CHAPTER THREE
3.1 Occupational Locking-in:

"Occupational locking-in is a kind of ‘boxed-in feeling’ of an employee which is associated with increasing discontent in him" (Kay, 1975) or which refers to the ongoing feeling when the concerned employee or the individual had almost no opportunity to move to the higher position in the existing condition or to move from his present job or when the only position he currently held for which he possessed the required qualification (Quinn, 1975) and there is virtually no scope to move upwards. Quinn distinguished three components of such locking-in: (1) low probability of securing another job as good or better than his present one; (2) little opportunity to modify the presently disliked or de-motivated employment situation by securing a change in job assignments; and (3) low likelihood that an employee who was not satisfied with the present condition of his job could take psychological refuge in the performance of other roles not linked to his present job.

There are a number of forces operating in the society today indicating that occupational locking-in is on the increase (Quinn and Staines, 1979). Current economic conditions have been unstable, have very often discouraged the development of new industry and growth and as well as expansion of the old. Unemployment or underemployment has become a familiar condition in managerial ranks. The large supply of graduates pouring out of schools of management, the widespread discrimination against managerial talent over 40 years of age, and subtle pressures for early retirement of managers who want to keep on working are all factors which contribute to locking people into their existing positions.
Kay (1975) and Wolpin and Burke (1986) described a chain of events leading to locking-in. Kay outlined a series of steps beginning with a college graduate being hired into an organization because he has particular skills, remaining in the same area over a number of years and becoming a functional specialist, and as he is developing his expertise he is also attaining middle management status and receiving the rewards for his service and good performance. Eventually, upward mobility is no longer possible yet he may feel the need of a change. At this point he will find that it is very difficult to make even to a lateral shift, what to speak of an upward shift. First the individual has no experience in any area other than his original skill area, and secondly, his salary is too high for the experience level he offers to other areas. Hence, he has become locked-in. Another 'unknown' is how much work-related factors contribute to his coping behaviour. Kay identified some of the coping behaviours middle managers used to deal with work-related concerns, such as feeling locked-in. Some individuals plan a second career and enrol in an educational programme for this purpose; others become entrepreneurs; still others apply their skills and talents in a completely different environment (business versus academic versus government) from the one they are working in. Some individuals find a satisfactory resolution by directing their interests and energies to non-work areas of life, and seek fulfillment outside their jobs. Kay also commented on some mal-adaptative coping behaviours and outcomes relevant to middle managers. He refers to apathy as one mode of coping, which leads to stagnation, a deterioration of skills and obsolescence, and eventually to candidacy for forced early retirement. As plateaued careers and feeling locked-in often occurs in mid-life years, they may exacerbate the normal mid-life tension period. It was also observed that individuals experiencing greater locking-in reported greater amount of stress, greater feelings of depression and worthlessness, and greater negative feeling state overall (Wolpin and Burke, 1986; Ross and Altmaier, 1994).

Hence, while dealing with locking-in individuals, specially the university teachers, there are a number of important questions which can be raised regarding those teachers who felt locked into their teaching profession as
Readers. First, what effects does feeling locked-in have on the individuals? Secondly, how do individuals who feel locked-in cope with the situations? Thirdly, does the locked-in concept influence the relationship among other individual and organizational level variables?

Again, while dealing with the host of many direct and indirect effects that are causing a negative feeling within the concerned individuals the most predominant one may be assumed as the 'stress' or more specifically the 'organizational stress' which they are experiencing due to the condition of 'occupational locking-in'.

3.2 Organizational Stress:

It may be defined as the interaction of work conditions with characteristics of the worker such that the demands of work exceed the ability of the worker to cope with them. Beehr and Newman (1978) defined it as "a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning". Further it is an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and/or behavioural deviations for organizational participants. It is not simply anxiety or apprehensions, nor simply nervous tensions, nor necessarily something, damaging, bad or to be avoided (Quick and Quick, 1984)

3.2.1 Positive and Negative forms of Stress:

Stress is not always stemming from negative events in our lives, positive events such as getting married, going on vacation, getting an unexpected job promotion can produce stress (Brown and Mcgill, 1989). Positive stress, which is also known as Eustress, adds anticipation and excitement to life and we all thrive under a certain amount of stress. This type of stress is actually beneficial. On the other hand, other form of stress that is distress, is the chronic feeling of being overwhelmed and oppressed.
In this connection, we can say that perception is the key to determine which category a situation falls under. What is perceived as negatively stressful for one person may be perceived as positively stressful for another. Hence, it depends also on the individual’s psycho-physiological disposition or personality type i.e. whether he possess Type-A or Type-B personality.

3.2.2 Type – A Personality :

An individual behaviour at work, respond to the demands of his / her job, interaction with co-workers, depends upon his personality. There are two types of such personality characteristics namely, Type-A personality and Type-B personality.

In the 1950s a team of medical scientists investigated that certain cases of heart attack could not be explained by conventional medical reasons. They came to a conclusion after extensive research that, emotions and personality has link to heart disease. This concept was termed as Type-A Behaviour pattern (Friedman and Ulmer, 1984). These types of people are aggressive, competitive and set high standards, and put themselves under constant time pressures. These people are highly stress-prone. They even make excessive demands on themselves in recreation and leisure (Davis, 1993).

The general characteristic of Type-A Personality are: signs of personal tension, personal commitment to having rather than being; unawareness of the broader environment; strong need to be an expert on a subject, otherwise lack of involvement; compulsion to be with other Type-A; speech characterised by exclusive acceleration and accentuation of the last few words of a sentence; chronic sense of being in a hurry; polyphasic thoughts and actions; impatience with normal pace of events; feeling of guilt when relaxing; tendency to evaluate all activities in terms of measurable results; belief that Type- A attributes are what lead to success; determination to win every game, when playing with those that are less skilled or experienced.
3.2.3 Different kinds of Stress:

There are different kinds of stress, each with its own characteristics, symptom, duration, and treatment approaches. The first among them is Acute Stress. It is the most common form of stress. It comes from demands and pressures of the recent past and anticipated demands and pressure of the near future. It is thrilling and exciting in small dose, but too much is exhausting. Acute stress can crop up in anyone's life, and it is highly treatable and manageable.

Another kind of stress is Episodic Acute Stress. The lives of these people are so disordered that they are always in a rush but always late. People with this type of stress are short-tempered, irritable, anxious, and tensed. While Acute Stress can be thrilling and exciting, chronic stress is not. This stress wears people away day after day, year after year. This stress comes when a person never sees a way out of a miserable situation.

So when stress gets out of control it is a situation of burnout (Freudenberger, 1980). Burnout is one of the most important consequences of uncorrected job stress. It is defined as 'stress that has gotten out of control'. Burnout has been found to consist of three components (Jackson, Schwab and Schuler, 1986):

1. Emotional exhaustion, the feeling of drained and empty caused by excessive psychological and emotional demands.
2. Depersonalization, a closing off sensitivity towards others and a feeling of callousness and cynicism.
3. Low personal accomplishment, the feeling that one's actions and efforts are wasted and worthless.

The cause of Burnout is the accumulated stresses of overwork, because it is attached to those employees who are most dedicated and committed to their work. Studies suggest that they are insecure and unfulfilled person in case of their personal life. These people work so hard that they burn away their energy faster, stress accumulates and leads to psychological and physical ailments. Actually, they can be described as workaholics. However, some recent research
shows that all those people strive to perform well because they are driven by anxiety and insecurity. A good deal of research review (Byrne, 1993; Heffron, 1989; Pretorius, 1994) has listed a number of reasons for contributing interest in the phenomenon of teachers’ burnout. Teachers are expected to be purveyors of appropriate morals and values, guidance counsellors in different spheres of human endeavour, disciplinarians and national builders. Of late, the teaching profession has been identified as a particularly stressful and emotional strain of dealing extensively with others in need (Burke and Greenglass, 1995). In the above context, the teachers’ burnout is partly a function of stressors engendered at both the quality of work life in the educational organization set up and individual characteristics. More specifically, role conflict and role ambiguity are critical factors in generating the feeling of organizational stress among teachers (Ushasree and Jamuna, 1990; Akhtar and Vadra, 1990). Other well-documented reasons are the work overload, poor classroom climate, underparticipation in decision-making, poor support from superiors and colleagues, powerlessness, political pressures, unmet expectations, and personality factors such as self-esteem, locus of control (Farber, 1991) and negative affectivity (Saini, Yadav and Mal, 1997).

3.3 Causes of Stress:

The factors that contribute to stress are a long list of events. Among the most important of these are, stressful life events; the hassles of everyday life; work-related stress and environmental source of stress. In this way there are many factors that may have an influence on stress. But only those factors, which are relevant to the present investigation are broadly described below. Although, evidence suggests that work stress can ‘spill over’ to home life and vice-versa (Bacharach et al, 1991; Burke, 1986; Quick et al, 1992).
3.4 Role in Organization:

Role in organization is a potential psychosocial hazard which is related to issues on role ambiguity and role conflict (Kahn et al, 1964; Kahn, 1973; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; IngerSoll et al, 1999). There are five sets of role characteristics such as role ambiguity, role overload, role underload, role conflict, responsibility, a sense of powerlessness.

3.4.1 Role Ambiguity:

Role ambiguity arises when individuals do not have a clear picture about their work objectives, their co-workers, expectations of them and the scope and responsibilities of their job. Often this ambiguity occurs simply because a supervisor does not lay out to the employee exactly what their role is. Role ambiguity results in depressed mood, lowered self-esteem, life dissatisfaction, low motivation to work and the intention to leave a job. Kahn et al (1964) found that workers who suffered from role ambiguity were more likely to experience lower job satisfaction, a greater incidence of job related tensions, greater feelings of futility and lower levels of self-confidence. French and Caplan (1970) showed that role ambiguity was related to increased blood pressure and higher pulse rates. Margolis et al (1974) further found out a number of relationships between role ambiguity and low job motivation and intention to leave the job. It was further observed that externally controlled subjects perceived more stress due to role ambiguity (Malik and Sabharwal, 1999).

3.4.2 Role Conflict:

Role conflict occurs when the individual is required to play role which conflicts with their values, or when the various roles that they play are incompatible with one another. Kahn and his colleagues (1964) have shown that the greater role conflict in man, the lower job satisfaction and greater job-related tension; even role conflict resulted to increase risk of cardio-vascular ill health (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980). Cooper and Smith (1986) too concluded that
white collar workers are more prone to role conflict than manual workers. There are four different types of role conflicts:

(i) Intersender Role Conflict: It is a situation in which expectations, pressures or demands from one person's conflict with the demand of another person.

(ii) Intrasender Role Conflict: This conflict takes place when the same member of the role asks an employee to perform activities which are mutually incompatible.

(iii) Person-role Conflict: This role happens when the demands of an individual's work roles conflict with the individual's personal values.

(iv) Inter Role Conflict: It is the final type of role conflict, which results when an employee experiences conflict between the expectation and demands of people at work and the expectations and demands of people outside work (Ross and Altmaier, 1994).

3.4.3 Role Overload:

Role overload occurs when the individual is not able to complete the work that is part of a particular job. In terms of role overload in work, an individual in work group might malfunction where there is too much work to be done. The concept of 'too much work' can be divided into two categories, e.g. qualitative overload and quantitative overload. Quantitative overload occurs when an individual does not have enough time to complete all of the work that is required in a job (French and Caplan, 1973). On the other hand, Qualitative role overload occurs when employees do not believe that they can perform adequately with the effort or skills they possess.

3.4.4 Role Underload:

Job underload associated with repetitive, routine, boring and under stimulating work has been related to being stressed. While role overload represents a demand, role underload is characterized by constraint.
3.4.5 A Sense of Powerlessness:

A feeling of powerlessness is a universal cause of job stress. Feeling of powerlessness can lead somebody to be depressive and to have a feeling of helplessness and hopelessness. Secretaries, waitresses, police officers, editors, middle managers are with the most highly stressed occupations which need response to other's demand and time tables. These jobs complain too much responsibility but too little authority, leading to stress among the workers. (Smith and Miller, 1997)

3.4.6 Responsibility for people:

It has been identified as a potential source of stress associated with role issues. Wardell et al. (1964) showed that responsibility for people, was likely to lead to greater risk of coronary heart disease. French and Caplan, (1970) found that responsibility for people was significantly related to heavy smoking, raised diastolic blood pressure and raised cholesterol levels. Leiter (1991) suggests that, in the caring professions responsibility for the people is associated with emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization of relationship with patients.

3.4.7 Role Insufficiency:

It refers to failure of the organization to make full use of the individuals' abilities and training (O'Brien, 1982). Such insufficiencies have been reported to lead to feelings of stress (Brook, 1973) and are associated with psychological strain and low job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Bhalla et al, 1991).

3.4.8 Measurement of Role Stress:

Until recently researches were done only on three role stresses viz., role ambiguity, role overload and role conflict and various measures of those were available. Pareek (1983) extended the operationalization of the concepts because
he found many other role stresses in organizations. Such as: (1) Self-Role distance i.e. conflict of one's values and self-concepts with the requirements of the organizational role; (2) Inter-Role distance i.e. conflict between the organizational role and other roles e.g., an employee not being able to divide his time between work demands and family demands; (3) Role Isolation i.e. lack of linkages of one's role with other roles in the organization; (4) Role Ambiguity i.e. lack of clarity about expectations of others from the role, or lack of feedback on how performance is regarded by others; (5) Role Expectation Conflict i.e. conflicting demands made on the role by different persons in the organization; (6) Resource Inadequacy i.e. non availability of resources needed for effective role performance; (7) Personal Inadequacy i.e. lack of knowledge, skills or adequate preparations to be effective in a particular role; (8) Role Stagnation i.e. few opportunities for learning and growth in the role; (9) Role Erosion i.e. a feeling that some important functions a role occupant would like to perform have been given to some other roles, or a feeling that there is not much challenge in the functions given to the role; and (10) Role Overload i.e. a feeling that too much is expected from the role than what the occupant can cope with.

Incorporating all of the above mentioned aspects Pareek developed and standardized the Organizational Role Stress Scale to measure role stresses.

3.4.9 Interpersonal Work Relationship:

This type of relationship that employees have at their workplace has been consistently linked to job stress (Payne, 1980). Ketel de Vries (1984) noted three types of interpersonal relationships viz. relationship with co-workers, relationship with work groups and relationship with the supervisors. Some individuals entertain some social support. This social support influences how individuals deal with stress. An adequate social support means less effects of stress. In this concept, an individual's relationship with co-workers within work group, can influence stress at workplace either favourably or unfavourably depending on the congenial and uncongenial relationship with the co-workers respectively.
On the basis of the above discussion, it can be said that social support had a three-fold effect on work stressor-strain: it reduced the strains experienced, mitigated perceived stressors, and moderated the stressor-strain relationship. Lobban et al (1998) also suggests that supervisory relationships, either directly or mediated by other job characteristics, have significant additional influence on occupational stress.

3.5 Organisational Structure and Climate:

The fact of working in an organization is often perceived as a threat to individual freedom, autonomy and identity (Hingley and Cooper, 1986). Various study suggests that employees' perceptions and description of the organization revolve around three aspects of organizational functions and culture: the organization as a task environment, as a problem solving environment and as a developing environment (Cox and Howarth, 1990; Cox and Leiter 1992). If the organization is poor in respect to these environment, then the level of stress will increase. The structure of an organization has also been found to have potential effect on individual performance (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980).

The position and level, which an individual organizes within the organization, is associated with job stress. In this connection, it is found that employees who hold jobs at the low end of the organizational hierarchy are more likely to experience stress (Ivancevich et al., 1982)

3.6 Job Characteristics:

The characteristics of job itself are the factors responsible for occupational stress. Research has been done on blue collar jobs, and it has been found that a number of aspects of the work environment can contribute to occupational stress. This is applicable to different kinds of jobs and occupations. Some of the job characteristics are:
3.6.1 Work Pace:

One of the characteristics that influence occupational stress, is the pace at which an individual does his work. In other words, we can say that, work pace is concerned with who or what controls the pace of work, and the amount of control an employee has over the work process. (Ross and Altmaier, 1994)

3.6.2 Repetition of Work:

Another job characteristic, that can influence occupational stress is the amount of repetition in work. The more repetitive a particular job, the more likely the job incumbent will experience stress (Wallace, et al., 1988). Various terms are used to study this phenomenon. A discrete set of tasks activities are repeated over and over in the same order without any interruptions by other activities. This can be termed as monotony. Whereas there are situations, repetition work has been the focus of practitioners from many fields those who are concerned with work productivity and satisfaction. (Ross and Altmaier, 1994).

3.6.3 Shift Work:

If an individual works at times other than the traditional 10:00 a.m to 5:00 p.m, this can be a factor responsible for occupational stress. Both the mental efficiency and work motivation are directly and indirectly affected by shift work. Shift Work has also association with psychosocial difficulties. Such difficulties arise, since our society is day-time oriented (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1980). So a worker may experience domestic pressure (inability to cope with child care household management etc.) and face social isolation.

3.6.4 Task Attribute:

Task attribute directly or indirectly affects the behavioural and effective responses of an employee to a job (Turner and Lawrence, 1965). The different task attributes are : Variety; Autonomy; Required Interaction; Optional Interaction; Knowledge and skill required; Responsibility etc.
3.6.5 Long Hours:

The long working hours required by many jobs appear to take a toll on employees' health. This is evident from a study of hundred young coronary patients. The study reveals that 25 percent of the coronary patients had been working at two jobs, and 40 percent worked more than 60 hours a week (Russek and Zohman, 1958). So, it can be concluded from the above study that working for more hours is increasingly unproductive and can create ill-health.

3.6.6 Risk and Danger:

A job which involves risk or danger can result in higher stress level. When someone is constantly aware of potential danger, the individual is in a constant state of arousal, as described in the ‘fight or flight’ syndrome. It results in adrenalin risk, respiration changes and muscle tension, which are all potential threat to long-term health. On the other hand, individuals who face physical danger - such as police, mine workers, etc. often appear to have reduced stress levels, particularly those who are adequately trained to deal with emergency situations.

3.6.7 New Technology:

The introduction of new technology in the work environment, makes the workers (particularly blue collar workers), to adapt continually to new equipment system and ways of working are the causes of stress, among executives in 10 countries (Cooper, 1984). Japanese executives suffer from pressure to keep up with new technology. Similarly in UK, a high percentage of managers (second to Japan) said that keeping up with the new technology was a great source of pressure at work.

3.6.8 Job Description:

Every employee should have a specific, written job description. With a clear job description, an individual’s job can be a source of satisfaction and respect. But if the individual, is the proverbial ‘square peg’, and the job is a
'round hole', job stress hurts the productivity and takes a serious toll on the mind and body. It would be better on their part, to get a job that matches their skills, abilities and interests (Miller and Smith, 1997).

3.6.9 Work Setting:

Sometimes the work setting creates physical stress because of noise, lack of privacy, poor lighting, poor ventilation, poor temperature control, or inadequate sanitary facilities. Settings where there is organizational confusion or an overly authoritarian, crisis-centred managerial style are all psychologically stressful.

3.7 Career Development:

The lack of expected career development may be a significant source of stress, particularly in those organizations, which emphasize the relationship between career development and experience. Marshall identified two major sources of stress in this area: firstly, lack of job security and fear of redundancy and forced early retirement; secondly, status incongruity (under or over promotion, frustration due to non-reaching the career ceiling). Cooper (1978) suggested that fear of obsolescence and failure resulting in demotivation, is likely to be strongest in those who believe they have reached the career ceiling, and that most will experience some erosion of status before they retire. Robertson and Cooper (1983) believed that these fears may give rise to stress if workers are unable to adapt their expectations to the reality of the situations.

3.7.1 Job insecurity and poor pay:

Job insecurity and fear of redundancy can be major sources of anxiety (Porter, 1990). Poor pay may also be hazardous to health. In general, workers complain about levels of pay, poor pay have an effect on the workers' ability to remain healthy (Warr, 1992). Method or schedule of payment is also a source of stress.
3.7.2 Status Incongruity:

The cost of status incongruity has been well researched. Arthur and Gunderson, (1965) claimed that promotional lag was significantly related to psychiatric illness. Kasl and Cobb (1967) mentioned that stress related to parental status had strong and long-term effect on the physical and mental health of the offsprings. Shekelle et al. (1969) found that men with substantial change in social status runs the risk of coronary heart disease.

3.7.3 Decision Latitude and Control:

Decision latitude and control are important issues in job design. The work quality of the employees depends upon the extent to which they can participate in decision making. The experience of low control at work, has been repeatedly associated with stress, depression, anxiety, apathy, exhaustion, low-self esteem etc. (Ganster and Fusilier, 1989; Sauter et al., 1989; Karasek and Theorell, 1990; Terry and Jimmieson, 1999). In this connection, Cox (1990) and Warr (1992) insists that workers should be empowered to plan their work, control their workloads, make decisions about how work should be completed and how problems should be tackled.

3.7.4 Participation:

If the opportunity for participation in decision making is greater, the level of satisfaction is higher, along with feelings of self-esteem (French and Caplan, 1970, 1973; Buck, 1972; Spector, 1986). Non-participation results in work-related stress and overall poor health. French et al. (1982) have reported that lack of participation shows enhanced job dissatisfaction.

3.8 Stress and Job Performance:

Stress has direct relation to Job performance. When there is no stress, job challenges are absent and performances tend to be low. As stress increases, performance tends to increase, because stress helps a person call up resources to meet job requirements. It encourages employees to respond to challenges.
Eventually, stress reaches the highest point and at this point additional stress do not produce any improvement, rather performance begins to decline. An employee at this point has a breakdown, becomes too ill to work, quits or refuses to come to work to face the stress (Davis, 1993).

3.9 Stress and productivity:

There are various expectations on every employee when they perform in an organization. Their performance in the organization depends on the task activities, behavioural settings as well as patterns of 'interpersonal connectedness'. Sometimes such job activities / job roles threaten to exceed the occupant's capacities and produce role stress. The emotional, physiological and behavioural responses to experience stress are greatly influenced by personal attributes and experiences, which in turn, may influence an individual's output.

Srivastava (1983) attempted to explore the stress-performance relationship considering the latter as determinant of the former rather than vice-versa. He said that employees with high productivity would perceive and experience mild role stress as compared to those with low production capacity.

Singh (1986) in an exploratory study attempted to examine a number of research issues related to the structure and dynamics of stress among executives. On the basis of his study, he said that:

(a) Stress is multi-dimensional in nature.

(b) Personal and organizational factors are related to the dimensions of stress in specific ways.

(c) The high stress and strain groups could be discriminated from the low stress and strain group in terms of personal and organizational factors and coping strategies.

(d) The higher level of executive experience less stress, utilize better coping strategies and enjoy more positive outcomes.

(e) Six dimension of stress, namely lack of group cohesiveness, feeling of inadequacy, role ambiguity, lack of supervisory support, job
recruitment-capacity mismatch and inadequacy of conflict and real overload have an inverted U-shaped relationship with performance.

(f) A condition of lack of strain is related to positive outcome.

In a more comprehensive study, Srilata (1986, 1991) attempted to determine whether stresses may arise because of certain structural factors of the organization, job factors, perceptions of the focal person of his role and of his own 'self'. The findings of this study are following:

1. All job satisfaction variables such as supervision, working conditions, colleagues, job as a whole, opportunity for promotion are negatively and significantly associated with stress.

2. Organizational stress, role ambiguity and role overload more negatively and significantly associated with four factors associated with self-confidence, namely, job knowledge, work planning, upward communication and control for both public and private sectors.

3. Two supervisory behaviour dimensions—initiative and consideration are found to be negatively associated with the stress.

4. Persons with higher span of control experienced more stress than persons with low span of control.

As a concluding remark author noted that stress can be minimized by having clarity regarding one's role including the definition of task responsibilities and authority. Frequent interaction between the superior and the focal person, adequate training, care of growth and job enrichment were suggested to be important for stress reduction.

Khanna (1985), conducted an investigation in order to find out whether there is any relationship between organizational climate, role stress and their impact upon organizational effectiveness. According to Khanna, lower level of stress promotes a better climate and, in turn affects organizational effectiveness. Therefore, organizational climate acts as an intervening variable and may negatively influence organizational effectiveness. To overcome these situations, the author's suggestion include:

44
(a) To try to reduce particular dominant stressors.
(b) To bring about greater job satisfaction,
(c) To encourage both executives and supervisors to behave with a higher measure of legitimacy, and innovation.
(d) To organize training programmes.

3.10 Stress and Job Satisfaction:

Stress – Strain – Health relationship have an obvious impact on the organization and industry. Both physical and mental illness makes the employee unfit for work, lessens the satisfaction from work and reduce job performance and productivity levels.

Studies have shown that opportunity for participation is positively associated with Job satisfaction (Coch and French, 1984) and the non-participation is related to overall poor physical health, drinking, low self-esteem, low job satisfaction etc. In this connection, it has been found that Henne and Locke (1985) concluded that low performance should be taken as one action alternative that may be taken by some people under some circumstances in responses to dissatisfaction. Stress researchers have also identified job dissatisfaction as one possible response to a stress agent in work environment.

Stress affects the job environment in an organization. Other than its effect on life, it indirectly influences life satisfaction too. Several studies have shown that job satisfaction is one of the five domains of life, needed for satisfaction in life, i.e. family, health, community, work and spare time activity (Brief and Hollenbeck, 1985)

Two further consequences of job dissatisfaction is absenteeism or a wish to quit the job. Generally speaking, absenteeism may be due to problems like family commitments, weather condition, voluntary withdrawal and illness. But Miner and Brewer (1976), found that poor health, specially psychologically well-being is a major cause of absenteeism. In other words, one can say that stress which is the cause of both physical and psychological well-being, is the agent of absenteeism. Research evidence indicates dissatisfaction with pay, failed
expectations, inconsiderate leadership, leads to stress. Therefore, intrinsic job satisfaction is probably best considered as moderating variable in the job stress model and its relation to health is more important than it is generally recognized. Kanungo (1982) considered the following aspects of job as very important for promoting job satisfaction - amount of security, policies and practices of the organization that govern the job, amount of compensation, kind of benefit plans, chance of future promotion, working environment, nature of work, amount of recognition and respect, opportunities to work like-minded people, opportunities to achieve higher skill and excellence in the work, considerate and sympathetic nature of immediate superior, nature of responsibility and independence involved in the job. According to Bavendam Research Incorporated (2000) there are six factors that influence job satisfaction. The factors are: opportunity, stress, leadership, work standard, fair reward, and adequate authority. When those mentioned six factors are high job satisfaction is also high.

3.11 Coping with Stress:

Coping is defined as the cognitive and behavioural efforts of the affected individuals made to master, tolerate or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Coping processes refer to the cognitive and behavioural efforts individuals employ in specific stressful circumstances.

3.12 Personal Coping Resources:

Personal coping resources are a complex set of personality, attitudinal and cognitive factors that provide part of the psychological context for coping various factors which enhance personal coping are:

(a) Ego Development: Loevinger (1976) conceptualized ego development as the ‘master trait’, encompassing an individual’s frame of reference and the processes through which new experiences are integrated into a coherent whole. Dill and Noam (1990) found that patience at higher stages of ego development
prefer insight-oriented treatment; those at lower stages prefer social interventions. Higher levels of ego development are associated with more varied and effective coping styles.

(b) Self-efficacy, optimism and sense of coherence: In general, persons with higher levels of self-efficacy tend to approach challenging situations actively, whereas those with lower levels are less active or tend to avoid such situations.

(c) Dispositional optimism: Optimism is associated with better physical and psychological adaptation to stressful life circumstances, perhaps because optimists are more likely to rely on problem-focussed coping and less likely to use avoidance processes such as, venting their feelings and disengagement. Scheier and Carver (1985, 1987) defines dispositional optimism as general expectancy for positive outcomes especially in difficult or ambiguous situations.

(d) Sense of Coherence: People possessing a high sense of coherence try to impose structure on situations, to accept challenge and identify personal and social resources that facilitate the coping process, and to actively consider alternative coping options. Thus, a sense of coherence may have positive consequences for health and well-being.

3.13 Appraisal and Coping processes:

Appraising and coping processes are closely interrelated. According to Lazarus and Folkman, (1984), primary appraisal involves people's judgment about what is at stake in a stressful encounter, while secondary appraisal involves their beliefs about the option for coping. Generally, it is done through assessing individual's immediate reaction to the situation and the extent to which it can be changed or accepted.

Although no single method for categorizing coping processes has yet emerged, most researchers have used one or two main conceptual approaches to
classify coping processes. One approach emphasizes the focus of coping – in which an individual approaches the problem and make active efforts to resolve it and to manage the emotions associated with it. Another approach emphasizes the method of coping which people employ to find out whether a response entails primary cognitive or behavioural efforts. Accordingly, the coping processes are:


3.14 Determinants of Coping process:

3.14.1 Demographic and personal factors:

Some investigators have identified gender differences in coping. Several findings reflect the fact that women confront more severe objectives or appraised stressors, which are associated with more avoidance and more approach coping. Folkman and her colleagues (1987) found that older adults are more likely to rely on cognitive approach and avoidance coping and less likely to utilize behavioural approach processes such as seeking social support, problem solving and confrontation. In another study it has been found that older men prefer resignation to avoidance, whereas middle-aged men do not (Feifel and Strack, 1989). Personality also has great influence on coping. Self-confident persons rely more on approach coping and less on avoidance coping.

3.14.2 The Social Context of Coping:

Several studies have proved that family and work resources can influence adaptation by facilitating the use of more coping processes. People who enjoy more social resources from family and friends seems to rely more on approach processes. Feifel, Strack and Nagy (1987) found that men having more social support, rely more on confrontation while coping with a serious medical illness.
3.14.3 Work Resource and Coping:

Kohn and Schooler (1983) have noted that occupational experiences can affect a person's value system and coping strategies. Occupational conditions such as high autonomy, innovation and support are associated with valuing self-direction and use of active coping processes. In accordance with the above ideas, it was found that men in more involving and supportive work settings are more likely to seek information and support. Moreover, men who experience increases in work support see more information and support overtime (Fondacaro and Moos, 1987).

3.14.4 Personal and Social Factors:

Coping processes are affected by both personal and situational factors. Feifel and Strack (1989) found that middle-aged men relied more on problem solving rather than resignation, frustration and defeat in a competitive situation. It was further found that older men are more forthright in authority conflict and decision making situations.