Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW
A collective body of works done by earlier scientists is technically called the literature. Any scientific investigations start with the review of the literature as it helps the researcher in selecting the variables lying within the scope of his interest in defining and operationalizing variables and in identifying variables which are conceptually and practically important. It also helps the researcher in avoiding any duplication of the work done earlier. A careful review always aims at interpreting prior studies and indicating their usefulness for the study to be undertaken. It also enables the researcher to collect any synthesize prior studies related to the present study. This, in turn, helps him in building a better perspective for future research. A synthesized collection of prior studies also helps a researcher to identify the significant overlaps and gaps among the prior works. A careful review of the literature also helps the researcher in identifying the relationship among the significant variables. Subsequently, the identified relationship is incorporated into different hypotheses. Thus for conducting a scientific study, the relationship between the different variables must be explored by reviewing the literature so that a good context may be built up for subsequent investigations.

The area of stress is vast and now a day there is too much stress laid upon it. The occupational stress of various employees and factor which affect it, have been studied by many researchers in India & abroad.
Some of the important studies which have some relevance to the present problem are as follows:

**Rahe and his associates (1964)** examined whether changes in individuals life, which require them to make behavioural read adjustments, statistically correlate with the outlet of illness. The study indicated that naturally occurring and experimentally induced stress evoke significant alternations in the functioning of most bodily tissues, organs and systems. These changes in their turn lead to a lowering of the body’s resistance to diseases by suppressing the immune system.

**French, Tuper and Muller (1965)** concluded that qualitative work overload experienced by the University Professors was significantly correlated with low self esteem. They further reported that overload in most systems leads to breakdown, whether we deal with single biological cell or individuals in an organization.

**Sales (1969)** reported that role overload is an important source of occupational stress in which an individual is faced with a set of obligations requiring him to do more within a specified time limit.

**Keller (1975)** revealed that role stress in negatively correlated with satisfaction, with pay job itself, advancement, supervision, motivation, productivity and positively correlated with anxiety, depression & resentment, turnover and absenteeism etc.

**Cooper, Marshal and Mc Grath (1976)** pointed out that the major sources of stress can be categorized as organizational structure and climate, factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, career development and relationship at work.
Berkeley Planning Associates (1977) identified job characteristics, job involvement autonomy, being supervised, work presence, feedback, accomplishment and meaningfulness to be associated with stress.

A vast number of studies have been conducted to identify the main job stressors faced by teachers.

The specific factors that are responsible for high levels of psychological pressure for teachers are high ratio between teacher and pupil, limited progress of pupils, heavy workload, relationship with colleagues and poor working environment, insufficient salary, status, time-resource difficulties, professional recognition needs. (Borg, et al. 1991; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979; Kyriacou, 1987; Manthei & Solman, 1988).

Webb (1978) examined the unsubstantiated but widely accepted supposition that insufficient privacy is stressful to the individual. Data were obtained through personal interview. Finding provide substantial support for the hypothesis that a perceived lack of privacy is directly associated with psychosomatic stress. The relationship is also specified in terms of various measures of stress as well as by the sex of respondents.

In their extensive study House and his associates (1979) found that perceived job stress was consistently correlated with self-reported angina, ulcer and neurotic symptoms, and with hypertension and other heart disease risk factors.

Lamb (1979) reviewed the distinction between physical and psychological stressors, including some implications for anxiety research. The relationship among anxiety state, anxiety traits and type of stressors are complex and can be influenced by such factors as the preciseness by which
the stressor is available to deal with the stress. The choice of appropriate state and trait anxiety measures in crucial when assessing, the different impact of physical and psychological stressors.

Lesson (1980) studied professional burnout in context of discrepancy between expectations and attainments on social workers in a Mental hospital. The conclusions of this study were that burnout is higher when the actual work on the job is different than the expected work. A week relation was found between high burnout and career goals. The other factors which related to higher levels of burnout included- Master degree, working half time, job stress carried into after-work life, and personal office space being limited, too noisy or unattractive. Relationship with supervisor, their accessibility and dependability was related to low burnout. Workers, who had close relationship with their supervisor, distance from their clients less.

Rasion (1981) conducted a study to analyze the relationship between. Burnout and selected a set of personal and environmental variables on regular and special education teachers. Results revealed that younger people were more motionally exhausted and depersonalized, than older ones. Older teachers scored high on personal accomplishment scale. Regular and special teachers, who were unmarried, divorced of widowed, scored high on emotional exhaustion scale. Males scored high on depersonalization sub-scale. Teaching hours, teaching handicapped student and class-size appeared to contribute to high scores of emotional exhaustion.

Pines & Kafry (1981) found that Mental Health Professionals who were lower in self-esteem intended to be more dissatisfied with their work and rated their job performance lower than others.
Allie (1982) conducted a study on Regular and Special education teachers to measure the effect of job stress and personal life stress on job performance, burnout and job satisfaction. Findings revealed that special education teachers headless job than regular teachers rural teachers were less stressed than their urban counterparts. Strong relationship was found between job stress, job dissatisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

Frankas (1982) analyzed school principal’s perception of job stress and factors that have been assumed to influences stress. This study found that principal’s perceive lower stress than popular literature has indicated. Female principals perceive even less stress than male principals.

Gupta (1982) carried out a study to analyze stress among working women and its effect on marital adjustment. She choose 120 working women belonging to three teaching categories school teachers, lecturers and doctors employees as teachers in medical colleges. The tool used was the information Schedule developed by Promila Kapur (1970). A chi square analysis of the data revealed a significant association between marital adjustment and variables like occupational stress, education and income.

Moracco et al. (1982) conducted study on 691 regular and special educators and found that special education teacher perceived less stress from teaching than did regular educations. There were very small difference between the groups in symptoms of stress and strategies used to reduce the effects of stress.

Jackson’s (1983) findings revealed that there was a significant relationship between classroom stress and emotional exhaustion, and between classroom stress and personal accomplishment. He further stated
that type of work was negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

**Pareek (1983)** pointed out many role stressors in organization. They include self role distance inter role distance, role isolation, role ambiguity, role expectation conflict, recourse inadequacy, role stagnation, role erosion and role overload.

**Brown (1983)** investigated the relationship between stress and the dimensions of Burnout on teachers. Findings of the study revealed that teachers were not experiencing significant stress and burnout. However, a significant relationship was found between stress, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

**Srivastava and Sinha (1983)** examined the effect of employees ego-strength and job-involvement on their experience of role-stress. A group of 120 supervisory and managerial personnel (technical and non technical) from a large automobile industry were selected for the study. The results of the study indicated that a high level of ego-strength and involvement is associated with stress.

**Werbel (1983)** studied the relationship between job entry and job stress in a longitudinal study of 62 transferred employees. Results show skill uncertainty to be associated with both negative emotional arousals one month after job entry and with positive emotional arousal three months after job entry.

**Fridman, Lehrer and Stevens (1983)** examined the interaction effects of two stress management strategy; directed lecture discussion versus self directed and locus of control of teachers were examined. Results indicated directed and self directed programmers were effective in
reducing stress. Locus of control was not an important factor. Blasé (1984) opined a data based model of how teachers cope with work stress.

Milsum (1984) has explored positive aspects of optimal or well balance stress. He reported that stress can markedly increase blood level endorphins, naturally occurring morphine like hormones associated with pain relief and feelings of well-being.

Foug (1984) concluded that job overloaded correlated significantly and positively with almost all aspects of burnout. Work pressure and job inadequacy correlated significantly and positively with emotional exhaustion aspect of burnout.

Conway (1984) in his study assessed that Burnout is significantly correlated with Situational and Organization Variables, like overload, role conflict, job stress, support and clarity of client expectations. Personality traits of timidity and anxiety were associated with higher Burnout Scores.

Hiebert and Farber (1984) conducted a study to determine the amount of imperial evidence that showed the teaching profession to possess a disproportionate number of individuals experiencing stress related problems. Results showed that 30 percent of 71 articles related to teachers stress contained empirical support for their claims and 70 percent contained little or no support. Sex, age nature of school (Primary of Secondary) position held and qualifications were significant factors in predicting stress among Australian teachers (Lughlin, 1984).

Kalker (1984) conducted a study and reached the conclusion that stress and burnout seem to be more prevalent in helping and service professions, such as teaching poor public image of teachers and education,
role related distress and lack of support all lead to teacher stress. Causes, symptoms and consequences of this problem are examined as specific problem.

**Milstein and Golaszewski (1984)** Found that teachers are moderately stressed and that stressors that centre on the classroom are more of a problem than organizational focused stressors. Wang berg (1984) concluded that teachers stress and job dissatisfaction stress arise from societal, institutional and personal factors. Each of these factors help education cope with the problems they faced.

**Zebel et al. (1984)** gave a dynamic interactive model of stress and burnout among teachers of behaviourally disordered student’s is proposed. The model postulates that burnout may result from a discrepancy between teacher’s expectation and the school experience. Stress and burnout are portrayed along a continuum of interactions between the teacher’s and job related factors.

**Bradfield and Fones (1985)** examined the effects of perceived job related stress on the lives of special education (SE) teachers. Result show that high stress teachers (HSTs) indicated an average of 5.2 physical stress symptoms as compared to an average of only 2.9 symptoms for the low stress teachers (LSTs). HSTs indicated an average of six days/yr taken in sick leave, while the LSTs required 1.8 days 42 percent of the HSTs indicated plans to change career, while only 8% of the LSTs indicated such plans.

**Klas, Kendall, Woodward and Kennedy (1985)** administered the Stress Profile of Teacher (SPT) to 588 regular classroom teachers to study the nature of stress in education. A comparison study, using 211 specialist
teachers reported moderate level of stress. The SPT categories of stressor were ranked almost exactly the same by teachers of different grade level, with time management and parent-teacher relationship categories ranked highest. Teachers with 20 years or more of experience and those in schools with population of 201-400 students reported significantly higher levels of stress than did Ss with 4 year or less experience and those from smaller or larger schools.

**Litt and Turk (1985)** studied 291 experienced public high school teachers to identify source of stress and dissatisfaction that might induce teachers to leave teaching. A large battery of measures was used, including the Diagnostic Survey and Tension Scale. Data on four sets of independent variables (perceived role, school climate, coping and resources, and specific work problems) were entered into a canonical correlation analysis to predict a multidimensional construct of teacher stress encompassing job satisfaction, negative well being, absence, and intention to leave teaching. These significant canonical variables were extracted with independent sets. Results suggest that the role Ss perceived for themselves and the school climate, particularly the relationship with administrators may be extremely important in predicting job stress.

**Sekaran (1985)** gathered data on 166 married couples in dual-career families and found that the mechanism relationships between the stressors (work factors and non-factors) and the mental stress responses differed to a great extent between men & women. Sekaran further reported that women feel more oppressed by family life than men do. Family life affected by multi-faceted role conflict and occupational stress, lowered
women's satisfaction with an individual's life which in turn led to poor mental health.

Srivastava & Srivastava (1985) observed that participation of women in higher education has increased professional women as compared to the other groups. Unlike the American findings, education emerges as a significant variable for elevated Type a behavioral pattern.

Scott (1985) found in his study that male family practitioners experience less stress and a higher sense of personal accomplishment than their female counterparts.

Srivastava (1985) examined the moderating effects of n-ach on role stress, job anxiety relationship. The analyses of variance revealed that employee's stress resulting from perceived role conflicts and role ambiguity had significant effect on anxiety pertaining to their job life. The analysis also revealed that employee's role ambiguity in comparison to their role conflict correlates strongly with their job anxiety.

Tache and Seyle (1985) described physiological and behavioral stress responses and coping mechanisms, with emphasis on the changing role of stress in adapting leading to the current definition of stress as the non-specific response of the body to any demand and the non-specific characters of the stress response and its stereotyped manifestation are described. The roles of exogamous and endogamous factors in creating individual differences in reacting to stresses are reviewed. The utility and limitation of various stress tests, and the need to use a battery of tests to measure different indices of stress are discussed as is homeostatic model of coping with stress. Four levels of coping with stress that reflect the role

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of stress in contemporary society is proposed.

**Blase (1986)** reported on the amount of qualitative research in which teachers subjectively described the meaning of work stress is limited. This article presents data drawn from a qualitative study of teacher’s perception of work stress. Linkage between teacher stress and teacher performance are firmly established. The study data are discussed in terms of the Performance Adaptation Syndrome (PAS), a term developed from the data to describe the deleterious effects of prolonged work stress on the instructional ability of teachers.

**Cunniff (1986)** conducted a study to determine if significant relationship existed between works related stress and attendance in the teaching profession. Relationship between the sub-dimensions of teaching stress, priority concerns for personal safety, Management tensions, self-control, pedagogical functions and demographic variables. The sample consisted 245 urban public elementary teachers assigned to 15 schools in one northeastern United State city. A supplementary interview of 26 teachers who had at least ten years experience was conducted to clarify the data. The major conclusions based upon the finding of this study were-

(a) No significant relationship existed between the rating of events as stressful and attendance.

(b) Teacher’s work-related stress associated with self control and pedagogical functions.

(c) There were no significant inter-correlation among the work related stress variables and then demographic variables.
Kaunitz, Spokane, Lissitz and Strein (1986) used 31 student teachers who identified 95 situations that they considered stressful, which were then used to define stimuli in a period comparisons procedure completed by additional 44 student teachers. Multi-dimensional scaling revealed some support for 3 underlying dimensions: professional personal, threat-no threat, and professional disaster- personal crises. So those who could not separate personal and professional stress reported increased personal strain.

Mishra (1986) conducted a study on 345 teachers selected from 15 secondary schools and the in-service teachers attending the three training colleges in Calcutta. The finding of the results indicated that the teacher’s experiences stress which varied according to age but hey did not express.

Swanson (1986) identified sources of stress in public school and considered their causes from an integrationist perspective.

Toker and Feitler (1986) examined the level of stress and the relationship between jobs related stress and sources of stress for 773 teachers in the study. The teachers studied reported stress and sources of stress for 773 teachers in the US. The teachers studied reported a higher level of job related stress than teachers surveyed in England. The significant sources of teacher stress were identified (eg. Noisy pupils, too much work, inadequate disciplinary policy, inadequate salary).

Rhoades (1987) study on teachers revealed that emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and/or personal accomplishment burnout. Impact the leadership behaviour in teacher and burnout did exist in various demographic areas like, college size, geographic location, experience in
the teaching profession, experience in specific college, credit hours taught, length of time since teaching, assignment changes, length of time since taking a college class, highest college degree earned, subject area taught, length of time since working, gender, race, age, marital status, working spouse, number of children and participation in professional organizations.

Fernandes and Murthy (1989) studied job related stress and burn-out in middle school and secondary school teachers. It was found that stress was correlated with burn-out in teachers.

In another study by Hipps (1990) on school teachers and Principals, findings showed that stress was related to subordinate-super ordinate relationships, relation with students, salary and compensation. But school environment standards were found to be negatively related to job satisfaction. Age and gender were not significantly related to job satisfaction.

Akhtar & Vadra (1990) pointed out that there are many sources of stress within the organization which are directly or indirectly related to outside events. Amongst other factors family and society has its greater impact such as illness of family members, the conflict between the members of the family, family financial crisis etc.

Karasek and Theorell (1990) had highlighted two key work place conditions that increase hypertension: high psychological demand combined with little control in meeting those demands. People with high job demands describe themselves as “Working very fast”, “Working very hard” and not “Having enough time to get the job done”. And employee with little workplace controls describe themselves as lacking the ability and/or authority to make decisions or impact their job. In recent studies, this model has
included a third factor: the beneficial effects of workplace social support. Simply stated, if the demands places on a person at work are higher than the perceptions of control, job strain will occur.

Srivastava (1990) examined the relationship between occupational stress and mental health in two separate samples of the employees of public and private sector organizations. Besides the relationship between job stress and health, the study revealed the moderation effect of the nature of the organization on the relationships of the two. The obtained coefficient of correlation indicates that overall occupational stress experienced by the public sector employees explains 17.64% variance in their mental ill health. The result also indicates that employee’s occupational stress caused maximum variances in their symptoms of free-floating anxiety, phobic neurosis and neurotic depression. The analysis also revealed that employee’s stress arising from unsatisfactory monetary gains and benefits accounts for maximum variance (10.24% in their mental ill health followed by the stress arising from the feeling of powerlessness 8.31%).

Strrin, larsson & Styrbor (1990) did a critical review of the psychological approaches to the Burnout phenomenon. They reviewed the researches on the concept of burnout, including various definitions, causes, prevention, treatment and similarities with stress. They concluded that no one definition of burnout can be accepted as standard and the concept has expanded over time to encompass more and more phenomena. Three ideas that most of the definitions have in common are the belief that burnout occurs at the individual level, is an intra-psychic experience, and is negative. The most common approach to the origin of burnout is a transactional one.
Professionals like psychotherapists are at a particular risk to burnout because of their emotionally demanding work. Flournoy (1990) in their study on psychotherapists reported moderate levels of Burnout as measured by emotional exhaustion, and low levels of burnout measured by depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. Gender differences were found on the level of depersonalization, type of coping and perceived social support. There was an evidence for mediating effects of coping and perceived social support on burnout. Thus, the study concluded that high levels of work environment stressors and stressful life events are strong predictor’s burnout.

Mori (1991) in a study on teachers found that Organizational size plays a definite role in Burnout level. The teachers of bigger schools (are wise) experiences less burnout, but the teachers of schools having more number of students experienced significantly higher stress than their counterparts in small schools (strength of students).

Sahu (1992) reported low burnout level in her study on teachers, which was in contrast to the researches in Western countries where teaching has been identified as a particularly stressful occupation.

Komolsevin’s (1992) study indicates that high communication competence may function effectively against stress. Study also reveals that social experience is the best predictor of stress.

In a study on Teacher’s distress by Tuettemann & Punch (1992) it was found that factors associated with control over the work environment like inadequate access to facilities, student’s misbehaviour, excessive societal expectations and school work after working hours are found to be
associated with teacher’s distress. Pattern of amelioration however, varied a little between male and female teachers.

Alkhamiri (1992) conducted a study on University employee to measure the level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction on two groups-native employee and outsiders. A significant differences was found in the level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction between two groups. Supervisory posts were found to be the leading contributor in this difference.

Aditya and Sen (1993) attempted to study the nature and extent of stressors faced by male and female executives in their job situation. A group of 160 middle level executives consisting of 80 male (aged 28-50 years) and 80 female (aged 27-50) executives constituted the sample of the study. Aset of three psychometric instruments the ORS scale (Pareek 1983), the job Anxiety scale (Srivsastava and Sinha, 1977) and the Ben Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981) was administered to the respondents. The analysis of the data revealed that (a) male executive who were predominantly masculine in their sex role orientation faced greater stress and anxiety in their job situation than female executive who were predominant in their sex role orientation, and (b) the two groups differed maximally in terms of role ambiguity, role conflict, inter-role distance, future prospects, human relation at work, and feminity and masculinity dimensions.

Fernandez & Perrewe (1995) in their study on MBA students and practicing managers found that employee in high stressor job were reated as more effective, committed and burnout, than the employees in a low-stressor job. Thus, it was concluded that working in a stressful environment at times,
can positively impact on one's effectiveness ratings.

**Sultana (1995)** investigated the level of organizational role stress among male and female teachers of professional and non-professional courses. A group of 50 teachers from professional and non-professional category was administered the ORS Scale (pareek, 1983). They study concluded (i) significant differences were observed between professional male and female teachers on the dimensions of inter-role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload and the role ambiguity (ii) significant difference were also found between non-professional male and female teachers on the dimensions of role expectation, role conflict, role isolation personal inadequacy, self role distance and role ambiguity (iii) There were significant differences between professional and non-professional male teachers on the role stress dimensions of role stagnation, role expectation conflict, and role isolation (iv) there were also significant differences between professional and non-professional female teachers on the role stress dimensions of inter-role distance, role stagnation and role overload.

**Dupree & Day (1995)** examined the effects of managed mental health care on job satisfaction and burnout among Psychotherapists. Maslach Burnout inventory and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire were conducted on Private and Public sector therapists. Results revealed that Psychotherapists in Private practice reported higher level of satisfaction and lower levels of Burnout, than Public sector therapists: No gender differences were found in job satisfaction, but male therapists had higher burnout scores than females.
Cheuk & Wong (1995) conducted their study on teachers to investigate the extent to which job-related difficulties would induce burnout, and whether or not social support could buffer the adverse effects to stress on burnout.

Results indicated that problems with other teachers, supervisors, students and parents of students were associated with burnout and no support was obtained for the prediction that social support from co-workers and family members could counteract the adverse effects of job stress.

Schulez, Greenely & Brown (1995) in a study found that organization structure, culture and management process are important to work environment and in turn to satisfaction, and subsequently to burnout. A teamed organizational structure, transformational and transaction leadership and a clan culture are antecedent to a favourable work environment that leads to job satisfaction and decreased burnout. Contrary to some other studies, clients severity was neither associated with burnout to work dissatisfaction.

Loo (1996) in his study on Human Resource Managers, in some medium sized and large Canadian organizations, found that greater stress in work place is largely due to greater global competition and greater resource constraints on organization. The resource constraint prevents the organization to plan for programmed and services for their employees. It was concluded that, Organization will be challenged to identify cost-effective means to prevent or at least, to ameliorate stress in their employees,

Bunce and West (1996), described potential source occupational stress comprising as (i) factors intrinsic to the job (ii) role in the organization (iii) organizational structure and climate. They also found sex as moderated variable (88)
in establishing occupational stress-organizational effectiveness relationship.

**Mishra (1996)** conducted a study to compare the levels of occupational stress and job satisfaction among male and female teachers of higher educational institutions. He took 80 teachers (40 males & 40 females) and administered the stress scale and job satisfaction scale on them. Critical ratio test and coefficients of correlation were used to analyze the data. The conclusions obtained were (i) significant differences were observed between male and female teachers in the areas of private life, work overload, under load, role conflict and interpersonal stress. Female teachers experience more stress in these areas as compared to male teachers (ii) no significant differences were found between the two groups in environmental structure of situations and personal areas (iii) stress was found to be correlated negatively and significantly with job satisfaction in both the groups (iv) significant differences were also observed between male and female teachers on overall stress and overall job satisfaction scores (v) male teachers obtained maximum scores on overload area.

**Singh and Srivastava (1996)** found significant negative correlation between social support and occupational stress. Three of the four occupational stress sub scales namely, job satisfaction, organizational stress, somatic distress and high levels of perceived social support were found to be associated with low level of perceived occupational stress.

A study on job satisfaction and occupational stress among doctors was carried by Al-Shammary, Khoja & AC-Subaie, (1996) in Saudi Arabia. They found that stress increased with age, especially after 50 years and male doctors were more stressed than females. The most frequent causes,
of job dissatisfaction and occupational stresses were related to social life, job demands on family life and lack of recreational activities. A significant observation was that doctors who knew languages other than Arabic and English were less burnout.

Another study on occupational stress and job satisfaction was conducted on Middle and Senior Managers in different industries by Chandiraiah, Kenswar, Prasad and Choudhari (1996). It was reported that the junior managers experienced increased sources of job related tensions, particularly in terms of home/work interface and a decreased job satisfaction on the "job itself".

King & Sethi (1997) demonstrated that works stress, faster technology change and decreased social assistance also affects Burnout. This study was carried on information System Professionals.

Hung (1997) noted that incentives received by the employee were directly related to performance at high-tech companies. On the whole, employees were satisfied, but a certain degree of dissatisfaction was there for salary and promotional chances.

Prosser, Johnson, Koipers and Szmukler (1997) performed a study to derive the perceived sources of work stress and satisfaction among mental health workers in hospitals. It was found that stress resulting from work overload led to emotional exhaustion and worse mental health. High job satisfaction was associated with management and working with people as sources of satisfaction Emotional exhaustion and poor mental health were associated with less career satisfaction.
Graham & Ramirez (1997) discussed the prevalence and causes of Burnout and other psychiatric morbidity in Hospital consultants, as the work of these professional involves dealing with other people’s physical, psychological and social problems. Results showed severe Burnout and psychiatric morbidity among hospital consultants and the factors affecting it included, field of specialty, gender, stresses experienced from other areas like family, and coping responses.

Mishra & Panda (1998) examined the effect of teacher training programmed (B.Ed. or CT training) on teachers. Result revealed that teachers differed in their emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment level only. The findings also indicated that the teacher’s feeling of personal accomplishment depended upon their sex and the nature of teaching programmed they had participated in.

Lee & Chen (1999) noted that the turnover in high-technology companies was related to job satisfaction.

Hung (1999) in their study on industrial teachers indicated that greater the job loading, the stronger is the tendency for vocational alienation.

Grassi & Magnani (2000) in their study emphasized the significant problem of stress among physicians and indicates the need for supporting health professionals in order to improve their psychological well being and, possibly the quality of their relationship the patients.

Joshi & Singhvi (2000) in a study on college teachers reported that teachers as a whole scored highest on emotional exhaustion as compared to the other two dimension of Burnout.
Jagadish & Reddy (2000) conducted a study to assess the level of stress among health professionals working in different health care organizations from a management perspective. Doctors from four specialties—Surgery, Medicine, Gynecology, and Pediatrics—were selected. Subjects were found to experience a moderate level of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and a high personal accomplishment. Gynecologists and pediatricians experience a comparatively high level of emotional exhaustion.

Miller, Greyling, Cooper, Lu, et al. (2000) examined the interaction of gender and culture in managers' experiences of work stress, through the collection of data on sources of occupational stress, coping, and consequences of occupational stress, from male and female managers in the United Kingdom, United States, Taiwan, and South Africa. These countries were selected with the intent to report on Developed, Developing, and under-developed countries. Results revealed differences in the consequences of work stress for males and females. This study did not support the notion of gender differences in work stress. A limited support was found for the notion of correlation between gender and country on work stress.

O'Connor, O'Connor, White, & Bundred (2000) assessed the mental health (anxiety, depression, and somatization), job satisfaction, Psychological job demand and job control of General Practitioners and White-collar workers. Results revealed that the General Practitioners were significantly more depressed and less satisfied with their job as compared to the White-collar workers. Female practitioners' experiences similar levels of poor mental health and job dissatisfaction as their male counterparts.
A considerable percentage of General Practitioners exhibited significantly greater levels of job dissatisfaction and depressive symptoms like, suicidal ideation, loss of sexual interest and feeling of hopelessness about the future.

Winderszal-Bazyl, Cooper, Sparks & Spector (2000) studies stress among Managers from organization of different economic sectors are related to (1) type and intensity of stress sources among the managerial staff, (2) individual characteristics and (3) stress symptoms in the field of physical and mental health and job satisfaction.

Results showed that the economic sector is a predictor of certain sources of stress, related with insufficient organizational support, excessive workload and also job satisfaction. It was concluded that greater economic effectiveness of private economic sectors is accompanied with greater psychological effectiveness, and that, to a small degree managers in private organization have higher psychological well-being, as compared with those of state-organizations.

Robin, Saffer, Wesiberg, Kornitzer Enau et al (2000) concluded a multifaceted training programmed involving the acquisition of mental health knowledge and skills, and experimental training in a group of occupational social workers not attending the programmed. Post-training studies revealed statistically significant increase in professional self-efficiency associated with awareness of psychological and psychopathological issued and professional social support. Gaining competence in mental health issues relating to the occupational setting, coupled with emotional sharing, helped to reduce professional Burnout.

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Moriarty, Edmonds, Blackford & Martin (2001) surveyed the professionals involved in teaching young children. It was found that teachers were satisfied in their first year of teaching and found it rewarding. But, after a certain period, they felt that they were being impeded by external factors like, educational curriculum.

Teachers experienced frustration in implementing the policies that they felt were contrary to their own pedagogical understandings and professional values. It was thus concluded that, the Teachers need to be more actively involved in consultation processes that affect their work.

Van Dick & Wanger (2001) in their analysis on teachers found that workload and mobbing lead to stress reactions whereas, social support reduces the perception of workload and mobbing.

In a study by Paulik (2001), conducted on University teachers, Hardiness, optimism and self-confidence appeared to have a moderating effect on occupational stress. These positive personality characteristics facilitated coping and appeared to be an active buffer against the impact of stress among lecturers.

Escot, Artero, Gandubert, Bouleriger, et al. (2001) in their study on nursing staff working in oncology found that care of cancer patients may be a source of considerable stress. This stress is primarily related to inadequate training, lack of time to deal with the psychological component of care-giving, especially terminal care and relationship with other medical staff.

Thompson. Krik Brown & Brown (2001) in their study examined the experiences of Women Police Officer’s work related stress and how it
affects the family. The findings indicated that among women, gender discrimination was a major source of stress and this affects their life partners. However, social support acts as a key factor in reducing stress.

Thus, it may be concluded that the individual variables have been found to be associated with the stress and they seem to influence the amount of tension and strain experienced by the individual. However, influence of these traits should not be overestimated. It is the job structure and organizational set-up that are the stronger determinants of incidence of stress, than the individual’s personality traits.

**Vander hulst & Geurts (2001)** conducted a study on postal employees to establish relation between work overtime and Psychological health in high or low reward jobs. Finding indicated that a combination of work overtime and low rewards had an elevated risk of negative work-home interference, cynicism, poor recovery and adverse mental health.

**Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli (2001)** proposed a job demands-Resources (JD-R) model which showed that the working conditions can be categorized into 2 broad categories- Job demands and Job resources, that are differentially related to specific outcomes. A series of studies supported the JD-R model, and that job demands are primarily related to emotional exhaustion, a component of Burnout, whereas (lack of) job resources are primarily related to disengagement from work.

The study suggested for giving supervisory posts to native employees, and also suggested for more studies to be conducted in the area of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, communication and morale.

Evidences from 3 epidemiological studies on work-related distress
and cardiovascular risk in middle-aged, male population shows that workers who exhibit high in combination with low reward, and especially with low job security of promotion prospects, suffer from a 3 to 4 fold increased risk of cardiovascular diseases.

**Westman & Etzion (2001)** in an interesting study established the association between job-stress and vacations in employees of industry. They concluded that vacation relief decreases psychological and behavioural strains caused by job stressors. However, the decline in burnout immediately after the vacations was found to return to pre-vacation levels four weeks later.

**Gaur Dhawan (2002)** examined the relation between work related stress (WRS) and adaptation patterns among 4 groups of women professional Teachers, Doctors, Bank employees, and Bureaucrats. The women in all the 4 professions reported moderate WRS, but differed on 2 dimensions the career development and the stressors specific to working women. They showed a configuration of adoption pattern of active poing stance, planning and initiative, moderate trust and internality. Taken together, the measure of adaptation pattern emerges as a good predictor of work related stress.

**Mc Manus, Winder & Gordon (2002)** in a study on health care workers worked the associations between burnout and stress. Their study showed that emotional exhaustion and stress showed reciprocal causation, i.e. high levels of emotional exhaustion caused stress, and high levels of stress caused emotional exhaustion. High levels of personal accomplishment increased stress levels, whereas depersonalization lowered stress levels.

In a study on Secondary school teachers by Lau (2002), results showed
that burnout was related to demographic variables, like, sources of stress, self-concept sub-scales and meaning of life. Male teachers reported lower Emotional Exhaustion, higher Depersonalization and higher Personal accomplishment. Teachers, who were younger, unmarried, less experiences, without finishing professional training, with junior rank reported more burnout. Stress induced by heavy workload was the best predictor for emotional exhaustion, while stress induced by pupil misbehavior was significant predictor of all Burnout syndromes.

Figley (2002) noted that psychotherapists who work with chronic illness tend to disregard their own self-care needs, when focusing on the needs of clients. Concept of Compassion fatigue, a from of caregiver burnout among psychotherapist and contrast it with simple burnout and counter transference. It includes a multi-factor model of compassion fatigue that emphasized the costs of caring, empathy, and emotional investment in helping the suffering. Limiting the compassion stress is suggested by enhancing satisfaction and learning to separate from the work emotionally and physically in order to feel renewed.

In an interesting study by Yoon (2002) student's misbehaviour was linked by teacher's report of stress. Negative teacher student relationship was predicted by teacher stress. Significant correlations were found among negative affect, teacher stress and negative relationships.

Benbow & Jolley (2002) investigated the relationship between work patterns, burnout and stress in old age psychiatrists. Results showed that Burnout scores were unaffected by gender and them working, and old age psychiatrists scoring within the high burnout range were younger, scored
highly on stress, spent less time on research, study and audit, and more time traveling. The whole group scored highly on emotional exhaustion. The authors concluded that job plans should encourage research, study and audit, and cut down traveling.

Demmer (2002) in a study on AIDS service organization employees found that, despite of being working in a stressful environment, the employees, majority of whom had joined the field with a desire to help others or due to the experience of having lost someone due to AIDS, showed a high job satisfaction and reported that the rewards of this type of work outweighed the stressors.

Another interesting study by Evans & Steptoe (2002) examined the effects work-stress, type of work and gender-role orientation on psychological well-being and health in relation of females working in Accountancy, a male-dominated occupation, and males working in female-dominated occupation of Nursing. Results showed female accountants having high anxiety scores, while male nurses reported the highest rate of sickness absence. Both groups also reported more work-related hassles. Risk of elevated anxiety was associated with higher job strain, lower hob social support, more work hassles, more domestic responsibilities, lower instrumentality and higher expressivities.

Bradely & Cartwright (2002) in a study on nurse indicated perceived organizational support to be related to health and job satisfaction.

A review of studies concerning employee’s general belief that, their work organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Perceived Organizational Support) by Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002)
revealed that beneficial treatment received by employees, like, fairness, supervisory support, favorable job conditions and rewards were significantly associated to perceived Organizational Support (POS). POS was related to outcomes favorable to the employees, like, job satisfaction, positive mood, and to the organization, like, affective commitment, performance and lessened withdrawal behavior.

**Freeborn et al (2002)** in a study on Physician assistants, Nurse practitioners and Primary care physicians reported that these professionals were satisfied with the autonomy received, but had dissatisfaction regarding patient load and amount of time spent with patients.

**Posig & kickul (2003)** performed a study based on the conceptual framework of job burnout in non-service organization by Cordes & Dougherty (1993), and found that Supervisory support moderated the relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity, quantitative role overload stressors and emotional exhaustion and between emotional exhaustion, and depersonalization. Unexpectedly, role conflict, role ambiguity, quantitative role overload had a positive impact on emotional exhaustion, when supervisory support was high. Participation had a negative association with depersonalization. Employees experiencing emotional exhaustion were more likely to feel nervous or tense at work.

A study of primary school teachers by Hastings & Bham (2003) to study the burnout dimensions in relation to dimensions of students behaviour showed that disrespect from students was linked with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, and lack of sociability and attentiveness predicted depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions of burnout.

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Cropanzano, Rupp & Byrne (2003) investigated the negative consequences of emotional exhaustion for the employees and employers and proposed that emotional exhaustion would predict job performance, organizational citizenship behaviour and turnover intentions. Also that relation between emotional exhaustion and effective work behaviours would be mediated by organizational commitments.

Bergman, Ahmad & Stewart (2003) in their study on physicians reported excessive workload on them but the sources of social support varied with gender and that, different strategies are needed for women and men physicians to reduce their stress levels.

Researches on teachers stress have largely focused on environmental and contextual factors, ignoring personality characteristics that may have an impact on relationships between job stress and its consequences. A study by Mearns & Cain (2003) showed that teachers with negative mood regulation expectancies predicted more active coping, less burnout and distress. Believing one could control one’s negative moods was associated with more adaptive outcomes for teachers.

Etzion (2003) revealed the impact of an annual vacation on perceived job stressors and burnout of industrial workers. The vacation group workers showed a decline in stress after returning from vacations. However, after three weeks, stress reverted to its initial level. The ameliorative effect of annual vacation on job stress and burnout was same for long vacation short vacation.

A comparative study between “in-house” and Traditional or concurrent school psychologists revealed high rates of satisfaction and
perceived effectiveness and lower burnout in the former group. The two groups distinguished in job diversity, caseload, integration to school activities and acknowledgement of their capabilities by the administration (Proctor & Steadman, 2003).

**Palton & Goddard (2004)** in their study a high psychological distress and emotional exhaustion, thus indicating significant levels of burnout and distress in employees service care managers in Australian job network.

**Baird & Jenkins (2005)** investigated three occupational hazards of therapy with trauma victims: vicarious trauma, secondary traumatic stress (compassion fatigue), which describes therapists adverse reactions to client traumatic material: and burnout Findings indicated that client exposure; workload and being paid as a staff member (vs. volunteer) were related to burnout sub-scales, but not as expected to overall burnout or vicarious trauma, secondary traumatic stress, or general distress. More educated counselors and those seeing more clients reported less vicarious trauma. Younger counselors and those with more trauma counseling experiences reported more emotional exhaustion.

**Bellman, Forster, Still & Cooper (2006)** in their study found that for both males and females, social support moderated the effect of stressors on energy levels, job satisfaction, organizational security and organizational commitment, although social support interacted with different stressor across genders. Social support interventions did not reduce the effect of stress on all outcomes and produced different results for males and females.
Happell, Pinikahana & Martin (2006) studied burnout among forensic psychiatric nurses and reported that the least reported stressor was lack of staff support for nursing activities, which suggests that amount of support received may account for lower than expected level of stress. Westman & Etzion (2006) examined the impact of overseas business trips on job stress and burnout, and found that the employees of high-tech companies experienced high burnout before and during their business trips but a decline in job stress and burnout after returning home.

Friedman (2008) in his study mapped the common work-related stress and their relative weight in terms of predicted burnout in school principals. Findings showed Burnout to be affected mostly by pressures stemming from teachers and parents, and to a lesser extent, from overload (qualitative and quantitative). Finding implied that principals who felt their leadership is challenged or rejected were strongly and eventually burnt-out.

Lynos (2008) explored women in management and the psychosocial factors they face at workplace, which affects their job-related stress-level. These factors included tokenism, sexual harassment and discrimination, work-family conflict, and workload.

Winefield and Jarret (2009) conducted a survey on University teachers to study the occupational stress. They found that university staff involved both in teaching and research work enjoyed increased levels of autonomy and social support from colleagues. But, both these groups suffered increased pressure, arising from cut in funds, which led to heavier teaching loads and greater difficulty in securing research funds. This decline in facilities and support was the cause of occupational stress.
Review of Researches in the area of job involvement

Earlier researches on job involvement have attempted to find out the relationship between job involvement and employees as well as job characteristics. Important employee's characteristics are taken into consideration such as age, sex, growth needs, education, and marital status, length of service, higher order need strength, job level and belief in the traditional work ethics. In the studies generally it has been found that older workers are usually more involved with their jobs, perhaps because they have more responsibility and challenges and more opportunity to satisfy their growth needs. They are also more likely to believe in the value of hard work. The strong positive correlation between age and job involvement has been found for workers in the United States, England, Mexico, Japan, Turkey and Thailand (Saal, 1978).

In a series of careful laboratory experiments, Lewis (1944); Lewis and Franklin (1944) used the Zegarnic effect to establish conditions under which ego involvement in work took place.

In a study of "central life interests" of workers, Dubin (1956) used a 40- item questionnaire to sample total life experiences; the form of the questionnaire allowed workers to choose a job oriented, non-job oriented or an indifferent response. Over all 40 items, Dubin found that only 24% of the respondents could be classed as "job oriented".

In previous unpublished research, Lodhal used rating methods to determine job involvement from interview protocols. Data on 21 job attitudes obtained on women in precision electronics assembly work were Interco related and factor analyzed; job involvement emerged as a separate
factor, related to team involvement, product knowledge, and time on job variables dealing with satisfaction; motivation and frustration were factorially independent of job involvement. It was also found in this study that while interrater agreement on job involvement was low, it nevertheless appeared to be the most stable of the 21 attitude variable over a 20 month period. This suggested that job involvement was relatively unaffected by changes in the work environment, since during the 20 month period many "improvements" were made in the jobs and in the organization immediately surrounding the operators.

Using the same attitude data and adding technological variables, Hearn (1962) found that job involvement was related to the perceptual skill required to these women. He also found that team operators were more job involved than people working alone, but he described this to the greater perceptual skill required on teams. Since these variables are tied together, it is impossible to untangle the causal sequence in this instance.

The fame content analysis methods were use in a study of auto assembly line workers in which Lodahl (1964) again found that job involvement emerged as an independent attitude factor, this time with the variables like product involvement, company involvement and number of men working near loaded on the involvement factor. Social variables, thus, appear in the factorial composition of job involvement in both samples, hinting at the socio-cultural origin of this attitude and underscoring the importance of work groups in maintaining stable orientations toward work.

The study by Schwyhart and Smith (1972) found that a worker's involvement in his job not dependent upon his job satisfaction. But Singh
Mishra and Pestonjee (1995) find that job satisfaction is affected by job involvement.

**Ruh & White (1974)** have also demonstrated that the job involvement was negatively related to education for rank and file workers.

**Siegel & Ruh (1973)**, Jones, James & Bruni (1975) reported no relationship between education and job involvement. However, Mannheim (1975) reported a positive relationship between these two variables.

**Hall & Mansfield (1975)** found no relationship between job involvement and tenure for a sample of male middle managers, developing scientist and engineers.

**Lodahal and Kejner (1965) and Robinowitz (1975)** found that these two variables are unrelated.

**Madhu & Harigopal (1976)** obtained role ambiguity to be negatively related with job involvement. However, the researchers could not find the significant relationship between role conflict and job involvement.

**Tannenbaum (1966), Mannheim (1975), and Sharma & Kapoor (1978)** reported that individuals at higher ranks are more involved with their jobs.

**Sharma & Kapoor (1978)** have reported that higher salary also leads to higher job involvement. They also found that the workers with rural and urban background do not differ in their job involvement. Social factor on the job can influence job involvement. Group employees also reported stronger job involvement in comparison to single worker. Participation in decision-making is related to job involvement, as is the extent to which employees support organizational goals. Feeling of success and achievement on the
job enhance one's level of job involvement. But at the same time contradictory results have been found between job level and job involvement.

**Sharma & Kapoor (1978)** have reported a negative relationship between educational qualification and job involvement.

**Sharma & Sharma (1978)** investigated the relationship among measures of job involvement, job satisfaction and general anxiety on samples of 40 (high job level) and 80 (low job level) white collar employees. The findings are; (i) Job involvement and job satisfaction are positively related (jj) Job involvement is negatively related to general anxiety, similarly (iii) Job satisfaction and general anxiety are negatively related.

**Bajaj (1978)** tried to find out the differences existing in the degree of job involvement in four occupational groups (government school teachers, clerks and nurses.) 125 unselected working women from different occupational groups (government school teachers n=25) were used as Ss for the present study. Job involvement scale was administered individually to measure the degree of job involvement. The results of the present study indicated that there were significant differences in the degree of job involvement among different occupational groups (F=10.78; df=124; P=.01). Simultaneously it was also found that nurses were more jobs involved in comparison to the members of other occupational groups (teachers and clerks).

Cheloha and Farr (1980) reported that job involvement was more consistently related to absence behaviour on a sample of state government employees.

In a crosscultural study Sekaran and Mowday (1981) observed that
demographic variables as well as job characteristics play a less central role in determining the level of job involvement in Indian employees as compared to the United States Employees.

**Mishra & Singh (1983)** investigated the influenced of occupational stress, ego-strength and job satisfaction on job involvement of first level industrial supervisors. The occupational stress index has been used to access the stress of supervisors. It includes twelve subscale used to access the stress of supervisors. It includes twelve subscale namely Role overload, Role ambiguity, Role conflict, Unreasonable group/political pressure, Under participation, Poor peer relations at work powerlessness, Low status, Intrinsic improvement, Strenuous working conditions and Unpredictability. Ego-strength has been measured by Hasan’s Ego Strength Scale. The satisfaction has been measured by S.D. Employees inventory. It includes four subscales namely, Job management, Social relation and Personal adjustment. The study has been conducted at Diesel Locomotive Works, Varanasi. The sample consists 400 first level industrial supervisors. The results are analyzed in terms of mean, standard deviation, critical ratio, analysis of variance and correlation. A significant difference in job involvement was also observed between high job satisfaction/ low job satisfaction group. A significant positive correlation between job involvement, job satisfaction and ego-strength, job satisfaction has been found.

In a study of 325 accountants, Morrow (1983) suggested that professionalism- “defined as the degree of commitment to one’s profession”- had no relation to job involvement. Apparently it is possible to be committed to one’s profession a large without having a corresponding sense of identification with one’s job.
Dhar & Jain (1992) attempted to explore the nature of relationship between job satisfaction, job involvement, age and length of service amongst academicians. The sample consisted of 47 university and college teachers' who were participants in a Research Methodology Course conducted by Academic Staff, College of Devi Ahilya University, Indore. Job involvement was measured by a modified version of Kanungo’s Scale and Job satisfaction by Singh and Shrma’s Scale of Job Satisfaction. Person’s correlation was used for the analysis of data. Job involvement and job satisfaction were found to be positively correlated but job satisfaction was found negatively correlated to both, age as well as length of service.

Mishra (1994) investigated to moderator effect of under participation stressor on the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. The sample comprised 4000 first line supervisors from north India (mean age 45 years). The occupational Stress Index (Srivastava & Singh, 1981), the Job Involvement Measure (kapoor & Singh, 1978) the Job Satisfaction Measure (Pestonjee, 1973) were administered. Data were analyzed using moderator regression analysis and subgroup analysis. Results reveal that under participation stressor did not have a moderating effect on the relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement.

Karrir & Khurana (1996) examined the relationship of quality of work life (QWL) with demographic variables (age, educational qualification, experience, native or migrant status, number of dependents and income level) on the one hand and motivational variables (job satisfaction, job involvement, and work involvement) on the other. A sample of 491 managers (public sector 182, private sector 143, cooperative sector 166) from top,
middle, and lower levels of management was administered Sashkin and Lenegermenn QWL Feeling/Condition (1984), the Job Involvement Questionnaire (Kanungo et. al. 1976), the Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (kanungo et. al., 1976), and a personal information schedule, QWL was significantly correlated with educational qualification, native or migrant status, income level and with all the motivational variables. An increase in QWL was observes with an increase in income.

Bhatt (1997) investigated the correlation between job stress, job involvement and job satisfaction among primary school teachers (PSTs). A random sample of 120 male and 120 female PSTs (age 18-59 years) from public and private schools of Jamnagar city completed D. J. Bhatt’s (1994) Job Stress Scale. T. M. Lodhal and M. Kejner’s (1965) Job Involvement Scale and Bhatt’s (1986) Job Satisfaction Scale (Gujrati adaptation). Results indicate that the PSTs job stress was highly negatively but significantly associated with job involvement and Job satisfaction while, job involvement was highly positively significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Job involvement was significantly correlated with job satisfaction. Job involvement was significantly positively correlated with 14 job factors and in 2 cases the correlation was positively correlated with 14 job factors and in 2 cases the correlation was positive, but not significant even at the 05 levels. Four factors of job stress were significantly negatively correlated with overall job satisfaction. There was a significant negative partial correlation between the PST’s job stress and job involvement but there was a negative insignificant partial correlation between job stress and job satisfaction.

Joshi (1998) compared private and public sector employees and
work involvement. The sample consisted of 165 public sector and 121 private sector employees who were administered the Job Satisfaction Scale, the Job Involvement Scale and the Work Involvement Scale (Kanugo, 1982). A personal data sheet was used to collect information on gender, age, and length of service, work experience, monthly income, and educational level. Results reveal that the employees of public and private sectors differed significantly in their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. Demographic variables such as age, length of service, monthly income and work experience in the present job also affect job satisfaction job and work involvement. However gender of the employees did not influence these variables.

Biswa (1998) examined the effect of six lifestyle stressors performance, threat, boredom, frustration, bereavement, and physical damage on organizational commitment and job involvement. A sample of 160 managers, supervisors and workers (age 35-53 years) of 3 large and medium public and private sector organizations in Baroda completed the Demographic information Schedule, the Life Style Stressors Questionnaire, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, and the Job Involvement Questionnaire. Performance, threat and frustration stressors were significant predictors of organizational commitment where as none of the stressors predicated job involvement. Organizational effectiveness was positively correlated with organizational effectiveness was positively correlated with organizational commitment and job involvement. Managers scored higher on organizational commitment and job involvement compared to supervisors and workers. Workers experienced maximum performance
stress. The relevance of these findings in the organizational context has been discussed.

**Sayeed (1998)** evaluated the conceptual framework of Biswas (1998) study and conducted a meta-analysis to revise the learning-effort model. A re-analysis of the intercorrelation matrix showed that career utility and job involvement directly contributed to learning effort. Multiple criteria were introduced to establish the robustness of the model. Decision involvement, training transfer climate, source credibility, job involvement, and organizational commitment were proposed as multiple predictors. It was observed that source credibility, job involvement, and decision involvement were important predictors of training impact. The re-analysis clearly highlighted the lacunas in Biswas model. The implications of the re-analysis for understanding the effectiveness of training have been discussed.

**Patel (1999)** investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and cooperative bank employees. A randomly selected sample of 200 bank employees with an equal number from nationalized and cooperative banks, divided into three age groups; younger (age below 35 years), middle (age 35-45 years) and elder (age above 45 years), was administered Lodhal & Kejner’s Job Involvement Scale (1965) and Mowday’s Organizational Commitment Scale (1979). Results revealed less job involvement and less organizational commitment in the younger age group in both the nationalized and cooperative banks. Significant differences in organizational commitment but not in job involvement were observed only between the middle age group employees with the nationalized bank employees being higher on organizational commitment.
commitment than their counter parts in the cooperative banks.

Naaz (1999) examined the influence of job characteristics (autonomy, task identity, feedback, and skill variety) and demographic variables (chances of advancement and salary) on job involvement. A sample of 362-production line workers was administered the Job Characteristic Scale (Naaz & Akhtar, 1993) and an adapted version of Lodhal and Kejner’s (1965) Job Involvement Scale. Regression analyses revealed that skill variety and task identity were significant predictors of job involvement implying that job involvement was significantly determined by job characteristics.

Joshi (1999) investigated the interrelationship between job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement and the relationship of these three variables with age, job experience, monthly income and education level. The sample consisted of 165 public and 121 private sector employees at various levels. Ss were administered on measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement developed by Kanungo (1982). Results revealed a significant association between job satisfaction and job involvement. Employees age, job experience and monthly income were significantly correlated with job as well as work involvement. Job satisfaction was significantly correlated only with monthly income.

Yadav & halyal (1999) investigated the influence of job involvement and family involvement on job and marital satisfaction. Purposive sampling was used to obtain a sample of 500 male college teachers who had at least 5 years of married and teaching experience. At least one child and an unemployed wife. The Job involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982), the Family Involvement Scale (Mishra, Ghosh & Kanungo, 1990), the Job Satisfaction
Scale (Kanungo, 1982) and the Marital Satisfaction Scale (Roach et al., 1981) were administered to all the Ss. Psychological identification with job and family were positively correlated with job and marital satisfaction. Job involvement and family involvement were positively related to each other having an additive interactional influence on job satisfaction and marital satisfaction.

Ahmad and Ansari (2000) studied the effect of income and job tenure on job involvement of craftsmen in carpet manufacturing industries. The sample consisted of 100 craftsmen (age 26-48 years) working in various small-scale carpet industries. Subjects were administered the Hindi version of Lodhal and Kejner’s Job Involvement Scale (1965) and a Biographical information Blank. Two-way analysis of variance revealed that the main effects of income and job tenure were not significant. However, income mark of multiplication job tenure effect was significant.

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) explored the prediction of job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment from organizational structure and corporate culture. A sample of 102 (age 24.53 years) managers, officers and supportive staff of a business organization completed a questionnaire assessing organizational structure as well as corporate culture, job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related, but both were unrelated to job involvement. Centralization was positively related to job involvement but negatively to job satisfaction and empowerment. A negative correlation was found between centralization and job satisfaction and empowerment, highlighting the importance of...
decentralization for managing people in organizations. The measures of human resource development could be predicted by the corporate culture. It has been argued that organizations should opt for strategies that take into account the all around development of their members through strategic human resource management.

**Verma & Asthana (2001-2003)** aimed to find out relationship between social supports on job involvement in working women. Sample consisted of 160 female lecturers from different degree colleges of Varanasi district. Job involvement Scale (Singh, 1994) and P.G.I. Social Support Questionnaire (Nehru and others, 1998) were administered and coefficient of correlation between the scores of these two scales was worked out. A significant negative correlation reveals that female lecturers getting more social support are highly involved in their jobs.

**Mehra and Mishra (2004)** made an attempt to explore the potential moderator effect of involvement on the intrinsic job satisfaction occupational stress relationship. The psychological participation index developed by Singh and Pestonjee (1978), the S. D. Employees Inventory developed by Pestonjee (1973) and Occupational Stress Index developed by Srivastava snd Singh (1981) were administered on a sample of 250 blue-collar industrial workers of “UPTRON INDIA LTD.” In Lucknow. The subgroup analytical strategy and moderated regression analysis were applied for satisfaction with occupational stress. The moderated regression analysis confirmed that involvement has moderating effect on the intrinsic job satisfaction occupational stress relationship. The subgroup analysis reaffirmed the moderating effect.

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Research related to the job involvement in India is started perhaps considerably much later and less rapid in comparison of the west. Recently Indian investigators have attempt to investigate the influence of job involvement on very few variables like demographic (Anantharaman, 1980; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Sharma and Kapoor, 1978), perceived importance of job factors (Kulkarni, 1976), different occupational groups (Bajaj, 1978 a; Anantharaman & Deviasenpathy, 1980; Anantharaman & Begum, 1982; and Singh, 1981), anxiety (Bajaj, 1978b), role conflict and role ambiguity (Madhu & Harigopal, 1976; Harigopal & Ravi Kumar, 1979; Singh, 1981; Srivastava & Sinha, 1983; Singh & Mishra 1983), company satisfaction and intrinsic motivation (Reddy & Ravi kumar, 1980; Reddy & Komarraju, 1981 and Nath; 1980) and perceived importance satisfaction of employee needs (kanungo, Mishra & Dayal, 1975), alienation (Singh, 1981), Agrawala (1978) and Kapoor & Singh (1978) developed a scale to measure the degree of job involvement in the same line of Lodhai & Kejner 1965).

Barkat, Shah & Parveen (2007) examined the interrelationship among skill, job involvement, and work performance of 100 weavers employed in different carpet manufacturing enterprises. Subjects were administered the shorter version of Lodhal and Kejner’s Job Involvement Scale. Their performance and skill appraisals were assessed by a scale developed by the authors. Correlation analysis revealed positive but insignificant correlation among various levels of skill; job involvement and work performance which were inversely but not significantly related.
Large number of researches has been done to conceptualize and measure success of organization. But one such concept that has come up and studied most often is organizational effectiveness.

Organizational effectiveness is a hypothetical abstraction existing in people's mind giving meaning to ideas or interpretations about organizational effectiveness, but having no objective reality (Comeron and Whetton 1983). The construct domain of organizational effectiveness deals with criteria of effectiveness and their relationships. The importance of criteria for assessing effectiveness relates the values or preferences influencing choices of criteria and the organizational model being used (Goodman and Penning 1980). Value judgments revolve around the goals and standards chosen in assessing effectiveness (Van de Van, 1980), whereas organizational models reflect mind maps about how organizations function. For example, an employee's organizational model Mau depicts a simple link between work and pay. Important criteria might include acumen (in recording hours worked, pay rates, in calculating gross pay and appropriate deductions), timeliness (in paying wages), and clarity (a pay slip clearly setting out all the aspects determining take-home wages). Personal preferences for accurate, timely, and informative payments influence this hypothetical employee's criteria and judgment about organizational effectiveness reflects the standard of accuracy, timeliness, and clarity adopted. Different models with different criteria reflecting a range of values and interests may exist for other individuals or assessors of organizational effectiveness.
Geograpoulos and Tannenbaum (1957) had found that strain upon organizational members it has also been referred to as the extent to which organization fulfill its objectives without incapacitating its mean of resources.

Katz and Khan (1966) defined organizational effectiveness, as the extent to which all forms of energy returns to the organizations are maximized, that is effectiveness of the organization would be assessed in terms of its contribution to the efficiency survive power & environmental contest of the entire social system.

Mahoney and Weitgel (1969) had focused on managerial models of organizational effectiveness. The findings of the study suggest a general model of effectiveness.

Singh (1978) has suggested that organizations may be considered effective from system theory perspective. He further deliberates the use of social economic and behavioral criteria of assessment with a need for satisfactory performance on these criteria.

Cameron (1978) Proposed that organizational effectiveness criteria as mutable, comprehensive, divergent, transpassitive and complex.

Simth (1976) purposed ‘hard and soft’ criteria of organizational effectiveness. The hard criteria can be explained and found in the official records such as tardiness, production, job levels and promotions et. Which has objectivity, whereas soft criteria are obtained from rating like job involvement etc. which are largely subjective/judgmental in nature.

Kakkar (1977) in his study found that leadership style. That is more prevalent may labled as parental that is characterized as directive boss and obedient subordinate and more empathically locality towards boss.
Singh and Dass (1977) found as substantial gap between espoused values and work bahaviour. They highlighted that bureaucratic state with emphasis on rules and regulations was the most frequently used style in contest to trust and relationship oriented developer style.

Singh and Dass (1978) in their study of three manufacturing organizations found that commitment of individuals to organizational goals and requirements may be perceived as a function of the perceived organizational culture. The perception about culture is guided by the socialization parties of the organizations for the new employees.

Pareek (1979) found that inappropriate socialization of employees in work identity culture or organic culture may impede effectiveness. Therefore there needs to be a match between the culture of work identify and the area of evaluation and reward, it not fun if may lead to ineffectiveness for example, if an individual is expected to behave as a professional but he is evaluated on norms like loyalty and yes boss approach.

JBP Sinha (1981) in his review of OB literature indicated that brides types of organizations there are studies on expect of structure like, cetherligation management planning and control systems.

Khandwalla (1981b) believing in the premise that operating external environment also influences organizational effectiveness. In a longitudinal study of four engineering enterprises has found that in a complex environment, a technocratic and participative management made called professional made gives superior performance while a turbulent environment a risk taking and organic management mode called entrepreneurial mode yields superior performance.
Sayeed and Mehta (1981) observer among bank employee that modernity values of managers like equalitarianism and individualism were scientifically possibility related to several indictors of organizational health, like organizational innovativeness, job involvement and identification.

Cameron and Wheston (1983) view that difference and disbarments over the delimitations and measurement are enviable because of its multiple complex and comprehensive nature. They also emphasize the importance of organizational effectiveness in understanding and improving organizations.

Maheshwari (1983) found that the executive will selecting organization for work, they choose on the basis of challenge, autonomy and carrier opportunities rather than on affiliation related factors.

Singh, Kaul & Ahluwalia (1983) found that leadership, team spirit, employees identification with organizational goals, as well as, innovation and carrier advancement potential were piscine to contribute to organizational effectiveness.

Khandawalla (1988) also believed that organizational effectiveness as a dependent or an outcome variable as it has been found to be influenced by organizations contextual structural, strategic or process variable.

Schneider, Goldstein & Smith (1995) said that our times, employee in an organization become more homogeneous in disposition and develop shared attitudes. He argued that aggregated employee satisfaction should be co-related with assented customer satisfaction because employee in boundary spanning roles are in positions to be aware and responsive to organizational and customer goal.
Rayan et.al (1996) argued that organizational performance is not simply a sum of individual performances; therefore it may be inflexed by factors other than those affecting individual level performances. One of these may be ‘shared values’ if a units employees share positive attitude, they should have norms of co-operation an collaboration, which in turn enhanced unit productivity.

Heskett et. al. (1997) presented cross sectional evidence that employees perceptions of their capabilities satisfaction and length of service were co-related with custom our satisfaction. Using an ‘employee’-customer- profit’ chain researchers at sears analyzed aggregated data from 800 stores. They found that employee’ attitudes toward their company and their jobs lead to positive employee behaviors towards customer.

Wantana Vinitwatanalchan (1998) focused on trying to discover the relationship between organization effectiveness and nursing instituted in Thailand. Result find that organizational effectiveness in nursing institutes is crucial to the business of nursing. The employee of the development of human potential and creating responses to health care delivery is vital. Leadership style, human resource development, technology & strategic planning are the primary means for the effectiveness of nursing institutes. There are a number of factor affecting organization effectiveness.

Further, Rodsutti and Swierczek (2002) found that the teachers were more satisfied with their job and their personal conditions. Organizational effectiveness was associated with different dimension of teaching.

Roy, Mathew It, Dugal, Sanjivs (2005) Study on using employee gain sharing plans to improve organizational effectiveness. He fined that
gain sharing can be an important and successful intervention for many organizations. The keys to success are involving all stakeholders is the development of the plan, developing an easy to understand. Former for sharing gains maintain transparency, and ensuring that for plans scale are in live with the organizations goal.

_Omega (2005)_ Measures of organizational effectiveness private and public sector performance. The study gain on a sample of 11,352 eares from 28 private & 41 public sector organizations. Nine measures associated with organizational effectiveness are identified and then empirically derived for each sector. He found that effectiveness applied in both & private sectors are significantly different.

Therefore from the above review of concepts and definitions of organizational effectiveness it can be concluded with affirmation for the present study that organizational effectiveness as a soft component of various aspects of organizational functioning with emphasis on attributes like job involvement, innovativeness, labour union relationship, consensus, legitimization, need for independence organizational commitment and attachment, self control and job satisfaction. (Daftuar 1988).