychosocial work environments, are associated with positive mental health and the reduction of stress symptoms (Aronsson, 1985; Gardell, 1982; Heaney, Price & Rafferty,

1995; House, 1981). However, little is known about the exact role of worksite coping resources in improving mental health or how worksite coping resources can be enhanced.

Similarly, although within the last couple of decades more comprehensive research into the family work interface, and the compensation and spillover effects which each domain has on the other has evolved, little is known about the relationship of abuse to work variables. A study performed in South Africa by Nkosi and Ortlepp (1992) has shown that spouse abuse is significantly related to low job satisfaction and job involvement, which illustrates that abuse in the South African workplace is affecting employees and their performance. Yet, a dearth of information into the worksite coping resources and the consequences of abuse on employees is obvious.

Although little research exists about the relationship between abuse and work; two workplace coping resources which have been found to have an effect on employees experiencing stress symptoms are workplace social support and value-rich work.

3.4.1. WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT

The two main forms of work social support within the literature include social support from coworkers and supervisors. In addition, more recently with the emergence of employee assistance programmes it is thought that these counselling programmes might also contribute an additional form of social support in the workplace. Thus the latter and former will be considered in turn.

3.4.1.1 Social Support from Supervisors and Coworkers

Winnubst, Buunk & Marcelissen (1988) have operationalized social support in a number of ways - as the integration in a social network, as the quality of relationships between people, as perceived helpfulness and as influencing psychological well-being by fulfilling needs for affiliation, belonging, respect, social recognition, affection and nurturance. Thus an individual experiencing social support feels that she is cared for (emotional support); that she is esteemed (esteem support); and that she belongs to a network of mutual obligation and communication (network support) (Daniels & Guppy, 1995) - all aspects which are adversely effected in abusive relationships.

Within the workforce, social support may enhance well-being directly through increasing self-esteem, bolstering morale or simply providing a sense of affiliation or belonging (Ganster, Fusilier & Mayes, 1986; Heaney et al, 1995; House, 1981). Social support in the workplace has also been found to indirectly enhance mental health by affecting employee coping behaviour.

Instrumental social support has been found to help employees exert situational control; for example when advice is offered by fellow employees of how to modify stressful situations. Other forms of supportive behaviours, such as diverting employees' attention away from potent stressors; and providing constructive feedback about one's performance that connotes caring, understanding or affirmation (Heaney et al, 1995), can lead to the reduction of stress-related symptoms.

In so doing, the individual is empowered and reassured of her purpose and her worth in making a contribution. Thus employee appraisals of adequate coping resources may depend on the availability of social support, which in turn is determined by the quality of relationships maintained with one's coworkers and supervisors - people with whom one has contact during the day and with whom one shares a similarity of experience in the workplace (Thoits, 1986).

Although social support has many positive consequences, it must be emphasized that coping efforts can be double-edged. For example, seeking a job transfer or skills training can be observed as active efforts towards positive change. Yet, simultaneously such changes can also lead to increasing stress and abuse, "especially if the woman attempts change in a relative vacuum of social cognitive supports" (Nurius et al, 1992, p238).

Thus whether perceptions of social support received within the workplace are positive or whether no support exists, may have serious impacts on the proposed alternative coping resources. In such cases, instead of alleviating the negative effects of abuse, poor social networks or a relationship with one's supervisor which can be as humiliating or degrading as that experienced in an abusive spousal relationship, may leave the individual feeling increasingly isolated, depressed and lacking in confidence.

3.4.1.2. Counselling in the Workplace

Another medium through which the workforce may offer social support to abused women might be through the establishment of employee assistance programmes or counselling strategies.

However, a study by Hamilton & Coates (1993) reported that certain professionals - namely, employment, financial and addiction counsellors were not helpful to the abused participants in their study, most of the time.

Johnson (1985) states that perhaps these groups are not aware of the impact on a woman's tentative bid for help, or perhaps they may not see their response to abuse as a priority in their work. Hamilton and Coates (1993) continue that although these professionals are not generally expected to be "trained" to provide services to abused women, they are approached by abused women for help, (this might especially be true in South Africa where epidemic proportions of violence exist).

Inappropriate or lack of responding from counsellors in the workplace might lead to a woman losing what might be a very loose foothold on her ability to take action in seeking further assistance on her own behalf (Dobash & Dobash, 1979). These findings are reflective of the reports of MacLeod and Cachieux (1980) that professionals have not responded adequately to the needs of battered women; and of Stark (1979) that the responses of service agencies often leads to double victimization, first by the abuser, and secondly, by the agencies themselves through lack of recognition, inapt advice and intervention. Thus once again the implications of whether or not supportive networks appear positive or whether they exacerbate the feelings of isolation, inadequacy and depression experienced by the woman and her coping resources are illustrated.

3.4.2. WORK VALUES

In addition to social support provided by the workforce, another interpersonal variable which has been found to alleviate symptoms of stress in workers is value-rich work. Research by Knoop (1993) and Locke (1976) have shown that work values are conducive to one's welfare; and that although stress models and studies of organizations tend to ignore values as a remedy for stress, interactions of individuals in a positive environment have been found to reduce the negative consequences of stress.

Knoop (1993) identified four work values as meaningful predictors of stress or alleviation thereof (and which are hypothesized to have similar effects on the stress experienced by battered women). These include :

- (i) esteem from others
- (ii) achievement through work
- (iii) meaningful work
- (iv) use of one's ability and knowledge.

Knoop (1993) continues that within his study evidence was obtained that three of these four dimensions worked especially well as stress relievers; namely that (a) meaningful work alleviated stress symptoms such as feeling worthless, trapped, troubled, hopeless and disillusioned; (b) esteem from others made people feel more optimistic, happy and energetic; and (c) a sense of achievement reduced feelings of tiredness, exhaustion, and weariness.

These predictors are synonymous with those indicated by Elizur (1995) who found that women as opposed to men valued affective and cognitive elements of work, such as opportunities to

interact with people, and meaningful work far more than the material and reward systems favoured by men.

Findings suggest that situations and values interact to bring about relief from stress. This means that if work is bland - if the job offers are perceived to be less than what the job holder demands, greater stress will emerge. Conversely, enriched jobs can lead to relief of stress symptoms if the job offers are perceived to be equal or greater than what the employee demands (Elizur, 1995; Knoop, 1993). Such complex and enriched jobs are also more likely to contain desired situational job features that relieve stress induced by unwanted features, in comparison to dull jobs which may contain unwanted job features.

For researchers in this field investigations are based on the theory that enriched jobs lead to relief of stress symptoms because a job that is desired will compensate for desired but unachieved personal values. Within this study, this would mean that positive perceptions of work and a job that provides the abused woman with a more positive view and belief in her self and worth will compensate for the sense of powerlessness, worthlessness and depression that she is experiencing.

It is thought that value-rich work, like positive social support received within the workplace will provide alternative and additional coping resources for the abused woman, which in turn might impact on her coping responses to the violent relationship in which she is trapped.

Mills (1985) suggests that women who are abused by their husbands must manage violence and this involves the development of strategies to cope with it. Nurius et al (1992) agree that responding to partner aggression depends on the battered woman's coping capacity and her

resources to mobilise that coping capacity into coping skills. the following investigation is an attempt to examine the relationships which exist between the various coping resources. More specifically, it is an examination of whether the identified alternative interpersonal resources provided by the workforce assist in mobilising those intrapersonal coping resources of self-esteem and depression, to ultimately develop active and satisfactory coping skills.

CHAPTER 3 CONT.

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

The present literature review illustrated a summary of the research performed in the area of spouse abuse. The main focus of the second chapter was to contextualize the reader within this area, providing information about some of the characteristics, risk factors and consequences related to violence against women.

In response to these concerns the third chapter recognized some of the coping resources available to battered women. Those which have been investigated previously have included the intrapersonal coping resources (or more aptly, the lack of such resources) of self-esteem and level of depression. Most of the literature has shown that self-esteem is negatively related with the severity of abuse; whilst depression has been related positively with abuse. This would mean that as the severity of abuse increases so self-esteem would decrease and depression increase.

In comparison, a study by Walker (1984) indicated that the assaulted women in the sample rated themselves high on the self-esteem variable and did not report feeling depressed. In fact, Walker (1984) and Russell and Uhlerman (1994) observed that women who had left abusive relationships displayed a higher risk of depression and feelings of grief.

Thus the present study re-examined the relationship between these variables; namely whether severity of abuse would be negatively related to self-esteem; and whether severity of abuse would be positively related to depression.

In comparison to these more expectant findings, the rest of the research questions explored new interactions in both the area of abuse and in the work sphere. Here investigations anticipated that relationships would exist between these two isolated worlds. Research has indicated compensation and spillover theories in the work-family interface; but the unusual link between abuse and work has rarely been documented.

This study makes a further unexpected introduction in that it investigates work as an alternative coping resource for battered victims. Work functioning almost as a therapeutic aspect in the lives of these women.

Thus relationships between these alternative interpersonal coping resources and the formerly introduced intrapersonal coping resources were also examined. These included whether relationships would exist between self-esteem and the work support and value-rich work experienced by employees; as well as whether these work-related variables would have an impact on the depression characteristic of battered women. These relationships were also examined in terms of severity of abuse and whether the severity of abuse impacted on or was at all itself impacted upon by work social support and value-rich work.

A further new element in these investigations involved the utilization and effects of employee-assistance programmes. Similar to work social support and value-rich work, such programmes were thought to have a positive effect on the destructive consequences of abuse on the individuals' self-esteem and levels of depression.

PRIMARY HYPOTHESES

HYPOTHESIS 1

- (A) Severity of abuse will be negatively related to self-esteem.
- (B) Severity of abuse will be positively related to self-esteem.

HYPOTHESIS 2

- (A) Positive work social support will be positively related to self-esteem.
- (B) Positive work social support will be negatively related to depression.
- (C) Positive work social support will be negatively related to severity of abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 3

- (A) Value-rich work will be positively related to self-esteem.
- (B) Value-rich work will be negatively related to depression.
- (C) Value-rich work will be negatively related to severity of abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 4

- (A) Women who have access to alternative employee support programmes which offer adequate information and support will report higher levels of self-esteem.
- (B) Women who have access to alternative employee support programmes which offer adequate information and support will report lower levels of depression.

As previously stated certain risk factors have been highlighted as having an effect on the severity and type of abuse experienced. Thus in addition to the aforementioned primary hypotheses, a secondary set of hypotheses emerged concerning the participants' biographical information and backgrounds with the severity of abuse encountered by the sample.

SECONDARY HYPOTHESES

HYPOTHESIS 5

Age will be negatively related to severity of abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 6

Educational qualification will be negatively related to abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 7

Number of children in the family will be negatively related with abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 8

Race will have an effect on the severity of abuse experienced by women.

In addition to the hypotheses stated above, further relationships and complexities surrounding all the relationships in the study were examined. For example, the moderating effects of some variables on relationships were analysed. However due to the exploratory nature of the study, specific hypotheses of such effects could not be made. In fact, these analyses were only explored in order to gain further insight to the findings obtained.

The following three chapters explore the aforementioned hypotheses, the procedures used to test these hypotheses and the subsequent findings and results of these efforts.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

Many present day researchers in the psychological field have been criticized for their proneness in employing purely quantitative, objective research techniques in measuring psychological variables. Yet when it comes to the area of spouse abuse the feeling remains that alternative research strategies employing qualitative methods need to be considered (Murphy & O'Leary, 1994). Murphy and O'Leary (1994) continue that qualitative research strategies further elaborate the richness and complexity of subjective experience and social context.

Thus the majority of studies in this field utilise qualitative methods via the use of interviews either telephonically or by person-to-person contact when collecting data. Although these methods are understandable, especially considering the sensitivity of the subject and its consequences for participants, simultaneously this highly subjective form of gathering data would raise problems concerning the validity of the results. This concern is relevant primarily due to the reliance on the researchers interpretation of the interview material, but secondly, due to the fact that such methods reduce the anonymity of the responses which could lead to the threat of social desirability bias and the victim's need to protect her abuser.

Simultaneously however, Barnett (1996) states that too much research in the area of spouse abuse relies on subjective interpretations and little is known about the correlates of violence and abusive relationships. In order to accommodate all these concerns the following study

aimed at combining and reaping the benefits of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Thus a mixed design was used in order to gain concrete evidence and correlates for the relationships between the study variables, as well as deeper insights into the intricacies of these relationships by using more qualitative techniques of open-ended questions.

Furthermore the design was cross-sectional and non-experimental in nature. It is described as cross-sectional as it was a field study which measured the same variables across the complete sample of individuals on one occasion only (Christensen, 1985). The research format was that of self-report questionnaires and the respondents were able to fill out and return the questionnaires in their own time. There was no direct control or manipulation of the variables, of control or experimental groups, and thus the research could not be viewed as experimental. In fact, the research design was descriptive and illustrated the associations between the variables rather than drawing causal inferences as in an experimental design.

The investigation included five study variables, namely self-esteem, level of depression, work social support, value-rich work and spouse abuse.

4.2. THE PROCEDURE

From the outset it is important to note that this investigation was not purely an empirical piece of research, but that as little is known of the relationships which exists between abuse and the therapeutic aspects of work, it also encompassed exploratory components. For this reason, as well as to accommodate the concerns of researchers in the area, it was thought that the mixed qualitative-quantitative procedure would be equally appropriate here so as to gain support for more directive hypotheses, as well as a more comprehensive understanding of the exploratory components.

As previously stated, survey-type research was implemented via the employment of self-report questionnaires in order to achieve this goal. These questionnaires included five pre-constructed scales to measure self-esteem, level of depression, severity and type of spouse abuse, work social support, and value-rich work; as well as seven open-ended questions formulated by the researcher in order to evaluate the individuals' perceptions and use of assistance or counselling programmes within their organization.

Three hundred and twenty questionnaires together with self-addressed envelopes were distributed to female employees in three organizations, including banking and textile institutions and a school. These types of organizations were chosen especially because of the greater numbers of female employees present within these organizations. This would consequently increase the possibility of a greater sample size and thus the probability of reported abuse within the sample. Examinations from these three different working sectors also allowed for further observations to be made into whether patterns might exist between these business sectors with regards to workplace support and value-rich work. Of the questionnaires distributed, a final sample of 106 usable questionnaires were obtained yielding a satisfactory response rate of approximately 33.13%.

The questionnaires were distributed and collected via internal mail, addressed to assistants in the human resource departments of the two business institutions and to the secretary of the school. Each questionnaire had an attached covering letter and set of instructions which outlined the basic rationale of the study and emphasized voluntary participation for all participants. In addition confidentiality and anonymity were ensured as subjects were not required to state their names anywhere on the questionnaire.

Such discretion was stressed as the questionnaire did involve very personal information about the respondent and various feelings about herself and her relationships with her partner and fellow workers. It was hoped that through employing such strategies that the reliability and internal validity of the responses would be augmented, as participants would be able to answer as honestly as possible without fear of having personal details uncovered. This would simultaneously reduce the effect of social desirability bias.

Feedback was also offered to all organizations and participants once results had been analyzed.

4.3. THE SAMPLE

The final sample was composed of 106 employed women from all levels within the three organizations, including white-collar administration workers, managers and teachers. As previously explained, the sample was drawn from three different working sectors. Such diversity in the type of organizations, as well as differences in the levels and types of work performed was thought favourable so that the assessment would yield an analysis of the level and type of abuse which might exist in the general working population.

Therefore it is important to recognize that the sample was not pretested in order to determine whether the individuals had been abused or not, but rather that the sample was composed of all women - those who had experienced extreme, moderate and no abuse. This sample was chosen according to the recommendation of a leading person in an organization concerned specifically with spouse abuse, as it was explained that women who are abused might feel less threatened in responding to such a questionnaire if the sample included all women. Such a sample also added a further advantage, namely that further indepth comparisons might also be

made as to how the coping resources and skills altered for women who were less exposed to abuse and those who encountered greater levels of abuse.

The sample comprised all race and age groups with various educational qualifications. Although the majority of the sample was white, the sample also included black, asian and 'coloured' participants who were combined into a new "non-white" category for comparative reasons.

There were women from all age groups ranging consistently between 22 and 60 years of age, with the mean age being 37,97. Thirteen individuals had less than a matric pass, 45 had received a matric, 39 had either degrees or diplomas and 9 had received post-graduate degrees. Eighty-two percent of the sample were mothers. Eight percent were abused either emotionally and or physically.

No restrictions were placed on who would be included in the sample, as it was felt that this would increase the generalisability of the findings. However, the exception that did exist in this regard was that all women were required to be married or in a steady relationship.

Table 1 provides further information concerning the frequency details of the biographical information.

TABLE 1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

VARIABLE	CATEGORIES	MEAN	SD
AGE	YOUNGEST 22	37.97	9.72
	OLDEST 60		
RACE	NON-WHITES 27	2.00	0.31
	WHITES 89		
EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION	LESS THAN	2.42	0.82
	MATRIC 13		
	MATRIC 45		
	DEGREE / DIPLOMA 39		
	POST DEGREE 3		
OCCUPATION	SECRETARY 47	1.87	1.20
	MANAGER 29		
	TEACHER 30		
NUMBER OF CHILDREN	NO CHILDREN 19	1.60	1.27
	1 CHILD 31		
	2 CHILDREN 33		
	3 CHILDREN 19		
	4 CHILDREN 4		
MARITAL STATUS	MARRIED 83	1.15	0.43
	LIVING WITH PARTNER		
	15		
	RELATIONSHIP 8		
LENGTH OF MARRIAGE	5 MONTHS -	3.55	1.27
	30 YEARS		

Further descriptive statistical analyses of the study variables added information concerning the sample. Frequency distributions of the total scores obtained for the sample illustrated that approximately 8% of participants were severely abused (that is, both physically and non-physically), 18% encountered moderate abuse, 50% reported very mild abuse (mainly non-physical abuse), whilst only 24% did not report experiencing abuse of any kind.

Overall the degree of work support perceived and value-rich work reported by the sample was high, with approximately 60% of the sample encountering very supportive work environments, and 54% of the sample being involved in jobs which met their expectations and needs.

4.3. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire used to measure the various study variables was divided into three sections. (This questionnaire has been included for reference in the Appendices). Section A asked the respondent about their biographical details; Section B consisted of five scales to measure the quantitative data; whilst Section C included seven open-ended questions to measure the qualitative data.

4.3.1. SECTION A : PERSONAL DETAILS

As mentioned, this part of the questionnaire consisted of 9 questions concerning the individual's personal information. This included questions about the age of the respondents; their race groups; whether they were married, living with their partner or in a steady relationship; their educational qualification; their occupations; their spouses' occupations; the length of their relationships; as well as the number and ages of the children in their families.

4.3.2. SECTION B : QUANTITATIVE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

4.3.2.1. Intrapersonal Coping Resources

4.3.2.1.1. Self-Esteem

Self-esteem was measured via the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory (CESI). Form C (the Adult or Adapted Short Form) was employed as opposed to Forms A and B, which are the long versions used in schools. Self-esteem is defined by Coopersmith (1974) as a set of attitudes and beliefs that a person brings with himself or herself when facing the world. It provides a mental set that prepares the person to respond according to perceptions of success, acceptance and personal strength.

The purpose of the original (Long Form) Self-Esteem Inventory was thus "to measure evaluative attitudes towards the self in social, academic, family and personal areas of experience" (Coopersmith, 1986, p1). Form C which consists of 25 items adapted from this original inventory has this goal, however the emphasis here is placed on work rather than academic performance as in Forms A and B.

Negative items (for example, 'I give in very easily') are marked "correct" if they are answered "No", while positive items (for example, 'I'm lots of fun to be with') are scored "correct" if they are answered "Yes". All "correctly" checked items receive a score of 1. "Incorrect" responses (that is, where negatively worded items receive a reply of "Yes" and positive items receive a reply of "No") are allocated a score of 0. A total self-esteem score is obtained by adding the individual scores. A low score (the lowest of which can be 0) indicates poor self-

esteem, whilst high scores (of which 25 can be the greatest score) illustrate high self-esteem.

It must be noted that the choices of "Yes" and "No" in response to the questions have been adapted from the original choices of "Like Me" and "Unlike Me". This was done in order to simplify the responses and the style of the questionnaire, especially for participants whose first language was not English.

Numerous studies have utilised the scale and reported satisfactory reliability and validity. Validity tests have also been performed in several studies (Kimball, 1972; Kokenes, 1974, 1978; Simon & Simon, 1975). These studies have reported construct, convergent and concurrent validities. Van Tuinen and Ramanaiah (1979) have also provided support for the convergent validity of the scale in terms of correlations with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale; as has Crandall (1973) who found convergent validity between the Coopersmith and Rosenberg Scale for Self-Esteem.

Bedeian, Teague and Zmud (1977) found support for the internal consistency of the adult form (Cronbach alphas of 0.74 and 0.71 respectively for male and female samples), as well as test-retest reliability coefficients of 0.80 for males and 0.82 for females. Van Tuinen and Ramanaiah (1979) also reported high internal consistency reliability, whilst a study by Forshaw (1991) exhibited satisfactory reliability of the scale in the South African context (with a Cronbach alpha of 0.7865).

4.3.2.1.2. Level of Depression

The Beck Depression Inventory (1961) was employed to assess the cognitive, affective, somatic and behavioral symptoms of depression of the sample. It is an inventory composed of 21 categories of symptoms and attitudes. Each category describes a specific behavioral manifestation of depression, including : -

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. mood | k. irritability |
| b. pessimism | l. social withdrawal |
| c. sense of failure | m. indecisiveness |
| d. lack of satisfaction | n. body image |
| e. guilty feeling | o. work inhibition |
| f. sense of punishment | p. sleep disturbance |
| g. self-hate | q. fatigue |
| h. self accusations | r. loss of appetite |
| i. self-destructive wishes | s. weight loss |
| j. crying spells | t. somatic preoccupation |
| | u. loss of libido. |

Each category consists of a graded series of 4 to 5 self-evaluative statements. The statements are ranked to reflect the range of severity of the symptom from neutral to maximal severity.

A 4-point rating scale with numerical values of 1 - 4

are assigned to each statement to indicate the degree of severity.

The BDI has been used extensively in research and has consistently proved to be reliable and valid (Alloy & Abramson, 1979; Benasi & Mahler, 1985). Beck et al (1961) when designing the scale reported inter-rater reliability and internal consistency (with a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of 0.93). Validation: tests via the Mann-Whitney U-test utilised in order to appraise the power of the depression inventory to discriminate between specific depth of depression categories proved significant.

4.3.2.2. Interpersonal Coping Resources

4.3.2.2.1. Work Social Support

Despite the confirmation of many studies into the importance of social support and satisfactory psychosocial work environments as sources of relief from occupational stress symptoms, little has been done to design social support instruments especially for work conditions.

One measure which has recently been presented and which has been used within this study is that constructed by Uden (1996). Her 15 - item scale is a measurement of different support functions at work including appraisal, belonging, emotional and instrumental support offered by supervisors and coworkers within the workplace, as well as two general items on the working atmosphere in which employees function. Questions described different aspects of a good working environment, group cohesion, quality of relationships between coworkers and support from supervisors and coworkers.

A 4-point category scale, scoring 1 - 4 was utilised to evaluate level of support with a high score indicating strong support and a low score indicating no support. However, as this is such

a new scale the only reports concerning the reliability and validity of the scale were those satisfactory scores forwarded by Unden herself (1996).

4.3.2.2.2. Value-Rich Work

The second source of interpersonal coping was value-rich work, and was assessed via Elizur's (1984) scale. This is a 21 item scale which can be divided into three categories, namely : -

- (1) instrumental sources such as pay, hours of work, security and working conditions,
- (2) affective sources such as the relationships with coworkers and supervisors,
- (3) cognitive sources viz status, achievement, responsibility, independence, meaningful work.

Although the original scale did consist of these three factors, the present study required that the scale be adapted. Due to the fact that the affective dimensions of work values were measuring the importance of the relationships between the respondent and her coworkers and supervisors, the three items measuring this dimension were thought to be redundant with the support scales. Thus these three items were eliminated, yielding eighteen items with which to measure instrumental and cognitive values of work, as coping resources.

A factor analysis of the scale confirmed these assumptions and highlighted that the 18 selected items fell under one significant factor. Subsequently, one composite score was computed for work values, and not for the two separate categories of cognitive and instrumental support.

The scale used in the study consisted of 18 items to which individuals were asked to rank the importance of each aspect according to a five-point Likert scale. The range of responses

extended from "very important" to "unimportant"; as well as indicating "yes" or "no" responses to whether such values were present within the individual's job or not, respectively. In so doing, the researcher was able to assess what values were important to the individuals, as well as whether such values were being met by the workforce. That is how value-laden did respondents perceive their work to be.

4.3.3. Spouse Abuse

Spouse abuse was measured, using Hudson and McIntosh's (1981) Index of Spouse Abuse or ISA. The ISA is a 30 item scale which was designed in order to evaluate the severity or magnitude of abuse that is inflicted upon a woman by her spouse or partner. Each of the ISA items represents some form of behaviour or partner interaction that is considered abusive, thus the scale has been reported to have excellent content validity.

The scale consists of two subscales, namely nineteen items which measure non-physical abuse, and eleven items which assess physical abuse. It then becomes necessary to compute two different scores for each respondent : an ISA-P score that represents the severity of physical abuse, and an ISA-NP score that represents the severity of non-physical abuse.

The ISA has a four-point Likert scoring system which ranges from "never" to "always" encountering the experiences reported in each statement. Individual scores are calculated for both ISA-P and ISA-NP scales, ranging from 0 to 100, where a low score indicates the relative absence of abuse and the higher scores represent the presence of a greater degree or amount of abuse.

Tests performed by Hudson and McIntosh (1981) illustrated excellent content, discriminant, construct and factorial validity. They also reported internal consistency for the ISA-P and ISA-NP with Cronbach alphas of 0.903 and 0.912 respectively. Further studies, for example that by Nkosi and Ortlepp (1993) confirmed the reliability and validity of this scale within the South African context, reporting a Cronbach alpha = 0.96.

Thus all scales to be employed within the present study were observed to be valid and reliable measures.

4.3.3. SECTION C : THE QUALITATIVE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The final section of the questionnaire consisted of seven open-ended questions which covered two areas of investigation. The first three questions covered one area and involved an examination of the accessibility and effectiveness of employee assistance and counselling programmes experienced by participants.

The first question merely asked whether the participant was aware or had access to an employee assistance programme. The second question asked for more detailed descriptions concerning the respondent's experience if the programme had been used; whilst the third asked the respondent to identify any further services they thought they would benefit from if offered by employers.

These questions aimed at detecting whether individuals were experiencing positive support from employee programmes, such as whether counsellors were helpful, offered adequate advice, met the expectations of their clients, etc. They were formulated on the basis of findings

outlined by Hamilton and Coates (1993) and Johnson (1985) who reported that generally counsellors were not helpful and were not effectively trained in dealing with issues such as abuse. These findings were supported by Straus (1979) who found that such negative support had an impact on the feelings of victimization which battered victims experienced.

The second set of four questions moved away from the effects which the business world may offer ~~then~~ employees in services, to the effects which the significant relationships in the individual's personal and business life would have on the individual.

More specifically, the first two questions concentrated on the individual's relationship with her spouse and how effective the individual viewed herself in performing her roles as spouse. Similarly, the following two questions explored the individual's relationship with her supervisor, as well as how effectively she observed herself in fulfilling her roles as employee.

The purpose of these four questions was to ascertain whether there was a link between the individual's intrapersonal coping resources in her personal life, her intrapersonal coping resources in her career, and her relationships in the relevant domains.

For example, would a woman who reported negative perceptions of her relationship with her spouse be more negative in how she perceives herself in performing her roles in that relationship, and subsequently would those negative perceptions spillover into how the individual would perceive herself as coping in the working sphere.

In contrast, would positive work experiences compensate for the negative personal perceptions which an individual may have about herself and her relationship with her spouse. Or alternatively, would negative experiences reinforce the aforementioned negative feelings that the woman has of herself and her relationship with her spouse.

These questions are based on the spillover and compensation hypotheses in the literature of the family-work interface. Here, for example negative experiences in one arena of one's life may spillover into the other area; whilst positive experiences may compensate for negative experiences in the other domain. Thus it was thought that low self-esteem observed in the individual's personal relationships may be obvious in her business or vice versa.

It must be emphasized that these qualitative questions were exploratory in nature, and devised by the researcher. They had not been used previously in any other study. Despite this such questioning was felt to be especially important as it was through this more qualitative approach that information could be obtained into the more 'human' factors affecting the individuals in these settings.

4.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Three main statistical techniques were utilised in order to analyze the sets of primary and secondary hypotheses, as well as additional moderating effects explored after support was obtained for the hypothesized relationships. These included Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, One Way Analyses of Variance, and subsequently, moderated multiple regressions; each of which will now be explained in turn.

4.4.1 ANALYSIS TECHNIQUE FOR THE PRIMARY HYPOTHESES

Only one main statistical method was utilised in order to assess the stated hypotheses, that was Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient 'r'. Correlations are quantitative descriptions of the existence of any linear relationship between two measured variables (Locke, 1995). It is important to note that whilst causation cannot be inferred from such a statistical measure, it is possible to ascertain the extent of the relationship between the variables. The range of 'r' is from a perfectly positive relationship ($r = +1.00$) whereby when the scores on one variable increase there are perfectly predictable scores for other variables; to a perfectly negative relationship ($r = -1.00$), whereby when an increase in scores of one variable are perfectly predictive of decreased scores in another.

4.4.2. ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES FOR THE SECONDARY HYPOTHESES

In order to analyze the secondary set of hypotheses, both Pearson's Product Moment Correlation and the ANOVA techniques were employed. The non-categorical information was measured using Pearson's Correlation; whilst the categorical information was analyzed via ANOVA's.

Through using the ANOVA technique the researcher is able to determine the probability that the means of three or more group scores deviate from one another (McCall, 1990). The F-statistic which emerges tests whether any differences exist between the means of two or more groups, or whether any relationship can be observed between membership to a particular group

and score on response variables. The F-statistic like the t-test is a test of significance and is therefore the multiplicative product of the size of the effect and the size of the study (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991).

4.4.3. ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

In addition to assessing the stated hypotheses, further calculations were performed in order to recognize whether certain variables would have a moderating effect on relationships discovered through the correlational and ANOVA analyses. Moderators refer to those variables which exercise an effect in the relationship between two other variables. This implies that the moderator acts either to reduce or increase the effect of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. In order to achieve this goal multiple moderated regressions were chosen.

Multiple moderated regressions are nonlinear regressions examined "for the purpose of achieving greater explanatory power of the criterion than is accomplished by linear regressions" (Ghiselli, Campbell & Zedeck, 1981, p478); that is, to improve prediction by taking into account certain characteristics that would distinguish one subgroup from another in the sample. Moderated regressions are concerned with the particular way these characteristics influence multiple correlations and the accompanying regression equations.

It is important to note that regression equations include a cross-product term between a predictor and a moderated variable. The moderator variable is not linearly correlated with the predictor and the criterion, yet it increases the multiple correlation beyond that obtained for only the predictor and the criterion. It is the moderator variables which increase prediction

because of the nonlinear, interactive effects of the predictor and the moderator (Ghiselli et al, 1981).

Through the employment of these two techniques, namely, Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and Multiple Moderated Regressions, various relationships were evaluated and explored. Further statistical methods, such as, one way analyses of variance and a factor analysis were also performed in order to examine further effects and aspects regarding the study variables and various biographical information ascertained.

4.5. CONTENT ANALYSIS

In addition to the statistical analyses of the quantitative data, a content analysis was executed in order to assess the information obtained from seven open-ended questions included at the end of the questionnaire. An examination of this qualitative data was thought necessary in order to determine whether any further insights may be gained into the relationships which existed in the participants' lives, as well as their roles within those relationships and how successfully these roles were performed.

Through exploring the content of the answers, further intricacies might be evaluated which may reflect, emphasize or contradict the data obtained via quantitative means. This method of analysis where two or more methods of data collection procedures are utilised within a single study is termed methodological triangulation (Leedy, 1989), and allows the study to benefit from the advantages of both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. If the two methodologies complement each other, the reliability, validity and thus the power of the information is increased; and if they contradict each other, new insights may be suggested.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

PART 1 - QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In order to explore whether the data obtained within this study would support or contradict the five stated hypotheses in the literature section, a combination of statistical tests were performed using the Statistica computer program, as well as a content analysis of the open-ended questions.

The following two sections outline and summarise the findings uncovered from these two sets of analyses. The first section will explore the quantitative statistical analyses of the data. After commenting on the descriptive background of the data set, findings associated with the eight primary hypotheses and the relevant data associated with these hypotheses will be considered in turn. After this findings relating to the secondary set of hypotheses will be covered, before examining the additional analyses of the moderator effects.

5.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE DATA SET

The sample was measured on five main study variables, namely, self-esteem, level of depression, severity of abuse, work support and value-rich work. However, before the

analyses could be performed provisions needed to be made in examining the relationships between these variables.

Initially, frequency distributions were examined for the entire data set, in order to ensure that no irregularities existed, that is that no errors had been made whilst entering the values. Mean scores and standard deviations were also computed for the five scales, in order to gain insight into the average comparative scores obtained by the sample on each study variable; as well as the diversity in the ranges of the scores they obtained respectively.

In addition, reliability scores were then calculated for all five scales; as were item analyses in order to highlight any items within the scales that would require reverse scoring. The results from all these tests are summarised in TABLE 2. All scales illustrated above satisfactory internal consistency scores, indicating that they were in fact reliable measures of the study constructs in the South African context.

TABLE 2 - DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE FIVE SCALES

VARIABLE	MEAN	SD	CRONBACH ALPHA
SELF ESTEEM	43.55	4.18	0.778
DEPRESSION	29.95	6.55	0.810
WORK SUPPORT	41.36	8.78	0.854
VALUE RICH WORK	17.31	3.33	0.880
OVERALL ABUSE	38.64	12.22	0.950
NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE	25.73	8.50	0.930
PHYSICAL ABUSE	12.92	4.27	0.914

5.3.1. TEST FOR MULTICOLLINEARITY

To test whether multicollinearity existed between the study variables, additional correlational analyses using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were performed. These correlations were compared to the accepted index of multicollinearity of 0.80 correlation, as proposed by Lewis-Beck (1980).

Significant relationships amongst the variables did emerge, showing a degree of inter-relatedness, however no relationships between the main study variables yielded correlations within the 0.80 - 1.00 range. Therefore the five main variables were observed as independent. The only variables which did illustrate a high degree of inter-relatedness was the total abuse scale and its two sub-components of physical and non-physical abuse. However such inter-relatedness was unexpected, as both subscales were measuring abuse.

5.3.2. TEST FOR LINEARITY

One of the assumptions of Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient procedure, as emphasized by Ghiselli, Campbell and Zedeck (1981) is that the correlations are indicative of the strength of linear relationships. Confirmation of this assumption was clarified through the use of scatter diagrams drawn from the regressions of the dependent variable on the independent variable.

After these preparatory steps were taken, analyses of both primary and secondary sets of hypotheses were executed; and the following results obtained.

5.4. FINDINGS FOR THE PRIMARY HYPOTHESES

The main technique employed to measure the various research questions and the various relationships which existed between the study variables, was Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. Table 3 provides a summarised correlation matrix of all those relationships under investigation in the primary set of hypotheses.

TABLE 3 - CORRELATION MATRIX ILLUSTRATION: PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR ALL STUDY VARIABLES

	SEST	DEPR	WSUP	VALU	ABUS	NPAB	PAB
SEST	1.00						
DEPR	-0.58*	1.00					
WSUP	0.29*	-0.22*	1.00				
VALU	0.17	-0.14	0.64*	1.00			
ABUS	-0.31*	0.33*	-0.32*	0.17	1.00		
NPAB	0.39*	0.35*	-0.37*	0.20*	0.98*	1.00	
PAB	-0.10	0.24*	-0.18	0.10	0.91*	0.81*	1.00

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

5.4.1. ANALYSIS FOR HYPOTHESIS 1

The first hypothesis was divided into two parts. The first regarded the degree of the relationship which existed between the severity of abuse and self-esteem; whilst the second half

of the hypothesis examined the strength of the relationship which existed between the severity of abuse and level of depression experienced by respondents.

HYPOTHESIS 1

(A) Severity of abuse will be negatively related to self-esteem.

(B) Severity of abuse will be positively related to depression.

The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient investigating the relationship between self-esteem and total abuse illustrated a significantly negative relationship between these two variables (where $r = -0.31^*$). (Table 3 provides a correlation matrix of all study variables).

Similarly for the relationship between the severity of abuse and level of depression, a significantly positive relationship between the two variables emerged ($r = 0.33^*$).

Further studies into the relationships between severity of abuse and the intrapersonal coping resources of these women indicated that the relationships between non-physical abuse and both self-esteem and depression were particularly significant ($r = -0.39$ and $r = 0.35$ respectively). Furthermore a significantly positive relationship was also found to exist between physical abuse and depression ($r = 0.24$). However, this relationship was not as strong as with non-physical abuse; whilst the relationship between physical abuse and self-esteem was not significant at all.

These findings would suggest that perhaps it is not only the severity of abuse which plays a factor in the relationship with self-esteem and depression, but that the type of abuse being experienced may also have an influence. Thus support was gained for hypothesis 1.

5.4.2. ANALYSIS FOR HYPOTHESIS 2

Hypothesis 2 investigated the relationships between the intrapersonal coping resources and the interpersonal coping resources of the participants, that is, whether the level of self-esteem would increase when positive support increased, and whether levels of depression would decrease as positive support increased. In addition this set of hypotheses also investigated the relationship between positive work support and severity of abuse.

HYPOTHESIS 2

- (A) Positive work support will be positively related to self-esteem.
- (B) Positive work support will be negatively related to depression.
- (C) Positive work support will be negatively related with severity of abuse.

As shown in Table 3 - the results reported significant evidence for the stated hypotheses. Pearson's correlations illustrated that positive work support was significantly related with self-esteem in a positive direction ($r = 0.29$). This would imply that as support was greater so too was the self-esteem of the respondents.

Similarly as stated the total depression experienced was negatively related with positive support ($r = -0.22$), implying that as support increased so the severity of depression was also more likely to decrease.

Section C of this set of hypotheses was also supported, indicating significant negative relationships between the severity of abuse and positive work support. This relationship once

again indicates that as work support increases so the severity of abuse as perceived by the respondents decreased. The relationships with overall abuse and non-physical abuse were especially significant in this regard, and although physical abuse also indicated a negative relationship with work social support, this relationship was not as strong.

Thus these results again indicate support for the stated hypotheses, illustrating that there are significant relationships which do exist between intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources and the severity of abuse encountered by women,

5.4.3. ANALYSIS FOR HYPOTHESIS 3

The third set of hypotheses also investigated the relationship between intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources, and severity of abuse. However, the interpersonal coping resource being examined here, was value-rich work.

HYPOTHESIS 3

- (A) Value-rich work will be positively related to self-esteem.
- (B) Value-rich work will be negatively related to depression.
- (C) Value-rich work will be negatively related to severity of abuse.

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients illustrated here that the relationships between value-rich work and self-esteem was positive; and that the relationship between value-rich work and depression was negative. However, these correlations were not found to be significant and thus the Hypotheses 3 A and B were not supported.

The relationship between value-rich work and severity of abuse on the other hand, indicated that abuse was significantly related to non-physical abuse. However, in contrast to the expected negative relationship which was thought would exist, all relationships between value-rich work, overall abuse, non-physical abuse and physical abuse emerged as positive. Thus Hypothesis 3 C was rejected.

5.5. ANALYSES OF SECONDARY HYPOTHESES WITH BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

After the completion of the analyses for the primary hypotheses, calculations were implemented in order to assess whether any personal characteristics of the participants and their lives were particularly influential in predicting or explaining the relationships between the five study variables; or whether a particular demographic variable itself illustrated a relationship with any of the study variables.

The biographical variables included for analysis were age, race, educational qualification, type of occupation, length of the marital relationship, the marital status of the individual and the number of children present within her family.

5.5.1. CORRELATIONAL ANALYSES OF NON-CATEGORICAL DATA

There were four biographical variables which were analyzed under the secondary set of hypotheses and which fell under the label of non-categorical information. These included age, educational qualification, length of marriage and number of children.

Via Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ('r'), analyses were executed to examine the relationship between these non-categorical variables, the five main study variables and the two sub-components of physical and non-physical abuse. (Table 4 illustrates a summary of the results relevant to the secondary set of hypotheses with non-categorical variables).

TABLE 4 - PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS OF A CATEGORICAL BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION AND THE STUDY VARIABLES

	AGE	EDUCATION	LENGTH OF MARRIAGE	NUMBER OF CHILDREN
SELF-ESTEEM	-0.10	-0.06	-0.13	-0.19
DEPRESSION	-0.05	0.12	-0.02	0.00
WORK SUPPORT	-0.13	0.05	-0.10	-0.25*
VALUE RICH WORK	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.12
OVERALL ABUSE	-0.05	-0.26*	0.05	0.21*
NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE	0.01	-0.22*	0.10	0.23*
PHYSICALL ABUSE	-0.16	-0.30*	-0.06	0.13

* SIGIFICANT AT P < 0.05

HYPOTHESIS 5 - AGE WILL BE NEGATIVELY RELATED TO SEVERITY OF ABUSE.

HYPOTHESIS 6 - EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION WILL BE NEGATIVELY RELATED TO ABUSE.

HYPOTHESIS 7 - NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN THE FAMILY WILL BE NEGATIVELY RELATED WITH ABUSE.

In addition to the stated hypotheses an additional non-categorical variable was included in the questionnaire and analyzed in the present study, namely the length of the marital relationship. This variable was not previously considered in the hypotheses as no prior knowledge of the effect of such a variable was found, nevertheless correlations were computed for this variable.

From observing the Pearson's correlations of the relationships specified in hypotheses 5, 6, and 7, as well as of the relationship between length of the relationship and severity of abuse, it becomes evident that only partial evidence was obtained for the hypotheses involving the non-categorical variables.

On the variables of age and length of marriage, no significant relationships were noted. Thus Hypothesis 5 was rejected. In contrast, the variables of educational qualification and number of children did exhibit various significant relationships with the abuse variables.

Educational levels showed particularly high correlations with the abuse variables, yielding Pearson's correlations of $r = -0.22$, $r = -0.30$, and $r = 0.26$ for non-physical abuse, physical abuse, and total abuse, respectively. It is important to note that all three relationships here, that is - between educational level and total abuse; between educational qualification and non-physical abuse; and between educational level and physical abuse were negatively related. This would indicate that as the individual's education qualifications increased, so it was found that the severity of both physical and non-physical abuse decreased.

Similarly, significant relationships were found to exist between the number of children in the family and the severity of non-physical and total abuse experienced. However, contrary to the relationships with level of education, here, the relationships were significantly positive. This

would imply that as the number of children in the family increased, so too did the level of non-physical abuse and total abuse experienced by respondents.

Thus support was found for hypotheses 6 and 7.

It must be noted that the number of children in the family also exhibited a significantly negative relationship with the amount of work support perceived by the respondent. This would indicate that the more children the individual had, the less the level of support the individual perceived to receive from supervisors and coworkers.

5.3.2. ANALYSIS OF CATEGORICAL DATA

In contrast to the correlational analyses of the non-categorical information, a series of ANOVA's were utilised to determine whether the biographical information described in terms of certain categories, such as occupational group, marital status and race, would illustrate a relationship or have an effect on the various study variable; as outlined in the hypotheses.

Race was the first categorical variable to be examined via ANOVA techniques in order to observe whether evidence could be obtained for Hypothesis 8.

**HYPOTHESIS 8 - RACE WILL HAVE AN EFFECT ON THE SEVERITY OF ABUSE
EXPERIENCED BY WOMEN**

TABLE 5 - ONE WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE COMPARING THE EFFECT OF RACE GROUPS ON THE STUDY VAIABLES

	SS	MS	DF	F	P
SELF ESTEEM	26.83	8.94	3	0.504	0.680
DEPRESSOIN	57.69	19.23	3	0.427	0.734
WORK SUPPORT	449.05	149.69	3	1.996	0.119
VALUE RICH WORK	78.55	26.18	3	2.454	0.067
OVERALL ABUSE	3103.61	1034.54	3	8.388*	0.000*
NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE	99.33	309.78	3	4.752*	0.004*
PHYSICALL ABUSE	696.05	232.02	3	19.427*	0.000*

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

The results observed in Table 5 indicate that highly significant differences between the mean scores of the race groups did exist. This implies that membership to a particular race group may have an effect on the severity of abuse encountered by women.

To gain further insight into where the differences lay between the groups, Scheffe tests were utilised. The Scheffe test which is a very powerful, post comparative test, protects against type 1 errors.

TABLE 6 - SCHEFFE TESTS COMPARING THE RACE GROUPS ON THE SEVERITY OF OVERALL ABUSE, NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE AND PHYSICAL ABUSE

VARIABLE	GROUP 1	GROUP 2
	NON-WHITES	WHITES
(A) OVERALL ABUSE		
MEANS	57.750	37.414
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.007*
GROUP 2 : 2	0.007*	-
(B) NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE		
MEANS	36.750	24.990
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.049*
GROUP 2 : 2	0.049*	-
(C) PHYSICAL ABUSE		
MEANS	21.000	12.424
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.001**
GROUP 2 : 2	0.001**	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.050

** SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.001

From the overall abuse scores, the non-white members of the population were found to have a significantly greater mean score than those obtained by white participants. This would imply that those non-white respondents reported significantly greater levels of abuse than their white counterparts.

When divided into the two separate components of physical and non-physical abuse, the mean scores of physical abuse were once again greatest for the non-white victims, indicating a significantly higher degree of physical abuse than the white females in the group.

Similarly, Scheffe tests, in the category of non-physical abuse, illustrated that there were highly significant differences in the mean scores of the race groups. Once again the non-white members of the sample scored significantly greater than the white participants of the sample. This would mean that in both cases of physical and non-physical abuse, non-white participants reported greater severity of abuse than the white participants.

Further ANOVA's were also implemented with race in an attempt to detect whether any other significant differences existed between these groups on any of the other four study variables of self-esteem, depression, work support and value-rich work. However, no significant results were found.

Although no further hypotheses existed around the effects of certain biological variables in relation to abuse or any of the other study variables, the more general exploratory research questions concerning the possible influence of categorical variables on the study variables, also needed to be considered. These included the variables of occupational type and marital status.

Calculations evaluating differences in the total scores of the variables according to occupational type, that is, whether individuals were administration workers, managers or teacher showed significant results in four of the seven tests performed.

TABLE 7 - ONE-WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE OF OCCUPATIONAL TYPE AND THE STUDY VARIABLES

VARIABLE	SS	MS	DF	F	P
SELF-ESTEEM	185.76	61.97	3	3.83*	0.012*
DEPRESSION	372.44	124.15	3	2.97*	0.036*
WORK SUPPORT	1355.96	451.99	-	6.84**	0.000**
VALUE-RICH WORK	382.22	127.41	3	7.69**	0.000**
OVERALL ABUSE	1002.04	334.01	3	2.32	0.080
NON-PHYSICAL ABUSE	411.14	137.05	3	1.950	0.126
PHYSICAL ABUSE	133.04	44.35	3	2.540	0.061

* SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.050

** SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.001

Significant differences were observed between the occupational types on both measures of the intrapersonal coping resources of self-esteem and depression, and the interpersonal coping resources of work support and value-rich work. Significant reports were obvious in the self-esteem and the levels of depression experienced, with reported p-levels of 0.0120 and 0.0356, respectively. This indicated that whether individuals held the job of an administration worker, manager or provided a service related job such as a teacher, significantly altered the level of self-esteem and depression experienced by the women.

Similarly, even more highly significant differences were detected between the various occupational groups on issues of work support and work values , (where $p < 0.0003$ and $p < 0.000$, respectively).

In order to observe where the differences lay amongst the groups in determining the significant differences in the scores obtained, these results were once again placed under scrutiny by using the Scheffe test.

TABLE 8 - A SCHEFFE TEST COMPARING OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS ON SELF ESTEEM

SELF ESTEEM	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 3
	ADMIN	MANAGERS	TEACHERS
MEAN	43.596	44.862	40.824
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.595	0.108
GROUP 2 : 2	0.595	-	0.016*
GROUP 3 : 3	0.108	0.016*	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

From a data analysis of the self-esteem variable according to occupational type, it was found that the greatest difference in scores existed between those individuals who were teachers and those employees who were in managerial positions within organizations. When observing the means of these groups, it became evident that the mean scores of the teachers were significantly lower than those of managers; implying that they would have a lower self-esteem. The Scheffe test on the depression scores did not show any significant differences between the groups. Thus LSD tests, which are less conservative post-hoc tests, were adopted to assess the differences.

TEST 9 - LSD TEST COMPARING OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS ON LEVEL OF DEPRESSION

DEPRESSION	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 3
	ADMIN	MANAGERS	TEACHERS
MEANS	30.842	27.103	32.176
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.013*	0.457
GROUP 2 : 2	0.013*	-	0.012*
GROUP 3 : 3	0.457	0.012*	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

Here, one can observe that the mean scores of employees in managerial positions were significantly lower than the mean scores of administrative workers and teachers. As a low score would indicate lower levels of depression, this test shows that managers reported significantly lower levels of depression than their secretaries who in turn reported significantly lower levels of depression than the teachers in the sample.

Scheffe analyses into the scores of work support also showed significant differences between the mean scores of managers and administration workers, with scores reported being much greater for managers than for office workers. This again implies that managers may receive greater levels of work support than their white-collar counterparts.

TABLE 10 - SCHEFFE TEST COMPARING OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS ON LEVEL OF WORK SUPPORT

WORK SUPPORT	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 3
	ADMIN	MANAGERS	TEACHERS
MEANS	41.632	47.172	42.294
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.050*	0.994
GROUP 2 : 2	0.050*	-	0.326
GROUP 3 : 3	0.994	0.326	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

Further post-hoc comparisons were also implemented to detect any differences which may exist between the occupational groups according to the values placed on the job and whether those values are attained or not. Once again, although the ANOVA test illustrated that significant differences did exist between the groups, the Scheffe test did not confirm such significance. Thus an LSD test was performed. Again, significant differences were reported between the managers and teachers - with managers reporting higher degrees of value-rich work than teachers.

TABLE 11 - LSD TEST COMPARING OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS ON VALUE-RICH WORK

VALUE RICH WORK	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 3
	ADMIN	MANAGERS	TEACHERS
MEANS	16.000	18.588	17.070
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.003*	0.094
GROUP 2 : 2	0.003*	-	0.050
GROUP 3 : 3	0.94	0.050	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

TABLE 12 - ONE WAY ANALYSES OF VARIANCE TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF MARITAL STATUS ON THE STUDY VARIABLES

VARIABLE	SS	MS	DF	F	P
SELF-ESTEEM	75.407	37.704	2	1.205	0.115
DEPRESSION	271.616	135.808	2	3.201*	0.045*
WORK SUPPORT	189.612	94.806	2	1.234	0.295
VALUE-RICH WORK	4.132	2.070	2	0.183	0.833
OVERALL ABUSE	220.405	110.204	2	0.734	0.483
NON-PHYSICAL	115.168	57.584	2	0.795	0.455
PHYSICAL	24.024	12.012	2	0.655	0.522

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

The next variable under analysis was marital status, that is the influence of whether the respondent was married, living with her partner or merely in a steady relationship but not living together. ANOVA's here exhibited significant differences only for the scores on depression ($p < 0.045$). Significance here indicates that the only coping resource which may be affected by whether or not the participants were married or in a steady relationship, was depression.

Post-hoc comparisons via Scheffe tests illustrated a highly significant difference between the mean scores of those who were married and those merely in a steady relationship, with the married individuals reporting a much lower score of depression. Thus it can be deduced that

married individuals reported exceedingly less susceptibility to depression than those individuals who were in a steady relationship, but still living on their own.

TABLE 13 - SCHEFFE TEST COMPARING THE LEVELS OF DEPRESSION OF PARTICIPANTS WITH DIFFERENT MARITAL STATUS

DEPRESSION	GROUP 1	GROUP 2	GROUP 3
	MARRIED	LIVING TOGETHER	RELATIONSHIP
MEANS	29.667	29.900	39.333
GROUP 1 : 1	-	0.994	0.045*
GROUP 2 : 2	0.994	-	0.094
GROUP 3 : 3	0.045*	0.094	-

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

5.4. FURTHER FINDINGS

As the majority of the results appeared significant, it was thought that greater insight could be gained into the relationships by using additional statistical analyses. Thus multiple moderated regressions were computed to observe whether any certain variables were acting as moderators in the relationships between the abuse variables and the four coping resources of self-esteem, depression, work support and value-rich work. Relationships of the effects of biographical information as moderators were also observed.

5.4.1. Multiple Moderated Regression

Before these partial correlations could be assessed, it was necessary to calculate new product variables which were formed by multiplying the tested moderating variable and the independent variable in each equation. The first set of regression analyses involved the impact of moderators on the relationship between abuse and the depression experienced by the respondents, whilst the second set of analyses observed the impact of moderators on the relationship between abuse and self-esteem.

WHEN DEPRESSION WAS THE DV

The first set of regressions examined whether the level of self-esteem was a moderating variable in the relationship between depression and abuse, non-physical abuse and physical abuse respectively.

**TABLE 14 - MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR SELF-ESTEEM
AS A MODERATOR IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TH ABUSE VARIABLES AND
DEPRESSION**

DV	P-LEVEL	R	F
DEPRESSION		0.386	21.350
IV's			
SELF ESTEEM	0.000*		
OVERALL ABUSE	0.106		
ABUSE * SEST	0.070		
DV			
DEPRESSION		0.387	20.856
IV's			
SELF ESTEEM	0.000*		
NON PHYSICALL	0.093		
NP * SEST	0.062		
DV			
DEPRESSION		0.387	21.450
IV's			
SELF ESTEEM	0.002*		
PHYSICAL	0.225		
P * SEST	0.165		

* SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.050

The results obtained as illustrated in Table 14, indicated that the moderating variable of self-esteem appeared significant in all three cases, but that the product variables were not significant. This would imply that perhaps self-esteem is not a moderator in the relationships between the levels of abuse and the levels of depression experienced, but more likely that self-esteem is a main effect in the relationship.

The other study variables of value-rich work and work support were also investigated as moderators in the relationship between abuse and depression. However, neither proved significant, indicating that neither interpersonal coping resource had an effect in the relationship between the severity of abuse encountered and the consequential depression which resulted.

Similarly, in tests regarding the biographical variables of education, number of children, and length of marriage as moderating variables in this relationship, no significance was exhibited.

It must be noted that even though these variables showed absolutely no significance, it does not conclusively mean that these variables are not moderators but rather that the degree of multicollinearity between the variables is so great that the moderating effect is camouflaged.

Further regressions however were also computed with the marital status variable as a moderator in this relationship. This test proved significant, indicating that the marital status of the individuals was found to have an effect in the relationship between the severity of the total abuse experienced, as well as the physical abuse experienced, and the level of depression felt by the respondents.

As shown in the ANOVA analyses, whether one is married, living with a partner or in a steady relationship but living alone, would have a definite impact on the negative feelings of depression that result from abuse. In this case, marital status works as a buffering effect, that is it works to reduce the levels of depression which result from abuse.

WHEN SELF-ESTEEM IS THE DV

Similar to depression, partial correlations were calculated with the study variables and selected biographical variables with self-esteem as the DV. Results can be found in Table 15.

Once again, both value-rich work and work support did not illustrate any significant moderating effects in the relationships between self-esteem and the total abuse and physical abuse reported by the participants. The exception lay with the effect of work values in the relationship which existed between non-physical abuse and self-esteem. Here, work values displayed a significant moderating effect, indicating that work values may act as a buffer in reducing the negative effects of non-physical abuse to the self-esteem of the respondents.

Following failure to identify any further possible moderating effects of the various coping resources on other study variables, examinations were performed to investigate whether any biographical variables would display moderating effects on the relationships between the various types of abuse and the intrapersonal coping resource of self-esteem in participants. The two variables of the length of marriage and educational qualification were found to be significant.

TABLE 15 - MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION SUMMARY FOR THE MODERATING EFFECT OF WORK SOCIAL SUPPORT IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ABUSE VARIABLES AND SELF ESTEEM

DV	P-LEVEL	R	F
SELF ESTEEM		0.120	4.606
IV's			
VALUE RICH WORK	0.601		
TOTAL ABUSE	0.822		
ABUSE*VALUES	0.434		
DV			
SELF ESTL		0.213	9.183
IV's			
VALUE RICH WORK	0.020*		
NON PHYSICAL	0.039*		
NO * VALUES	0.011*		
DV			
SELF ESTEEM		0.037	1.316
IV's			
VALUE RICH WORK	0.283		
PHYSICAL	0.396		
P*VALUES	0.466		

* SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.050

TABLE 16 - MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION SUMMARY OF LENGTH OF MARRIAGE OF THE MODERATOR IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE ABUSE VARIABLES AND SELF-ESTEEM

DV	P-LEVEL	R	F
SELF ESTEEM		0.194	8.185
IV's			
LENGTH OF MARRIAGE	0.008*		
TOTAL ABUSE	0.077		
ABUSE*LENGTH	0.001*		
DV			
SELF ESTEEM		0.228	10.019
IV's			
LENGTH OF MARRIAGE	0.017*		
NON PHYSICAL	0.194		
MP*LENGTH	0.004*		
DV			
SELF ESTEEM		0.081	3.006
IV's			
LENGTH OF MARRIAGE	0.059		
PHYSICAL	0.078		
P*LENGTH	0.018*		

* SIGNIFICANT AT $P < 0.050$

Here, length of marriage and educational qualification were both found to be significant moderators in the relationship between the severity of total abuse and non-physical abuse and the level of self-esteem experienced by participants. This indicates that individuals who have

higher educational qualifications or who have been in the marriage for a longer period of time, exhibit a higher tendency to cope with the detrimental effects caused to the self-esteem of emotionally abused victims. Higher educational qualifications also exhibited a buffering effect on the negative effects of overall abuse on the self-esteem of the battered participants.

In addition to the relationships which existed between the severity and type of abuse and the study variables, it was thought that perhaps the interpersonal variables of value-rich work and work support might have moderating effects for those women who are not abused but still experience depression and low self-esteem. Thus regressions were calculated where work support and value-rich work were the moderating variables in the relationships between self-esteem and depression. However, no significant results were detected.

TABLE 17 - MODERATED MULTIPLE REGRESSION SUMMARY OF EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AS A MODERATOR IN THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE ABUSE VARIABLES AND SELF ESTEEM

DV	P-LEVEL	R	F
SELF ESTEEM		0.202	8.582
IV's			
EDUCATION	0.011*		
TOTAL ABUSE	0.190		
ABUSE*EDUC	0.002*		
DV			
SELF ESTEEM		0.254	11.564
IV's			
EDUCATION	0.014*		
NON PHYSICAL	0.291		
NP*EDUCATION	0.002*		
DV			
SELF ESTEEM		0.035	1.223
IV's			
EDUCATION	0.389		
PHYSICAL	0.648		
P*EDUCATION	0.231		

* SIGNIFICANT AT P < 0.050

5.5. SUMMARY OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

Much significant evidence was observed in the reported results which supported the stated hypotheses. The analyses which sought to confirm the relationship between the severity of abuse and the intrapersonal coping resources of self-esteem and depression yielded results which were highly significant.

Similarly, strong relationships were found to exist between the interpersonal coping resources of work support and the intrapersonal coping resources, indicating that positive work support does have an effect on the self-esteem and depression experienced by employees.

On the other hand, value-rich work did not appear to have significant relationships with either the self-esteem or the levels of depression perceived by the participants. However, additional investigations of value-rich work as a moderator in the relationship between abuse and the level of self-esteem of the individual was found to be significant, indicating after all that value-rich work may act as a buffering resource for the negative effects of emotional abuse on the esteem of victims.

Analyses of the influences of certain biographical data on the study variables also indicated some interesting and significant results. Those variables which illustrated particularly strong relationships with the severity of abuse, and thus could be possible risk factors, included educational qualification, the number of children within the family, and the racial groups of the respondents.

Specific biographical characteristics were also found to exhibit moderating effects on the relationships between abuse and the self-esteem and depression encountered by participants. Once again, educational qualification emerged as a significant moderator, as did the marital status and length of marriage variables.

Further details of these findings and the implications of these results for future research will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS - CONTINUED

PART 2 - QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

5.7. INTRODUCTION

As outlined in the methodological chapter of this study, a mixed quantitative - qualitative research design was employed in order to gain evidence in support for more directive research questions, as well as deeper insight into the more exploratory aspects of the study. In performing such complementary analyses it was thought that the reliability and validity of the results would be raised, and the threat of social desirability bias would be decreased, (a threat to the internal validity which would be obvious considering the sensitivity and very personal aspect of the topic). The following section is a brief summary of the information obtained from the qualitative analyses performed.

5.8. FINDINGS

Of the 106 participants who responded to the quantitative section of the questionnaire, only 93 completed the open-ended questions in full. Thus the other 13 questionnaires were discarded.

5.8.1. Questions Regarding Employee Assistance Programmes

Two initial questions were asked of the participants which required merely a 'Yes' or 'No' reply. These questions aimed at detecting what percentage of the sample had access to employee assistance or counselling programmes (EAPs), and if so whether their experience had been 'Positive', 'Negative' or had 'Made no difference'.

An analysis of this data, illustrated that 62% of the new sample had access to EAPs. However, generally it was felt that these services did not make a positive impact on the individual, (in fact only four individuals reported positive experiences). Instead most respondents stated that such programmes made no difference.

Continuing with a more thorough investigation into the actual experience of the individuals in the programme and their perceptions of how helpful the consultants were in dealing with the presented problem, as well as the adequacy of their advice and support, the responses were found to illustrate mixed, more negative feelings. The majority of employees (approximately 82%) stated that in fact they did not utilise these programmes, although a couple of comments were passed that individuals felt reassured that such services were available if required. Respondents suggested that the lack of involvement in such programmes was due to the fact that such services were found to be a "waste of time" as often they did not cater to the needs of the individual.

Once again, those who had engaged in EAP services presented mixed opinions about the experience. Many felt that they had approached the programme seeking help, but that the

consultants were not very helpful; were helpful as long as the employee did not occupy too much of their time; or listened but never heard what the individual was trying to communicate.

In a more positive comparison, other respondents stated that the counsellors had been very co-operative, had listened to the problem and offered important advice. Three specific cases were accounted whereby :

CASE 1 - The individual's sister had died in a fatal car accident and her two sons were seriously injured in hospital. The participant described that she received tremendous support and compassion, as time was given to visit her nephews when required.

CASE 2 - A chauvinistic male subordinate was continuously harassing the employee and her work. The assistance programme offered her beneficial advice on how to deal with the situation.

CASE 3 - Sound advice and trauma counselling from counsellors was received after a hijacking experience.

Other individuals who reported positive feedback from EAP's, did not approach the programme over personal matters but found these services most effective when seeking advice or training concerning work-related issues.

Following the content analysis comparative mean scores were calculated on the variables of self-esteem and depression for the two groups -

- (a) according to whether or not individuals had presented for counselling and
- (b) according to whether they had had positive or negative experiences with EAP's.

This was done in order to test hypothesis 4.

HYPOTHESIS 4 - WOMEN WHO HAVE ACCESS TO ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT SUPPORT PROGRAMMES AND WHICH OFFER ADEQUATE INFORMATION AND SUPPORT, WILL ILLUSTRATE HIGHER LEVELS OF SELF-ESTEEM AND LOWER LEVELS OF DEPRESSION.

TABLE 18 - MEAN SCORES OF SELF ESTEEM AND LEVEL OF DEPRESSION FOR RESPONDENTS REPORTING INVOLVEMENTS AND EXPERIENCES WITH EAPS

	SELF ESTEEM	DEPRESSION
EAP INVOLVEMENT	19.75	28.98
NO INVOLVEMENT	19.20	29.42
POSITIVE	19.23	29.13
NEGATIVE	18.25	29.48

From the above comparative scores, no significant differences were observed between the self-esteem and levels of depression of those who had been involved in EAP programmes and those who had not been involved. Similarly, positive or negative encounters within the EAPs was found to have no impact on the ; levels of self-esteem and depression reported by respondents.

Thus no evidence was obtained for hypothesis 4.

5.2.2.2. Questions Regarding Relationships with Partners and supervisors

The following section of four questions asked the individual about her relationships with her spouse and her supervisor, as well as how effectively she perceived herself in performing her roles as a spouse and an employee. The purpose of these investigations, as previously stated, was to detect any spillover or compensatory effects which might exist in the respondents personal life, which may affect her coping capacity in her career.

In addition, a more exploratory idea was aim was to detect whether the power balance within the individual's relationship with her supervisor and her effectiveness in that relationship was reflective of her relationship with her spouse and the effectiveness with which she performs her roles in the corresponding domain.

Such reflections may also indicate a spillover effect of positive or negative feelings which arise from such relationships and which consequently can alter the individual's perceptions of herself and her success in both home and work domains.

The majority of participants described their relationships with their partners as being "excellent", "very good, understanding, rewarding", "sole mates", "happy", "best friends, loyal"; and as being satisfactorily effective in performing roles as a spouse. In conjunction with these positive perceptions regarding their spousal relationship, similar perceptions were reported over their work-supervisor relationships.

The positive reflections in both domains were not surprising as such happy perceptions would be normal for most healthy individuals. Thus no new insights were gained here.

It was however, interesting to note that certain aspects in a relationship appear to be important to those individuals in all types of relationships. For example, a couple of respondents commented that they had good, open communication and understanding with their spouse, and simultaneously described their relationship with their supervisor as being open, and easy to speak to. However, once again, no further insights were gained into the research questions from these individuals as they all appeared to report self-esteem and depression measures similar to those reflected by their qualitative responses. However, there were a few respondents who did report complications in their 'marital' relationships.

Here, contradictory accounts were forwarded regarding the individual's relationships. One respondent described her relationship with her spouse as being "rocky. He is selfish and inconsiderate, and wants to live his own life the way he always has. But expects me at the same time to look after him, our children and his friends". In comparison, to this authoritarian type of relationship which existed between this woman and her husband, she described her relationship with her supervisor as being supportive and her boss as always being there to speak to and offer advice. In this case, the individual's employee role as a compensatory effect for the careless manner with which her husband treats her could be a reasonable explanation.

From the responses of other participants it was found that the individuals needs were not being met in either home or work sphere, and manifested in poor scores on the self-esteem scale and high scores on the depression scale.

For example, a seemingly-demanding woman who scored average on the self-esteem scale but who reported high levels of depression, described how within her spousal relationship she was very effective at balancing the roles of wife, mother, career woman and housekeeper, but that

she also had to continuously play a supportive role for her husband who had come from a troubled home and depended completely on her. As a result, her marriage was not satisfying. Similarly, her work relationship did not offer her the support or the satisfaction she required as she could not respect her supervisor. The reason she gave for this dissatisfaction was that he was "weak".

Other respondents illustrated feelings of subordination in both sets of relationships, exhibiting general low levels of self-esteem. For example, in response to questions of how effective she was in her role as a spouse, one respondent stated that she did her best and that she was lucky as her husband was kind and considerate and tolerated her weaknesses. Similarly, in her employee role the individual subordinated herself as she stated how grateful she was that she could speak to her supervisor, and that she was not afraid.

Overall, the answers obtained from the second set of qualitative data did not present any conclusive facts about the compensation and spillover effects which positive or negative experiences in one domain of the individual's life may have on the coping resources and skills one might endure in the alternative domain. Thus in order to gain further insights, more specific, indepth qualitative analyses would need to be performed

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the numerous investigations which have been performed in the area of abuse, there are still great voids in the literature and many questions regarding this phenomenon, especially within the South African context. Hotaling and Straus (1981) have highlighted that information about the contextual nature of battering events is sparse; whilst Barnett et al (1996) have argued that little is still known about the correlates of battered women's violence. The present study aimed to accommodate these concerns.

From previous studies which have been implemented into the concept of abuse and the consequences which arise from such trauma, researchers have begun to identify a connection between the symptoms experienced by battered women and those reported by other PTSD patients, including symptoms of agitation, anxiety, feelings of hopelessness and helplessness, anticipatory terror, violent nightmares and other sleeping disorders (Kemp et al, 1995; Lystad et al, 1993).

6.2. FINDINGS FOR THE STATED PRIMARY HYPOTHESES

Arguments forwarded by Aguilar and Nightingale (1994) and Lystad et al (1996) have identified that other characteristics have been found to contribute to the severity of these symptoms. These include loneliness, isolation, self-blame, low self-esteem and depression

(Aguilar & Nightingale, 1994; Lystad et al, 1996). Janoff-Bulman (1989) comments that battered women have negative perceptions about themselves and their pasts, presents and futures.

Yet simultaneously to these seemingly conclusive comments concerning the experience of battered women, ambiguity is still linked with these possible facts. For example, Aguilar and Nightingale (1994) instigated the ambiguity of such results by stating that questions still remain as to whether women who have low self-esteem, and who are depressed are likely targets for battering relationships or whether battering relationships cause low self-esteem and depression.

Similarly, although the majority of studies into abuse and its consequences have demonstrated assaulted wives to have poor self-esteem and high levels of depression (Barnett et al, 1996); studies by Walker (1984) forwarded a finding that battered women rated themselves high on self-esteem. Her findings were further muddled by the observation that abused wives scored high on depression indices, but simultaneously that these individuals reported not feeling depressed. In fact Walker (1984) found that women out of battering relationships for the longest time were observed to have higher risk of depression than those women still in the abusive relationship.

6.2.1. INTRAPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES

Within the present study correlational analyses confirmed the majority of opinions that self-esteem was negatively related with severity of abuse, particularly non-physical abuse; and that

depression was positively related with physical and non-physical abuse. This would imply that those women in the sample who experienced physical and psychological abuse were more susceptible to symptoms of depression.

In addition, results supported Follingstad et al's (1990) study that in fact, emotional abuse not only had a negative effect on the self-esteem and feelings of self-worth of the individuals, but that the increased intensity of emotional abuse could have had a more debilitating effect on the self-esteem of the individual than the physical abuse experienced.

From these results, it becomes necessary to agree with Hornung et al (1981) and Marshall (1996) that closer attention needs to be given to the detrimental consequences which psychological abuse has on the battered woman and her sense of self. Physical aggression does need to be considered due to the serious immediate consequences of violence, however the potential of long-term serious consequences of psychological abuse for mental and physical health is imminent.

6.2.2. INTERPERSONAL COPING RESOURCES

In response to these debilitating effects which arise from abuse, Nurius et al (1992) have highlighted the importance of coping skills in enabling battered women to make active steps in dealing with the situation and breaking the cycle of violence. They commented that such skills are only effective once they have been mobilized by coping resources (such as, self-esteem, low levels of depression and external supports).

The present study integrates Nurius et al's (1992) theory of mobilising skills through coping resources. However the present study identifies alternative interpersonal coping resources offered through the working sphere which might assist in mobilising coping skills into active coping resources. These work-based coping resources include work support, employee assistance and counselling programmes and value-rich work.

It is important to emphasize that this part of the study concerning alternative interpersonal coping resources offered by the work environment is a new area of investigation and thus the literature connecting abuse and the work sphere, never mind the coping resources of work support, workplace counselling and value-rich work is non-existent. However, due to the many positive effects of social support in the work sphere which have been found to reduce the destructive consequences of stress (Aronsson, 1985; Heaney et al, 1995), in conjunction with the partial evidence of the benefits that positive support from family and friends can offer an abused women (Dutton, 1992) (if it exists); it was thought that this relationship between work support offered from supervisors, coworkers and the work environment and abuse needed to be investigated as an alternative source of social support.

Such alternative sources of social support were thought to be especially important for those women who were receiving inadequate or no support from friends and family, or whose husbands were isolating them from any form of social gathering (Homer, Leonard & Taylor, 1985). By offering alternative sources of support through the work environment, it was thought that new avenues may be opened to the battered individual; which may reduce their feelings of worthlessness and depression.

From the investigations into the effects of work social support on the intrapersonal coping resources, a significantly positive relationship was found to exist between work social support and self-esteem indicating that as work social support increased so too did the self-esteem of the women in the sample.

Similarly, examinations of the relationship between depression and work support indicated a significantly negative relationship between the variables suggesting that as work support increased so the level of depression reported by respondents decreased.

Thus these results support the idea that the positive interpersonal coping resource of work support offered through work-related relationships and work culture does increase the probability that individuals will be left feeling empowered and reassured of their purpose and worth in making a contribution (Davids & Guppy, 1995)

Further investigations of the work support variable also indicated that support exhibited significantly negative relationships with overall abuse and particularly non-physical abuse. This means that as work support increased, so the level of abuse decreased. Here, work support may be acting as a compensatory effect for the negative feelings which result from abuse.

What is made clear, is that these relationships together with the aforementioned relationships of positive work social support with increased self-esteem and reduced levels of depression indicate that work social support may indeed act as a coping resource for women encountering abuse; especially psychological abuse which as previously stated tends to shatter the individual's sense of self.

Perhaps Browne's (1981) theory may be applied here, whereby social support acts to reduce the threats to the individual, allowing the victim to restore the contextual meanings and stability which is sent into disarray with abuse.

With the recent emergence of employee assistance programmes within the work sphere it was felt that such counselling programmes may offer alternative resources to individuals experiencing abuse, trauma or personal problems of any kind. However, due to the fact that many organizations are still establishing such programmes and those that have may still be experiencing teething problems, most of the respondents either did not have access to such services or found them inadequate.

Thus the presented investigations concurred with the indifferent often more negative attitudes of previous investigations. Similar to Hamilton and Coates (1993) and McLeod and Cachieux (1980) results obtained from the qualitative section of analysis indicated that of those employees who did present problems for counselling, the majority reported that counsellors were not helpful and that their advice and often the choice of services provided inadequate and unaccommodating to their needs.

Whether experiences were positive or whether they were negative the counselling programmes indicated very little difference in the relationship with self-esteem and levels of depression experienced by individuals. However, as Hamilton and Coates (1993) point out perhaps counsellors in the workplace have not been sufficiently trained in dealing with such problems.

Furthermore, results from the present study should be viewed with caution as only a percentage of the sample responded to this part of the questionnaire, thus leaving important

considerations for future investigations; as well as a need for interventions to train counsellors in providing more appropriate and empathic services for all employees.

Similarly, and in addition to the positive effects which social support has been found to exhibit in reducing the strains in the work environment, value-rich work has also been identified but is typically ignored as a stress-reliever in the work sphere. Within the present study the values and meaning which an individual finds within her job was included as a possible additional interpersonal coping resource for abused women (Knoop, 1993). Knoop (1993) and Elizur (1993) indicate that enriched jobs can lead to absence or relief from stress because what the job is offering is perceived to be equal or greater than what the person demands of the job.

It was thought that value-rich work would be particularly appropriate for women involved in abusive relationships, as values and meanings offered by the working sphere may lend meaning and direction to the individual's personal life.

However, the analyses within the present investigation did not illustrate positive relationships with self-esteem nor significant negative relationships with depression. Reasons for this lack of support may indicate that even though work may offer value and meaning to the battered victim's life, as a compensation, escape and almost like a survival effect from the destruction of abusive relationships; work values may have no relationship with self-esteem and levels of depression.

Again, it must be emphasized that this was an exploratory component of the study, and that value-rich work has never previously been related to self-esteem and depression. Thus the results obtained are not totally contradictory to the researchers expectations.

Upon, further investigations into the relationship between value-rich work and physical and non-physical violence a significantly positive relationship was detected between the non-physical abuse and the values experienced by the individuals in their jobs. This relationship was significantly positive, demonstrating that as non-physical abuse increased so too did value-rich work. Thus this confirms the idea that perhaps individuals encountering non-physical abuse may be compensating for the meaninglessness and destruction in their personal lives with the meaning and value which they can obtain from their careers.

Additional results obtained from the moderated multiple regression analyses performed on the relationship between non-physical abuse and self-esteem with value-rich work as the moderator in the relationship, further complemented the stated hypotheses.

Here, work values did emerge as having a significant moderating effect in the relationship; suggesting that value-rich work acted as a buffer on the negative effects which non-physical abuse had on the self-esteem of the individual. Thus even though a strong relationship was not found to exist between self-esteem and value-rich work; value-rich work may still act as an alternative coping resource in reducing the negative effects of non-physical abuse. However, this specific relationship and the complexities surrounding this relationship will need to be explored in future research.

6.3. THE INFLUENCE OF BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

In addition to the chiefly significant findings in response to the primary hypotheses, analyses into the effects of the demographic variables as possible risk factors of abuse, also raised significant and interesting results.

The present study included demographic details of age, race, educational qualification, type of occupation, the marital status of the participant, the duration of the relationship and the number of children present within the family.

Of these characteristics five biographical variables were found to exhibit a relationship or effect with either the abuse variables or the coping resources available to the participants. These included the educational qualification of the respondents, the number of children present within their families, the race of the individuals, as well as the marital status of the individuals and the types of occupations which they fulfilled. The results regarding each of these characteristics will now be considered in turn.

6.3.1. EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Three of the most significant relationships which existed in the results were observed between educational qualification and the levels of physical, non-physical and overall abuse encountered by the participants. All these relationships appeared significantly negative indicating that as the level of education increased so the levels of abuse experienced decreased.

Such a finding is not surprising as higher intellectual ability, is usually connoted with a better job, higher status and less dependence on one's partner for economic security and consequently a more egalitarian marital relationship, which as stated previously regulates the power bases.

Conversely, this relationship illustrates that as the educational level of the respondent decreased, so the severity of abuse would be more likely to increase. Thus the present study supports past findings by Hornung et al (1981), Sonkin (1985) and Straus and Gelles (1990) who have reported that the prevalence of violence was highest in male-dominated dyads where male spouses held stereotypical attitudes and their roles as housewives. Violence erupts as the man feels he has to prove his role as 'male of the household'.

The increase of abuse as a result of a woman's low education is further documented by Hornung et al (1981), who showed that couples in which the education of the woman is incompatible with her husband's, that is where her education is relatively lower than her male counterpart, encounter high spousal violence.

Such evidence is available in this study.

Another interesting finding observed in the regression analyses was that educational qualification acts as a moderator in the relationship between abuse, and its effects on self-esteem. These findings suggest that perhaps educational qualification gives individuals a sense of power to meet their husbands as equals; and not to feel inferior. Those battered women who are experiencing the debilitating effects of abuse, may be comforted by their education, as this is an achievement which cannot be taken away from them. It is a characteristic which adds meaning to who they are.

6.3.2. RACE

The next biographical variable which illustrated a significantly strong relationship with the abuse variables was race. Past studies into the effect of race groups have elicited contradictory results. Some researchers such as Rouse (1988), Sorenson and Telles (1991) and Gondolf, Fisher and McFerron (1988) have forwarded the position that marital violence is colour-blind.

However, the present study together with other examinations in the area (Fagan et al, 1983; Hapton et al, 1989; Staus et al, 1980) showed that the differences in the mean scores between white and nonwhite groups illustrated much greater mean scores for the non-white population. Such results indicate that significantly higher levels of abuse both physical and non-physical were detected amongst the black, Asian and coloured participants in the presented sample.

As explained above this finding is not unusual considering the social and extreme political situation in South Africa, and the feelings of powerlessness and frustration relevant to most black males in the country.

As a more democratic country evolves - as education, status and power become more evenly spread amongst all races in the country, and as the culture of the black people in South Africa may become more Westernized and less traditional in their attitudes, follow-up studies within the long-range future might indicate a new trend in the effects of race on abuse.

It is also important to note that within the present study, one would need to be cautious in drawing any conclusive comments as the two groups of whites and non-whites were not evenly

matched; that is the white members of the sample outweighed the number of non-white members in the sample. Thus future investigations which paid more specific attention to the effects of race as a risk factor of abuse in South Africa would allow for greater insight in this domain.

6.3.3. NUMBER OF CHILDREN

The third variable which exhibited an effect on the levels of abuse encountered by women in the sample was that of the number of children present within the individual's family. It was found that the greater the number of children present within the family, the stronger the relationship with more severe levels of abuse, particularly non-physical abuse.

Although researchers have passed comments that a woman is more likely to remain in abusive relationships if she has children (Dutton, 1992), no studies were found which examined the relationship between the effects of the number of children in the family and the type and severity of abuse experienced by a battered woman.

Possible explanations which might be presented for such relationships may be that women who have more children are more socially isolated. The more children a woman has the more time she is forced to spend within the home environment, looking after the children.

Lack of social support and accessibility with the external world have been identified as risk factors of a woman's susceptibility to abuse. La Violette and Barnett (1993) comment that lack of support creates a dilemma for battered women that ensnares them in their relationships : as the less the support and accessibility the individual has from the external world, the fewer her

resources, the poorer she will feel about herself (as she has less reassurance from others), and the less likely it would be for the individual to seek help and support.

Upon re-examining the effect of the 'number of children' variable and its effects on the various study variables, lack of support might have had a part to play in explaining the relationship between number of children and the high levels of abuse encountered. Here, the relationship was significantly negative. This implies that as the number of children in the family increases, so the level of support which the women encountered decreased significantly.

This negative relationship would not be surprising as having more children would obviously demand more of the mother's time, which may leave coworkers and supervisors less sympathetic to the individual's absence. In addition, working mothers, especially with young children might also have less time to spend socialising and interacting in their work environment which may further impact on the work-related relationships in comparison to those who do not have children.

The implications of these significant relationships would be that women who are abused possibly would be absent more frequently, which in turn would impact on the level of support they would encounter and the more dependent the individual would be on her husband for security and support. In turn, greater dependence on her husband leaves the woman vulnerable to the power of the man and in cases of abusive relationships, more susceptible to abuse.

Although no other biographical variables were found to exhibit a relationship with the abuse encountered by the individuals, the occupation of the participants, and their marital status

appeared to influence the level and effectiveness of both the intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources available to the individual.

6.3.4. MARITAL STATUS

Marital status, that is whether the respondent was married, living with her partner or merely had a steady relationship, displayed a significant correlation with the level of depression the individual experienced. Results indicated that married women scored much lower on the depression measure than their non-married counterparts.

Similarly, the regression analyses which examined marital status as a moderator in the relationship between abuse and depression yielded significant results. Thus the study confirms Carnelly, Pietromonaco and Jaffe's (1994) theory that interpersonal processes and interactions function to reduce depression; as well as Bowlby's (1980; 1988) theories that integrate cognitive and interpersonal approaches to depression. He emphasizes that depressed individuals obtain social reinforcement (Lewinsohn, 1974) and support (Coyne, 1976) through these interpersonal relationships.

It must be indicated that all women who are not married are not necessarily suffering from depression, however, the present study did illustrate that these individuals reported a greater susceptibility to depressive symptoms.

From the theory forwarded by Carnelly et al (1994), one might deduce that the reason for this tendency towards depression is that women who are not married may not obtain the social

reinforcement, support and security which marriage provides. Living with someone suggests that such women may have the same intimate interactions with her cohabitant as might a married woman, however, the security and commitment which binds spouses in a marriage is missing and thus may leave the individual more susceptible to depression.

In addition to the marital status of the respondents, additional regression analyses indicated that the length of the marriage, exhibited a moderating effect on the relationship between abuse and the level of self-esteem perceived by the respondents. This indicates that the longer the relationship had existed, the less the destructive effects which abuse would have on the victim's self-esteem. This is a surprising finding, as Walker (1979) explains how the longer the individual is exposed to abuse, the more detrimental the consequences.

Perhaps, parallel to the previous results of the effects of marital status on depression, and with the knowledge that research (Russell & Uhlermann, 1992) highlights feelings of grief which women experience when leaving the abusive relationship, being involved in a relationship, no matter how good or bad may provide the individual with a sense of security and someone who is there. It may be the knowledge of this presence that offers immediate coping resources to victims.

6.3.5. OCCUPATIONAL TYPE

The level of depression reported by participants, as well as the self-esteem and both interpersonal coping resources were also found to vary greatly according to whether the participants held administrative-type jobs, managerial positions or provided services, for example as a teacher.

Analyses of these effects illustrated that those participants who held managerial positions exhibited significantly greater intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources; that is, these individuals reported the lowest levels of depression and the highest degrees of self-esteem, work support and value-rich work.

As to whether individuals reach managerial positions due to the high level of coping resources available to them or whether being in a managerial position promotes high self-esteem, low levels of depression, high work support and work which is high in meaning and value is unclear. Thus further investigations into these relationships would need to be made.

In comparison to the managerial group, another interesting finding was observed between those in administration-type jobs and those participants who were teachers. Teachers in comparison to other groups lacked intrapersonal coping resources, obtaining lowest mean scores on the self-esteem measure and highest mean scores on the depression measure; whilst administration workers appeared to lack in interpersonal coping resources, obtaining significantly lower mean scores for both work support and value-rich work measures.

These findings suggest that although teachers find a lot of value and meaning in their work, they do not have the intrapersonal coping resources of their business counterparts. In contrast, administration workers might have feelings of self-efficacy, self-worth and the ambition to perform on the job, yet are deprived of the support, meaning and value which managerial and servicing careers might offer.

From the findings it seems obvious that occupational type appears to play a role in influencing the type of resources developed and used by employed women in compensating and coping

with stressful situations, yet again further, more specific research in the area might make important contributions in the area.

Overall, the biographical information offered a lot of input as to which personal factors may affect both the severity of abuse, and the types and degree of resources available to women. However, it is obvious that in order to fully understand the complexities these variables and their effects, future research into the effects of specific variables in the area within the South African context would prove beneficial.

6.4. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Before the factors determining the psychological characteristics of humans can be systematically investigated and important contributions can be made to the existing body of research in the area. Those same characteristics must be identified, defined and explained according to cascades of former and often contradictory research (Lock, 1995). The research design which is developed to enhance our understanding of these characteristics and to afford a higher level of confidence and accuracy in that knowledge, must also therefore be thorough so that the conclusions drawn from these findings can be as compelling as possible (Neale & Liebert, 1986). Even though one may strive towards these goals, theoretical and methodological implications are inherent in all studies. The following subsection indicates the limitations that were recognised within the present study.

6.4.1. METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

6.4.1.1. The Sample

Perhaps one of the most important aspects of research is the sample being assessed within the study. The sample evaluated within the present study consisted of 106 participants, which is a satisfactory sample size, especially considering the sensitivity and very personal nature of the questions being asked. (In fact, on collection of the questionnaires from certain organizations, and even though confidentiality and anonymity had been assured, comments were passed that people had returned empty questionnaires due to the very private aspects examined by the questionnaire).

Despite the satisfactory sample size, more large scale national studies within South Africa need to be implemented, which examine not only the prevalence of abuse in our country but characteristics and factors affecting the area of abuse, its causes and its consequences.

In so doing perhaps a further limitation of the sample in the present study may be avoided, namely, with a broader sample perhaps the generalisability of the demographics of the sample can be improved. For example, although investigations included participants from all race, age and educational backgrounds, comparisons of certain groups, such as different race groups, and the effects of such variables had to be treated with caution as the groups were uneven. Thus future studies using more equally-spread groups would have to re-examine the relationship between race and severity of abuse in order to draw more conclusive interpretations.

Including further demographic and social details and variables, such as variables to measure socioeconomic influences, as well as cultural attitudes, may also add new and interesting findings in their relationships with abuse in the South African context.

These relationships especially need to be considered in the general population and not only as measurements of women who present for counselling in protective shelters or who have reported their abuse to the police.

Walker (1984) explains that individuals who volunteer to participate in studies, and who have made active steps in seeking help may be suffering less from feelings such as learned helplessness, depression and feelings of powerlessness than those women who remain at home. Thus the findings would be biased in favour of those individuals who are already coping; in comparison to the large numbers of women in the general population who are being abused.

6.4.2. MEASUREMENT

Although most research conducted in the area of abuse is more qualitative in nature, as it provides greater insight into this sensitive area; simultaneously other researchers such as Barnett et al (1996) have criticised that research has depended too heavily on subjective interpretations and that little is known about the correlates of battered women's violence. Thus the current investigation did attempt to minimize the negative limitations which arise from performing either only qualitative or only quantitative research designs, by employing a mixed research design.

Although both designs were utilised, and all quantitative measures were found to be sound in reliability and validity, the qualitative section of the questionnaire needed to be more thorough

and specific. A further limitation of the qualitative part of the study was that only a certain percentage of the sample completed this part of the questionnaire, therefore limiting the generalisability of the findings.

6.4.3. BIAS

Response biases is another limitation inherent in survey-type research and thus may have been applicable in the current study.

However, a more pertinent bias which may have effected the validity of the responses in the present study is social desirability bias. Such a threat is particularly obvious due to the sensitivity and very personal nature of the questionnaire.

Gelles (1978) explains the apathy of abused victims to respond to surveys, as violence usually occurs in private and there are pressures on the victim to keep it secret. Saunders (1991) continues that victims and witnesses of violence may 'fake-good' their responses out of shame, fear or loyalty to the perpetrator. Whilst Riggs, Murphy and O'Leary (1989) that underreporting of violence can occur merely because of unconscious self-deception.

Although techniques were used to minimize these threats by including a general sample of employed women and not only victims of abuse, such biases are inherent in this type of research and thus need to be considered as possible risks to the validity of the responses.

6.4.4. CROSS-SECTIONAL DESIGN

By following a cross-sectional analysis of the data on only one occasion, the accuracy of the

results cannot be confirmed, which once again limits the validity of the findings. The limitation which might arise from this type of analysis is that certain extraneous variables might have affected the respondents' responses on the day they filled out the questionnaire, which subsequently would have biased their views. For example, the individual's state of mind about herself, her effectiveness and her level of depression, and thus her responses to the questions may be altered by whether the individual has had a good or bad week, whether she had just had an argument with her husband, supervisor or coworkers, or just by the normal happenings of a bad day.

Thus longitudinal approaches when measuring such constructs as self-esteem and depression may improve the validity of the results.

6.5. THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

Although the past two decades have uncovered an abundance of information and characteristics regarding partner aggression, much more research is required in attempting to understand this multidimensional and very complex phenomenon. Orava et al (1996) have highlighted the need for more attention to be given to the interaction of various characteristics, such as self-esteem and level of depression, with more practical concerns (for example, economical conditions) and societal influences (for example, public attitudes towards domestic violence) that contribute to women remaining in abusive situations. The importance of societal and cultural factors are particularly relevant in future South African studies.

Research has uncovered a link between broader societal violence and violence within the family (Kaplan, 1996; McKendrick & Hoffman, 1990; Walker, 1994). In South Africa where

crime and violence has reached saturation point in society, an obvious impact on the statistics and consequences of wife abuse is anticipated; yet little attention has been paid to developing an indigenous theoretical formulation of this problem (Segel & Labe, 1990). Thus future studies investigating the concept of abuse, its theories and its consequences within the South African context are vital.

6.5.1. INCREASING KNOWLEDGE ABOUT RISK FACTORS OF ABUSE

In connection with the social and cultural influences on abuse, further investigations are also required in examining the impact of various demographic variables as risk factors of abuse. In addition further examinations are required of the effects of demographic details, such as marital status and educational qualifications as moderators in the relationships between intrapersonal coping resources, such as depression and self-esteem, with the various dimensions of abuse.

In addition to biographical information Lystad et al (1992) have also recognized personality as having an effect on the severity of abuse encountered by women. Thus such personal factors may also be explored as moderators in the aforementioned relationships.

6.5.2. WORK AS A THERAPEUTIC TOOL

In addition to certain risk factors highlighted from the analyses, this study aimed at exploring alternative coping resources for women experiencing low self-esteem and high levels of depression. Both interpersonal variables of work support and value-rich work emerged as

offering positive effects on the intrapersonal characteristics of the individuals. This would imply that work definitely did seem to have a therapeutic effect for women.

However, although the present study included strong relationships between work support and the intrapersonal coping resources and evidence of value-rich work as a moderator in the relationship between the various dimensions of abuse and self-esteem further examinations of these relationships might contribute other interesting insights. Designs which evaluate a greater sample size, and include other new intrapersonal and interpersonal coping resources in the equation may yield additional interesting and valuable results.

Other intrapersonal coping resources which have been identified in various studies and which could be investigated in these relationships include locus of control, self-blame and personal power. In comparison, alternative interpersonal coping resources provided by the work force which need to be examined also include the variables of decision-making capacity, and work and organizational culture.

In the work arena of this study future research may also investigate the effects which the presented coping variables may have on other work-related consequences, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, etcetera. Such findings would lend interesting insights into how abuse and the coping resources identified in this study would impact on the effectiveness of the individual's work performance.

From the forwarded study it was found that analyses which included the separate dimensions of abuse, namely physical and non-physical abuse in addition to an overall abuse score did

prove beneficial. Thus it is important that studies realize and investigate the intricacies of psychological and emotional abuse, in addition to physical abuse.

6.6. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The presented study does indicate that work may have a therapeutic effect on employees who have low self-esteem and who are susceptible to depression. Although relationships were detected between abuse and the esteem and feelings of depression faced by the respondents, whether these effects arise as a consequence of abuse or from other personal problems cannot be stated conclusively. However, what did emerge from both the quantitative and qualitative investigations is that employees are experiencing personal problems which may effect their work and their ability to cope in the workforce. Thus the primary practical implication of this study would be to design counselling programmes which cater for both personal and more improved work-related counselling needs.

It is important that more organizations initiate and develop employee assistance services; and that employees are made aware of the accessibility of such programmes. Even more significant is that the consultants and counsellors employed within these programmes receive adequate training on how to deal with a wide-range of problem areas, including aspects such as trauma counselling and counselling for employees who are being abused.

Carden (1994) suggests the following actions for counsellors in improving counselling effectiveness of abused victims :

* Engage in the abuse debate and stay abreast of new findings in this developing field become informed.

* Familiarize oneself with the legal policies and procedures, and with other victim and perpetrator services in the community. Such information would aid counsellors in providing more sound advice in helping victims.

* Become involved in or receive advice from services such as battered women's shelters. There is no better way to encounter the meaning of wife abuse in the lives of batterers and battered women or to experience the nuanced variability in etiology, dynamics and response to intervention within each of these groups.

This additional involvement with victims would also aid counsellors in gaining a better understanding of the plight of these individuals, which consequently may make counsellors more empathic to those presenting for counselling. Such empathy would be important not only when counselling abuse victims but any person who presents a problem within the programme.

In addition to training counsellors in offering more helpful advice and hopefully more empathic listening, surveys would need to be implemented within organizations to detect what areas of counselling would be more applicable to the employees of that particular organization, what services would they benefit from, and after implementing such services whether the programmes and the counsellors performing the programmes have been successful in their endeavours.

Knoop (1993) also highlights that as value-rich work has been found to act as a reliever of stress, and the consequences which arise therefrom, it would be beneficial to implement further surveys which would investigate what are the values which the employees in the specific

organization look for in their job. In so doing, it should then be possible to design work and job tasks that include what people value in their job. Such redesign may even improve the productivity and motivation of employees in their careers as they should be feeling more satisfied and healthy.

Similarly, by recognizing and rewarding individuals for attaining a certain standard, and taking a personal interest in employees -their needs, their happiness and their sadness, supervisors, coworkers and counselors may all aid in providing a work environment which is supportive. In conjunction with the results obtained in the present study, such kindness and camaraderie would assist in decreasing the intensity of depression and low self-worth which many employees encounter.

6.7. CONCLUSION

Women who are hit by their husbands must manage violence. Mills (1985, p107) states that "management involves the attachment of meaning to the violence and the development of strategies to cope with it". Nurius et al (1992) indicated that responses to spouse battering depends primarily on the assaulted woman's coping capacity - that is that battered women are less apt to use active coping strategies (for example, obtaining social support), but significantly more prone to use passive strategies (for example, fantasizing).

The present study agrees that these opinions are valid, that abused women are more prone to feelings of depression and low self-esteem which may hinder active coping strategies. However, simultaneously, the forwarded investigations yielded that coping resources can be mobilised through positive work experience. Both positive work social support and work which

was rich in value for employees were found to provide new resources of coping for abused victims, especially those suffering from poor self-esteem.

Thus the present study discovered that work can have a therapeutic effect on the detrimental consequences which result from domestic violence; that there are alternative sources of support available in the workforce for abused women which may compensate for the terror, isolation and meaninglessness that they experience in their personal lives; and that there is hope and another life for victims of abuse. A hope most aptly expressed by a woman in a shelter house

Life begins again !

I still have clouds of depression

But they are shorter and less intense

Replaced by elated moments,

Sheer joy to be young, healthy,

Free !

Free to see the beauty and subtle colour

in a bleak cold winter's day.

Free to dance, to laugh, to sing, to ski, to paint,

to sleep !

Free to form new friendships

Free to love again.

Free to explore, to learn who I am...

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE



UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

Private Bag 3, WITS 2050, South Africa • Telegrams 'Uniwits' • Fax (011) 716-2478 • Telephone (011) 716-2407

8 September 1997

Dear Participant

I am an Industrial Psychology Masters student at the University of the Witwatersrand. I am conducting research into alternative coping resources for all female employees. By alternative coping resources I mean resources that could be provided through your workplace and the work you encounter.

The validity of this research and the results obtained depend on your answering the following questionnaire as accurately to your life as possible.


It is emphasized that as this is an independent project, your responses will remain totally confidential and no-one within your organization will have access to them. In addition, your name is not required anywhere on the questionnaire which will ensure anonymity.

Your time and co-operation in answering this questionnaire is greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely



CHIARA BAUMANN



STACEY LIEBOWITZ
(SUPERVISOR)

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE
UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

INSTRUCTIONS :

- i) This questionnaire is to be completed by all women who are married, are or have recently been in a serious relationship.
- ii) It is emphasized that confidentiality is assured. Only the researcher will have access to your responses and opinions. You are not required to put your name anywhere on this questionnaire, therefore all responses will be entirely anonymous.
- iii) Please answer all questions in SECTIONS A, B AND C, as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers.
- iv) Once you have completed the questionnaire, place it in the envelopes provided.
- v) If you would be willing to be interviewed, or would like feedback on the trend of the general results of this study, please contact me at :

PO BOX 8723
Edenglen
1613

or phone : (011) 609 - 5528.

Thank you for your time and cooperation in filling out this questionnaire.

Chiara

CHIARA BAUMANN

SECTION A

(Where applicable, tick the appropriate block).

AGE _____

RACE GROUP

BLACK	WHITE	ASIAN	COLOURED	OTHER
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MARITAL STATUS

MARRIED	LIVING WITH PARTNER	IN A STEADY RELATIONSHIP BUT NOT LIVING TOGETHER	OTHER
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HIGHEST EDUCATION QUALIFICATION

LESS THAN MATRIC	MATRIC	DIPLOMA/DEGREE	POST-DEGREE	OTHER
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OCCUPATION _____

PARTNER'S OCCUPATION _____

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN MARRIED / BEEN TOGETHER ?

LESS THAN 1 YR	1 - 5 YRS	5 - 10 YRS	10 - 20 YRS	MORE THAN 20 YRS
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HOW MANY CHILDREN DO YOU HAVE ? _____

HOW OLD ARE YOUR CHILDREN ? _____

- 21. Most people are better liked than me.
- 22. I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.
- 23. I often get discouraged with what I am doing.
- 24. I often wish I were someone else.
- 25. I can't be depended on.

YES	NO

Read the following groups of statements below. Pick out the one statement in each group which best describes the way you usually feel. Tick the number beside the statement that you have chosen. Be sure to read all the statements in the group before making your choice.

FOR EXAMPLE 2 1 I never feel particularly anxious
 2 I feel anxious
 3 I feel anxious all of the time

- A
 - 1 I do not feel sad
 - 2 I feel blue or sad
 - 3 I am blue or sad all of the time and can't snap out of it
 - 4 I am so sad or unhappy that it is painful
 - 5 I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it

- B
 - 1 I am not particularly pessimistic or discouraged about the future.
 - 2 I feel discouraged about the future
 - 3 I feel I have nothing to look forward to
 - 4 I feel that I won't ever get over my troubles
 - 5 I feel that the future is hopeless and that things cannot improve

- C
 - 1 I do not feel like a failure
 - 2 I feel I have failed more than the average person
 - 3 I feel I have accomplished very little that is worthwhile or that means anything
 - 4 As I look back on my life all I can see is a lot of failure
 - 5 I feel I am a complete failure as a person (parent, spouse, etc)

- D
 - 1 I am not particularly dissatisfied
 - 2 I feel bored most of the time
 - 3 I don't enjoy things the way I used to
 - 4 I don't get satisfaction out of anything anymore
 - 5 I am dissatisfied with everything

- K 1 I don't feel particularly guilty
2 I feel bad or unworthy a good part of the time
3 I feel quite guilty
4 I feel bad or unworthy practically all the time now
5 I feel as though I am very bad or worthless
- F 1 I don't feel I am being punished
2 I have a feeling that something bad may happen to me
3 I feel I am being punished or will be punished
4 I feel I deserve to be punished
5 I want to be punished
- G 1 I don't feel disappointed in myself
2 I am disappointed in myself
3 I don't like myself
4 I am disgusted with myself
5 I hate myself
- H 1 I don't feel I am worse than anybody else
2 I am critical of myself for my weaknesses
3 I blame myself for my faults
4 I blame myself for everything that happens
- T 1 I don't have any thoughts of harming myself
2 I have thoughts of harming myself but I would not carry them out
3 I feel I would be better off dead
4 I feel my family would be better off if I were dead
5 I have definite plans about committing suicide
6 I would kill myself if I could
- J 1 I don't cry any more than usual
2 I cry more than I used to
3 I cry all the time now, I can't stop it
4 I used to be able to cry but now I can't cry at all even though I want to
- K 1 I am no more irritated now than I ever am
2 I get annoyed or irritated more easily than I used to
3 I feel irritated all of the time
4 I don't get irritated at all with things that used to irritate me
- L 1 I have not lost interest in other people
2 I am less interested in other people now than I used to be
3 I have lost most of my interest in other people and have little feeling for them
4 I have lost all my interest in other people and don't care about them at all
- M 1 I make decisions as well as ever
2 I try to put off making decisions
3 I have great difficulty in making decisions
4 I can't make decisions anymore

- N 1 I don't feel I look any worse than I used to
2 I am worried that I am looking old or unattractive
3 I feel that there are permanent changes in my appearance and they make me look unattractive
4 I feel that I am ugly or repulsive looking
- O 1 I can work as well as before
2 It takes extra effort to get started doing something
3 I don't work as well as I used to
4 I have to push myself very hard to do anything
5 I can't do any work at all
- P 1 I can sleep as well as usual
2 I wake up more tired in the morning than I used to
3 I wake up 2-3 hours earlier than usual and find it hard to get back to sleep
4 I wake up early every day and can't get more than 5 hours sleep
- Q 1 I don't get any more tired than I used to
2 I get tired more easily than I used to
3 I get tired from doing nothing
4 I get too tired to do anything
- R 1 My appetite is not worse than usual
2 My appetite is not as good as it used to be
3 My appetite is much worse now
4 I have no appetite at all
- S 1 I haven't lost much weight, if any, lately
2 I have lost more than 5 pounds
3 I have lost more than 10 pounds
4 I have lost more than 15 pounds
- T 1 I am no more concerned about my health than usual
2 I am concerned about aches and pains or upset stomach or constipation
3 I am so concerned with how I feel or what I feel that it's hard to think of much else
4 I am completely absorbed in what I feel
- U 1 I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex
2 I am less interested in sex than I used to be
3 I am much less interested in sex than I used to be
4 I have lost interest in sex completely

The following statements focus on your relationship with your husband or partner. Answer each question as carefully and accurately as possible, by ticking the response which describes what you may have experienced in your relationship.

1. My partner undermines / belittles me.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

2. My partner demands obedience to his eccentric ideas.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

3. My partner becomes surly and angry if I tell him he is drinking too much.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

4. My partner makes me perform sex acts that I don't enjoy or like.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

5. My partner becomes very upset if dinner, housework or laundry is not done when he thinks it should be.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

6. My partner is jealous and suspicious of my friends.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

7. My partner punches me with fists.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

8. My partner tells me I'm ugly and unattractive.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

9. My partner tells me I really could not manage or take care of myself without him.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

10. My partner acts like I'm his personal servant.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

11. My partner insults me in front of others.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

12. My partner becomes very angry if I disagree with his point of view.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

13. My partner threatens me with weapons.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
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14. My partner is very stingy in giving me enough money to run our home.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

15. My partner undermines me intellectually.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

16. My partner would prefer it if I stayed at home and took care of the children.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

17. My partner has beaten me so badly that I need medical help.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

18. My partner does not like me working.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

19. My partner is not a kind person.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

20. My partner does not want me to socialise with my female friends.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

21. My partner screams and yells at me.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

22. My partner demands sex whether I want it or not.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

23. My partner slaps me around my face and head.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

24. My partner orders me around.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

25. My partner has no respect for my feelings.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

26. My partner becomes abusive when drunk.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

27. My partner acts like a bully towards me.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

28. My partner frightens me.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

29. My partner treats me like a stupid person.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

30. My partner acts like he would kill me.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

The following items concern your relationship with your supervisor and coworkers. Mark the answer which best describes this relationship with an 'X'.

31. My supervisor gives me feedback on how well I am performing my work

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

32. My work is criticized

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

33. Someone tells me when I am doing a good job

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

34. I get along well with my supervisors

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

35. The people in my work group get along well with each other

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

36. When there are differences of opinion at work about something having to do with work, we discuss it together

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

37. The people in my work group get along well with supervisors

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

38. I get advice and support from my supervisor when I have a problem

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

39. I get advice and support from my colleagues when I have a problem

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

40. I get assistance when I have trouble keeping up with my workload

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

41. There is someone I can talk to if I have a problem at my workplace.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

42. There is someone I can speak to if I have personal problems.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

43. There is a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere at work.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

44. I like my colleagues.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

45. Co-operation and camaraderie are good at my workplace.

ALWAYS	FREQUENTLY	OCCASIONALLY	NEVER
--------	------------	--------------	-------

SECTION C

TO YOUR KNOWLEDGE :

1. DOES YOUR EMPLOYER OFFER ANY COUNSELING / EMPLOYEE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMMES TO ASSIST YOU WITH ANY PERSONAL OR WORK-RELATED PROBLEMS WHICH YOU MAY ENCOUNTER ?

YES	NO
-----	----

IF 'YES' CONTINUE WITH QUESTIONS 2, 3, ETC.

IF 'NO' CONTINUE WITH QUESTIONS 5, 6, 7 AND 8.

2. IF 'YES' HAVE YOU EVER MADE USE OF THESE PROGRAMMES ? DESCRIBE YOUR EXPERIENCE. EG WERE THE CONSULTANTS HELPFUL ? DID THEY LISTEN TO WHAT YOU HAD TO SAY ? DID YOU RECEIVE ADEQUATE ADVICE AND SUPPORT ? ETC.

4. OVERALL WOULD YOU SAY YOUR EXPERIENCE WAS : -

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	MADE NO DIFFERENCE.
----------	----------	---------------------

5. IF YOUR EMPLOYER WAS TO OFFER A SUPPORT PROGRAMME, WHAT SERVICES WOULD YOU LIKE ?

- 6a. DESCRIBE YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR PARTNER.

6b. HOW EFFECTIVELY DO YOU FEEL YOU PERFORM YOUR ROLES IN YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR PARTNER ?

7a. DESCRIBE YOUR RELATIONSHIP WITH YOUR SUPERVISOR ?

7b. HOW SUCCESSFUL DO YOU SEE YOURSELF IN YOUR JOB ?

8. DO YOU HAVE ANY FURTHER COMMENTS ?

Thank you again for your time and co-operation in filling out this questionnaire.

Heaney, C, Price, R & Rafferty, J. (1995). Increasing coping resources at work : a field experiment to increase social support, improve work team functioning, and enhance employee mental health. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 335 -352.

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