

ECONOMIC CHANGE AND CHANGE IN WELL-BEING IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC – THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RURAL AND URBAN GENDERS

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A pattern of stress-distress found in the United States was extrapolated to the 1990–1995 Czech Republic. The country was and is in the phase of its transition from state socialism to democracy and market economy and population was experiencing economic hardships. The sample was created as representative of the Czech Republic; includes 1 090 wives and husbands, and 158 single households (45% men, 55% women, 50% respondents rural population and 50% urban population). The four distress measures are parts of Derogatis' (1983) SCL-90 symptomatology scale. Stressors in 1994 were measured by: financial problems, negative network events (family, friends, job problems). Vulnerability measured by social support, mastery developed by Pearlman et al. (1981). In the course of economic change in the Czech Republic, we found that economic strain has a greater effect on the symptoms of distress of men and women. Both urban and rural women reported higher level of distress than men. Unlike the United States, there was no pattern of men being distressed by negative economic and financial problems and women by network of social troubles. Czech women have working outside the home in great numbers for over generation, they are understandably distressed as much as men by job problems than family's and friend's events. The urban women had higher symptoms of depression, anxiety and hostility, the rural women had higher symptoms of somatization. The urban women experienced more job and financial problems than rural women but the differences were not significant. Mastery significantly reduced distress in urban and rural subsample with exception of hostility.

stress; distress; negative events; vulnerability

INTRODUCTION

As a result of the macropolitical and macroeconomic transformation in the Czech Republic, social life changed profoundly. A system of social equality

was replaced by considerable social and economic differences, in wealth and poverty. In 1990–1991 panel data were collected, when the former Czechoslovakia was in the early stages of its transition from state socialism to democracy and a free market. Unemployment was increasing and prices were rising well past wage inflation (Pechačová, Hrabá, 1991). Indicators of the Czech economy from 1989 to 1994 are shown in Tabs. I–IV. We have asked a question: Are there any principal differences in well-being between urban and rural population? Under the socialism 1948–1989 Czechoslovak women had one of the highest employment rate for women in Europe, although they faced wage and job discrimination. Since 1989, the employment rate of Czech women has fallen to the average for women in Europe. Stress from the country's economic transition in 1990–1991 was falling particularly on women, a trend that has continued in 1993 when 65% of a national sample agreed that stress for Czech women was increasing with the transition (Smolka, 1994).

The impact of economic reforms on the various sectors of the national economy has differed, as a result of different levels of competition within individual sectors. The structure of agriculture, with its large number of producers and the very small share of individual producers in the overall supply, means that it is approximately a model of perfect competition. In other input and secondary branches, however, competition is imperfect, with individual firms or groupings of firms able to influence the movement of prices and carry their increased costs over into those prices. The development of agriculture from 1990 to the present can be considered as positive since it has decreased overproduction and unproductive output. The individual agricultural entrepreneurs themselves will, however, play the decisive role in the further development of agriculture and in the achievement of the desired effect in the economics of production.

The transfer to a market economy has meant heavy pressure on agriculture to adapt, in terms of size, structure and performance, to the new economic conditions and market possibilities. During 1990–1993 agricultural property instate-owned estates to the value of 13.7 billion Czech crowns (CK) has been returned, and this represents 65% of the value of all property restituted as a results of claim upheld. 89.2% of the property was prepared for privatization in the agriculture. By 1993 entitled had been persons compensated for the loss of property to 66%.

The social and demographic dimension has also seen striking changes from 1989 to 1993. In comparison with the starting year 1989, when the average number of registered workers employed in agricultural primary production concerns was 531 000, there was a marked fall – in 1991 to 403 000 and in 1992 to 300 000 persons. In addition, in 1989 there were approximately

I. Gross domestic product created

Period	At current prices		At constant prices of 1984	
	CK bn	index*	CK bn	index*
1989	524.5	102.2	509.9	104.5
1990	567.3	108.2	503.7	98.8
1991	716.6	126.3	432.1	85.8
1992	791.0	110.4	404.5	93.6
1993	910.6	115.1	400.7	99.1
1994	1 037.5	113.9	411.2	102.6

* same period of previous year = 100

Source: Economic and social development indicators of Czech Republic, Czech Statistical Office, 4, 1994, Prague, March 31, 1995

II. Consumer prices and cost of living (Jan. 1989 = 100)

Period	Consumer prices index					Cost of living index for households of		
	total	farmers	pensioners	food	other goods	public catering	services	employees
1989	100.3	99.5	100.5	101.5	99.9	100.4	100.2	100.0
1990	109.9	110.5	110.5	110.1	106.8	109.9	109.8	109.9
1991	172.2	159.7	187.5	174.8	148.6	168.1	169.9	166.6
1992	191.3	174.2	204.4	189.5	186.6	187.3	188.5	188.8
1993	231.1	203.2	244.1	241.6	240.1	226.2	226.2	225.6
1994	254.3	222.1	265.3	260.0	280.8	249.8	247.3	250.5

60 000 workers employed in secondary production, and these are not included in the figures given above. A further fall is anticipated by 1995, meeting the target reduction to ca 220 000 workers. In the food industry we anticipate that by 1995 there will be 33 000 workers less than in 1989, i. e. an expected employment rate of 100 000 workers at the end of 1995 in the state and private sectors.

As of 30 Sept. 1993 there were 46 866 private farmers in the CR, of which the majority were farming land of up to 10 ha, such small-scale farms making up altogether 85 220 ha, i. e. approximately 12% of the overall area farmed by private farmers and only 2% of the overall area of agricultural land. These small farmers cannot be regarded as subjects in market enterprise.

III. Average monthly wages; job applicants

Period	Average monthly wages				Job applicants	
	total		Czech Republic		agriculture, hunting and forestry	
	CK	index	CK	index	total	unemployment rate (%)
1989	3 170	102.4	3 430	104.1	—	—
1990	3 286	103.7	3 603	105.0	39 379	0.73
1991	3 792	115.4	3 706	102.9	221 749	4.14
1992	4 644	122.5	4 264	115.1	134 788	2.57
1993	5 817	125.3	5 100	119.6	185 216	3.52
1994	6 896*	117.1	5 864*	113.1	166 480	3.19

* preliminary date

IV. Workforce in civil sector of national economy and some selected industries water supply

Period	Total CR		Including					
			mining and quarrying, manufacturing, electricity, gas water supply		agriculture, hunting and forestry		financial intermediation	
	thous. persons	index	thous. persons	index	thous. persons	index	thous. persons	index
1989	5 403	100.6	2 113	100.3	627	98.9	25	102.1
1990	5 351	99.1	2 025	95.8	631	100.3	28	109.5
1991	5 059	94.5	1 948	96.2	508	80.4	37	135.1
1992	4 927	97.4	1 798	92.3	425	83.8	51	136.1
1993*	4 848	98.4	1 710	95.0	331	77.9	65	126.9
1994*	4 899	101.1	1 652	97.4	341	99.6	75	117.0

* preliminary date

Source: the same as in Tabs. I-III

Out of the overall number of private farmers 8 466 are farming agricultural land larger than 10 ha. Of these 950 subjects are farming land more extensive than 100 ha. This group, the most important for the long term, represents ca 56% of the land area farmed by private farmers.

The "legal poverty" followed by the Sociological Institute of the Czech Academy of Sciences from 1990 was 2% households in 1990, 2.1% in 1994.

When we use the methods of Holland economists (subjective feeling of poverty) – survey by the question: "Which net income do you think is absolute minimum for your household?", 32.8% respondents feel poor.

Ian Traynor, a correspondent of the Guardian, summarized results of the Czech reform in 1994 in these words: "Last year, the Czech Republic posted the most impressive performance in the post-communist world: the only balanced budget in the region; modest growth paving a way for a boom this year; the lowest unemployment in Europe; only a slight fall in exports despite the collapse of trade with Slovakia; strides in mass privatization; a bullish young stock market, and strong Western investment."

Gender and distress in the United States

To put the Czech experience into perspective, we first review research on gender differences in stress-distress in the United States. American women report more and different distress symptoms than do men, more frequently utilize health care services for these symptoms, and gender differences persist in patients' diagnoses (e.g., Adelman, 1993; Aneshensel, 1992; Aneshensel et al., 1991; Cleary et al., 1982; Conger et al., 1993; Gore, Mangione, 1983; Kessler, McLeod, 1985; McLanahan, Glass, 1985; Marcus, Seeman, 1981; Marcus, Siegel, 1982; Newmann, 1984; Pearlin, Lieberman, 1978; Roberts, O'Keefe, 1981; Robbins, 1989; Russo, 1990). Women are more likely to report and be diagnosed as depressive, anxious, phobic, obsessive-compulsive, and having somatic symptoms; men are more likely to manifest anti-social behavior, including hostility, and drug and alcohol abuse. In short, there is a gender difference in distress, with women internalizing stress and men externalizing it.

Stressors that produce distress are also different for women than for men. Women are more distressed by negative events in their social networks, for example, and men more by negative economic events. Kessler and McLeod (1985) concluded these gender differences imply that women experience a "high cost of caring", for others if not for themselves.

There are many explanations for gender differences in stress and distress. First, because women and men have experienced different roles in American society, they have been exposed to different stressors and manifest types and amounts of distress (Aneshensel, 1992; Pearlin, 1989; Verbrugge, 1985, 1989). Women have been exposed to more social network stressors, for example, and men exposed more to negative financial and economic events. Differential exposure to stress in the United States is thought to be due to either gender stratification (inequality) or simple social differentiation

(Aneshensel, 1992; Silverstein et al., 1993; Conger et al., 1993; Mirowsky, Ross, 1989). Both versions converge on the assumption that because of gender role differences there are gender differences in the exposure to stress.

The second explanation is there are gender differences in the perception of stress (Coyné, Downey, 1991; Pearlin, 1989; Verbrugge, 1985, 1989). The perception of stress is appraising one's circumstances as stressful. Without appraisal there is no stress; in the words of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) "Psychological stress is a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being." In the United States, women are more likely to appraise their circumstances as stressful, or appraise different circumstances as more stressful compared to men and, thus, report different and more distress symptoms. We are especially interested in the hypothesis that Czech women are similar to American women by reporting more stress from social networks while Czech men report more stress from economic events. Since we are limited to respondents' reporting of stress in this study, we can test the second (perception) but not the first explanation (exposure) on gender differences in stress.

A third explanation is there are gender differences in the vulnerability to stress (Aneshensel, 1992; Conger et al., 1993; Coyné, Downey, 1991; Cronkite, Moos, 1984; Mirowsky, Ross, 1989; Pearlin, 1989; Verbrugge, 1989; Thoits, 1983). Certain personal states are thought to be resources that can buffer a person from the full impact of stress and, thus, reduce distress symptoms. The lack of these resources amounts to a vulnerability. Good physical health, a sense of mastery, self-esteem, and proactive coping strategies are examples of psychological resources (cf., Aneshensel, 1992; Coyné, Downey, 1991; Lin, Ensel, 1989; Pilisuk et al., 1993). Other resources with which to better cope with stress are social, such as socioeconomic status, financial wherewithal, and social support (e.g., Bakke, 1940; Cohen, Wills, 1985; Cronkite, Moos, 1984; Kasl, Cobb, 1979; Lin et al., 1986; Pilisuk et al., 1993; Reifman et al., 1991).

The simple version of the differential vulnerability hypothesis is that women have fewer of these resources and, thus, show more distress. A more complex version is that differential vulnerability to stress depends on the stressor (Conger et al., 1993). Women may be more vulnerable to negative network events and men to job and financial problems, although not all researchers would agree (Aneshensel et al., 1991). If true, we expect social support to reduce distress in women and mastery in men. Social support from one's personal network can buffer women from negative events from

the same networks, as mastery can buffer men from negative economic events by giving them the confidence to overcome these problems.

Once vulnerability is controlled, by implication, gender differences in distress will decline (McLanahan, Glass, 1985; Verbrugge, 1989).

Hypotheses

The basic changes in agriculture have started by 1991. The impact of these economic and social changes caused difficulties which became evident in agricultural sector from 1992 (Tabs. III, IV). During 1993-1995 we should expect, in view of the reality and our results of the study of 1990-1991, the following:

1. Gender differences in distress: Women will report more symptoms of distress than men in both urban and rural.
2. Rural women will report higher level of distress than urban women. Rural men will report more distress than urban men.
3. Rural men and women will report more exposure to negative economic events than urban subsample. The women, both rural and urban, will report lower levels of social support and mastery than men.
4. The differences in associations between separate stressors and psychological sources and dimensions of distress. The women's distress will be related to negative economic and financial events on the same level as at men. Both rural and urban men's and women's distress will be reduced by social support and mastery. The rationale behind this hypothesis are results from 1991 and different hardship in agriculture and others sectors of economy in the Czech Republic 1992-1995 (Hraba et al., 1994).

METHODS

Sample

The sample 1994, 1995 was drawn from a panel of 4 000 households contacted periodically by the Czech Statistical Bureau, Division of Family Budget and was created as representative of Czech Republic (the number, the territory). 703 households includes 545 husbands and wives, 141 single female-headed households and 17 single male-headed households. The questionnaires were sent to respondents in January 1994 and 1995 from Department of Psychology of the Czech University of Agriculture in Prague. From 774 households mailed questionnaires were returned 91% in 1995 (in 1994 have returned 97% usable questionnaires). The sample of respondents includes 1 090 wives and husbands and 158 single households (45% men, 55%

women). 79.8% of the respondents are from 19 to 55 years of age, 13.74% from 56 to 84 years. 97.42% are Czechs; 1.37% Slovaks; other 0.84%; 0.38% of respondents did not answer. With regards to their highest level of education, 5.54% has only elementary education, 23.92% finished training school, 47.38% finished practical high school, 9.95% finished secondary school, 12.76% were university graduates, 0.23% had highest scientific titles. 47.1% live in family houses, 23.39% in cooperative apartments, 26.65% in rent apartments. As to religion, 49.81% of sample response are unbelievers, 49.43% response the romancatholic religion (43.58%), evangelic rel. 3.57%, other church 2.28%; 0.76% respondents did not answer.

Measures

Distress in 1995. The four distress measures are parts of Derogatis' (1983) SCL-90 symptomatology scale. Depressive symptoms in 1995 were assessed using thirteen items such as loss of sexual interest, crying easily, low energy levels, thoughts of suicide, feeling blue and worried, hopelessness and worthlessness, etc., with response categories ranging from not at all (0) to extremely (4). The reliability of the depression items was $\alpha = 0.87$. The hostility measure in 1995 consisted of six items, asking about feeling easily irritated, getting into frequent arguments, having temper outbursts, having the urge to harm someone or something, etc. Responses to each item ranged from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely), and the scale was reliable $\alpha = 0.71$.

The anxiety measure in 1995 was comprised of 10 items, asking about anxiety symptoms such as feeling shaky inside, trembling, feeling suddenly scared for no reason, being fearful, a racing heart, feeling tense or keyed up, having spells of terror or panic, feeling restless, feeling something bad will happen, and having thoughts of a frightening nature. Responses to each item ranged from 0 to 4, and the scale was reliable ($\alpha = 0.81$). The somatization measure in 1995 is also part of the SCL-90. The somatization dimension was comprised of 12 items, asking about somatization symptoms such as headaches, faintness, pains in the heart or chest, pains in lower back, soreness of muscles, trouble getting breath, etc. The reliability of somatization scale was $\alpha = 0.83$.

Alcohol was measured by three items: how many days during the last 30 days they did: drink some kind of hard liquor such as vodka, rum: drink wine; drink beer. We have not found basic differences in consumption of alcohol between rural and urban respondents. There are differences between men and women in consumption of hard drinks and beer (the men's consumption of these drinks is higher than at women).

Perception of stressors in 1994. A measure of job problems 1994 was obtained by asking respondents about job problems during the last 12 months. There are 5 items in this scale: changing jobs for a worse one, having trouble at work or with a boss, taking a cut in wages, being fired, and being unemployed for a long period of time. Twenty one percent of respondents reported job problems during 1994 (24% urban men and 19% rural men, 20.5% urban women and 22.1% rural women).

Financial problems in 1994 were measured by asking respondents about financial problems in the past year. This is a five-item scale: suffering a financial loss, dipping heavily into family savings because of financial problems, selling any property to pay off debts, selling some property because of low profits, and quitting farming or business because of financial difficulties. 27 percent of the respondents reported financial problems during 1994. The more rural respondents reported financial problems than urban respondents.

Negative network events experienced during 1994 were obtained by providing respondents with a list of events they could have experienced and then asking them if each event happened to them. The scale of negative friend events included five items, asking about friends moving away, breaking relations with a close friend, friends being injured, having friends with marital problems, and having friends who died. 22 percent of the respondents reported negative friend events (urban respondents 24.9%, rural respondents 19%). The scale of negative family events included six items, asking about conflict within households, spouses starting alcohol use, children involved with alcohol, children with problems achieving independence, children with unwanted pregnancies, and having a family pet die. 28.6% of the respondents reported negative family events in 1994 (no significant differences between urban and rural respondents).

Vulnerability. Social support in 1994 was developed from Cohen and Hoberman's (1983) Interpersonal Social Evaluation List. The social support measure includes perceptions of support from others, reports of tangible support from others, and a sense of belonging. Respondents were asked questions such as whether they have someone who can give them advice on how they are handling their problems, if they have someone who can help them make household repairs or take them to the doctor, and if they have someone with whom they can talk when feeling lonely. The scale consists of 17 items with four response categories each. Social support was reliable ($\alpha = 0.61$).

Developed by Pearlman et al. (1981), mastery measures a sense of internal control over one's life in 1994. Mastery is a seven-item scale, with questions such as: there is really no way I can solve some of my problems, I feel that I am being pushed around, I have little control over the things that

happen to me, I can do just about anything that I set my mind to, I feel helpless, what happens to me in the future mostly depends on me, and that is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life. Response categories ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree, and the scale is reliable ($\alpha = 0.74$). It is the absence of mastery and social support that makes people vulnerable to stress.

RESULTS

Gender differences in distress

Did rural and urban women in 1995 manifest the same pattern of distress found in 1991, in the Czech Republic? Tabs. V and VI present means and standard deviations for distress symptoms. Both rural and urban women have higher depression symptoms than men (urban subsample: $t = -4.82$, $p = 0.000$; rural subsample: $t = -5.73$, $p = 0.000$), were more anxious than men (urban: $t = -4.33$, $p = 0.000$; rural: $t = -4.13$, $p = 0.000$). Women had higher somatization scores and were less hostile than men. All findings are significant except for hostility. This gender pattern is consistent with previous findings in 1991.

Differences in distress between urban and rural women and between urban and rural men

The hypothesis, that distress of both rural gender will be higher than for urban men and women was not confirmed (Tabs. VII, VIII). The urban women had higher symptoms of depression, anxiety and hostility, the rural women had higher symptoms of somatization. These same findings were for both rural and urban men.

Differences in the perception of stress and in vulnerability between urban and rural gender

Urban women and men experienced more job and financial problems than rural both genders (except for financial problems of men Tab. X) but the differences were not significant. The comparison of gender results present no basic differences in job and financial problems at women and men. The women of whole sample manifest more negative friend and family events than men. These problems are higher at urban respondents than rural respondents (Tabs. IX, X). The findings were not significant. The rural and urban

V. Means and standard deviations of distress (1995) by urban men and women in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		<i>t</i> -value	Possible range
	urban men	urban women		
Depression	5.97 (6.43)	9.11 (8.38)	-4.82 ($p = 0.000$)	0-52
Anxiety	3.92 (4.29)	5.72 (5.48)	-4.33 ($p = 0.000$)	0-40
Somatization	6.72 (6.29)	8.20 (7.07)	-2.45 ($p = 0.015$)	0-48
Hostility	3.45 (3.18)	3.41 (3.13)	0.23 ($p = 0.816$)	0-24

VI. Means and standard deviations of distress (1995) by rural men and women in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		<i>t</i> -value	Possible range
	rural men	rural women		
Depression	5.42 (6.23)	8.71 (7.77)	-5.73 ($p = 0.000$)	0-52
Anxiety	3.62 (4.20)	5.23 (5.35)	-4.13 ($p = 0.000$)	0-40
Somatization	7.17 (6.61)	8.36 (6.80)	-2.09 ($p = 0.037$)	0-48
Hostility	3.42 (3.51)	3.36 (3.20)	0.12 ($p = 0.904$)	0-24

VII. Means and standard deviations of distress (1995) by rural and urban women in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		<i>t</i> -value	Possible range
	urban women	rural women		
Depression	9.11 (8.38)	8.71 (7.77)	0.56 ($p = 0.575$)	0-52
Anxiety	5.72 (5.48)	5.23 (5.35)	1.15 ($p = 0.251$)	0-40
Somatization	8.20 (7.07)	8.36 (6.80)	-0.32 ($p = 0.748$)	0-48
Hostility	3.41 (3.13)	3.36 (3.20)	0.22 ($p = 0.828$)	0-24

VIII. Means and standard deviations of distress (1995) by rural and urban men in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		<i>t</i> -value	Possible range
	urban men	rural men		
Depression	5.97 (6.43)	5.42 (6.23)	1.20 ($p = 0.231$)	0-52
Anxiety	3.92 (4.29)	3.62 (4.20)	0.84 ($p = 0.402$)	0-40
Somatization	6.72 (6.29)	7.17 (6.61)	-0.74 ($p = 0.458$)	0-48
Hostility	3.45 (3.18)	3.42 (3.51)	0.25 ($p = 0.799$)	0-24

IX. Means and standard deviations of exposure to stress (1994) and vulnerability (1994) by rural and urban women in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		t-value	Possible range
	urban women	rural women		
Negative economic event				
Job problem	0.32 (0.76)	0.29 (0.63)	0.44 ($p = 0.657$)	0-7
Financial problem	0.42 (0.82)	0.39 (0.69)	0.39 ($p = 0.696$)	0-7
Negative network event				
Friends	0.53 (1.34)	0.38 (1.09)	1.50 ($p = 0.134$)	0-5
Nuclear family	0.53 (1.23)	0.61 (1.34)	-1.17 ($p = 0.242$)	0-6
Social support	40.66 (4.71)	40.85 (4.60)	-0.63 ($p = 0.527$)	17-68
Mastery	22.56 (3.29)	22.69 (3.13)	-0.49 ($p = 0.625$)	7-35

X. Means and standard deviations of exposure to stress (1994) and vulnerability (1994) by urban and rural men in the Czech Republic

	Mean (SD)		t-value	Possible range
	urban men	rural men		
Negative economic event				
Job problem	0.42 (0.93)	0.31 (0.75)	1.80 ($p = 0.074$)	0-7
Financial problem	0.38 (0.77)	0.40 (0.73)	0.00 ($p = 1.00$)	0-7
Negative network event				
Friends	0.47 (1.10)	0.35 (0.72)	1.44 ($p = 0.150$)	0-5
Nuclear family	0.40 (0.95)	0.40 (0.79)	0.39 ($p = 0.696$)	0-6
Social support	41.41 (5.36)	41.40 (5.24)	-0.20 ($p = 0.845$)	17-68
Mastery	23.54 (2.77)	23.17 (2.62)	1.41 ($p = 0.158$)	7-35

women and men reported comparable levels of social support and mastery (Tabs. IX, X).

The associations between symptoms of distress and negative events, social support, mastery by urban and rural genders

The significant associations of distress symptoms with negative events for urban men are shown in Tab. XI. Mastery significantly reduced distress in urban and rural subsamples with exception of hostility (Tabs. XI-IV).

XI. Associations between symptoms of distress and negative events; social support, mastery by urban men

	Depression	Anxiety	Somatization	Hostility
Job problems	0.136	0.068	0.095	0.1512
Financial problems	0.096	0.092	0.092	0.200 ^x
Negative friend events	0.2015 ^{xx}	0.199 ^x	0.128	0.162 ^x
Negative family events	0.139	0.168 ^x	0.100	0.177 ^x
Social support	0.074	0.079	0.031	0.079
Mastery	-0.270 ^{xx}	-0.254 ^{xx}	-0.207 ^{xx}	-0.132

^x sign. 0.01, ^{xx} sign. 0.001

XII. Associations between symptoms of distress and negative events; social support, mastery by rural men

	Depression	Anxiety	Somatization	Hostility
Job problems	0.020	0.029	0.029	-0.014
Financial problems	0.084	0.059	0.039	0.071
Negative friend events	0.042	0.031	-0.057	0.081
Negative family events	0.111	0.087	0.014	0.110
Social support	0.030	-0.028	0.046	-0.045
Mastery	-0.271 ^{xx}	-0.181 ^x	-0.179 ^x	-0.193 ^{xx}

^x sign. 0.01, ^{xx} sign. 0.001

DISCUSSION

In the course of economic change in the Czech Republic, we found that economic strain has a greater effect on the symptoms of distress of men and women. Both urban and rural women reported higher level of distress than men. Unlike the United States, there was no pattern of men being distressed by negative economic and financial problems and women by network of social troubles. Czech women have been working outside the home in great numbers for over generation, they are understandably distressed as much as men by job problems than family's and friend's events.

We have not found significant differences in distress symptoms between urban and rural genders as was expected in view of the fact that the transfer to a market economy has meant heavy pressure on agriculture to adapt, in terms of size, structure and performance, to the new economic condition and

XIII. Associations between symptoms of distress and negative events; social support, mastery by urban women

	Depression	Anxiety	Somatization	Hostility
Job problems	0.105	0.112	0.068	0.054
Financial problems	0.058	0.025	0.066	0.018
Negative friend events	0.046	0.022	0.121	0.030
Negative family events	0.130	0.120	0.131	0.075
Social support	0.054	0.093	-0.033	0.074
Mastery	-0.288 ^{xx}	-0.274 ^{xx}	-0.148 ^x	-0.118

^x sign. 0.01, ^{xx} sign. 0.001

XIV. Associations between symptoms of distress and negative events; social support, mastery by rural women

	Depression	Anxiety	Somatization	Hostility
Job problems	0.060	0.044	0.040	0.082
Financial problems	0.115	0.110	0.128	0.140
Negative friend events	-0.022	0.004	0.045	0.022
Negative family events	0.115	0.084	0.009	0.090
Social support	-0.087	-0.113	-0.100	-0.052
Mastery	-0.207 ^{xx}	-0.174 ^x	-0.147 ^x	-0.119

^x sign. 0.01, ^{xx} sign. 0.001

market possibilities. The rural people have to go through three processes: restitutions, privatization and transformation. These processes have brought a reduction of work places in agriculture and employees have to find the jobs in other sectors of economy.

The urban women and men experienced more job and financial problems than both rural genders but the differences were not significant. The comparable levels of social support and mastery (vulnerability to stress) was found.

The significant influence of mastery to reduce the symptoms in urban and rural gender subsamples was confirmed with exception of hostility. There may be two explanations for the lack of a rural/urban difference in stress and distress despite the greater changes in Czech agriculture since 1990. First the changes in Czech Agriculture have impacted people in that sector not in a uniform way; rather the consequences have been uneven for rural Czechs. Some farm workers have undoubtedly experienced severe economic stress,

as their position in agriculture was changing for the worst without compensatory opportunities opening for them off-the-farm. Unskilled farm workers are an example. Other former agricultural workers have found new opportunities with the transformation, however, illustrated by skilled workers and managers finding new jobs in construction and banking, respectively off-the-farm. Future research that compares the stress-distress of rural/urban Czech must differentiate between these types of former workers in agriculture.

Furthermore, rural people may better cope with economic stress by making-to with home production of food and other essentials to compensate for price inflation. By reducing their exposure to inflation, rural people as a category may have experienced no more economic stress and thus, distress than urban Czechs. Future research could also study this possibility.

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PECHAČOVÁ, Z. – HRABA, J. – HRADECKÝ, J. – LORENZ, F. (Česká zemědělská univerzita, Provozně ekonomická fakulta, Praha, Česká republika; Iowa State University, Department of Sociology, Ames, Iowa, USA):

Ekonomická změna a změna v životní pohodě v České republice – rozdíly mezi venkovským a městským obyvatelstvem.

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Důsledky ekonomické reformy v České republice od roku 1990 byly v jednotlivých odvětvích ekonomiky rozdílné. Relativně velkými změnami procházelo zemědělství. Výzkum zaměřený na vyrovnávání se se změnami pracuje s modelem stres-distres nalezeným v USA a aplikovaným v České republice. Soubor byl tvořen 1 248 respondenty (545 manželských párů, 158 jednočlenných domácností). Distres v roce 1995 byl měřen čtyřmi dimenzemi Derogatisovy symptomatologické škály SCL-90 (deprese, anxieta, hostilita, somatizace).

Stresory v roce 1994 byly: finanční problémy, negativní sociální události a zranitelnost vůči stresu, která byla zjišťována úrovní sociální podpory a sebekontroly. Stanovené hypotézy předpokládaly vyšší úroveň distresu u venkovského obyvatelstva, rozdíly v distresu mezi muži a ženami a rozdíly v závislostech mezi stresory a psychologickými zdroji na straně jedné a dimenzemi stresu na straně druhé. Výsledky signifikantně nepotvrdily rozdíly v symptomech distresu mezi městskou a venkovskou populací. Byl prokázán signifikantní vliv sebekontroly redukující distres u obou subsouborů kromě hostility. Městské i venkovské ženy vypovídaly o vyšší úrovni distresu než muži. Byly stresovány jak problémy v zaměstnání, tak negativními sociálními událostmi (rodina, přátelé). Domníváme se, že negativní dopady ekonomického tlaku na venkově jsou kompenzovány možnostmi výroby vlastních potravin, levnějších služeb a nižších cen v obchodech. Příčiny zjištěných výsledků budou zkoumány v budoucím výzkumu dané problematiky.

stres-distres; negativní události; zranitelnost

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