1.1 INTRODUCTION

Education is a basic human right and a significant factor in the development of children, communities, and countries. Education is the window to the knowledge and progress in the modern society. The percentage of illiterate population in the country is deprived of the increase in overall knowledge and progress in particular spheres of social life. Human brain is built in a way that it develops itself by absorbing new information and transferring it through internal perception tool in order to receive unique and reasonable outcome in the shape of thoughts, emotions, conclusions and feelings. With that picture in our mind, it becomes evident that we need learning. Education is the best way to make this learning process as efficient and effective for our individual needs as possible. Education is not just restricted to teaching a person the basic academics, but a much larger term. It is one of the most important factors which formulate the personality of a person. It is a productive and beneficial factor in a person’s life.

The training of a human mind is incomplete without education. Only because of education a person is able to receive information for external humanity to notify him with past and received essential information concerning present. Education is mandatory for society. Man cannot be conceived merely in terms of his biological existence. Education brings into the social aspect of man. It teaches what man lives and struggles for. It cultivates an integrated life. Man becomes ‘man’ through education. He is what education makes him.

1.2 DISABILITY

There is a large and growing number of persons with disabilities in the world today. “The estimated figure of 500 million is confirmed by the result of surveys of segments of population, coupled with the observations of experienced investigators.
In most countries, at least one person out of 10 is disabled by physical, mental or sensory impairment, and at least 25 percent of any population is adversely affected by the presence of disability” (UN, 2003). Many persons with disabilities are denied employment or given only menial and poorly remunerated jobs. In times of unemployment and economic crises, the disabled are the first to be fired and last to be hired. “Many disabled persons are excluded from the active participation in society because of doorways that are too narrow for wheelchairs; steps that cannot be mounted leading to buildings, buses, trains and aircraft; telephones and switches that cannot be reached; sanitary facilities that can not be used. Similarly they can be excluded by other types of barriers, e.g. oral communication which ignores the needs of hearing impaired and written information which ignores the needs of visually impaired” (UN, 2003). These barriers exist because of lack of concern, and awareness about the special needs of disabled persons. Many of these can be removed without incurring heavy cost but just through careful planning and a little bit concern for the persons with disabilities. Human resource management can perform vital role in formulating policies and procedures in critical Human Resource (HR) matters like equal employment opportunities for disabled, compensation, promotion, job security, working conditions, career development and advancement, fair treatment, reward systems, and job design.

1.2.1 The Concept of disability

The concept of disability is as much ideological as it is theoretical. A starting point to understand this is the social model of disability. The social model of disability is a term coined by Oliver (1990). The essence of this perspective is that it is society that is disabling rather than the physiological and psychological characteristics of individuals. Socially disabling effects can be multiple and varied. For example, they might take the form of the physical barriers in the made environment (such as flights of steps being the only means of access to a building); they might be attitudinal barriers – such as a company’s unwillingness to use adaptive technology to employ a visually challenged person. To paraphrase this view, it is the absence of lifts and ramps or an organisation’s employment practices that disable people’s mobility, employment and other opportunities.
The social model sets its face squarely against the so-called medical model of disability which constructs disability as entirely inherent to the individual. Social model advocates argue that the medical model locates the causes of disability entirely in the person himself for example, poorly functioning limbs, low levels of visually acuity or disproportionate anxiety in the face of routine adversity. The medical model is deeply flawed because it denies the social causes of disability. The medical model is ‘so-called’ because, as Low (2001) has argued, a medical model has never been formulated, defined or championed. The model only exists in the eyes of its detractors. This is not to deny that historical and contemporary attitudes and beliefs about disability have marginalised and disadvantaged people with a disability. But the argument is that to attribute this to a ‘medical model’ denies the phenomena that inherent physiological and psychological characteristics – as well as social factors – can and do play a part in and of themselves in the life experiences of people with a disability.

Disability academics and activists such as Low argue that disability should be seen as both a social construct and as an experience arising from the specific physiological or psychological characteristics of individuals. Disability arises from the interaction of social and individual factors and responses to it should be designed accordingly (Low 2006).

1.3 VISUALLY IMPAIRMENT

Visually impairment is vision loss, due to low vision or blindness, that significantly limits visually capability. It may be the result of disease, trauma, or a congenital or degenerative condition, and cannot be improved by conventional means, such as refractive correction, medication, or surgery (Arditi and Rosenthal, 1998). Carrying out daily activities adequately is often a major problem, making visually impairment one of the most important barriers to participation. In the Netherlands, adults with severe, irreversible visually impairment can attend a comprehensive rehabilitation programme. Information on the efficacy of these programmes becomes more and more important: patients are asking for the best treatment available in order to improve their participation, and government institutions and insurance companies are demanding a cost-effective treatment.
The visually impaired is an umbrella term, used widely and understood in an educational context. This term is used to describe the total group of persons whose vision is affected by impairments in seeing, irrespective of the nature or extent of these. The term refers to all the persons where vision disadvantage has resulted from impairment as well as disabilities. In case of persons who are completely without vision, or who have light perception only, it is desirable to use the term “blind”. In all other cases of visually defects falling in the definition, the term “visually impaired” should preferably be used. For the persons who do not fall in the category of blindness as defined in the Act and whose visually acuity falls between 6/18 and 6/60 in the better eye after the best possible correction, the term “low vision” should be used.

- **Functional vision score**

  The functional vision of a person depends on the degree of visually impairment and is related to activities of daily living, the basic tasks of everyday life, such as eating, bathing, dressing, going to the toilet, and moving from place to place. There have been several attempts to develop a score for visually functioning. The Functional Vision Score (FVS) was developed by Colenbrander (Brody et al. 2002)

  The FVS combines visually acuity and visually field into one overall score with the possibility of correcting for other vision related impairments; it was adopted by the American Medical Association (AMA) in order to bring uniformity into the classification of disability by visually impairment, which lacked hitherto. The AMA subsequently published guidelines on compensation for eye injuries. (Brody et al., 2005). The FVS is based on the Functional Acuity Score (FAS) and the Functional Field Score (FFS). The Functional Acuity Score (FAS) is calculated by combining three Visually Acuity Scores, that is, for binocular vision, the right eye and the left eye. A Visually Acuity Score (VAS), is a conversion of the best-corrected visually acuity value obtained for binocular vision (ODS), for the right eye (OD) and for the left eye (OS). In the same way, the Functional Field Score (FFS) is a combination of the Visually Field Scores (VFS) for binocular vision, the right eye and the left eye.

- **Background of the definition of visually impairment**

  Visually impairment is measured in the better eye with the best possible correction. In the WHO International Statistical Classification of Diseases, Injuries
and Causes of Death (ICD–10) (World Health Organization, 1992). Low vision is defined as a visually acuity of less than 6/18, but equal to or better than 3/60, or a corresponding visually field loss of less than 20 degrees. Blindness is defined as a visually acuity of less than 3/60, or corresponding visually field loss of less than 10 degrees. However, a visually acuity loss or visually field loss, which alone would not be severe enough to be classified as visually impairment, may in combination be disabling. Therefore, using visually acuity and visually fields separately to assess visually impairment is inadequate for expressing a person’s visually functioning, that is, his or her ability or disability to carry out the activities of daily living.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) defines visually impairment on the basis of distance visually acuity (VA) and this is the reporting standard for all internationally comparative epidemiological studies of visually impairment. A widely used clinical definition of visually impairment is in terms of measures of distance visually acuity using a Snellen chart, the chart familiar to anyone that has had an eye examination by an optometrist. Snellen tests measure the size of letters on a chart that can be read over a distance of six meters. A limitation of Snellen charts is that they are not reliable at lower levels of visually acuity and LogMAR tests have been developed to deal with this. Other clinical measures may be used, such as field of vision and contrast sensitivity, and these provide alternate or additional information about other visually problems such as peripheral vision or colour recognition

➤ **Prevalence and causes of visually impairment**

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), in 2002, the estimated number of people with visually impairment was in excess of 161 million, of which 37 million were blind and 124 million had low vision; (Tennant, McKenna and Hagell, 2004), 85% of the visually impaired lived in Third World countries. Worldwide, more than 82% of blind people are aged 50 years and older; the proportional rise in the aging population means that by the year 2020, the number of visually impaired people will have increased by 46.8% (Griffin-Shirley N., 1994).

Most population-based studies are performed in elderly populations, (add references 12-21) where the main causes of visually impairment are age-related macular degeneration, cataract and glaucoma. Although vision loss is a serious
disability at any age, it is especially so for those of working age. Despite this, epidemiological data on blindness and low vision in this age group are scarce and insufficient, as shown by a recent overview of epidemiological studies of visually impaired people aged 20-59 years published in Western Europe, North America and Australia (Vos, Willems and Houtepen, 2004).

In India, the broad definition of visually impairment as adopted in the Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act, 1995 as well as under the National Programme for Control of Blindness (NPCB) is given below:

**Blindness**: refers to a condition where a person suffers from any of the following conditions, namely:

- Total absence of sight; or
- Visually acuity not exceeding 6/60 or 20/200 (Snellen) in the better eye even with correction lenses; or
- Limitation of the field of vision subtending an angle of 20 degree or worse.

For deciding the blindness, the visually acuity as well as field of vision have been considered.

**Low Vision**: The Persons with Disabilities Act, 1995 also recognizes low vision as a category of disability and defines it as follows:

“Person with low vision” means a person with impairment of visually functioning even after treatment or standard refractive correction but who uses or is potentially capable of using vision for the planning or execution of a task with appropriate assistive device”.

This definition is incomplete as it inadvertently omits quantification of the acuity as well as the field of vision as is done in the case of the WHO definition. It is desirable to modify this definition and the following quantification should be added:

“Low vision are those who suffer visually acuity between 20/200 to 70/200 (Snellen) or 6/18 to 6/60 in the better eye after the best possible correction or a Field of Vision between 20 to 30 degrees”.

The Census Report (2001) gives the employment status of persons with visually impairment in Table 1.1
Table 1 shows that with regard to persons with visually impairment, as many as 42.5 lakhs were engaged in various occupations; about 64 lakh disabled people were not employed. Among those employed, 72.58 per cent were male and 27.41 per cent were female. The employment rate of persons with visually impairment was 19.38 per cent among the disabled in the country.

The Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment, Government of India, in pursuance of the provisions of Section 32 of the Persons with Disabilities Act, 1995 constituted an Expert Committee for identifying the jobs for persons with disabilities in both government offices and public sector undertakings. The notification was issued in May 2001 where jobs for the persons with orthopaedic, hearing and visually impairment were listed for A, B, C, and D Group employees. For visually challenged, there were 216 types of jobs identified for A and B Groups, 179 for Group C and 22 for Group D levels. This exercise was undertaken to fill up 3 per cent reserved posts for persons with disabilities in the government and the public sector undertakings.

➢ Technology for the Visually Impaired

Impairment relates to the functional limitation of a sensory organ. If we see disability in this perspective then it only means that we need to use a little more or a little different technology to compensate for the limitation imposed, compared to the average, normal person. To understand the relationship between technology and disability, we must understand that impairment is the limitation of the capacities and
capabilities of the sensory organ whereas disability is the functional limitation consequent to impairment.

This clearly implies that a visually challenged person can do most of the things that a visually normal person can, but with the help of appropriate technologies and tools and perhaps using modified ways and means. However, the technology and tools may not reach the needy persons at appropriate time/place. Some reasons for this are given below:

**Availability**: Right kind of tools, especially those that are meant for persons with disability are not available in the general market. Lack of proper distribution system is also to be blamed for the lack of availability.

**Affordability**: Cost of technology or tools are often prohibitive. For example, the screen reading software is the basic technology to be used by visually challenged persons with or low vision to work on the computer. This software costs more than the computer hardware.

**Awareness**: The potential beneficiaries often are not even aware of what is available for their benefit.

**Language**: Currently, the latest and the most effective technology available in developed countries are not available in Indian languages. For example, a scanner can be used by blind persons to read printed books. This technology which is in use for English language for the past 20 years, is not available for any Indian language till date. For this reason, most of these tools are useful to that small percentage of visually challenged persons who know English.

In the past decade, introduction of technology such as screen reading software, text reading machines, talking mobile phone, drawing boards, geometric kit, cassette recorder or a digital recorder, etc., have played an important role in changing the meaning of visually impairment or low vision. Steps are also being taken to overcome the challenges that are mentioned above. Many efforts are being made to introduce Indian language screen reading applications. The information technology in general is making efforts to bridge the digital divide.

It is definitely possible for a visually challenged person or low vision to be totally independent for all their reading and writing needs. Some of the revolutionary
technologies that have already made a difference in the lives of visually challenged persons are as follows:

Since computers have affected the lives of one and all, they are being used in every walk of life. One of the salient features of the PC is that it stores information in digital format. This information can be expressed or conveyed in many different ways. Same piece of information can be viewed on screen in different sizes or could be spoken out by the PC itself. One who cannot see, can hear a piece of information and the same information could be seen on the screen by a person who cannot hear. Therefore, information technology has bring revolution in providing functional capabilities for persons with sensory impairment.

To illustrate, capabilities that this tool offers to visually challenged persons are as follows:

1. Read and write in the format commonly used.
2. Use voice and text communication tools such as e-mail, web chat, internet telephony and instant chatting.
3. Use the Internet for all the purposes that it offers such as reading newspapers and magazines, Internet banking, online shopping, etc.
4. Gain access to dictionaries, encyclopaedia, telephone directories, etc.

➢ Information Technology

What the information technology has made accessible to visually challenged persons are as under:

1. Screen Reading Software and Text-to-Speech Engine (TTS)

Appropriate speech output from a computer enables persons with blindness to use a computer.

This speech output comprises of two components:

(a) Screen Reading Software: The screen reading software is a computer programme that picks up the relevant information from the screen and sends the information to text-to-speech engine or speech synthesizer or a Refreshable Braille Display. This software determines what would be spoken by the computer.
There are innumerable screen layouts and user interfaces of computer applications. To be able to determine what would be the appropriate text to be spoken in each of those screens is an unending task. Screen readers need regular upgradation as new programs and applications are introduced in the market from time-to-time. A single key of the keyboard does different things in different softwares on a computer. For example, in a word processing environment, right arrow goes to next character whereas in the menu bar right arrow takes the focus to the next menu item. The speech output required in these two situations differs entirely. In the first situation only one character needs to be spoken whereas in the second situation complete item of focus needs to be spoken. Therefore, the screen reader sends the speech output in relation to the key pressed and the situation where the key is pressed.

It is not possible for any company making screen reader to design appropriate speech output for every application. Therefore, most of the screen reading software provides tools to customize the speech output of the screen reading software so that the users themselves can configure the screen reading software to make it compatible with any application that they have to use.

A text-to-speech engine is the software which converts any text string into a spoken word. A screen-reading software determines what will be spoken and the text-to-speech engine determine how that text would be pronounced. The quality of speech output and the various voices depend entirely on the text-to-speech engine.

(b) Text-to-Speech-Engine: Apart from being used as a speaking device for the screen reading software, the TTS is used in various other applications such as computerized telephonic inquiry systems, computerized announcement systems. To be able to design a speech output system for any particular language, it is essential to have a text-to-speech engine for that particular language. Screen reading software can then be designed or adapted to give appropriate speech output to visually challenged persons in that particular language. Screen reading software and a text-to-speech engine are entirely two different application programs, which, working in tandem, provide accessibility to computers for visually challenged persons. Jaws for windows from Freedom Scientific USA, Window Eyes from GW-Micro USA, Hal from Dolphin UK, Look Out by Premier Programming USA, etc., are all examples of
screen reading softwares that use text-to-speech engines such as Eloquence by Eloquent Technology, Microsoft speech from Microsoft, Flex Talk from ATNT, Deck Talk Access from Digital Equipments, etc., to provide speech output. The cost of screen reading softwares ranges from 150 US dollars to 1,200 US dollars.

2. Screen Magnification Software: This software is designed to enable persons with low vision who can read large print to operate a computer. The condition of low vision varies widely. Therefore the screen magnification software offers magnification from 2 to 20 times and come in varying styles such as full screen magnification, magnifying lense simulation, vertical or horizontal split window magnification, etc. This magnification is different from increasing the font size. Increasing the font size would change the formatting of a document and would not provide magnification for items such as menus, etc.

Screen magnification software, on the other hand, magnifies only the display of the document on the monitor and the original formatting of the document is preserved.

Magnification softwares provide magnification to any and every part of the screen and not just to the text of the document. These softwares have enhanced capabilities for using different color contrast. A few of the screen magnification softwares also use speech output to help a person with low vision to lessen the strain. With the use of the screen magnification software persons with low vision use the same devices of the input such as the mouse and a keyboard used by a sighted person which allows the easy integration of the persons with low vision in the mainstream computer education or work environment.

Operating systems such as Windows are now supplied with in-built screen magnification software which has a limited capability. Magic by Freedom Scientific USA, Zoom Text by Ai-Square USA, Lunar by Dolphin UK are some of the examples of screen magnification softwares designed specially for persons with low vision. Screen magnification softwares cost between 80 and 600 US dollars.

3. OCR and Scanners

An OCR and a Scanner turns a computer into a reading machine for those with low vision and the blind. This equipment helps them to gain access to the hard copy of hard copy
of the text. The scanner sends the image of the printed-paper to the computer where the OCR software processes the image and converts it into a digital text which can be read using the text-to-speech engine or through a Refreshable Braille Display. Within a few seconds of starting to scan a paper, the computer starts reading it. This system can read only the print, but not the handwritten text.

The OCR softwares also have a limitation of not being able to recognize the text correctly if the printing is not of an excellent quality. There are a few OCR softwares designed specially for visually challenged person. These are more user-friendly in processing tables, images, columns, etc. They are supplied with built-in text-to-speech engines, thereby eliminating the use of screen-reading software for reading purposes.

These special OCRs are much more expensive than the general purpose OCRs. Kurzweil 1000 by Kurzweil Education Systems USA, Open Book by Freedom Scientific USA, Complete Reading System by Premier Programming USA are a few examples of special OCR softwares made for visually challenged person. Omni Page Professional, Text Bridge and Fine Reader are the examples of general-purpose OCR softwares which can be used by visually challenged persons with the help of screen reading softwares. The cost of OCRs ranges from 150 to 1000 US dollars.

4. **Refreshable Braille Display**

A Refreshable Braille Display is a hardware device, an alternate output device for a text-to-speech engine. The Refreshable Braille Display gives one line of Braille information which is sent out by the screen reading software. This line of Braille keeps changing as new information is sent by the screen reader to the Braille display. There are various models of Braille display which can provide 20, 40 or 80 cells of Braille at a time. There is a greater chance of adaptability of Braille output for different languages since the basic Braille cells remain the same for every language. The very high cost of Braille display comes in the way of its use in developing countries. Alva Delphi Multimedia & Alva Satellite by Alva Access Group, Braille Stars by Pulse Data Human Ware, Braille Ellex by Paper Meyer Company Germany Power Braille by Freedom Scientific, Vario by Braum Germany are a few examples.
of Refreshable Braille Displays. The various models of Braille display of 40/80 cells cost between 4,500 and 11,000 US dollars.

5. **Note-takers**

Braille note-takers are essentially hand-held devices that use either a Braille or QWERTY keyboard for input and voice and/or refreshable Braille for output. These devices have built-in packages for word-processing, spread sheets, address book, clock, calendar, e-mail, internet browsing, etc. These devices have long battery backups that enable its use without power input for a whole day. Lightweight and highly portable, they can be connected to desktop or laptop computers so that files may be backed up.

Some note-takers can be connected to external disk drives (for an additional cost) to permit storing files on CDs. Many of these note-takers can be attached to a modem for handling e-mails and web browsing. They can also be attached to Braille embossers/printers. Note-takers are extremely useful devices for students of integrated education and in work environment. Aria by Robotron Australia, Braille Desk 2000 by Artic Technologies; Braille Lite Millennium, P ACmate, Type n’ Speak, Type Lite, Braille n’ Speak by Freedom Scientific; Braille Note & Voice Note by Pulse Data HumanWare; Braille Elba by Papenmejer Germany; TransType 2000 by Artic Technologies are a few examples. Cost of these note-takers range between 1,200 and 5,000 US dollars.

6. **Voice Diary**

Voice Diary, a small hand held device, has multiple applications: appointments, calendar, clock, calculator, address book and note-taker. Data in a voice diary is stored in the form of recorded audio. This device uses speech recognition to search for the names and appointments. These can be searched by speaking the names into the voice diary. Voice Diary by Voice Diary Ltd., Israel and Voice Make by Parrot France are available models of voice diaries costing in the range of 70 to 250 US dollars.

1.3.1 **Impact of visually Impairment**

As visually impairment is not common in working age adults, its general impact may be quite low. However, for those suffering from it, its impact is extremely
high: every aspect of life is affected, education, occupation, social life, and family life (Rothe et al., 2003). Activities previously taken for granted, such as dressing, eating, writing, travelling and simple communication or interacting with other people are hampered. Younger people generally experience more interference in pursuing the goals in life of this age group, such as supporting a family and making a career, than their healthy peers (Nurmi, Pulliainen and Salmela-Aro, 1992). Mental health problems are more likely to develop in the visually impaired; recent evidence shows that the risk tends to be higher in working adults (Boerner, 2004).

In addition, there is a substantial, life-long economic burden associated with visually disability (Smith and Smith, 1996), there are the direct costs, such as those of treatment, extra facilities for education, social security disability benefits, as well as the indirect costs associated with disability, such as an impeded personal development, lower income, reduced productivity of those who help or care for a visually impaired person (Taylor, Pezzullo and Keeffe, 2006). Relative to these, the costs of providing effective rehabilitation programmes would be quite low.

- **Haryana**

   Haryana has banned the use of words such as handicapped and differently-abled for referring to persons with disabilities. The state has not legislated any specific law for persons with disabilities but implements the provisions under the central laws, particularly the Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act 1995 and the National Trust for Welfare of Persons with Autism, Cerebral Palsy, Mental Retardation and Multiple Disabilities Act 1999.

   The state has implemented a number of social protection schemes that deal with provision of financial support such as scholarships, pensions, allowances and travel concessions.

- **Legal Provisions**

   The state of Haryana has not enacted any specific legislations for persons with disabilities but implements the central laws: Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act 1995 (Persons with Disabilities Act 1995) and the National Trust for Welfare of Persons with Autism,
Cerebral Palsy, Mental Retardation and Multiple Disabilities Act 1999 (National Trust Act 1999). Through the Department of Social Justice and Empowerment, Haryana has implemented a number of schemes for persons with disabilities. These are categorised as under:

- **Education**

  The government of Haryana has established the Government Institution for the visually challenged in Panipat. The institution is a residential school for visually impaired children who are above six years of age. Students are permitted to study in the school until the age of 18 years or until they complete middle level standard, whichever is earlier. Children who belong to Haryana or who are domiciled residents of Haryana and who have resided in the state for the last six months are eligible to apply. Application forms can be obtained free of cost from the offices of the Deputy Commissioners, S.D.O.s (Civil), Tehsildars or directly from the office of the Director, Department of Social Justice and Empowerment; and have to be submitted to any of these offices. Applications should be accompanied by a medical certificate from a government doctor mentioning the visually impairment of the candidate. Visually impairment is defined in the order as:

  a. **Absence of total sight.**
  b. **Visually equity not exceeding 3/60 or 10/200 (Snellen) in the better eye with correcting lenses.**

  The medical certificate should mention the following details:
  a. Approximate date of visually impairment.
  b. Particulars of the disability and of disabilities other than visually impairment.
  c. The state of mental health of the child.

  Those inmates of the institution who wish to continue their education further to middle standard in other local schools of the state will be granted a stipend to cover their educational, boarding and lodging expenses until they finish matric or higher secondary education or until the student reaches 24 years of age, whichever is earlier.

  The government provides that students with disabilities till the age of 20 are eligible for scholarships for general education upto matric or higher secondary level.
Students applying for these scholarships should be residents of Haryana and should fit the category of disabilities that are described as:

- Visually Impaired: total absence of sight or visually acuity not exceeding 3/60 to 10/200 (Sheller) in the better eye with correcting lenses
- Hearing Impaired: Sense of hearing is non functional for ordinary purposes in life
- Orthopedically Disabled: Those who have a difficulty or deformity that interferes with the normal functioning of the bones, muscles and/or joints.

**Disclosure and confidentiality**

As a person’s sight problem may not be immediately obvious, the employer must rely on the employee to disclose. Employees are often reluctant to do this, because they fear discrimination, and feel it is not relevant to their ability to do the job.

If applicants know that you have a positive equal opportunity policy, and in particular that there is a willingness to make reasonable adjustments for all disabled applicants and employees, they will be much more inclined to disclose any disability. Remember that, for anyone with any disability, including someone with a sight problem, if an adjustment is necessary (e.g. time off work, or non-standard hours), the employee’s line manager will need to know that sense adjustment is required but neither they nor the colleagues need to be told the precise medical reasons.

### 1.4 OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION

The term occupation relates to the total relationship between an individual and the employer for which he is paid. Satisfaction means the simple feeling-stage accompanying the attainment of any goal. It is we feeling accompanying the attainment of occupational objectives. Thus, occupational satisfaction refers to a person's feeling of satisfaction on the job, which acts as a motivation to work. It is not the self-satisfaction, happiness or self-contentment but the satisfaction on the job. Job dissatisfaction means absence of motivation at work.

Human resource is sum-total of inherent abilities, acquired knowledge and skills represented by the talents and aptitudes of the employed persons comprising executives, supervisors, and the rank and file employees. Human resources should be
utilized to the maximum possible extent, in order to achieve individual and organisational goals. The employee's performance ultimately decides the attainment of goals. The employee performance in its turn is influenced by motivation and occupational satisfaction.

Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) hold that occupational/job satisfaction relates to people’s own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them. Since emotions and feelings are involved in such assessments, employees’ levels of occupational satisfaction may impact significantly on their personal, social and work lives, and as such, also influence their behaviour at work.

Sempane et al. (2002) noted that organisations represent highly complex social structures because of their dynamic nature. Employees, who are role players in them, render them competitive through their involvement and commitment. The relationship between organisation and employee is characterised by a high level of mutual interdependence, as both parties impact on the other’s potential for success. Employee motivation and occupational satisfaction become crucial elements in this relationship. Extensive research has shown that employee motivation and occupational satisfaction are not brought about in isolation, but rather respond to organisational variables such as structure and working conditions. According to Sempane et al. (2002) organisational culture may therefore be promoted to ensure occupational satisfaction, with the ultimate aim of reaching the organisation’s goals. The starting point is the measurement of the organisation’s culture.

The importance of occupational satisfaction in the workplace is underscored by its inextricable connection to a person’s entire life. Since a person’s job is an all important part of his life, it follows that occupational satisfaction is part of life satisfaction. The nature of the environment outside of the job directly influences a person’s feelings and behaviour on the job (Hadebe, 2001). Judge and Watanabe (1993) reinforced this idea by stating that there exists a positive and reciprocal relationship between job and life satisfaction in the short term, and that over time, general life satisfaction becomes more influential in a person’s life. Schultz and Schultz (1998) emphasised that people spend one third to one half of their waking hours at work, for a period of 40 to 45 years, and that this is a very long time to be
frustrated, dissatisfied and unhappy, especially since these feelings carry over to family and social life, and affect physical and emotional health. A concept with such tremendous effect on personal and organisational life clearly deserves a corresponding amount of attention.

1.4.1 Definitions of Occupational Satisfaction

A great many definitions of the concept of occupational satisfaction have been formulated over time. Arnold and Feldman (1986) described occupational satisfaction as “the amount of overall affect that individuals have toward their job”. High occupational satisfaction therefore means that an individual likes his or her work in general, appreciates it and feels positive about it. McCormick and Ilgen’s (1980) definition rings similar. They also regarded occupational satisfaction as a person’s attitude towards his or her job, and added that an attitude is an emotional response to the job, which may vary along a continuum from positive to negative. Beck (1983) added that since a occupation has many characteristics, occupational satisfaction is necessarily a summation of worker attitudes regarding all these. The good features are balanced against the bad, so that the overall occupational satisfaction is perceived as high or low. It appears that occupational satisfaction may be studied from two slightly different perspectives. Firstly, occupational satisfaction may be treated as a single, overall feeling towards a person’s job. Alternatively, researchers may focus on the different aspects that impact upon a job, e.g. its rewards and social environment, and even characteristics of the job itself, such as its content. It is believed that this latter view permits a more comprehensive picture of occupational satisfaction, as an individual typically experiences different levels of satisfaction across different job aspects (Spector, 2003). It is this summed total of satisfaction with the different aspects of the job that many authors collectively refer to as occupational or job satisfaction.

According to R. HopPOCH (1976), “Occupational satisfaction refers to Any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job.

In the words of E.A. Locke (1976), “Occupational/Job satisfaction is defined as the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as
achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values". In contrast, occupational dissatisfaction is defined as "the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues." Satisfaction and dissatisfaction were seen as, "a function of the perceived relationship between what one perceives it as offering or entailing".

Megginson, Mosley and Pietri (1982) stated that people experience occupational satisfaction when they feel good about their jobs, and that this feeling often relates to their doing their jobs well, or their becoming more proficient in their professions, or their being recognised for good performance.

Locke (1976) held that occupational satisfaction is simply a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences. Work satisfaction results from the perception that one’s job fulfils, or allows the fulfillment of, one’s important job values. Phrased differently, work is gratifying if it complements one’s personal desires and needs.

Schneider and Snyder (1975) regard occupational satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job, or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. It appears then that occupational satisfaction encapsulates a person’s perception and evaluation of his job, and that this perception is influenced by the person’s unique disposition. People will therefore evaluate their jobs against those aspects that are important to them (Sempane et al., 2002).

Since occupational satisfaction involves employees’ emotions and feelings, it has a major impact on their personal, social and work lives (Sempane et al., 2002), and for this reason may also influence their behaviour as employees, e.g. absenteeism (Locke, 1976; Visser, Breed & Van Breda, 1997). The collective occupational satisfaction of employees may also result in a particular organisational culture (Sempane et al., 2002).

Several authors concurred with the above-mentioned ideas regarding occupational/job satisfaction and emotional responses towards work, but add that several external aspects also impact on the latter. For example, Vercueil (1970) explained that occupational satisfaction is derived from and caused by many
interrelated components. By determining which single component or combination thereof provides the highest level of occupational satisfaction, one can obtain an indication of the general level of occupational satisfaction. These components contribute towards a single dimension according to which occupational satisfaction may be determined. Personality variables may account for the other dimension to which occupational satisfaction may be related. Schultz and Schultz (1998) held the view that occupational satisfaction encompasses the positive and negative feelings and attitudes people hold about their jobs, and that these depend on many work-related characteristics, but also on personal characteristics, such as age, gender, health and social relationships. People’s personal motivations and aspirations, and how well these are satisfied by their work, also affect their attitude towards work.

1.4.2 The Determinants of Occupational Satisfaction

The model in Figure 1.1, which was adapted from performance-motivation models developed by researchers such as Cummings and Schwab (1973), Nadler and Lawler (1977), Steers and Porter (1978) and Vroom (1964), provides an enlightening and comprehensive view of the interplay between the determinants of individual performance, satisfaction and motivation. From this model, Walker (1980) deduced that occupational satisfaction has several distinct dimensions, each of which is a matter of individual perception, as satisfaction is related to the needs of individuals. These dimensions are the ones typically used in studies surveying employee feelings and attitudes towards various job characteristics.

A different perspective on why people like or dislike their job is offered by Spector (2003), who maintained that environmental aspects, personality variables, or a combination of these, serve as antecedents to occupational satisfaction. Environmental antecedents include the variety of job-related features that impact on occupational satisfaction, e.g. job characteristics and job tasks, as well as various aspects of the organisation. He distinguished a number of significant personal and environmental factors specifically, namely job characteristics, role variables, work-family conflict, age, gender, race, cognitive ability, job experience, use of skills, job congruence, and occupational level.
Job characteristics include the content and nature of job tasks themselves. A number of core job characteristics have been highlighted by Fried and Ferris (1987), who also produced mean correlations between each and occupational satisfaction. It appears that alongside task identity, task significance and job scope, autonomy, skill variety and job feedback are factors exerting the most powerful impact on occupational satisfaction.

Role variables also impact on job satisfaction. According to Spector (2003) role ambiguity, namely the degree of uncertainty an employee experiences regarding his job functions and responsibilities, as well as role conflict, which arises when an employee is exposed to incompatible demands at work, or between work and his off-work situation, have a sizeable influence on employee satisfaction. This statement has been confirmed by a meta-analysis conducted by Jackson and Schuler (1985).
Work-family conflict is intricately linked to an employee’s satisfaction at work. Occupational satisfaction is adversely affected when an employee experiences conflicting demands from his work and family situation. In a meta-analysis of related studies Allen, Herst, Bruck and Sutton (2000) found a negative correlation between occupational satisfaction and this aspect.

In addition to a variety of factors external to the individual, many authors agreed that personal characteristics of employees also impact considerably on occupational satisfaction. Many studies have shown this link in recent years (Brush, Moch & Pooyan, 1987, Staw, Bell & Clausen, 1986). Interestingly, Staw, et al., (1986) also found that personality specifically has a highly enduring influence on occupational satisfaction. Personality factors that they assessed in adolescents could predict occupational satisfaction up to 50 years later.

Cognitive ability alone appears not to be a significant determinant of occupational satisfaction, but may be very important when considered in relation to type of work. A person too intelligent for his or her job is likely to experience insufficient challenge from his job, and become bored and dissatisfied. On the other hand, someone not intelligent enough is likely to experience frustration at not being able to handle the demands of the job. In addition, the relationship between occupational satisfaction and intelligence may be found in education. A number of studies have indicated a slight negative relationship to occupational satisfaction. This may be related to better-educated people having higher expectations of their jobs, and believing that their work should provide greater fulfillment and responsibility – and unfortunately, most jobs do not (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

Job experience is another factor that influences occupational satisfaction. In the early stages of employment, when the situation is still new and exciting, many employees are more satisfied than later on due to the stimulation and challenge of developing new skills and abilities. However, disenchantment sets in if regular
evidence of progress and growth is not forthcoming. After a few years discouragement is quite common, due to disappointment about especially advancement in the job. Interestingly, occupational satisfaction appears to increase again after a number of years’ experience, and improve steadily from there on. This relationship parallels the occupational satisfaction / age relationship, and some researchers therefore regard it as the same phenomenon (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

Personal characteristics also include skills and abilities. Many studies have shown that people are happier at work if they use the abilities they believe they possess (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Personality-job fit (Gouws, 1995), or job congruence, refers to the match between an employee’s abilities and the requirements of the job. A positive correlation with occupational satisfaction is generally confirmed (Fricko & Beehr, 1992, Gottfredson & Holland, 1990).

In terms of personal characteristics affecting occupational satisfaction, it appears that higher occupational levels are generally associated with higher occupational satisfaction (Busch & Bush, 1978; Daftuar, 2001). It is believed that this is so because people at these levels have greater opportunities to satisfy their motivator needs, as well as greater autonomy, challenge and responsibility at work. These have great value in building self-esteem and self-actualisation needs, which boost satisfaction.

Disappointed employee expectations of their jobs play a significant role in occupational dissatisfaction. Arnold and Feldman (1986) proposed a model of occupational satisfaction that illustrates that discrepancies between expectations employees hold of their jobs, and their actual work circumstances, have an impact on their occupational satisfaction. The model is presented in Figure 1.2
1.4.3 Theories of Job Satisfaction

Before explaining the theories of job satisfaction, the researcher wants to make clear about two factors, intrinsic and extrinsic, as follows.

- **Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors**

  Job outcomes include intrinsic and extrinsic work outcomes. The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes is important for understanding the reactions of people to their jobs. In a general sense, intrinsic outcomes are objects or events, which follow from the employee’s, own efforts, not requiring the involvement of any other person. More simply, it is an outcome clearly related to action on the employee’s part. Such outcomes typically are thought to be solely in the province of professional and technical jobs; and yet all jobs have potentially opportunities for
intrinsic outcomes. Such outcomes involve feeling of responsibility, challenge, and recognition; the outcomes result from such job characteristics as variety, autonomy, identity, and significance.

Extrinsic outcomes, however, are objects or events, which follow from the employee’s own efforts in conjunction with other factors or person’s not directly involved in the job itself. Pay, working conditions, co-workers, and even supervision are objects in the work place which are potentially job-outcomes, but which are not a fundamental part of the work. Dealing with others and friendship interactions are sources of extrinsic outcomes.

➢ Job-Satisfaction Outcomes

Job-satisfaction depends on the levels of intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes and how the job holder views those outcomes. These outcomes have different values for different people. For some people, responsible and challenging work may have neutral or even negative values. For other people, such work outcomes may have high positive values. People differ in the importance they attach to job-outcomes. Those differences alone would account for different levels of job-satisfaction for essentially the same job tasks. Another important individual difference is job-involvement. People differ in the extent that:

1) Work is a central life interest; 2) they actively participate in work; 3) they perceive work as a central to self-esteem; and 4) they perceive work as consistent with self-concept. Persons who are not involved in their work cannot be expected to realize the same satisfaction as those who are. These variables accounts for the fact that two employees could report different levels of satisfaction for the same performance levels. A final individual difference is the perceived equity of the outcome in terms of what job holder considers fair reward. If the outcomes are perceived to be unfair in relation to those of others in similar job requiring similar effort, the job holder will experience dissatisfaction and seek means to restore the equity, either by seeking greater rewards (primarily extrinsic) or by reducing effort. Thus it is seen that job performance includes many potential outcomes. Some are of primary value to the organization- for example the objective outcomes. Other outcomes are of primary importance to the individual- job satisfaction (John et al., 1990).
The concept of job satisfaction underwent several changes and in course of time several theories were advanced. There are vital differences among experts about the concept of job satisfaction. In this section the researcher will examine some widely used theories in contemporary job satisfaction research.

- **Fulfillment theory**
  
  The proponents of this theory measure satisfaction in terms of rewards a person receives or the extent to which his needs are satisfied. Further they thought that there is a direct/positive relationship between job satisfaction and the actual satisfaction of the expected needs. The main difficulty in this approach is that job satisfaction as observed by Willing, is not only a function of what a person receives but also what he feels he should receive as there would be considerable difference in the actual and expectations of persons. Thus, job satisfaction cannot be regarded as merely a function of how much a person receives from his job. Another important factor/variable that should be included to predict job satisfaction accurately is the strength of the individuals’ desire of his level of aspirations in a particular area. This led to the development of the discrepancy-theory of job satisfaction.

- **Discrepancy theory**
  
  The proponents of this theory argue that satisfaction is the function of what a person actually receives from his job situation and what he thinks he should receive or what he expects to receive. When the actual satisfaction derived is less than expected satisfaction, it results in dissatisfaction. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are functions of the perceived relationships between what one wants from one’s job and what one perceives it is offering. This approach does not make it clear whether or not over satisfaction is a part of dissatisfaction and if so, how does it differ from dissatisfaction. This led to the development of equity theory of job satisfaction.

- **Equity Theory**
  
  Equity theory is primarily a motivation theory, but it has some important things to say about the causes of satisfaction/dissatisfaction. The proponents of this theory are of the view that a persons’ satisfaction is determined by his perceived equity, which in turn is determined by his input-output balance compared to his comparison of others input-output balance is the perceived ratio of what a person
receives from his job relative to what he contributes to the job. This theory is of the
view that both under and over rewards lead to dissatisfaction. While the under-reward
causes feelings of unfair treatment, over-reward leads to feelings of guilt and
discomfort (Edward, 1973).

➤ Herzberg’s Motivation/ Hygiene Theory (Two factors theory)

This theory was developed by Herzberg, Manusner, Peterson and Capwell who identified certain factors as satisfiers and dissatisfies. Factors such as
achievement, recognition, responsibility etc, are satisfiers, the presence of which
causes satisfaction but their absence does not result in dissatisfaction. On the other
hand, factors such as supervision, salary, working conditions etc are dissatisfiers, the
absence of which causes dissatisfaction. Their presence however, does not result in
job satisfaction. The studies designed to test their theory failed to give any support to
this theory, as it seems that a person can get both satisfaction and dissatisfaction at the
same time, which is not valid (Daftuar, 1982)20 Fredrick Herzberg’s
motivation/hygiene theory assumes that one group of factors, motivators, accounts for
high level of motivation. Another group of factors, hygiene or maintenance factors
can cause discontent with work. Figure 1.3 compares Herzberg’s motivators and
hygiene factors with Maslow’s needs of hierarchy. The implications of Herzberg’s
research for management and HR practices is that although managers must carefully
consider hygiene factors in order to avoid employee dissatisfaction, even if all these
maintenance needs are advanced, people may not be motivated to work harder. Only
motivators cause employers to exert more effort and thereby attain more productivity,
and this theory suggests that managers should utilize the motivators as tools to
enhance employee performance.

➤ Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs Theory

One theory of human motivation that has received a great deal of exposure in
the past was developed by Abraham Maslow. Until the more basic needs are
adequately fulfilled, a person will not strive to meet higher needs. In this theory
Maslow classified human needs into five categories that ascend in a definite order as
follows:
1) Physiological needs
2) Safety and security needs
3) Belonging and love needs
4) Esteem needs and
5) Self-actualization needs.

An assumption often made by those using Maslow’s hierarchy is that workers in modern, technologically advanced societies basically have satisfied physiological, safety and belonging needs. Therefore they will be motivated by the needs for self-esteem, esteem of others, and then self-actualization. Consequently, conditions to satisfy these needs should be present at work; the job itself should be meaningful and motivating.

Motivators:
- Achievement
- Recognition
- Work itself
- Responsibility
- Advancement

Hygiene Factors:
- Interpersonal Relations
- Company policy/administration
- Supervision
- Salary
- Working Conditions

Fig. 1.3: Maslow’s and Herzberg’s Ideas Compared
Process Theories of Motivation

Process theories suggest that a variety of factors may prove to be motivating. Depending on the needs of the individual, the situation the individual is in, and the rewards the individual expects for the work done. Theorists who hold to this view do not attempt to fit people into the single category, but rather accept human differences. One process theory by Lyman Porter and E.E Lawler focuses on the value a person puts on a goal as well as the person’s perception of workplace equity, or fairness, as factors that influence his or her job behavior. In a work situation, perception is a way an individual views the job. Figure 1.3 contains a simplified Porter and Lawler motivation model, which indicates that motivation is influenced by people’s expectations. If expectations are not met, people may feel that they have been unfairly treated and consequently become dissatisfied. Using the Porter and Lawler model, suppose that a salesclerk is motivated to expend efforts on her job, from this job he/she expects to receive two types of rewards: intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external). For this salesclerk intrinsic rewards could include a feeling of accomplishment, a feeling of recognition, or other motivators. Extrinsic rewards might be such items as pay, benefits, good working conditions, and other hygiene factors. The salesclerk compares his/her performance with what he/she expected and evaluates it in light of both types of rewards he/she receives. He/she then reaches some level of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Once this level is reached, it is difficult to determine what he/she will do. If he/she is dissatisfied, he/she might put forth less effort in the future, he/she might work harder to get the rewards he/she wants, or he/she might just accept his/her dissatisfaction. If he/she is highly satisfied, it does not always mean he/she will work harder. He/she may even slack off a bit, saying, “I got what I wanted.” The essence of a Porter and Lawler view of a motivation is perception. In addition, as the feedback loop in Figure 1.4 indicates, performance leads to satisfaction leading to performance.
Expectancy Theory

Expectance theory concentrates, as the name implies, on the expectations which employees bring with them to work situation, and the context and manner in which these expectations are satisfied. The underlying hypothesis is that “appropriate levels of effort, and hence productivity, will only be extended if employees” expectations are fulfilled”. It does not assume a static range of expectations common to all employees but rather points to the possibility of different sets of expectations. Rewards are seen as fulfilling or not fulfilling expectations. Expectancy theory challenges management to demonstrate to employees that extra effort will reap a commensurate reward. The link between effort and reward needs to encompass both the pay packet and a variety of other extrinsic or intrinsic rewards. Reward schemes must therefore create a positive link between the size of the pay packet and the effort expended for employees primarily motivated by money. For others links must be created between effort and rewards which include job satisfaction and praise and other forms of recognition (Cowling and Chloe, 1998).
Variance Theory

Variance theory is based on a simple idea: if you want x from your work then you are satisfied to the extent that it provides you with x. The major problem for variance theorists is defining what it is that people want from their jobs. One way of solving this is to borrow concepts from motivation theory so that variance in what is wanted and what is available from a job occurs: for example, in the extent to which self-actualizing needs can be fulfilled. This means that by borrowing from motivation theory some researchers can specify in advance the variations in job satisfaction that employees could meaningfully report in their jobs. Another approach assumes the relevant variances depend on the nature of the work and thus differ from occupation to occupation. This provides a more flexible framework with which to analyze problems of low job satisfaction within occupations. Either approach, specifying in advance the relevant facets of job satisfaction or identifying them through investigation, enables researchers to establish whether there are significant individual differences present in reported levels of job satisfaction or whether there is a high degree of consensus among staff about what aspects of work lead to high levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. By identifying what aspects of a job give rise to high and low levels of satisfaction, managers are better placed when considering what changes can be made to improve job satisfaction.

1.4.4 Job Characteristics

If variance theory suggests the cause of job satisfaction is subjective, the job characteristics model suggests the opposite: the cause of job satisfaction is be found in the objective characteristics of a job. Job design studies explored a new field when behavioral scientists focused on identifying various job dimensions that would improve simultaneously the efficiency of organization and job satisfaction of employees.

Hackman and Oldham first outlined this view in 1975; their model has inspired thousands of research papers and its key concepts still provide the foundations of much job satisfaction and job characteristics research. The job characteristics model proposes that three psychological states of a jobholder result in improved work performance, internal motivation, and lower absenteeism and
turnover. The motivated, satisfied, and productive employee is one who (1) experiences meaningfulness of work performed (2) experiences responsibility for work comes, and (3) has knowledge of the results of the work performed, Achieving these three psychological states serves as reinforcement to the employee and as a source of internal motivation to continue doing the job well. According to Hackman and Oldham five core dimensions of job characteristics are as follows:

1) **Skill Variety:** The degree to which a job entails a variety of different activities, which demand the use of number of different skills and talents by the jobholder.

2) **Task Identity:** The degree of which the job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work that is doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome.

3) **Task Significance:** The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.

4) **Autonomy:** The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out (Bohlander, Scott and Arthur, 2002) Autonomy deals with the amount of freedom that employees can exercise in their job (Stein, 1983).

5) **Task Feedback:** The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual being given direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance. It is important to realize that each of five job characteristics affects employee performance differently. Therefore, employees will experience the greatest motivation when all five characteristics are present, since the job characteristics combine to produce the three psychological states (Stein, 1983).

Further, when these critical psychological states are experienced, work motivation and job satisfaction will be high. Furthermore, behavioral outcomes, such as the quality of work and attendance, may also be improved.

Thus, the theory encompasses not only job characteristics and job satisfaction, but also work design principles, psychological studies and motivation. The attraction of such an ambitious model has been amplified by its clear specification of concepts


and relationships between them and readily available measuring instrument. Particularly well established are the relationships between job characteristics and job satisfaction (Stein, 1983).

### 1.4.5 Factors of Job Satisfaction

After explaining the theories and benefits of job satisfaction surveys the researcher now wants to turn his attention to another important point of his study namely factors of job satisfaction. Most research on job satisfaction has focused on the effects of job enrichment and job design, or the quality of work life. As a human resource manager is concerned about balancing job satisfaction with performance, he needs to know how to foster an organizational climate that contains these elements.

- **Job enrichment**

  An “enriched” job is one in which an employee has opportunities for achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility, and growth. Enriched jobs are those in which employees can be involved in the production of goods or services from beginning to end. They are not a series of limited, specialized activities, repeated over and over. Rather, enriched jobs are those in which the workers have the opportunity to see processes or tasks through from start to finish. Enriched jobs contain five core work dimensions: *task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback*. The presence of these components within the job will then lead to critical psychological states of meaningfulness of work, responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of work outcomes. The presence of these psychological states leads ultimately, to motivation, high quality performance, low absenteeism and turnover and high job satisfaction. If employees also consider the fruit of their labors to be important, then task significance is part of their job. A task is significant when employees believe that what they have they have done makes a real difference to someone or to society. Autonomy is experienced by those who are encouraged to the work without close supervision; skill variety means they do a lot of different things on the regular basis; and feedback presupposes regular and accurate information on how work is perceived by those for whom it is done.
1.5 ADJUSTMENT

The term adjustment refers to the extent to which an individual's personality functions effectively in the world of people. It refers to the harmonious relationship between the person and the environment. In other words, it is the relationship that comes among the organisms, the environment and the personality. A well adjusted personality is well prepared to play the roles which are expected of the status assigned to him within given environment. His needs will be satisfied in accordance with the social needs.

Adjustment and adaptations are frequently used in the same sense. Initially, ‘adaptation’ was used by biologists. It means an attempt to survive in physical conditions of environment. Later on, behavioural psychologists came out with the new term ‘adjustment’, denoting a broader concept i.e. ‘Adjustment’ means behavioural reactions to personal demands and social pressures.

According to L.S. Shaffer (1936), "Adjustment is the process by which living organism maintains a balance between its need and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs". In all senses, adjustment implies a satisfactory adaptation to the demands of day to day life and keeping a balance between need and capacity to realise needs. As long as the balance is maintained a person remains adjusted.

1.5.1 Meaning of Adjustment

Many psychologists have given various definitions of the term ‘adjustment’ to clarify the meaning and to help in understanding the concept properly. Some of these definitions stand out to make the concept clear.

According to James Drever (1952) “Adjustment means the modification to compensate for or meet specific conditions”, while Webster (1951) defines adjustment as “The establishment of a satisfactory relationship, as representing harmony, conformance, adaptation or the like”. Similarly Good (1959) defines adjustment “The process of finding and adopting modes of behaviour suitable to the environment or to the changes in the environment.” Adjustment, according to Warren’s Dictionary of Psychology means. “Any operation whereby an organism or organ becomes more favourable related to the environment or to the entire situation,
environmental and internal. In this way, as per dictionary meanings, adjustment is to be understood as a means ‘to fit’, ‘to make correspondent’, ‘to adapt’, or ‘to accommodate.’ Thus, when one adjusts something, one changes it in some way to make it appropriate to certain requirements, for example, extending a ladder to the right height so it may reach a second storey window. According to Shaffer (1961), “Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs”. Shaffer’s definition lays stress on needs and their satisfaction. Human needs are vital, indispensable and urgently requisite. One feels adjusted to the extent one's needs are gratified or are in the way of being gratified. The individual tries to bring changes in his circumstances in order to overcome the difficulties in the realization of his needs. Sometimes, he reduces the quantum of his needs so that he may feel satisfied within the limited resources of his environment. In this way, he tries to keep a balance between his needs and the capacity of realising these needs. As long as this balance is maintained, he remains perfect understanding between one and one’s environment. For example, if an urban girl is married to a rural boy and made to lead a village life, she is to change her behaviour, her habits and her ways of life for accommodating herself in the changed circumstances.

Vonhaller (1970) writes, “We can think of adjustment as psychological survival in much the same as the biologist uses the term adaptation to describe psychological survival”. Vonhaller’s definition takes cue from Darwin’s theory of evolution. Darwin maintained that only those organisms, who are most fitted to adapt to the changing circumstances survive. Therefore, the individuals who are able to adjust themselves in harmony lead a happy life. In this way, adjustment as a psychological term is a new name for the term ‘adaptation’ used in the biological world. In all the senses, adjustment implies a satisfactory adaptation to the demands of day-to-day life.

1.5.2 Characteristic of the process of Adjustment

Some characteristics of the process of adjustment are well illustrated in these definitions.
i) The adjustment is a process of interaction between individual self and his environment.

ii) The self and the environment are both amenable or changeable.

iii) Adjustment is a continuous process in life. It is not static. It is never complete but attempts to encounter new problems in every-changing life situations.

iv) Adjustment enables the person to satisfy his needs, maintain harmony with the environment.

v) Adjustment behaviour is determined by social and cultural values.

vi) Adjustment pattern (response) is unique for individuals, depending upon their personality.

vii) Adjustment gives strength and ability to bring desirable changes in the conditions of one’s environment.

1.5.3 The Process of Adjustment

The psychological study of personal adjustment is an examination of the process by which people fulfil their needs and cope with the frustrating situations. An individual behaviour is able to indicate the process and quality of one’s satisfactory adaptations. In general, the process of adjustment involves four main aspects as:

(i) Existence of a motive

(ii) Obstacles

(iii) Varied responses

(iv) Success/Goal

There are certain basic motives in all human beings: Biological, Psychological and Social. Their emergence energizes our behavioural efforts to satisfy them. If the motives are satisfied immediately without any problem, the adjustment is simple. Usually, the needs are not satisfied and are blocked by some obstacles. A person’s physical, not mental abilities, or the social factors might prove such barriers. Individuals make various attempts to win over and reach the goal. One of the results may be that if the obstacle is overcome through his increased effort, the person achieves adjustment. In another situation, the individual revises his plan, changes the
goal and succeeds to reach the goal of adjustment. Besides the above two forms of adjustment, there is a third possibility also. A person not able to overcome the obstacle gets frustration. Sometimes, frustration might lead to minor or major personality maladjustment. The efforts which get success in response to particular motives or situations get reinforced and the person adopts them as his pattern of adjustment and habit.

1.5.4 Areas of Adjustment

Obviously, an individual adjustment should consist of personal as well as environmental factors. These two broad aspects of adjustment can further be subdivided into smaller aspects of personal and environmental factors/adjustment, in this way, although seeming to be a global characteristic or quality, may have different aspects or dimensions.

In various attempts of measuring adjustment through inventories and other techniques, these varying aspects have been identified and various tests have been constructed to assess these dimensions. For example, Bell (1958) has taken five areas or dimensions in his Adjustment Inventory i.e., Home, Health, Social, Emotional and Occupational. Similarly, Arkoff (1968) in his book, “Adjustment and Mental Health” has suggested family adjustment, school or college adjustment, vocational adjustment and marriage adjustment as important areas of adjustment. Recently, Joshi and Pandey in their mimeographed research study have given the following 11 areas of dimensions of an individual adjustment in respect of School or College Students i.e. health and physical development, finance living conditions and employment, social and recreational activities, courtship sex and marriage, social and psychological relations, personal psychological relations, moral and religious, home and family, future vocational and education, adjustment to school and college work, curriculum and teaching. In this way, adjustment of a person is based on building harmony between his personal characteristics and the demands of the environment, of which he is a part. Personal and environmental factors work side by side in bringing about this harmony.
1.5.5 Motives in Adjustment

In its broadest sense, adjustment may be evoked by any kinds of motives. Vital psychological needs for air, water, food and the like, when thwarted arouse repeated adjustable behaviour. But they are not of wide psychological interest for two reasons. First, they are reasonably well satisfied under the usual conditions of civilized culture; and secondly, the thwarting of the most vital needs may lead not to substitute adjustment but to death.

Of greater significance in human adjustment are the social motives that are learned from the culture in which an individual develops. In our culture, the needs for affection, security, approval, recognition, mastery, prestige and self-realization are among the stronger social motives. This group also includes the sex motives which, although fundamentally biological, are strongly influenced by cultural learning. All strong motives are persistent; once aroused, they continue until reduced by an adjustable act. The principal psychological mechanism of social motives seems to be tension. Developmentally, the tension of strong motivation is related to the psychological changes that occur in emotional states.

Thwarting of Motives

The thwarting of non-fulfilment of an aroused motive constitutes an important aspect of the adjustment process. Thwarting may occur in a number of ways. A simple and common type of thwarting is the blocking of an adjustment by a material obstacle or by the opposition of other people. This is often called frustration; many a time due to man-made thwarting, laws, customs, competitive activities etc. which can also be fixed objectively. The usual response to frustration is an intensification of activity and effort. If the frustrator is a person, an aggressive attack by him is a common action, and this attitude is often shown against inanimate things also.

A second general type of thwarting is conflict. A conflict situation evokes two or more motives, the satisfaction of which is incompatible. An individual cannot fight against his conflict directly, as he can against his simple frustrations. For that reason conflict underlines most instances of futile and maladapted behaviour.

There is relationship between frustration and conflict. The usual first response to frustration is an aggressive attack on the person or thing that causes it. In a child,
this aggression may be very direct and obvious and usually meets with punishment. After the connection between aggression and punishment has been learned, the overtly aggressive behaviour may be inhibited and replaced by a fearful and insecure attitude.

The presence of thwarting implies that an individual’s first response to a need is unsuccessful. The subsequent course of his activity is, therefore, to try another response and then another, until some action is discovered that leads to adjustment.

1.5.6 Measurement of Adjustment

Measurement as an instrument of enquiry is now frequently used in behavioural sciences. At a general level of classification, in behavioural science, the following five different types of meaningful techniques are used:

(i) Testing Techniques

These techniques are mostly used in the task of measuring achievement in intelligence and aptitudes of the individuals at the conscious level.

(ii) Projective Techniques

These techniques are used for testing at the non-conscious level.

(iii) Socio-metric Techniques

In socio-metric techniques, the members of a group or class are asked to indicate individual’s preferences by some social criterion and as such these techniques are mostly used in studying social relationship adjustment of the individuals.

(iv) Scaling Techniques

The techniques of rating, rank order scales and the like are widely used in collecting opinion from the respondents about other persons. These techniques may be therefore, used to assess the personality traits or adjustment of the individuals as understood by the respondent. More often they are used for validating the self-reporting inventories.

(v) Inventory techniques

The only techniques that are mostly and effectively used in the area of personality measurement are inventory techniques. Interests, temperaments, attitudes, adjustment and other traits of one’s personality are assessed through the inventories.
Merits of Measuring Techniques

In ordinary sense, an inventory is nothing but a self-reporting questionnaire that deals not only with overt behaviour but also with the person’s own feeling about himself, other persons and his environment, resulting from introspection. In this way, with the help of an inventory, one tries together responses of an individual to the various questions as he feels and reacts to them. In the area of measurement of adjustment, the inventory technique is most popular in comparison to other measurement techniques. That is so because the inventory technique has so many advantages over other techniques. Testing techniques can only be used to assess the characteristics of individual at the conscious level while projective techniques only at the unconscious level. The adjustment behaviour, adaptation to the changed circumstances, involves both the conscious as well as unconscious behaviour. Therefore, both of these techniques separately are unable to give a proper assessment of an individual adjustment. Socio-metric techniques help in the measurement of social relationship. They can provide clues for the social adjustment or mal-adjustment. Social adjustment is only a part of an individual total adjustment. The other aspects of one’s adjustment like physical, mental, emotional, social and occupational are not explored by the socio-metric techniques and therefore, they cannot be safely used for the assessment of an individual’s total adjustment. In scaling techniques, opinions are collected from some other person or persons about the adjustment pattern of a particular individual known to the respondents. Adjustment as a wide phenomenon carries so many things with it that one cannot judge the adjustment pattern of another individual overtly. The inner private world or reactions of an individual cannot be assessed by the scaling techniques.

1.5.7 Characteristics of Well Adjusted Person

1. **Physical Health:** The person should be free from physical ailments like headaches, ulcers, indigestion and impairment of appetite. These symptoms in person have sometimes psychological origin and many impair his physical efficiency.

2. **Psychological Comforts:** A well adjusted persons has no psychological diseases as depression, compulsion and anxiety. These psychological diseases if occur excessively cause to seek professional advice.
3. **Work Efficiency**: The person who makes full use of his occupational or social capacities, may be termed as well adjusted person in his social set up.

4. **Social Acceptance**: Everybody wants to be socially accepted by other persons. If an person obeys social beliefs and set up values. We may call him well adjusted but if he satisfies his needs by anti-social means than he is called maladjusted.

5. **Flexibility in Behaviour**: A well adjusted person shows flexibility in his behaviour. He adjust himself in changing circumstances by making changes in his behaviour.

6. **Healthy Attitudes and Interests**: A well adjusted person possesses healthy habits attitudes and interests.

7. **Healthy philosophy of life**: A well adjusted person possesses healthy philosophy of life that governs his conduct and activities. He possesses enough coverage and power of tolerance for facing failures in his life.

   In short “a person said to be adjusted when he is so related to a reasonably adequate environment that he is relatively happy, efficient and has a proper degree of social feelings.

1.5.8 **Adjustment of Disabled**

   People with severe physical disabilities have a considerably lower participation rate in society due to their limited functioning, societal attitudes, and other environmental barriers. Therefore, they need to undergo a lifelong adjustment process in order to reach the proper balance between their personal goals, their performance, and societal demands (Kendall and Terry, 1996; Rimmerman et al., 2000; Tzonichaki and Kleftaras, 2002).

   Most of the previous studies on people with severe disabilities have followed the medical model, with the primary focus on the impact of disability on functioning while minimizing the role of environment (Desrosiers *et al.*, 2003; Lutz and Bowers, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2004). The current approach, represented by the World Health Organization (WHO) International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF), is to shift the attention to social and environmental factors in the rehabilitation process. This means that the impact of the impairments on daily
functioning is studied in parallel to the impact of social and environmental factors on the participation of people with disabilities (Bent et al., 2001).

1.6 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Visually impairment is not a curse, it is a reality. The visually impaired people of our country are deprived in every sector. Though we are developing, there is little concern about visually impairment. Taking appropriate measures to give them equal opportunity, research in this sector is very necessary. But, unfortunately quality research in this sector is scarce. Visually impaired people acquire relevant qualifications necessary for employment through integrated programmes. Despite having the necessary qualifications many of the visually impaired people are seen begging in streets if India are testimony of how they are discriminated in the labour market. The visually impaired who have suitable qualifications for the jobs, they may want to do should be given equal chances of employment like their sighted counterparts.

Occupational satisfaction is the positive orientation of an individual towards all aspects of work situation. Occupational satisfaction is resultant of a host of orientations to specific aspects of job and results when there is an agreement between job characteristics and wants of an employee. It expresses the amount of congruence between one's expectations and rewards. The importance of job satisfaction lies in the fact that it is closely linked with performance and productivity of a person and is affected by a number of factors. A variety of factors motivate people at work, some of which are tangible, such as money, and some of which are intangible, such as a sense of achievement (Spector, 2003). Although employees derive satisfaction from their work, or places of work, for different reasons, this study was concerned specifically with the investigation of the relationship between levels of satisfaction and factors associated with the culture of the organisation, and with relating this relationship to the motivation of employees at work. The primary point of departure is that the success of any organisation is heavily dependent on the inputs of its workforce, and that such inputs are determined to a large extent by personal characteristics, and by those facets of people’s work environments that motivate them to invest more physical and mental energy into their work. In this way, the
organisation’s objectives are pursued and met. Job satisfaction regarded as key determinants of organisational success and influenced by aspects of corporate culture. A thorough understanding of the nature and significant sources of employee satisfaction, in today corporate culture will enable employers to effect the required positive strategic changes, such as adapt their strategic human resource and organisational development planning and implementation towards optimal employee loyalty and retention. Examples of such strategies may include selecting incumbents with a high degree of potential fit with the organisation’s culture, and to adapt certain of its human resource policies and practices, where these have been shown to hamper employee’s satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is an important element from organizational perspective, as it leads to higher organizational commitment of employees and high commitment leads to overall organizational success and development additionally growth, effectiveness and efficiency of the organization and low employees’ intentions to leave the organization. Obstinately, dissatisfied individuals leave the organization and inflate the motivation of those staying there (Feinstein, 2000) and as a result workers loose performance and efficiency and might sabotage the work and leave the job.

Adjustment refers to a harmonious relationship between the person and his environment through which his needs are satisfied in accordance with social demands. The adjustment process is a universal sequence that can be identified in the behaviour of organism from the lowest species up to man. If individual experiences have so shaped his personality that he is well prepared to play the roles, which are expected of the status assigned to him within a given environment and if his needs are met by playing such roles, then we say that he is well adjusted. On the other hand, if experience has not preferred him to play the roles of his assigned status if the environment is such that he is denied the normal status for which his experience has prepared him and his fundamental needs are not met, then we say he is maladjusted. Maladjustment is often termed as mental illness or psychopathology frequently considered the number one health problem of our era, which is characterized by pollution, corruption and dissolution of the stable social system.
It is also needed not only to save them from beggary or from an object of mockery but to give self employment schemes, engagement or employment in private as well as public sectors and to make proper use of this labour force. For the new millennium that is for 21st century different world agencies and with these collaboration, national and state level organisations will march ahead with a momentum speed to find out different employment units on their needs. Visually challenged will give a new vision in different regions in their hopes of new sky’s horizon. Not only, it gives a choice for earning but a chance for learning. It gives impetus with new prospectus to acquire new habits to save from abuse, to make them aware about the misuse of time, labour, energy, then minimum learning competency for day to day life’s management, save them from drugs and alcohols abuse, motivate them to arouse new interest and new hopes with all creative potentialities along with their disabilities for a new dawn to see a new sun. Occupational satisfaction plays a vital role in adjustment of visually challenged adults. The present study is related to study of occupational satisfaction and adjustment of visually challenged adults. Now-a-days, there is a general feeling that the peoples do not have satisfaction in their job. Another problem is occupational adjustment. There is a growing discontentment on the part of the people towards their occupation as a result of which may people do not adjust in their present occupation. Therefore, to identify the level of occupational satisfaction of visually challenged people in relation to adjustment regarding socio-demographic variables. The need for the study of occupational satisfaction and adjustment of visually challenged adults emphasized and is the formidable problem which may people face in our country. There are few studies to measure the effect of occupational satisfaction and adjustment of visually challenged adults. Therefore, it is worthwhile to conduct the study in this area.

1.7 STATEMENT OF THE STUDY

A STUDY OF OCCUPATIONAL SATISFACTION AND ADJUSTMENT AMONG VISUALLY CHALLENGED ADULTS IN RELATION TO THEIR SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES.
1.8 DEFINITION OF THE TERMS TO BE USED

(i) Visually Challenged:

According to Online dictionary, visually challenged person “having greatly reduced vision dim-sighted, near-blind, purblind, sand-blind, visually impaired blind, unsighted - unable to see; "a person is blind to the extent that he must devise alternative techniques to do efficiently those things he would do with sight if he had normal vision"

--Kenneth Jernigan (1998)

Visually challenged restricts a child’s learning environment to auditory & other sense. For learning about size, colour, weight & emotional expressions, the visually challenged may face more difficulty then partially sighted. The teacher has to provide learning experiences in smaller units. For example, the essential attributes of a ‘beautiful flower’ can be for this child, the pleasant smell of the flower, the freshness of the flower & the thickness of the flower. Visually challenged refers to diseased and tissues for example child having no vision or damaged brain caused by Anoxia may result in Blindness cerebral palsy disability refer to reduction of function or the absence of a part of the body. Totally visually challenged persons are unable to visualize things.

(ii) Adult:

Period of life from puberty to adulthood characterized by marked physiological changes, development of sexual feelings, efforts towards the construction of identity & a progression from concrete to abstract thought. Adolescence is sometimes viewed as a transitional state during which youths begin to separate themselves from their parents but still lack a clearly defined role in Society. It is generally regarded as an emotionally intense & often stressful period.

(iii) Occupational Satisfaction

According to Locke (1969) job satisfaction has been defined as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences". Satisfaction with various aspects of occupational stress experiences as difficult to characterize with other forms of everyday experiences (Cook et. al. 1981).
(iv) Adjustment:

Adjustment may be defined as the process by means of which the individual seeks to maintain physiological and psychological equilibrium and propel himself towards self-enhancement. Adjustment implies a state of harmonious relationship between the problem and the individual under specific conditions (Collins, 1986).

1.9 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study the relationship between occupational satisfaction and adjustment among visually challenged adult teachers.

2. To study the difference between male and female visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their occupational satisfaction.

3. To study the difference between rural and urban visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their occupational satisfaction.

4. To study the difference between low socio-economic status and high socio-economic status visually challenged adult teachers in relation to occupational satisfaction.

5. To study the difference between male and female visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

6. To study the difference between rural and urban visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

7. To study the difference between low socio-economic status and high socio-economic status visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

8. To study the interactional effect of socio-demographic variables viz. male and female, rural and urban, low and high socio-economic status in relation to occupational satisfaction of visually challenged adult teachers.

9. To study the interactional effect of socio-demographic variables viz. male and female, rural and urban, low and high socio-economic status in relation to adjustment of visually challenged adult teachers.

1.10 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY:

1. There is no relationship between occupational satisfaction and adjustment among visually challenged adult teachers.
2. There is no significant difference between male and female visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their occupational satisfaction.

3. There is no significant difference between rural and urban visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their occupational satisfaction.

4. There is no significant difference between low socio-economic status and high socio-economic status visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their occupational satisfaction.

5. There is no significant difference between male and female visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

6. There is no significant difference between rural and urban visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

7. There is no significant difference between low socio-economic status and high socio-economic status visually challenged adult teachers in relation to their adjustment.

8. There exist no significant interaction of socio-demographic variables viz. male and female, rural and urban, low and high socio-economic status in relation to occupational satisfaction of visually challenged adult teachers.

9. There exist no significant interaction of socio-demographic variables viz. male and female, rural and urban, low and high socio-economic status in relation to adjustment of visually challenged adult teachers.

1.11 **DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

1. The present study is confined to visually challenged adult teachers only.

2. The sample is restricted to 200 adult teachers who are partially or fully visually challenged.

3. The present study is confined to three districts of Haryana, i.e. Gurgaon, Faridabad and Rewari only.

4. The present study is confined to occupational satisfaction and adjustment only.