CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the literature reviewed. Both theoretical and empirical studies carried out by other researchers are discussed. For ease of reading, it is divided into two sections. The first section deals with theoretical literature. The second section reports empirical literature reviewed. Studies pertaining to all the variables used in this research are considered. These are discussed under role stressors, moderating variables, outcome variables and career stages.

2.2 THEORETICAL REVIEW

Apart from discussing career stage models, a theoretical review of stress model is also presented.

2.2.1 Career Stage Models

The concept of career stages has been well explained by psychologists and sociologists. Recent studies have updated the concept of career stage to encompass varied career patterns. The authors of career stage literature and models indicate that people's psychological and sociological needs, expectations, abilities and behavior vary in different stages of their career. Career stage is a critical individual characteristic, which explain
differences in behavior and attitudes among people working in organizations. It influences the person’s response to the job and organization.

A model proposed by Miller and Form (1951) have described five stages based on the actual job behaviors. The first stage consists of preparatory work period during childhood. The second stage in late teens involves initial work in part-time and occasional jobs. The person’s first regular full time job spanning late twenties or early thirties constitutes the third stage. The fourth stage covers the period from thirties through sixties wherein he settles into a stable field of work culminating in retirement.

Super's (1957) theory of career stage model has drawn interest and attention of several career researchers (Savickas 1994; Whiston and Brecheisen 2002). The author puts forward a model focusing on image norms operating in each of the career development stages. These influence the choices of individual’s in their occupation and organization. Subsequently this theory has been modified to include five stages of career development in individual’s life span: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement. (Super et al 1996; Zunker 1998). In the growth stage, an individual begins to develop his or her self-concept (Super 1957), entailing an introduction to the world of occupations (Super 1996). According to some researchers, individuals in this stage have understanding about job stereotypes which help them to differentiate one occupation from another (Gottfredson 1996; Martin and Gentry 1997).

In the exploration stage more specific information about themselves and their work is collected. The experience gained from the growth stage is refined in young adults. They acquire more accurate and specific information about the world of work. Based on this information they act to enhance their self concept by matching their interests and capabilities with jobs and also
their roles in life. The knowledge of the occupations in this stage is gained from interactions with persons and situations, work experiences, and published materials by organizations (Gibson 2004).

Career advancement in the chosen occupation is the major concern during the establishment stage. The persons, as they try to establish in a stable work environment exhibit the potential for further growth and use of opportunities for progress. The new recruits aim at creating positive impression to alter their professional appearance for increasing their chances of promotion. In the maintenance stage of the career model, individuals are concerned with maintaining their self-concept and their current job status. They are required to make choices in career as to their continuance in the chosen occupation and company. Their decisions are influenced by the image norms based on the choices made in the earlier career stages. Tan and Salomone (1994) in their literature state that those individuals who experience career plateauing in this stage may be particularly vulnerable to feelings of poor fit.

The last stage of career development formulated in Super’s model is disengagement. Here the self-concept and the self-image of the individuals apart from their job are dealt with. Increased health care services contributing to active engagement in work necessitates their continuation on the job. As a result they tend to prolong the maintenance stage and delay disengagement (Brewington et al 2000).

Hall and Nougaim (1968) proposed a three-stage model of career development: establishment, advancement and maintenance stage. In the establishment stage the focus is on safety needs, recognition and consolidation of oneself in the organization. This takes place during the first year of employment. During this stage people seek to fulfill their specific
need for achievement and esteem. The individual is at the beginning of his career in the organization, which may be very stressful as he deals with measures of integration with the system.

The next stage of the model deals with advancement, promotion and achievement. The measures taken are more towards fitting in than moving upward. It is stated that successful managers find fulfillment of their need for esteem and achievement during their first years of their career.

In the maintenance stage, the individual may find himself nearing the boundary of his advancement. This stage is characterized by a plateau resulting in decreased level of capacity to compete. In the event of success he is inclined to help others to grow and strengthen the organization.

In Dalton and Thompson (1980) model, there are four career stages. Stage I is characterized by behaviors such as learning, helping, following directions, and complying with instructions. The associated psychological issue here is dependence, as the individual's role discretion in this stage will be at a low level.

In stage II there is scope for increased freedom for the individual to act. They are also responsible to perform significant organizational tasks. This enables the individual to use discretion, independent of supervisors. However, the focus of this stage is still on gaining technical competence and recognition for the work done.

The individual in stage III begins to move away from the psychological issues and behavioral activities of the previous stages. Mentoring becomes a dominant activity, and the major psychological issue
for the incumbent is dealing with responsibility of other people as well. Individual discretion and opportunities for role innovation are expected to be high.

Finally, while moving to stage IV, the incumbents consider the responsibility of the organization as their own. Exercising power on behalf of the organization is the primary psychological issue. The ability to be innovative in a new role becomes more important for the individuals than it was in the previous stages. The creativity level is expected to be very high. Substantial changes in roles, responsibilities, and responsiveness to the demands of a constantly changing environment characterize this stage.

According to Dalton and Thompson (1980) model, the normal career stage progression may be distinguished in three ways. First, over a period of time, organization members become capable of contributing and are expected to contribute significantly to the performance of the organization. Second, the focus of responsibility progressively extends from dependence to independence which helps in growth of the organization. Third, the interpersonal relationships in the organization are consistent with the responsibilities and psychological issues linked to each stage.

2.2.2 Stress Models

The importance of both the person and the environment in understanding stress has been a subject of analysis which merits attention. Researchers like Friedman and Rosenman (1959); Rotter (1966); Kobasa (1982); Menaghan (1983) have contributed to the study of the personality constructs like type A behavior, locus of control, hardiness and coping styles. Their relationship with stress is proved. The work environment has also been considered stressful (Rabkin and Struening, 1976). Some of the environmental factors causing stress are the daily hassles (Delongis et al
1982), role conflict and ambiguity (Kahn et al 1964; Jackson and Schuler, 1985), role overload and role underload (French and Caplan 1972), job demands and the decision latitude (Karasek and Theorell 1990). It is evident in stress research that behavior, attitudes, and well being are determined by person-environment fit. French et al (1974) explain this concept in person-environment fit model.

The core premise of this model emphasizes the existing congruence between the person and the environment. There is a fit between the needs and abilities of the person and the opportunities and demands of the environment. The theory further states the content dimension of the person-environment fit. There is achievement that stems from needs-opportunities fit which points to the comparison of need with opportunities for achievement in the environment. A similar comparison is possible between the amount of work to be done and the ability of the person to do it.

Some of the other well known stress models are occupational stress model (Cooper and Marshall 1978) and social environment model (Kahn 1981).

The occupational stress model focuses on the sources of stress which can be classified into six different categories: job stress, role-based stress, career stress, stress arising due to inter personal relationships, stress associated with organizational climate and stress related to home-work interface. The job stress includes workload condition, working environment, hours of work and decision making powers. Role based stressors comprise role conflict, role ambiguity and job responsibility. Stress due to inter personal relationship at work include relationship with managers, supervisors, subordinates and co workers. Lack of opportunities for career development and promotion forms the major career related stressor. Stress due to
organizational structure and climate arise from cultural and political behavior. The home and work interface produce stress on account of spill-over of demands from both the environment.

The social environment model (Kahn 1981) distinguishes between objective environment and subjective environment. The objective environment covers factors like size of the organization, the hierarchy and job description of the personnel. The subjective environment refers to an employee’s perception, and is called the psychological environment (Lewin 1951). Both the environments are equally important in explaining the nature and magnitude of stress experienced by the employees working in the organization. The employee’s perception of the role stressors namely role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload may lead to stress reaction. Reactions could be physiological, psychological and behavioral. Some of them are job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and early retirement. The model also indicates a potential link between stress and illness. Physical and psychological illness tends to arise especially in jobs whose characteristics have well-known stressors. The model further emphasizes the role of person variable comprising genetic, demographic or personality characteristics in predicting stress.

The last of the variables in the social environment model is social support meaning the services offered by the members of both family and the organization. The model lays emphasis on the role of social support in stress reduction. As a moderator variable, it helps in reducing the negative impact of stress on outcome. Social environmental model has been adequately operationalized (Winnubst et al 1996).
2.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW

Research, examining stress-strain relationship pertaining to occupational role (Johnson et al 2005; Bhatia and Kumar 2003; Siegel 2000) have prompted researchers to explore the moderating impact of personality and situation variables on role stress-strain relationship too. The predictor and moderator research relevant to the variables used in this study are reported.

2.3.1 Role Stressors

Work stress has become a major problem both for individuals and the organizations. In addition to individuals’ perceptions of the work environment, identifying objective dimensions of work stress related to one’s role becomes important in determining the experiences and consequences of stress.

Contributions by Kahn et al (1964) in the area of role stress have laid foundation for many researchers who have been interested in investigating the ways individuals negotiate various roles in their lives. Role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload were among the potential role stressors that were studied (Valcour 2002). Their analysis suggests that employees are generally faced with conflicting demands and expectations of multiple roles, which may or may not be compatible with each other (Lazarus 1993). This incompatibility leads to stress which in turn hampers organizational effectiveness and productivity.

In a study conducted by Moncrief et al (1996) the antecedents and consequences of salesperson job stress were examined. Role conflict and role ambiguity were the proposed antecedents of job stress in this study. Their relationship with the outcomes such as job satisfaction, met expectations,
organizational commitment, and intention to leave was determined. A total of two hundred and three completed questionnaires were obtained from the sales force.

The hypothesis of the study was postulated to test if the antecedents impact outcomes. A supporting logic for the relationships among the constructs was developed. The relationships were tested using path analysis.

The findings of the study indicated that job stress has important consequences that are related to salesperson turnover. Lower stress resulted in higher job satisfaction, feeling of job met expectations, and higher organizational commitment. Higher job satisfaction and commitment to the organization were associated with lower propensity to leave. The findings further concluded that role expectation conflict has a stronger influence on overall job stress than does role ambiguity.

Chand and Sethi (1997) in their study sought to examine the organizational factors as predictors of job-related strain with a sample population of one hundred and fifty bank officers. The organizational factors included role overload, role conflict and strenuous working conditions.

The hypothesis of the study was to test if organizational factors significantly contributed as predictors of job related strain. The tools of analysis included coefficients of correlation and stepwise multiple regression. The main findings of the study showed significant positive relationship between stressors and job-related strain. Role conflict, role overload and strenuous working conditions proved to predict job-related strain significantly.
Based on their findings certain steps were suggested to improve the efficiency and reduce the job related strain of bank officers. The authors called for an objective assessment of the role overload to enable the officers to cope with environmental demands through education and training. Improvement in working conditions with provisions for greater involvement in decision making, communication and career related counseling were suggested.

A recent study by Jones et al (2008) on sales people measured the pervasiveness of role overload. The study explained role overload as the degree to which individuals are overtaxed. Overload results in time pressure with too many commitments and responsibilities. Salespeople are generally expected to exhibit some degree of role overload, because of the high-pressure nature of their jobs. In this study role overload had displayed inconsistent relationships with many job attitudes, turnover intentions, and performance measures.

Linville (1985) observed that, two persons may differ in the way they cognitively organize the relationship among roles. As such, they process the same information in different ways. This was justified by Siegal (2000) in his study of role conflict and role ambiguity wherein he emphasized that a potentially stressful incident may not create distress unless it is appraised as threatening. There have been studies to prove that, not only individuals but also two groups may differ in their perception of stress due to certain personal and organizational factors (Pestonjee 1987; Chiu et al 1998; Mahajan 2003). A number of studies have been attempted to compare two or more groups of respondents on the nature and magnitude of stress experienced by them.

In their study of occupational role stress, Bhatia and Kumar (2003) made an attempt to explore its relationship with three syndromes of burnout,
namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment. As many as twelve dimensions of stress were included: role overload, role conflict, role ambiguity, political pressure, poor peer relation, under participation, responsibility for persons, powerlessness, intrinsic impoverishment, low status, strenuous working conditions and unpredictability. The sample consisted of eighty employees drawn from two textiles mills of Haryana, forty belonging to the supervisor staff and forty below supervisor rank.

Their hypothesis sought to see a positive relationship between overall role stress, its components and two syndromes of burnout. The authors also assumed a negative relationship between overall role stress scores, its components and personal accomplishment syndrome of burnout. Correlation statistics was used for the analysis of the data.

A positive association between all dimensions of stress and the two components of burnout namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization was evidenced among supervisors as well as below supervisor rank staff. High stress increased emotional exhaustion and depersonalization in both the groups. Further, a negative relationship between occupational stress and personal accomplishment was noted only in case of supervisors. This proved that the presence of role stress resulted in reduced personal accomplishment.

Apart from role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload, a number of other stressors have also received considerable attention, especially by the Indian researchers. The organizational role stress scale developed and standardized by Pareek (1983) has been used by several researchers to measure a wide variety of role stressors. The organizational role stress scale consists of ten dimensions namely inter-role distance, role stagnation, role
expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload, role-isolation, personal inadequacy self-role distance, role ambiguity and resource inadequacy.

In a study conducted by Sen (1981) demographic variables in relation to organizational role stress and the ten dimensions were analyzed. Demographic variables included age, sex, income and marital status. The respondents for the study were bank employees. Coefficient of correlation was used for the analysis of the data.

The results indicated that age was negatively related to role stress. Some of the other conclusions drawn were that role stagnation decreased as respondents advanced in age. Compared to men, women experienced more role stress. Role stress was inversely related to income: the higher the income, the less was the level of role stress. The esteem level of higher income respondents was found to be high due to their better status and responsibilities. They had ample scope for self-actualization. Comparisons based on marital status proved that unmarried persons experienced greater stress than the married, probably due to lack of security.

Based on the fact that stressors vary from one job category to another, a study by Pestonjee (1987) explored role stresses in three categories of management personnel, namely top management, middle management and IAS officers. Their age was studied with reference to role stress dimensions. The sample included two hundred and twenty one top managers, three hundred and twenty six middle managers and seventy seven IAS officers. The average age of the respondents was forty years. The hypothesis was formulated to test if the nature and magnitude of the stressors differed according to the job category. The mean stress scores indicated the dominance of the inter-role distance and role erosion over role ambiguity and personal inadequacy in all the three job categories of management personnel.
The middle management group compared to top management differed significantly in their magnitude of perception of inter-role distance, personal inadequacy, self-role distance and resource inadequacy. Further, the top management group differed significantly from the IAS group with regard to role stagnation, role erosion and role isolation they experience. As for the middle management, the scores were significantly higher on role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role isolation and role ambiguity.

A comparison of age-wise data highlighted that respondents below forty years of age in the top management group scored significantly higher on role stagnation, role erosion, self-role distance, role ambiguity, and overall role stress than those above forty. Those of the same age brackets of the IAS personnel scored significantly higher on self–role distance. In the middle management the differences were not significant.

Kumar (1989) studied the nature and magnitude of different dimensions of role-stress experienced using a sample of two hundred and ninety two lower and middle level executives of a public sector oil company. These executives belonged to marketing, finance, production and personnel departments. The hypothesis of the study tested if there was significant difference in the nature and magnitude of stress experienced across different levels and functional areas of respondents.

The mean score results for role stagnation; personal inadequacy and self-role distance showed significantly higher among the lower level executives. A comparison of departments further proved that marketing executives experienced maximum role stress in comparison to those in other departments of administration. Personnel executives were least stressed.
Satyanarayana (1995) investigated role stressors among seventy five executives and seventy five supervisors of a public sector electrical company. The study was to test the differences between the executives and the supervisors in terms of role stressors experienced. The analysis of the data revealed that role erosion, personal inadequacy, resource inadequacy and role stagnation were experienced as dominant contributors of role stress in both the groups. They differed significantly with regard to role stressors namely inter-role distance, role overload, personal inadequacy and role ambiguity dimensions.

Pandey (1997) examined the relationship between role stress and role efficacy using a sample of sixty one railway personnel. The hypothesis formulated for the study was to test the existence of a negative correlation between role stress dimensions and all three components of role efficacy.

Correlation statistics was used for the analyses of data. The findings of the analyses support the hypothesis. The results confirmed a significant negative relationship between the first component of role efficacy namely, centrality and the ten dimensions of role stress namely inter-role distance, role stagnation, role expectation conflict, role erosion, role overload, role-isolation, personal inadequacy self-role distance, role ambiguity and resource inadequacy.

The second component of role efficacy i.e. integration established similar relationship with all the dimensions of role stress except role erosion. Creativity, the third component, however indicated a positive correlation, though not significant, with all dimensions of role stress barring role overload and self-role distance.
Chiu et al (1998) investigated the effects of work conflicts and inter-role conflict on job satisfactions and stress of three categories of professionals, social workers, nurses and managers living in Hong Kong. Data was elicited by means of questionnaires. Two hundred and sixty-seven completed questionnaires from social workers, three hundred and eleven from managers and three hundred and fifteen from nurses were analysed.

The hypothesis of the study was formulated to test if work conflict and inter-role conflict were predictors of job satisfaction. Path analysis was conducted to identify a causal pattern of these variables. Work conflict was found to be significantly related to inter-role conflict. When compared to work conflict, work-family inter-role conflict, had the strongest negative impact on job satisfaction and stress. The authors concluded that the stress experienced by Hong Kong residents resulted from cultural clash. On one hand they uphold the Chinese value of prioritizing family while on the other they are influenced by the Western value of life which emphasizes work as a means to attain socioeconomic status and career success. Inflexible job schedules, long working hours and frequent overtime were among the other stressors that caused job dissatisfaction. This is because the respondents fail to distribute time effectively over work and family domains. Work conflict and inter-role conflict were found to be important predictors of job satisfaction in this study.

Sharma and Mahajan (2003) explored the relationship between the demographic variables (age, gender, salary and work experience) and the ten dimensions of role stress. One hundred and fifty employees from the clerical cadre of a nationalized bank were recruited as sample. From among them one hundred were males and fifty were females. The study sought out to test if the nature of role stressors would vary based on demographic differences.
It was observed from the results that males and females differed in their perception of stress. A significant difference was observed between the mean scores of males and females on different types of role stress, namely role isolation, inter-role distance, personal inadequacy, role stagnation, role erosion and resource inadequacy. More stress due to inter-role distance and role isolation was noted in males above thirty five years of age and who were drawing a salary of more than rupees six thousand per month as compared to women of the same age group. Stress due to personal inadequacy, resource inadequacy and role stagnation was noted in females less than thirty five years of age and who were drawing a salary of less than rupees six thousand per month. Analyzing stress based on experiences, it was found that more experienced male employees were highly stressed due to role stagnation and resource inadequacy whereas stress in women was more due to inter-role distance, role erosion and role isolation. Personal inadequacy in less experienced male employees and inter-role distance and role isolation in less experienced women were found to be the major stressors.

The above studies confirm that there exist a significant work stress problem, with implications for individual well being and organizational productivity. It is also evident from the above compilations that the nature of stressors differed among the different groups of respondents. This warrants a concerted applied research effort relevant to specific groups. Failure to do so may result in negative outcomes.

2.3.2 Moderator Variables

A clear understanding of the fact that role stressors affect different groups of respondent and is associated with outcomes such as physical, psychological, behavioral and organizational (Beehr 1995; Spector and Jex 1998) have led a number of researchers to study the moderating effect of
personal and situation variables on stressor-outcome relationship. Moderation refers to the ability of these variables to determine whether stress would be experienced positively or negatively. Studies that have used certain personal and situational variables as moderators are discussed below.

In a study conducted by Srivastava and Sinha (1983) the role of employees’ ego strength and job involvement in moderating the negative influence of role stress arising from role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict was examined. The authors emphasized that these two variables are of central importance in influencing employees’ behavior and adjustment on the job. A sample comprising of thirty managers, thirty engineers, thirty superintendents, and sixty section in-charge were selected.

The study sought out to test if ego strength and job involvement would be negatively correlated to stress. Product moment coefficients and two way analyses of variance were resorted to analyze the data. The findings supported the hypothesis. Ego strength and job involvement were considered as a function of perceived role stress. Employees, with high ego strength experienced mild stress pertaining to role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict than moderate or low ego strength groups.

Similarly, employees manifesting higher job involvement experienced low stress due to role overload and role ambiguity. Analysis of variance established that ego strength and job involvement were not independent of each other in their effect. Their combined interaction facilitates in moderating the severity of stress. The authors concluded that high ego strength enables employees to cope effectively with excessive demands and conflicting expectations. Job involvement, on the contrary leads to job satisfaction and enhanced level of intrinsic motivation.
Srivastava and Jagdish (1983) investigated if mental health as a variable proves to be a good moderator of perceived occupational stress-job satisfaction relationship. Samples of four hundred respondents were recruited for the study. They were randomly selected from a large locomotive factory.

The hypothesis of the study was postulated to test if good mental health would reduce the ill effect of stress on job satisfaction. An in-depth analysis of the data using coefficients of correlation and moderated regression was carried out. Negative relationship between perceived occupational stress and the two variables, job satisfaction and good mental health was witnessed. Supervisors’ good mental health was found to significantly moderate the negative influence of stress on job satisfaction.

Perceived competence was selected as a moderator variable in a study conducted by McEnrue (1984). Its role in moderating the relationship between role clarity and job performance of employees was examined. Data elicited from three hundred and forty lower level managers was used to test the hypothesis. The hypothesis of the study aimed at testing if perceived competence and role clarity jointly interact to affect the performance of employees.

Results of the hierarchical regression procedure indicated that perceived competence does act to moderate the relationship. Role clarity resulted in greater performance for those individuals with greater perceived competence. This implies that job performance of employees with greater perceived competence is more strongly associated with the degree of role ambiguity they face.

The authors concluded that job performance of more competent employees is more strongly affected by the role ambiguity they face than is
that of their less competent counterparts. The findings assert that lack of job-related information imposes a “ceiling effect” on the performance of more capable employees.

Srinivasan (1988) investigated the effect of executive’s sense of competence on the relationship between organizational role stress and job satisfaction. The sense of competence variable included three dimensions, namely motivation, ability-confidence and influence. According to this study motivation refers to an intrinsic psychological reward gained due to mastery of work behavior. Ability-confidence described the extent to which the individual feels that he utilizes the relevant knowledge of his job to perform tasks confidently. Influence referred to the extent of control an individual has over the work environment. Respondents for the study were selected from three types of business organizations, one hundred and thirty four were selected from private sector, one hundred and three from joint and one hundred and forty three from public sector.

The hypothesis presumed that there would be significant differences in the role stress experienced and in the interaction effect of sense of competence variables across the three sectors. Coefficient of correlation and hierarchal multiple regression were used for the analyses of data. It was evidenced that public sector respondents were more stressed when compared to the private sector and joint sector respondents.

The results further indicated one hundred and twenty seven significant interaction terms. Motivation component acted mostly as a positive moderator for the private sector respondents, as a combination of both positive and negative moderator for the joint sector and as a negative moderator for the public sector respondents. For the other component, namely ability-confidence most interactions were found positive for the private sector
respondents and a few were found positive for the joint and public sector respondents. The third component, influence showed a few positive interactions for public sector respondents when compared to the other two sectors. This proved a significant difference in interaction effects and experienced role stresses between the three sectors.

The moderating effect of social support on workload–strain relationship was examined by Banerjee and Gupta (1996). A total of two hundred male and female respondents from four different occupations, viz., police officers, advocates, doctors and clerks comprised the sample. Equal number of males and females from each occupation were selected.

The hypothesis assumed that social support would moderate the relationship between occupational stress and strain. Moderated regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis. Social support proved to be a good moderator of stress-strain relationship.

A study by Richard (2001) reexamined the linkages between role stress and job outcome variables such as job performance and job satisfaction. Here, in this study the moderating role of type A behavior pattern on the relationship between dimensions of role stress and the two outcome variables were investigated. The respondents were selected from two big accounting firms in New Zealand. In all, one hundred and twenty three completed questionnaires were received.

The hypotheses sought to test if role ambiguity and role conflict would significantly and negatively impact job performance and job satisfaction. An attempt to test if Type A personality would significantly intensify the negative relationship between stressors and the job outcome variables was also initiated.
The findings of correlation analysis confirmed that both role conflict and role ambiguity were significantly and negatively associated with auditor’s job performance and job satisfaction. However, the expected moderating role of the type A behavior pattern on the relationship between the components of role stress and the outcome variables was not evidenced.

The buffering effect of job security on the relationship between role clarity and job performance of respondents was determined by Fried et al (2003). The authors selected an organization that was undergoing a major restructuring and downsizing. The study focused on a randomly selected sample of one hundred and one professionals working in an industrial corporation in Israel.

Several hypotheses were formulated in the study. It was proposed to test if role clarity will have a positive predictor effect on job performance. If higher levels of role clarity would lead to greater job performance when job security is high rather than when it is low. And lastly if lower level of role clarity leads to low job performance when job security is high, rather than low. Moderator regression was used to test the hypotheses.

The results supported the hypothesis that job performance increased over time under higher levels of role clarity. The study also supported the moderating role of job security. An increase in performance was shown when both role clarity and job security were high, while deterioration in performance was noted when role clarity was low and job security was high. This study proved that job security could influence the magnitude, but not the direction of role clarity-job performance relationship.

The notion of “job decision latitude” (control) at work has been extensively studied as a moderator of stress–strain relationship. Cameron et al
(2008) made a sincere attempt in this regard. Their study examined the stress-buffering role of “job-decision latitude” on employee adjustment. The role stressors considered in this study are role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload. The job demands and job decision latitude are the two constructs that were used in this study. These variables were found to vary according to workplace setting. Job demands refer to psychological stressors in the workplace, whereas job decision latitude explains the extent to which employees can exercise control over their tasks. The decision-control model suggests that the possibility of control over daily tasks helps in bringing down the negative impact of job demands on levels of employee adjustment. It further makes it clear that the decision latitude moderates work stress–employee adjustment relationship. The respondents for the study comprised of one hundred and nineteen individuals belonging to an Australian Local Government Council.

The following hypothesis was postulated to test if role stressors would be related to lower levels of employee adjustment which includes job-related attitudes and psychological health. Job related attitudes relate to job satisfaction and commitment. Hypothesis to test if participative control would result in higher level of employee adjustment was also formulated. The other hypotheses sought to test if subjective fit would be associated with higher levels of employee adjustment. With regard to three-way interactions; it was expected that participative control as a moderator would be more marked when employees perceive higher subjective fit with organizational values than low level of subjective fit with organizational values.

Subjective fit in this study refer to person-environment fit. The study poses that if a person does not place importance in the values considered important by the environment, that is the organization, it may be possible that this environment may represent a source of stress. On the
contrary, if the person ascribe importance to organizational values and norms, it may be possible that this fit will act as a positive buffer of stress. Correlation and multiple moderator regression analysis were used to test the hypothesis.

The analyses of the study revealed that higher perceptions of role stress were significantly associated to lower employee adjustment. As for the interaction effects, participative control was found to moderate the negative effect of stress under conditions of high subjective fit. The findings supported the fact that a fit between the prospective employee and the organizations’ values is very important. It was clear from this study that the stress buffering benefits of participative strategy may not be realized unless employees perceive that they fit with the values and goals of the organization. This would help employees to cope effectively with stress.

Despite considerable work on moderator studies, occupational stress research has lagged behind in documenting the role of individual differences in the stress process. According to Payne (1988) individual differences is associated with stress process in different ways. It helps in selection of individuals into jobs that differ in stressfulness. Perceptions of stress and symptoms of psychological strain differ based on individual differences. It acts as a moderator of stress-strain relationship and last of all individual differences influences the coping style of individuals.

The stress process involving individual differences in relation to the experience and effects of stress and in relation to coping have received considerable attention in research. Though studies have established significant relationship between stress and strain (Holmes and Masuda 1974), it is equally clear that some individuals still tend to maintain wellness even in extremely stressful circumstances (O’Driscoll and Cooper 1994). This proves
the facts that it is not the threat but the perception of the threat that causes stress (Cumming and Cooper 1979). As a result, same amount of stress affects different individuals differently and produces different responses. Some may respond positively and some negatively.

When compared to empirical research, the theoretical models of occupational stress process have well acknowledged the importance of individual differences (Jex 1998; Jex and Bliese 2001). Recently a growing number of studies have been directed at examining individual differences as potential moderators of the stress-outcome relationship (Traver and Cooper 1994). Research findings pertaining to the individual difference variables used in this study are discussed below.

2.3.2.1 Motivation

Employee motivation, as a variable has derived a lot of attention from researchers and practitioners. This interest derives from the belief and evidence that there are benefits to having a motivated workforce (Locke and Latham 2002).

With the pioneering work of McClelland (1953), the concept of motivation has gained momentum. Many researchers have since then paid more attention to the achievement dimension of motivation in their study. People who are achievement-oriented focus on learning, working and achieving results. They are concerned with success and their behavior is positively directed. They are optimistic and view difficult situations as challenges and work towards realizing their inner potential even under adverse conditions, not allowing setbacks to slow them down. Pressure in fact contributes to their motivation.
In an investigation by Hasnain and Behl (1974) an attempt was made to find out whether n-achievement had any relationship with job satisfaction among the employees of a government organization classified into two groups, promoted and the non-promoted ones. They were further divided into three groups, thirty recently promoted employees, thirty old promoted employees and thirty never promoted employees. The hypothesis was to test whether n achievement played a significant role in predicting job satisfaction in both the groups.

Using chi-square, it was found that the recently promoted employees scored significantly higher on n-achievement and job satisfaction than those never promoted. On the contrary, no significant difference was found between recently promoted and old promoted employees with regard to achievement motivation and job satisfaction scores. The findings of the study lead to the conclusion that high n-achievers are likely to be promoted and are satisfied with their jobs. On the contrary low n-achievers were not considered for promotion and as such not satisfied with their job.

In a study conducted by Srivastava and Sehgal (1984) the effect of employees’ n-achievement on their perception of occupational stress was examined. The respondents consisting of two hundred white-collar employees of an industrial concern were divided into two groups. The high and the low achievement motivation groups. The hypothesis formulated was to test the variation in their perception of stress.

The results proved that the employees possessing high and low degree of n-achievement differed significantly from each other with regard to their perception of job stressors. The t test analysis indicated that in the highly motivated employees, the perception of job stress was much less than in the low motivated ones. The employee’s n-achievement was found to be
inversely correlated with occupational stress. The different components of occupational stress, such as role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, unreasonable group pressures and strenuous working conditions were significantly lower in the high n-achievement employees as compared to the low n-achievement group. In yet another study by Sehgal (1985) the higher order work manifest needs was found to significantly buffer the adverse effects of role stress on job satisfaction. It was also inferred from the findings that need for achievement acted as a resource whereby the impairing effects of stress on the job could be neutralized.

The findings of both the study concluded that employee’s strong n-achievement generates intrinsic energy, zeal and self confidence which help them to perceive ambiguous and conflicting job roles and various other inconvenient job situations as less taxing. Positive attitudes and job involvement helped them to deal with such situations.

Srivastava (1985) in his study examined the predictor and moderator role of need for achievement on role stress-job anxiety relationship. The sample comprised of four hundred first-line technical supervisors randomly selected from a fertilizer company.

The hypothesis for the study states that role ambiguity in comparison to role conflict will be more effective in predicting job anxiety. The second hypothesis tested if employees need for achievement significantly buffered the adverse effect of role stress on job anxiety. Analysis of variance and moderated hierarchical regression analysis were used to analyze the data.

The analysis revealed that employee’s role ambiguity, as against role conflict, correlated strongly with job anxiety. The need for achievement acted as a moderator of role stress- job anxiety relationship. Apparent from
the study was the manifested need for achievement as a competent independent predictor of job anxiety as well as a potential moderator of the role stress-job anxiety relationship.

A comparison of n-achievement and job satisfaction of private and public sector employees was carried out by Kumar (1985). The hypothesis was tested on a sample of hundred. It presumed that there would be significant difference among the two groups of employees in terms of need for achievement and job satisfaction.

Correlation statistics and t test were used to analyze the data. The findings indicated a significant difference between the groups in terms of n achievement. The private sector employees scored higher on n-ach than the group of public sector employees. Job satisfaction and n-achievement were positively and significantly correlated for both private and public sector employees. Based on the findings, the study suggested that an emphasis by the management to increase work motivation level of employees must be viewed as an important means of minimizing the felt role stresses and their undesirable consequences.

Whitely et al (1991) affirmed motivational variables linked to n-achievement as likely predictors of career success. Ambition, a relevant motivational variable is described as a desire to get ahead. Howard and Bray (1988) found that ambition was one of the best predictors of advancement in their study of managers. A positive relationship between ambition and career success has been evidenced in several other studies of managers and executives (Cox and Cooper 1989; Cannings and Montmarquette 1991). Apart from ambition, two other variables, hours of work per week and work centrality were perceived as indicators of motivation. There have been researches to support that people who are drive-oriented and willing to work
for long hours generally experience less stress (Harrell 1969; Gutteridge 
1973; Cox and Cooper 1989; Whitely et al 1991; Judge and Bretz 1994). 
Achievement motivation contributes to career success. It is also found to 
buffer the undesirable effects of role stress on job satisfaction and other job 
related outcomes (Johnson and Stinson 1975; Steers and Spencer 1977; 
Morris and Synder 1979).

The significance of the motivational variables mentioned above 
was established in a research study conducted by Loon (2008). Here the 
objective was to examine whether need for achievement moderates the 
relationship between job-demand for learning and job-related learning. Data 
was obtained from one hundred and fifty three participants. The participants 
were executives, senior managers, middle managers, lower-level managers, 
and non-managers. They were selected from thirty professions across twenty 
one industries.

Job-demand for learning stimulates job-related learning. This study 
is based on the premise that needs for achievement moderates the relationship 
between job-demand for learning and job-related learning. This means when 
an individual occupies a job that demands the acquisition of new skills and 
knowledge, job-related learning occurs. Specifically, high need for 
achievement would be more likely than low need for achievement to stimulate 
the learning of job-related skills and knowledge because high need for 
achievement is more likely to drive one to meet the job-related challenges. 
This argument was supported by a number of research showing that need for 
achievement is correlated positively to confidence, ambition, a genuine 
appetite for success, working hard, competitiveness and intrinsic motivation 
to master tasks.
The hypothesis of the study states that job-demand for learning will correlate positively to job-related learning. Need for achievement would moderate the effect of job-demand for learning on job-related learning. The correlation between job-demand for learning and job-related learning will be stronger amongst individuals with a high need for achievement than amongst individuals with a low need for achievement. The results of hierarchical regression analysis revealed that need for achievement moderated the relationship between job-demand for learning and job-related learning. The findings indicated a positive and significant correlation between job-demand for learning and job-related learning in all groups, the correlation was however stronger amongst individuals who had a high need for achievement than amongst individuals who had a low need for achievement. The hypothesis that the effects of job-demand for learning on job-related learning will increase with increasing levels of need for achievement was thus supported.

Ambition to advance, willing to work long hours and work centrality may not help employees much if the organizations are unable to provide an open and encouraging environment. A number of research studies have supported the fact that need for achievement should be supplemented with positive organizational factors. Together they would help in reducing stress and enhancing both individual and organizational growth. A study conducted by Das and Singhal (2003) explored the effect of job autonomy on occupational stress among managers of various private sector concerns. Their study revealed significant difference in the stress scores of managers with high job autonomy and those having low job autonomy. Managers with high job autonomy experienced less stress as compared to managers with low job autonomy.
Autonomy grants individuals discretion and control over their work tasks (Engel 1970; Wallace 1995). Lacking control and discretion in one's job was found to be associated with high levels of stress (Cherniss 1980; Hendrix et al 1991; Leiter 1991; Guterman and Jayaratne 1994).

A study by Linda et al (2004) examined the job stress of internal auditors. Data for the study was obtained from a total of six hundred and eighty three auditors. The questionnaire consisted of fifteen job stressors divided into two groups, individual stressors and organizational stressors. Individual job stressors included role conflict, role ambiguity, job scope, time pressure, career progress, responsibility, qualitative work overload, and quantitative work overload. Organizational stressors related primarily to the working conditions that the employee has to cope with. The organizational stressors included politics, rewards, participation, underutilization, supervisory style, organization structure, and human resource development.

Job stress scores for each of the fifteen job stress variables were calculated. Organizational job stressors, such as rewards, participation, and politics and individual job stressors such as time pressure and overload stress were witnessed as serious sources of job stress. Organizational job stressors in comparison to individual stressors were found to contribute more to internal auditor’s stress. The auditors expressed their desire for more pay and also for increased participation in the decision-making processes. Company politics, lack of training and development opportunities were also found to be a source of stress.

A theoretical review on organizational induced stressors was conducted by Deondra et al (2005). This paper attempts to understand the relationship between organizational structure, work stress and perceived strain. The study emphasized that flexible and decentralized, organic
structures are better suited than rigid and centralized, mechanistic structures. Organic structures helps in meeting the demands of changing environments.

Noted implications included more flexible workplace rules for executives to eliminate stress associated with work-family conflict. Improved effectiveness of social support and person-organization fit were also suggested.

The above compilations helps in concluding that motivation may not play a significant role in reducing the negative impact of stress if positive environmental factors are missing. There may not be significant differences between high achievers and low achievers with regard to job satisfaction if the organizational environment does not encourage challenging task, independent thinking and creativity. The above studies further suggest that stress associated with challenges and growth environment has a positive relationship with motivation and performance and those associated with hindrances in the environment may have a negative relationship with motivation and performance (Lepine et al 2004). Knowledge gained from such research helps in designing organizational environment that not only promotes growth among achievement-oriented individuals, but also consider their well being.

2.3.2.2 Locus of control

The concept of locus of control (Rotter 1966) is based on the belief that outcomes are either due to personal factors (internality) or caused by factors external to the individual (externality) which includes fate, chance or significant others. Theoretical and empirical evidence indicates the tendency of “internals” to believe that they can control events and “externals” to believe that they cannot control, has implications for organizational outcomes (Gemmil 1972; Organ 1974; Keller 1984; Spector 1982; Jackson 1987).
Internality and externality have been demonstrated to be salient dimensions of locus of control in determining the physiological and psychological impact of organizational role demands (Sauter et al. 1989).

Locus of control, as a measure has been widely used as a moderator of the stress-outcome relationship in stress research. (McIntyre 1974; Anderson 1977; Brownwell 1982; Solomon 1989; Heaven 1990). The premise of any study using locus of control as a moderator is that individuals who define stressors as controllable will be more likely to attempt to cope with them effectively.

A number of researchers had attempted to study the association of role stressors with locus of control. Keenam and McBain (1979) found that role ambiguity was significantly associated with high tension at work in middle managers classified as externals on the Internal-External scale. In a study of mid level managerial personnel of a large manufacturing firm, Halim (1980) found locus of control as a moderator on the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Fusilier et al. (1987) found role conflict to be strongly related to somatic complaints for externals than internals. A similar moderating effect of the role ambiguity-distress relationship was reported by Arney (1988) with reference to locus of control.

Kedarnath (1988) studied the effect of organizational role stress and locus of control on job involvement among banking professionals. A randomly selected sample of five hundred employees comprised the respondents for the study.

The postulated hypothesis aimed at testing if there exists a negative association between the independent variables and job involvement. Correlation and multiple regression statistics were used for the analyses of
data. It was clear from the findings of the study that those individuals who experienced high role stress pertaining to dimensions such as self role distance, inter-role distance, role expectation conflict, role stagnation, role ambiguity, role overload, personal inadequacy as well as overall role stress manifested low job involvement as compared to low stress group. A negative and significant relationship between external locus of control and job involvement was also witnessed. As regard the moderating effect, the negative relationship between organizational role stress and job involvement was reported to be higher for high external locus of control group as compared to that of the low external locus group.

The aim of the study conducted by Muhonen et al (2004) was to investigate the role of work locus of control as a predictor and moderator of occupational stress on job satisfaction and health. This study focused on gender. Data was collected from two hundred and eighty one men and women at both managerial and non-managerial level in a Swedish telecom company.

The study sought to test if external locus of control is positively associated with job satisfaction and health. The hypothesis also tested if internal locus of control moderates the adverse impact of stress on satisfaction and ill-health. Correlation and hierarchical multiple regression statistics were used to test the hypothesis. The results exhibited external locus as negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to symptoms of ill-health. This result applied both for men and women. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analyses indicated that locus of control acted as a moderator in the stress–outcome relationship with regard to ill-health only for women.

The purpose of the study conducted by Chiu et al (2005) was to examine the moderating role of locus of control on job stress-turnover
intention of employees working in hospitals at Taiwan. The study also examined the relationship of locus of control with job satisfaction, commitment, leadership support and turnover intention. A total of two hundred and seventy two respondents, of these one hundred and fifty one with external locus and one hundred and twenty one with internal locus responded to the questionnaires.

Hypotheses to be tested were formulated. The first hypothesis tested if the negative relationship between job satisfaction-turnover intentions as well as commitment-turnover intention is stronger for internals than externals. The other hypotheses tested if positive relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is stronger for internals than externals, if positive relationship between job stress-job satisfaction and job stress-commitment is stronger for externals than internals. The last hypothesis tested if the positive relationship between leadership support and job satisfaction is stronger for internals than externals.

The results of moderator multiple regression analysis supported that locus of control is an important moderator in studying employee-organization fit. Job stress was found to influence both job satisfaction and organizational commitment more strongly for externals than internals. Internal locus appeared to buffer the effects of job stress on satisfaction and organizational commitment outcomes. The study emphasized that an individual without internal locus of control may not be able to manage stress effectively. This inability may in turn impact the motivation to stay in an organization. The authors suggested that whenever externals are found to have high-perceived job stress, managers should consult them and attempt to prioritize their problems to relieve job stress. If this is taken care of then externals may respond with markedly increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
Regarding leadership support, it influenced job satisfaction more for internals than externals. This phenomenon implied that leadership support was more vital in affecting job satisfaction for internals than for externals. Internals were found to have more confidence in the job events they deal with. Leadership support further boosted their confidence, particularly for those who lack work experience, consequently leading to higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and lower turnover intentions. On the other hand, externals considered themselves as powerless to control their daily tasks and always attributed outcomes to outside variables such as operational target, personal relationships with colleagues, and organizational policies, regardless of the leadership support offered to them. Therefore, leadership support did not contribute much in enhancing feelings of job satisfaction among externals.

It was also observed that job satisfaction and organizational commitment influenced turnover intentions more strongly for internals than for externals. In order to avoid the internals from quitting their jobs, the authors suggested that managers should consider prioritizing their needs whenever they express low job satisfaction. Consulting with employees and listening to their constructive suggestions may help retain good employees and reduce turnover intentions.

Chen et al (2008) examined the relationship between locus of control and the work-related measures of job stress, satisfaction and performance of professional accountants who were employed in a certificated public accountant firms in Taiwan. The job stress measure included four dimensions, namely ambiguity, conflict, workload and inadequate resources. A total of two hundred and nine completed questionnaires were returned back for analysis. The respondents were categorized into four groups, males, females, management position group and non-management position group.
The hypothesis was formulated to assess if locus of control plays a significant role in influencing stress and satisfaction of employees belonging to the four groups. The hypothesis also sought to test if accountants with external locus of control would report more job stress and less satisfaction than those with internal locus of control. The hypothesis to test the mediating role of locus of control variable was also formulated.

Analysis of variance and regression were used to analyze the data. Accountants in management positions experienced less job stress and expressed higher job satisfaction and job performance as compared to respondents who did not belong to the management positions. Males had lower external locus of control scores and reported believing they might be able to influence their environment. Female possessed higher score of external locus of control believed that what happened to them was more likely to be based on luck or the actions of others. The significant interaction effect of gender and management position indicated that, for accountants in management positions, males expressed a higher level of job satisfaction than females, while male non-management staffs were less satisfied than female staff. The results of the regression analysis indicated that locus of control scores predicted job performance when controlling for job stress. Thus the conditions for mediation were met in this study.

Studies on locus of control as a moderator have contributed to the mixed findings, for instance, a study by Batlis (1980), found no evidence for a moderating effect of locus of control on the relationship between role ambiguities, role conflict and job satisfaction among supermarket department managers.

Similar result was evidenced in a study conducted by Pestonjee and Singh (1981). The moderating effect of locus of control on the stress-job
satisfaction relationship of individuals working in a private electricity supply company was examined in this study. The sample comprised of one hundred and one respondents.

This study aimed at testing two hypotheses. The first hypothesis tested if various dimensions of role stress would be negatively and significantly related to different aspects of satisfaction. The second hypothesis sought to test the moderating role of locus of control. The findings of correlation statistics revealed that out of sixty three coefficients of correlation between role stress and job satisfaction variables, fifty were found to be negatively and significantly correlated. As regards the moderator hypothesis, the regression results reported no significant difference between the stress-satisfaction relationship for low and high scoring groups on internal locus of control.

This study (Kirkcaldy 2002) is an attempt to trace if external locus of control and type A personality are associated with greater perceived levels of stress, lower job satisfaction and low physical and mental health than that of managers with internal locus of control and type B personality. A group of three hundred and thirty two managerial level staff were recruited as respondents for the study. They belonged to public and private sector organizations in Germany. The formulated hypothesis attempted to test if individuals with external locus of control and type A personality would experience greater stress, lower job satisfaction and lower physical and mental health when employed in a managerial role. The data was analyzed using analysis of variance.

The study showed that individuals with type B personality reported less stress than those with a type A personality. It was also evidenced from the study that perceived level of stress was greater for those with an external
locus of control. Further, it was noticeable that the locus of control had a more powerful impact than the type A/B continuum.

The magnitude of main effect when compared to interaction terms was substantially larger for both the outcomes. There was no evidence to support a significant effect of locus of control x type A interaction on the health outcome measures, but there was some evidence of an interaction with job satisfaction outcomes. Individuals with an external locus showed significantly lower levels of work satisfaction, especially when this characteristic was combined with a type A Personality.

From the review of the above research studies, it can be concluded that locus of control, like motivation may not prove to be a suitable moderator unless it is supplemented with positive organizational factors. A study by Abdel-Halim (1980) proved that both individual personality factors and organizational factors in conjunction reduce the negative impact of stress on outcomes such as job satisfaction, job involvement and propensity to leave. This study examined the moderating roles of need for achievement, locus of control, and job scope characteristics, both independently and jointly, on manager’s affective responses to role ambiguity. The main aim was to explore as to how these personality and job variables combine to affect employee responses to role ambiguity. Data was collected from a sample of eighty nine middle-lower managerial personnel employed in a large, heavy-equipment manufacturing firm in the Midwest.

The following predictions tested if individuals with low need for achievement or external locus of control will respond more negatively to perceived role ambiguity than with those with high need for achievement or internal locus of control, respectively. Secondly if individuals performing unenriched, low-scope jobs would respond more negatively to perceived role
ambiguity than those on enriched, high scope jobs. Lastly, if personality factors and job variables would act as "joint moderators" on the role ambiguity-affective response relationships.

The results of moderated regression and joint-moderator analyses provide support for the moderating effects of personality and job characteristics. The results indicated that role ambiguity was negatively related to job satisfaction measures and job involvement and positively related to propensity to leave. The signs of all the correlations were in the predicted directions. Further the results of this study provided some support for the separate moderating effects of each of need for achievement and locus of control and a strong support for the moderating effects of job scope characteristics.

In particular, the results proved that managers with either low need for achievement or external locus of control who worked on unenriched, low-scope jobs responded most negatively to role ambiguity while no such relation existed for managers with high need for achievement or internal locus of control who worked on enriched, high-scope jobs. In conclusion, the results of this study tend to support the use of personality and job characteristics, both separately and jointly, as potential moderators of managerial responses to role ambiguity.

The authors of the study strongly supported the proposition that individual personality and job scope characteristics should be considered jointly especially in conditions under which individuals would respond most negatively to role ambiguity.

2.3.2.3 Self-efficacy
Self-belief has emerged as a significant component in many theories of human behavior. Self-efficacy construct has received increased empirical attention in the organizational behavior literature (Gist and Mitchell 1992). The theories provide logical reasons as to why self-efficacy should impact stressor-strain relations.

Self-efficacy reflects one’s beliefs that a given course of action can be carried out (Bandura 1997). This definition makes it clear that stressors would be much more threatening to those who do not perceive themselves as being capable of performing their job tasks. Individuals with high level of self-efficacy are more likely to believe that they can maintain an acceptable level of job performance despite presence of job-related stressors (Judge et al 1997).

Saks (1994) in his study examined the moderating effect of self-efficacy for the relationship between training methods and newcomers’ anxiety and stress reactions. The two methods of training examined were formal orientation and tutorial training. Formal orientation involved formalized instruction on organizational policies and work-related procedures. In tutorial training, newcomers were expected to read manuals, complete exercise and solve problems, through computer aided instruction on their own. The sample for the study comprised of one hundred and ninety eight newly hired entry level accountants.

A number of hypotheses were tested in the study. First, training was presumed to be positively associated with self-efficacy. Second, self-efficacy was presumed to be negatively associated with anxiety and stress and third, the hypothesis tested if self-efficacy moderated the relationship between training method and anxiety and stress. This study is based on the premise that some methods of training may be suitable for individuals with low level
of self-efficacy while some others may be suitable for individuals with high level of self efficacy. It is clear that newcomer with low self-efficacy may benefit the most from training that is highly structured and formalized. Correlation and moderated multiple regression was conducted for each of training methods.

The results indicated that self-efficacy was negatively related to anxiety but not stress. However a positive relationship between anxiety and stress suggested that self-efficacy was indirectly related to stress through its relationship with anxiety. Formal orientation was found to be significantly related to self-efficacy. It was further related to lower anxiety for new comers with low self efficacy level. In case of tutorial training, newcomers with high self-efficacy reported low anxiety level. Self-efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between training method and anxiety.

The authors concluded that high self-efficacy newcomers would report lower anxiety when tutorial training is given and low self-efficacy newcomers would report lower anxiety when formal training is given.

Grau et al (2001) analyzed the role of general self-efficacy and professional self-efficacy measure in reducing stress. “Generalized self-efficacy” refers to the confidence an individual has in his own coping skills that is observed in a wide range of challenging situations (Schwarzer 1999). On the contrary “professional self-efficacy” refers to belief in the ability to correctly fulfill one’s professional role (Cherniss 1993). The sample for the study comprised of one hundred and ten employees working in a telecommunication firm.

Several hypotheses were tested in the study. The first hypothesis presumed role conflict to be associated with low level of satisfaction and
organizational commitment. The study expected autonomy and social support climate to be positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The study also presumed that self-efficacy would moderate the occupational stress-strain relationship. That is, lack of autonomy and social support climate, and role conflict would be significantly linked to the consequences of stress only in those employees with low levels of self-efficacy. It was also presumed that professional self-efficacy would moderate the occupational stress-strain relationship more strongly than generalized self-efficacy.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were adopted to detect main and interaction effects. From the findings, it was evident that low levels of autonomy and support climate, and high levels role conflict are associated significantly with low levels of job satisfaction. Similar association was noted for organizational commitment too. General self-efficacy was found to be related positively to job satisfaction. The main effect was found missing in professional self-efficacy. Interaction effects were not observed for both the forms of self-efficacy. With regard to commitment, high levels of professional self-efficacy significantly associated with high levels of organizational commitment. The main effect was found missing for general self-efficacy. Considering interaction result, a significant interaction effect for role conflict x professional self-efficacy was evidenced. In general, organizational commitment decreases as role conflict increases, though this reduction was found greater for employees with low levels of professional self-efficacy.

Randawa (2003) conducted a study to examine the relationship of self-efficacy with job satisfaction. Only the main effect of self-efficacy was studied. The data was collected from a sample of three hundred scientists. The
hypothesis sought to test the relationship between job specific self-efficacy and job satisfaction. Correlation and regression were used to analyze the data.

The study revealed a positive and significant correlation between job specific self-efficacy and job satisfaction. The positive relationship between the variables revealed that the belief of a person about performing specific job leads to satisfaction towards the job. The multiple regression results explained the extent to which the independent variable predicted the variance in job satisfaction. The obtained F ratio was found to be significant.

In certain cases, the moderating role of self-efficacy on stressor-strain relationships have produced mixed results. Jex and Gundanowski (1992) used a sample of one hundred and fifty four university employees to investigate the possible role of individual and group self-efficacy in the stress process. Individual self-efficacy referred to a person’s belief about whether they can successfully perform a task. On the contrary group efficacy referred to collective ability of the group to perform job related behaviors. The independent variables included role ambiguity, situational constraints and workload. Situational constraints included areas of organizational rules, procedures, interruptions by other people, and incorrect instructions. The outcome variables included job dissatisfaction, anxiety, frustration and turnover intent.

This study sought to test the moderating role of both individual and group self-efficacy. Moderator multiple regression analyses was used to test its buffering effect on stress-outcome relationship. The moderating effect of individual self-efficacy was not noticed. On the contrary the moderating role of collective self-efficacy was evidenced for the relationship between situational constraints and frustration, secondly between workload and satisfaction, anxiety and turnover intent. This revealed that the collective
ability of the group played a better role in reducing the negative impact of stress on outcomes when compared to individual ability.

Perhaps one reason for the mixed findings could be that studies examining the moderating effects of self-efficacy have failed to include a key variable, namely coping. It has been argued that this belief increases the likelihood that stressors will have less of a negative impact (Jex et al 2001; Salonova et al 2006). High levels of self-efficacy indicated that employees believe they have the potential for handling stressors more effectively than those with lower self-efficacy. However, if high self-efficacy is not accompanied by effective coping styles, self-efficacy may not help employees adapt to stressors more effectively.

A number of studies proved that active coping plays a major role in reducing role stress. Singh (1988) investigated the moderating role of coping strategies on the relationship between role stress and mental health. A total of three hundred supervisory cadre employees of the Life Insurance Corporation of India comprised the sample for the study.

The hypothesis sought to test if avoidance coping strategies would positively associate with role stress and if approach coping strategies would reduce the negative effect of role stress on mental health. Coefficient of correlation and moderated multiple regression analysis were used for the analyses of the data. The result revealed that avoidance mode of coping was associated positively and significantly with role stress variables. On the contrary the approach mode of coping was correlated negatively and significantly with role stress variables. It was also evidenced from the study that supervisors who adopted the avoidance coping strategy scored significantly higher on mental health dimensions as compared to those who used the approach coping strategies. From the interaction results it was
evidenced that approach mode of coping moderated the degree of positive relationship between role stresses and mental ill-health and avoidance mode of coping was found to enhance the positive correlation between the perceived role stresses and mental ill-health variable.

A Study by Jex et al (2001) was designed to examine whether coping style influences the impact of self efficacy on stressor-strain relations. The stressors included role clarity and workload. Data was collected from two thousand two hundred and ninety three members of the US army. The hypotheses for the study tested if self efficacy and active coping would be negatively related to psychological strain, whether use of avoidance coping would be positively related to a psychological strain. The study also presumed that a three way interaction between stressors, self efficacy and active coping in the prediction of psychological strain would be observed.

The results of the random coefficient modeling supported that self efficacy and active coping are significantly and negatively related to psychological strain. In addition to these main effects the results also revealed the presence of interactions. Three way interactions were tested between role clarity, self efficacy and active coping. Self efficacy was found to moderate the stressor –strain relationship only when active coping was high. Specifically, when active coping was high, role clarity was strongly and negatively related to psychological strain among those reporting low levels of self efficacy. In contrast, role clarity was weakly and positively related to psychological strain among those reporting high levels of self efficacy. The results indicated the fact that self efficacy had no impact on the relationship between role clarity and psychological strain when active coping was low.

A three way interaction analysis between work load, self efficacy and avoidance coping was also conducted. Self efficacy moderated the relation between work over load and psychological strain in both high
avoidance and low avoidance coping situation. Interestingly, the form of the interaction differed depending on the coping method used. When avoidance coping was low, self efficacy moderated the stressor-strain relationship as expected. That is, individuals with high self efficacy reported no increase in strain when stressor levels increased, whereas individuals with low efficacy reported an increased in strain as stressor levels increased. In contrast, when avoidance coping was high, a much different interaction pattern was observed. In this case, the relationship between stress-strain was positive for both groups but stronger for high efficacy group. The study clearly proved that both self-efficacy and effective coping style contribute jointly as moderators in reducing the negative impact of stress.

Salonova (2006) examined the moderating role of professional self-efficacy between role overload, role conflict and problem centered coping behavior such as active coping and passive coping. A total of six hundred and twenty five Spanish employees comprised the sample for the study.

The hypotheses were postulated to test if a positive link would be found between professional self-efficacy and active coping strategies. That is higher levels of professional self-efficacy would be accompanied by higher level of active coping strategies at work. The next hypothesis was to test if professional self-efficacy would play a moderating role between job demands and coping strategies. The combination of high job demands and high levels of professional self-efficacy will be associated with active coping, while high demands and low levels of professional self-efficacy will be associated with passive coping.

Correlation statistics and hierarchical regression analyses were used for the analyses of the data. From the results it was observed that professional self-efficacy correlated significantly and positively with active coping
behavior, and significantly but negatively with passive coping behavior. The data also revealed that role conflict associated negatively with active coping.

It was further evidenced from the results that active coping behavior increased in case of high overload with high self-efficacy, irrespective of whether role conflict was high or low. Self-efficacy was found to moderate the relationship between the demands perceived by employees and the type of coping behaviors they use. This indicated that professional self-efficacy influences coping behaviors, raising active coping and reducing passive coping.

Extensive research conducted in the occupational stress literature has failed to provide convincing support for the stress-buffering effects of self-efficacy alone. Studies suggest that better results for self-efficacy as a moderator can be evidenced if other personal and situation variables are added on to it for three way interactions. A study conducted by Jimmieson (2000) proposed that the stress-buffering effects of self-efficacy on employee adjustment would be significant at high levels of work control. A three way interaction study with the inclusion of self-efficacy to locus of control in a sample of customer service representatives was conducted. As expected self-efficacy reduced the negative effects of work stress on employee adjustment only for those individuals who perceived high levels of internal locus.

In another study authored by Deborah et al (2003), the significance of self-efficacy and change related information variables were emphasized to outline the processes that determine employee adaptation to organizational change. The study was conducted on a sample of pilots employed in a newly merged airline company. It was found that the provision of change-related information enhanced the levels of self-efficacy to deal with the change process, which, in turn, predicted psychological well-being, client
engagement, and job satisfaction. Thus there was evidence to suggest that managers who received change-specific information and opportunities to participate in the change process reported higher levels of change readiness. Managers who reported higher levels of readiness for change also reported higher levels of psychological well-being and job satisfaction. These studies highlight ways in which managers and change agents can help employees to cope during times of organizational change.

Similarly in another study by Stetz et al (2006), the moderating impact of self-efficacy in inclusion with social support was tested. The military belonging to the United States were selected as respondents. Organizational constraints, supervisor support and self-efficacy had statistically significant three way interactions in the prediction of job satisfaction and psychological well-being. Social support buffered the stressor–strain relationship when self-efficacy was high. The results concluded that interventions aimed at reducing strains by increasing social support should consider individual's self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy thus has been found to have a better moderating effect in inclusion with other personal and situation variables. Also like locus of control and motivation, self-efficacy needs to be supplemented with certain positive organizational factors, for it to play the role of an effective moderator.

2.3.3 Outcome Variables
Two outcome variables chosen for the study are organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Research on these variables is reviewed.

2.3.3.1 Organizational commitment and job satisfaction

Organizational commitment is considered to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organization (Luthans, 2002). Meyer and Allen (1991) had distinguished between affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The authors justified that distinguishing among the different forms of organizational commitment was important as they have very different implications for behavior. Somers (1995) suggested that only affective commitment was related to turnover and absenteeism. Some research studies showed that affective commitment had the strongest positive correlation with job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and attendance, followed by normative commitment (Bauer and Green 1998; Stump and Hartman 1984), whereas others have reported moderate positive (Adkins 1995; Saks 1996), small positive (Decotiis 1987; Somers 1998), or negative (Wright 1997) correlations with performance.

Meyer et.al (2002) further proved in their meta-analysis that all the three forms of commitment were related yet distinguishable from each other. The objective of the study was to assess the relationship between each of the three forms of commitment and organizational consequences. It was found that all three forms of commitment related negatively to withdrawal cognition and turnover, and affective commitment had the strongest and most favorable correlations with organization-relevant variables such as attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior and employee-relevant such as stress and work–family conflict outcomes. Normative commitment and continuance commitment were also associated with desirable outcomes, but not as strongly as affective commitment.
One explanation offered for this lack of consistent findings was that commitment-outcomes relations seemed to be moderated by other variables (Mathieu 1990). The following studies explain the inconsistencies better.

In a study conducted by Vakola et al (2005) a linkage between employees’ attitudes towards organizational change and two most important variables, occupational stress and organizational commitment were explored. The results revealed a negative correlation between occupational stressors and attitudes to change, indicating that highly stressed individuals demonstrate decreased commitment and increased reluctance to accept organizational change interventions. The results did not support the role of organizational commitment as a moderator in the relationship between occupational stress and attitudes to change. The studies proved the fact that an appropriate work environment is very necessary for organizational commitment to contribute in reducing the negative impact of stressors on outcome.

Hunter et al (2007) examined the relationships between bank employees’ felt job stress, organizational commitment, job experience, and performance. It was noted from the findings that employees with higher levels of affective commitment and higher levels of job experience channeled felt stress more effectively into performance. Felt stress had neutral to negative effects on performance for employees with lower levels of commitment and job experience. Commitment, like stress, was more strongly related to performance when employees had more job experience. This proved the fact that commitment alone may not help in reducing stress, its inclusion with other personal and organizational variables may probably help in managing stress better.

In a study conducted by Caroline (2007) the objective was to understand the relationships between perceived organizational support and the
three dimensions of organizational commitment. This study also sought to test the moderating role of locus of control and work autonomy. The sample for the study included two hundred and forty-nine employees working in a prison. The data was collected through questionnaires.

The formulated hypothesis perceived that organizational support is positively related to affective commitment and normative commitment but negatively related to continuance commitment. The other hypothesis sought to test if external locus of control would lead to a stronger relationship between perceived organizational support and the three forms of commitment. Lastly, an attempt to test if lower work autonomy would lead to a stronger relationship between perceived organizational support and the three forms of commitment was also made. Hierarchical multiple regression was used for the analyses of the data.

This study sought to assess, on one hand, the relationship between perceived organizational support and the three forms of organizational commitment and, on the other, the moderating role of locus of control and work autonomy was also assessed. As was expected, perceived organizational support was strongly associated with affective commitment. Support was found to help employees in developing a sense of belongingness to their organization. The results of this study further indicated that the greater the extent to which individuals have an internal locus of control, the weaker the effect of support on affective commitment. Similarly, the greater the extent to which individuals felt they have a high level of autonomy in their work; the lesser that affective commitment was influenced by perceived organizational support. This study revealed the fact that internal locus and high level of work autonomy helped individuals in strengthening the commitment to their organization. This moderating effect could be further explained by the fact that locus of control and work autonomy reinforce employees’ feeling of
control and make them less dependent on the support provided by their organization.

Two other perspectives have been proposed to predict the effect of organizational commitment on the stress-outcome relationship. The first perspective by Mathieu (1990) posits that highly committed people feel the effect of stress more than those less committed. They tend to suffer more from organizational hardships because of their contributions and involvement with the organization.

Dhadda (1990) studied the relationship of role stress, job involvement and personality types in aviation and railway officials. The sample consisted of fifty respondents from railway and fifty from aviation.

The study sought to test if job involvement and role stress correlated positively. The results of mean and correlation statistics revealed that role overload caused maximum stress among railway officials and role ambiguity caused the least, whereas role erosion caused maximum and role overload minimum stress among aviation officials. Job involvement was found to be positively related to role stress. Higher the job involvement, higher was the stress among the officials belonging to the two different organizations. The study proved that employees who tend to be more committed to the organization and who are involved to a larger extent in completion of task are generally more stressed when compared to individuals with lower organizational involvement.

The second, quite opposite, perspective posits that commitment protects individuals from the negative effects of stress. It enables them to attach direction and meaning to their work (Kobasa 1982). According to Mowday et al (1979), organizational commitment leads to a state of stability
and induces a feeling of belongingness. Antonovsky (1979) argued that commitment is a crucial resource that enables individuals to cope effectively with stress. The perspective therefore supposes that stress leads to negative outcomes when commitment is low. Begley and Czajka (1993) tested these predictions and found that organizational commitment buffered the relationship between stress and job dissatisfaction during organization turmoil.

In a study by Leong et al (1996) an attempt was made to examine the effect of organizational commitment as a moderator of the stress-outcome relationship. Its predictor effect was also examined. The dependent variables for the study included job satisfaction, mental-ill-health, physical ill-health, and intention to quit. In all one hundred and six professional and administrative officers from various department of a public sector organization were selected as samples. The present study is based on the premise that the relationship between sources of occupational stress and outcome could be moderated by commitment as well as by personal demographic differences.

From the results, the role of commitment and demographic variables as predictors were evidenced. On the contrary none of the interactions were significant in the analysis. Occupational stress was the only statistically significant predictor of mental and physical ill health regression. On the other hand, organization commitment contributed significantly to all the regressions. Of the demographic variables examined in the regression, only education and age were found to contribute significantly to the regression involving job satisfaction and intend to quit respectively. The results showed organization commitment as being negatively related to ill health and intention to quit and positively related to satisfaction implied that commitment is advantageous to individuals and the organization. It was also
found that demographic variable were significant predictor for intent to quit. Education seemed to have the strongest effect. The authors concluded that people who have higher educational qualification in general may possibly have higher expectations from their jobs. Higher educational qualification might also mean that these individuals have greater options in terms of job choices as well as higher chances of finding alternative employment.

The study by Oi-ling Siu (2003), investigated the direct and moderating effects of organizational commitment on the stress-job performance relationship. A total of three hundred and eighty six employees living in Hong Kong comprised the sample.

The hypotheses sought to test the main and moderating role of organizational commitment. The results of correlation and hierarchical regression revealed that sources of pressure and self-rated job performance were negatively related. Organizational commitment was positively related to job performance. A series of hierarchical regressions revealed that organizational commitment acted as a significant stress moderator. Organizational commitment, protected employees from the negative effects of stressors and moderated the stress-performance relationship in a positive direction. The author of the study concluded that it is essential to cultivate employees' commitment to their organizations. However, in very high stress situations, an alteration in the work environment to reduce stressors at work, in order to enhance job performance was suggested.

A study conducted by Concha (2007) determined the importance of organizational commitment and job satisfaction as predictors of turnover intention, absenteeism, and job performance. A number of research studies have proved that role conflict and ambiguity determine employee’s job satisfaction and their commitment towards the organization. Studies have also
proved that these two variables may in turn lead to a number of organizational outcomes. The data for this study was obtained from a sample of Spanish employees working in a bus company and a water supply company.

The hypothesis attempted to test the mediating role of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The hypotheses were confirmed by means of path analysis. Results of path analyses revealed that role stressors were negatively related to affective commitment, mediated through job satisfaction. Affective commitment to the organization exerted a positive influence on performance and reduced the withdrawal behavior like intention to leave and absenteeism although the strongest predictor of intention to leave was, in this study, job satisfaction.

Falkenburg (2007) explored the effects of work satisfaction and organizational commitment on withdrawal behaviors. In order to acquire a better understanding of this relationship, the moderating effects of work satisfaction and organizational commitment were also examined in the study.

The data was collected from two samples. The first sample consisted of sixty seven employees from an electronics branch of a Dutch and a Slovakian plants. The second sample comprised of sixty eight employees from the library department of a Dutch university.

The hypotheses sought to test if both job satisfaction and organizational commitment were negatively related to absenteeism. Secondly, the hypothesis tested if the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention and between job satisfaction and absenteeism would be moderated by commitment.

The results of regression analysis concluded that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was moderated by normative
commitment. The moderator effect was significant and positive. The negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention was found to be low for high normative commitment than for low normative commitment. The results further indicated that the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism was moderated by affective commitment and continuance commitment. These moderator effects were also positive. However, the relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism was negative for low affective and continuance commitment and positive for high affective and continuance commitment.

A third finding was that the moderator effects in sample one were not evidenced in the second sample. The difference in results could be due to the specific organizational settings of the samples. Sample one, where most moderator effects were confirmed, consisted mainly of blue-collar workers who worked in the assembly process. The respondents of sample two were predominantly more highly educated employees of the library service department of a Dutch university. The study indicated that the educational and job level of the employees may influence the results of the regression analyses. More specifically, employees who have higher education or work on a higher job level are better able to differentiate between their work attitudes.

So far studies, which had considered commitment as an independent variable and moderator variable, were discussed. Some researchers have also conducted study by having commitment and job involvement as dependent variables. A study conducted by Kedar Nath (1988) explored the effect of role stress, locus of control and moderating role of locus of control, on job involvement among five hundred professionals employed in bank. The hypothesis presumed to observe that these variables would strongly determine job involvement among the banking personnel. It also presumed that locus of control would moderate role stress-involvement relationship.
Coefficient of correlation and moderator multiple regression statistics were used to test the hypotheses. The major findings of the study highlighted that individuals who experienced high role stress pertaining to self role distance, inter-role distance, role expectation conflict, role stagnation, role ambiguity, role overload, personal inadequacy as well as overall role stress showed less job involvement as compared to the low role stress group. High and low scoring groups on these role stress variables were reported to differ significantly with regard to job involvement. The high external locus of control group reported to score significantly low on job involvement in comparison to the low external locus of control group. The moderating results provided support for the moderating role of locus of control. The negative relation between organizational role stress and job involvement was reported to be higher for high external locus of control group as compared to low locus of control group.

Pattanayak et al (1999) examined the effect of role stress on commitment of respondents of a steel plant, from service department and production department. Equal number of both executives and non-executives were selected from both the departments for the purpose of study. The findings indicated significant difference between executives and non-executives of both the departments. The non-executives were found to have more job stress due to role-conflict and low organizational commitment when compared to executives.

The purpose of the study by Daniel et al (1999) was to examine the relations between locus of control and two different forms of organizational commitment, the affective commitment and the continuance commitment. The study was based on the premise that although all three forms of commitment decrease the likelihood of individuals leaving an organization,
there are different antecedents and consequences associated with each form of commitment. It was suggested that managers should be aware of the manner in which their employees are committed to the organization and an attempt to foster affective commitment in their employees should be carried out. Data was elicited from a total of two hundred and thirty two employees of a Canadian governmental agency.

Two hypotheses were formulated to test if individuals with an internal locus of control would report higher levels of affective commitment when compared to individuals with an external locus of control. The second hypothesis states that individuals with an external locus of control would report higher levels of continuance commitment when compared to individuals with an internal locus of control.

The correlation results support both the hypotheses. External locus of control was negatively and significantly correlated with affective commitment, and positively and significantly correlated with continuance commitment. Specifically, the study replicated previous research that reported significant relations between locus of control and multiple forms of commitment. Rather than externals being less committed to their organizations, as has been implied in previous research, this study found that they were committed to the organization in a manner different from that of internals.

A study conducted by Firoj (2003), explored the strength of association between organizational cultures and the two outcome variables, organizational commitment and job satisfaction among employees. The sample was drawn from among the employees working in a private sector textile unit located in Bangalore. The data was collected from eighty employees belonging to three different groups, officers, managers and
supervisors. The hypothesis was to test whether there would be significant
difference in the level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction
among employees belonging to the different grades. It was also hypothesized
that job satisfaction of employees will have significant influence on their
commitment level. The study also presumed that the culture prevailing within
the organization would have significant influence on the employee’s level of
commitment and job satisfaction. The data was analyzed using t test, analysis
of variance and regression analysis.

The results of analyses of variance showed that the employees
belonging to different grades do not differ significantly in terms of their
commitment levels to the organization. Designation of an employee did not
have any significant impact on their commitment level. The author suggested
that it may be the content of the job, which might be influencing the
employee’s level of commitment. The mean value indicated that all the
employees are more or less equally committed towards their organization.
Thus the first hypothesis was partially rejected. The results further showed
that, there was a significant difference among employees belonging to three
different grades in terms of their level of job satisfaction. The employees
belonging to the managerial cadre seemed to be highly satisfied with their job
followed by their counterpart at the level of officers and supervisors. It was
also found during informal interactions that the employees at lower level do
not have much freedom in their work place. This could probably be one of the
potential reasons for their low score in job satisfaction.

The author further suggested that hygiene factors provide the
ground work for job satisfaction but does not help to motivate a person.
Motivators have the potential to motivate and satisfy a person. Highly
challenging nature of the job and autonomy helps in improving the motivators
and there by improving the satisfaction levels of the employees. The
regression analysis showed that out of eight dimensions of the organization culture such as openness, collaboration, trust, autonomy, pro-action, authenticity, confrontation and experimentation only collaboration explained a higher percentage of variation in the commitment levels of employees within the organization. Collaboration refers to the extent to which teamwork is prevalent within the organization. Thus the third hypothesis was partially accepted. Confrontation and experimentation were two other variables which explained satisfaction level of employees. Confrontative culture generally helps the employees to discuss issues openly without any fear. Experimentation brings in a risk taking culture within the organization. The findings of this study bring out the importance of certain dimensions of the organization culture such as experimentation, collaboration and confrontation on enhancing the employees’ level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

The study conducted by Jaramillo et al (2005) made an attempt to comprehensively investigate the effects of role ambiguity, role conflict, supervisor support, group cohesiveness, and promotion opportunities internal to the organization on organizational commitment. Results indicated that in addition to job satisfaction, supervisor's support, group cohesiveness, and promotion opportunities are the best predictors of organizational commitment of law enforcement officers. The results also indicated a significant relationship between organizational commitment and intention to leave. The findings were based on the responses of officers from six police agencies in Florida.

Sharon et al (2005) in their study examined role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, anxiety, commitment, and turnover intention measures and the consistency of their relationships with one another across four countries. The basic assumption about organizational stress was that it leads
to both personal and organization-relevant strains. This study was an attempt to test the association of role stress and outcome variables in different countries. Data was collected from one thousand three hundred and ninety six hospital employees across four countries, Hungary, U.K., Italy, and U.S.A.

The study sought to test if role stressors would correlate positively with anxiety, continuance commitment, and intention to leave, and negatively with affective commitment. The study also tested if anxiety would correlate positively with continuance commitment and intention to leave, and negatively with affective commitment. Lastly an attempt to test if continuance commitment and affective commitment would correlate negatively with intention to leave was carried out.

Correlation analyses in each country showed that stressors and strains significantly correlated in the expected directions. Role stressors correlated positively with anxiety, continuance commitment, and intention to leave, and negatively with affective commitment. Similar results were evidenced across countries. Though the relationship between the independent and dependent variables supported the hypotheses, the magnitude of the relationship differed across countries.

The research study suggested that understanding various environmental and cultural issues of a society would help practitioners understand stressors that are most detrimental to that society. Recognizing that role stressors created similar strains across these nations, a future research direction was suggested to determine which stressors and strains were most often experienced in each country and the reasons for it.

Job satisfaction like organizational commitment is another pivotal construct that has been widely studied by many researchers. Satisfaction in
one’s job arises when an individual perceives his or her job as fulfilling values that are considered important to that individual (Locke 1976).

Research studies have demonstrated that an individual’s job satisfaction is partially determined by perception of the characteristics of his or her work role. It appears that job satisfaction vary with one’s level and type of work. Executives who are in jobs which are higher in level, better paid, less repetition, more freedom and which requires less physical effort than other jobs seem to be more satisfied (Ahemad and Pestonjee 1978; Ranjan and Kishore 1986). A study by Locke and Whiting (1974) has shown that white collar employees are more likely to derive satisfaction from intrinsic sources and less likely to derive them from extrinsic sources than were blue collar workers. A number of researchers (Pestonjee and Singh 1982; Mishra 1987; Orpen and Bernath 1987; Richard 2001) investigated that the overall indices of role stress are negatively associated with all dimensions of job satisfaction.

The investigation by Thomas (1971) was concerned with the relationships between role clarity and reported satisfactions, tensions, propensities to leave, and the actual voluntary withdrawal of nurses having different needs for clarity. A sample of one hundred and fifty six employees of a large community-general hospital was recruited as respondents for the study.

The hypotheses of this study tested if greater role clarity is related to more satisfaction with the job and organization, less tension, less propensity to leave the organization, and less voluntary withdrawal from the organization; the magnitude of the relationships was predicted to be significantly higher for those employees with a higher need for clarity about their jobs. Correlation statistics was used to analyze the data.
The correlations were found to be statistically significant and in the predicted direction. The perceived role clarity of employees was related positively to job satisfaction, negatively to their voluntary turnover, propensity to leave, and job tension. When the total sample was dichotomized on the basis of their expressed need for clarity, the correlations of role clarity to voluntary turnover, propensity to leave, and job satisfaction was not significant for the low need-for-clarity nurses and significantly higher for the high need-for-clarity nurses. The correlations between role clarity and job tension was significant for both low and high need-for-clarity groups.

Luhadia (1991) in his study investigated the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction across three levels of geological officers. The sample comprised of twenty higher levels, thirty middle level and fifty junior level officers.

The hypothesis presumed that role stress would negatively associate with job satisfaction across the three levels. The mean score statistics indicated that the three different levels of officers differed on role stress dimensions. Role inadequacy caused maximum stress and role stagnation caused minimum stress in higher-level officers whereas role erosion caused maximum stress for middle and junior level officers. The correlation statistics indicated that job satisfaction associated negatively and significantly with role stress. Higher the stress, lower was the job satisfaction among different levels of officers. This proved the hypothesis.

Pattanayak and Mishra (1997) compared shift and non-shift employees in relation to job satisfaction, perceived organizational commitment and job-stress. The study also made an attempt to examine the differences between executives and non-executives. The respondents of the study were three hundred and sixty employees of a steel plant. Equal numbers
of shift and non-shift employees belonging to executives and supervisors category were selected.

The formulated hypotheses tested if there exist a difference between shift and non-shift employees as well as executives and supervisors in their perception of satisfaction, commitment and stress. The main findings of the study highlighted that executives and supervisors differed significantly wherein executives were found to have more job satisfaction than the supervisors. On the contrary, supervisors were found to be more stressed when compared to executives. No significant differences between the two groups were observed for commitment. On comparing shift and non-shift employees, no significant difference between the groups were noted either on job stress, job satisfaction or organizational commitment.

Alam (1997) in a similar study determined the magnitude of job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational role stress among private and public sector executives. The sample comprised of fifty private sector and fifty public sector executives.

The hypothesis sought to test if there exist a difference between the private sector executives and public sector executives with regard to job satisfaction, job involvement and role stress. The mean score results concluded that executives of private sector did not differ from their counterpart on area of job satisfaction. Whereas considering job involvement, private sector executive were found to be more involved with their job as compared to public sector counterparts. Private sector executive experienced more role stress as compared to their public sector executives.

James et al (2007) attempted to examine the relationships between various facets of salesperson job satisfaction and salesperson affective commitment. This study explored the moderating role of gender on the
relationship between facets of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The samples for the study consisted of one hundred and thirty eight respondents, of them seventy percent were males and thirty percent were females.

Some of the hypothesis postulated in this study presumed that, job satisfaction with promotion has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in males than females. Job satisfaction with pay has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in males than females. Job satisfaction with company policy has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in females than males. Job satisfaction with job has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in males than females. Job satisfaction with supervisor has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in females than males and job satisfaction with co-worker has a higher positive relationship with affective commitment in females than males. Regression analysis and Z test were used to test the hypotheses.

The current study found that different facets of job satisfaction have varying relationships with salesperson's affective commitment towards the organization. The results provided support that males were more concerned about promotion than females. Satisfaction with pay was found to be strongly and positively related to commitment for males while satisfaction with pay was positive but non-significant for females. Considering company policy, it was found to significantly and positively associate with affective commitment. No significant difference was noticed between the two groups for this variable.

Further, the overall results indicated that organization's policies were considered important by both males and females in developing affective commitment towards the organization. The positive results supported and
suggested that the actual work was considered equally important by the respondents irrespective of gender. It appeared that individuals, who chose to go into sales, whether male or female, value the nature of the work equally in terms of developing organizational commitment. Results also indicated that satisfaction with work was the strongest predictor of affective organization commitment. Satisfaction with supervisor was not significantly related to affective organizational commitment for both the groups. Satisfaction with co-workers was found to be a non-significant predictor of affective organizational commitment. However, the results indicated that male salespeople place less value on satisfaction with co-workers than do female salespeople.

The authors of the study concluded that examining the relationship between different facets of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment could be useful for organization in understanding how different aspects of the job may have different influence on affective organizational commitment. This would further help organizations devise a better behavioral forecast in relation to outcomes that are related, either directly or indirectly, to job satisfaction. The study also indicated that there are differences in these relationships based on gender. It may also be possible that work-related outcomes may differ based on employee's gender.

Besides examining job satisfaction as independent and dependent variables, an attempt by Yousef (2002) was also made to determine the mediating role of job satisfaction on the relationship between perceived role stressors, namely role conflict and role ambiguity on one hand, and various facets of organizational commitment, namely affective, continuance and normative, on the other. A sample of three hundred and sixty-one employees from organizations in United Arab Emirates was selected for the purpose of study.
The study hypothesized that role conflict and role ambiguity would
directly and negatively influence job satisfaction, affective and normative
commitments. It would positively influence continuance commitment. Job
satisfaction would directly and positively influences affective and normative
commitments and negatively influences continuance commitment. The study
also presumed that job satisfaction would mediate the influence of role
conflict and role ambiguity on affective commitment, continuance and
normative commitment

Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Confirmatory factor
analysis was also employed to confirm the heterogeneity of various
dimensions of organizational commitment and role stressors. The outcomes of
the confirmatory analysis provided support for the heterogeneity of the
constructs. Path analysis was also used to detect the interrelationships
between role conflicts, role ambiguity, job satisfaction and various facets of
organizational commitment. The results of path analysis indicated that role
conflict and role ambiguity directly and negatively influenced job satisfaction.
Role conflict was not found to directly influence various facets of
organizational commitment. Results further indicated that role ambiguity
directly and negatively influences both affective and normative commitments,
thus largely supporting hypothesis Path analysis results indicated that job
satisfaction mediates the influences of role conflict on affective, continuance
and normative commitment. It further supported that job satisfaction mediates
the influences of role ambiguity on various facets of organizational
commitment, except continuance commitment. Path analysis results also
revealed that job satisfaction directly and positively influences affective
commitment and normative commitment and negatively influences
continuance commitment.
Similar attempt by Anthony (2007) was made to examine the relationships between person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and intent to turnover. Data was obtained from a sample of two hundred and five full-time employed individuals. It was hypothesized that person-organization fit and job satisfaction are positively related, such that participants reporting high levels of fit would also report high levels of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and intent to turnover are negatively related, such that participants reporting high levels of job satisfaction would report low levels of intent to turnover.

It was also hypothesized that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between person-organization fit and intent to turnover, such that high levels of fit will decrease participant’s intent to turnover, so far as levels of participant’s job satisfaction are also high. Correlation and hierarchical mediated regression was used to analyze the data.

This study emphasized on the context of misfit. The results indicated that decreases in fit, lead to decrease in job satisfaction and an increase in intent to turnover. The study further concluded that highly skilled employees are most susceptible to the person-organization misfit – job dissatisfaction – intent to turnover path because it is these highly skilled employees who perceive greater job mobility.

Several Indian researchers have also conducted study to explore the moderating role of individual and organizational variables on stress-job satisfaction relationship. Singh (1987) tested the moderating effect of six dimensions of organizational climate on relationships between role stress and job satisfaction variables. The six dimensions of organizational climate included dependency, expert influence, perception of control, extension, perception of achievement and affiliation climate. The study was conducted on three job categories, namely, managers, systems personnel, and operation
personnel of both public and private computer service organizations. The sample comprised of forty managers, sixty-nine system personnel and sixty nine operation personnel from the public sector and forty five managers, sixty six system personnel and fifty nine operation personnel from the private sector.

The hypothesis sought to test the moderating role of organizational climate on role stress-satisfaction relationship. Several statistical tools like coefficient of correlation and hierarchical regression analysis were used to analyze the data. The results revealed negative correlation between job satisfaction and all dimensions of role stress. The perception of achievement, expert influence and extension climates were reported to be negatively associated with role stress variables whereas the perception of control, affiliation and dependency climates were reported to be positively associated with role stress. A test of the moderating effect revealed that motivational climate like achievement, expert influence and extension enhanced job satisfaction of employees and reduced their role stress. On the contrary, the other dimensions of climates acted inversely.

Jadish and Singh (1997) conducted a study to investigate the moderating effect of hierarchal level on occupational stress-job satisfaction relationship. The sample for the study comprised of forty five officers and forty five skilled workers of a refinery.

The hypothesis presumed that hierarchy level would help in moderating the negative impact of stress on job satisfaction. The data was analyzed by using moderated regression analysis. Occupational stress was found to be inversely associated with job satisfaction in case of both the groups. The results further supported that hierarchal level significantly moderated the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction.
A study by Chandraiah et al (2003) investigated the effect of age on occupational stress and job satisfaction among managers of different age groups. The three groups comprised of young managers (25-35 years), middle age group managers (36-45 years) and the late age group managers (46-55 years). A total of one hundred and five industrial managers working in different large-scale organizations were selected as sample for the study.

The hypothesis sought to test if the perception of stress and job satisfaction differs across different age group. The ‘t’ value obtained showed a significant difference in the stress score between young age group and their counterparts in the middle and late age group. A significant decrease in the stress score was noticed as the age group of the respondents’ increased. The results further highlighted that the young managers and the middle aged managers were experiencing more stress due to role overload, role ambiguity and strenuous working conditions compared to late age group managers. Role conflict was found to be a major source of stress for young managers. Political pressures were found to affect young and late age group managers more as compared to middle age group managers. The stress arising from powerlessness and intrinsic impoverishment was found to be higher among the younger group than the other two groups. As per the low status was concerned the late group managers experienced lesser stress as compared to younger and middle age group managers.

Considering job satisfaction, the late age group managers were found to be more satisfied with their work and co-workers than the younger age group managers. The middle age and the late age group were more satisfied on supervision as compared to their younger counterpart. Though the correlation results revealed a significant negative relationship between stress and job satisfaction, a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age
and a negative relation between stress and age was witnessed. The study concluded that young managers generally go through an adjustment phase. They have minimal organizational power and control over work demands. They are more stressed due to conflicting demands. Together, this leads to their reduced satisfaction level.

The above compilations of the findings give us a clear picture of the relationship that exists between stress and organizational outcomes like job satisfaction and commitment. It also proves the fact that both personal and the organizational variables have equal importance in reducing the adverse influence of stress on these outcomes.

2.3.4 Career Stages

Researchers have found that individuals progress through distinct career stages. They have unique experiences and psychological needs in each of the stage. It is also evidenced from their study that career stage influences individual’s work attitudes, perceptions and behavior. A detailed discussion on career stage transition and the nature of stress experienced in each of the stages is attempted in this section.

A study by Janina (1984) examined career stage transition within the organization. The three career stages comprised of establishment stage (25-29 years of age), advancement stage (30-34 years of age) and maintenance stage (45-65 years of age). Career stage transition, in this study was viewed as a stress-coping process influenced by both work and non-work factors. The study was based on the premise that career stage transition is generally stressful as it involves assumptions of new roles which may require adaptive capacities to change. This study further emphasized that in order to understand career stage transition, personal life transition should also be taken
in to account. The sample for the study comprised of one hundred and nine managers and hospital professionals.

The hypothesis of the study presumed that the greater the magnitude of career stage transition, the greater would be the role stress. This otherwise means that a change to a job, very similar to the previous job may be less stressful when compared to a job that is radically different. If the change is of greater magnitude, then it would require more adjustment and coping on the part of the individuals. The second hypothesis presumed that role stress would be negatively associated with performance. The two role stress variables considered in this study are role ambiguity and role overload. The hypotheses were tested using correlation and path analysis.

The results highlighted that the transition group were significantly younger and averaged nine years with the organization. Their average age was thirty seven. The no-change group had an average age of forty four and averaged fourteen years with the organization. The study showed that those making career transition were more from advancement stage followed by some in the establishment stage and few in the maintenance stage. The results further highlighted that individuals going through career stage and personal transitions simultaneously resort to emotion focused coping rather than problem focused coping in managing stress. They were found to alleviate the stress symptoms rather than resolve the stressful situation. A strong connection was found between career stage transition and personal life transition. The greater the career stage transition, the more was the personal life transition.

The study further disconfirmed the association of career stage transition with stress. Based on the findings, the study suggested that since career stage transition involves movement from a lower level to a higher level
or advancement to a very different role, individuals are able to cope better with role stress due to their past experience. This study proves that individuals generally progress through three career stages, early career, mid career and late career. It also suggests that though stress is associated with each stage, its management becomes easier as people advance, due to enriching experience they had gained in the previous career stage.

A specific emphasis on each of these stages shows that early career stage begins with the search for work. It includes getting employed, learning appropriate skills and being accepted by peers. Success and failure at work are also part of the early stage. Initial work experience in this stage could be anxiety-producing characterized by changes and surprises (Louis 1980; Nelson et al 1988). According to Wanous (1992), newcomers experience more stress at the time of entry than either before or after they have gained experience. The anxiety could be due to the conflicting work demands and ambiguous goals. A study by Chandriah et al (2003), found that role ambiguity, role expectation conflict and role overload were the major stressors in the early career group (25-35). A similar study by Raju and Madhu (1994) examined the influence of role stress on one hundred and fifty four lower, two hundred and two middle and one hundred and one higher level executives of a public sector organization. Results revealed that higher-level employees experienced lesser role conflict and role ambiguity than the middle and lower counterparts. Studies conducted by Walker et al (1975), Cron (1984), and Fisher (2001) proved a significant decline in the negative consequences of role conflict and role ambiguity as individual’s progressed in their career. This is because as individuals gain experience across career stages they become more confident and are able to effectively deal with role conflict and ambiguity.
Several studies of the early career stage revealed “reality shock” (Ivancevich 2003) in those who experienced frustrations. These young managers perceive a mismatch between what they thought the organization was and what it actually is. They join an organization with relevant knowledge of the subject but lacking in understanding of the employer’s expectations (Agarwal 2001). Inadequate orientation during recruitment is one of the reasons for this mismatch. A prospective employee would therefore need a realistic job preview at the time of appointment. Low self-efficacy level in the new recruit could also be a reason. According to Bandura (1977), perceived self-efficacy helps people to believe in their capabilities to mobilize motivation, cognitive resources and take appropriate measures to deal with job requirements. Stress and tension at this stage are caused by uncertainty regarding responsibilities and one’s coping abilities in the organization (Fisher 1985).

The findings of a study conducted by Linda et al (2005) revealed that the early stage members faced intense pressure in the process of proving themselves. The higher stress levels resulted from the fact that they spent more time in work in order to meet the promotion criteria. The new entrants experienced a sense of loneliness and had difficulty in gaining guidance and support of their colleagues.

Organization role, at this stage may involve providing the new recruits with orientation and mentoring. Various sources of support within the organization would help reduce job dissatisfaction and increase level of commitment (Ganster et al 1986). A finding by Lazarus (1972) underlined lack of adequate social support as a cause of stress in difficult situation. Social support helps people cope better with job stress (McLean, 1974) to be more effective (Kotter 1982) and to produce more successful managers (Luthans 1985).
A study by William (1988) explored the impact of career stages on three components of motivation namely valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. The four career stages considered in this study are exploration, establishment, maintenance and disengagement. A total of two hundred and twenty-seven sales people employed in a manufacturing firm were recruited as sample for the study.

The hypothesis for the study is based on the premise that the three components of motivation may impact sales people differently in different career stages. It was hypothesized that valence, which refers to need, both higher order and lower order would differ across career stages. Those individuals belonging to exploration and establishment stage may exhibit a strong lower order need, such as willingness to learn and grow as compared to individuals in the maintenance stage who have a strong desire for promotion and more pay. Members of the disengagement group do not have any desire as such.

Expectancy in this study refers to the perceived linkage between sales-person effort and performance. With regard to this variable, the hypothesis presumed that increased job knowledge of individuals in the establishment and maintenance stage, helps clarify the requirements for effective performance. Individuals in exploratory stage often have inadequate job knowledge and limited skills to perform their task. The study assumed that this lack of clarity may produce low expectancy to perform among individuals belonging to the exploratory stage of career. Individuals in the disengagement stage, despite having adequate knowledge, may have lower expectancy to perform.
Instrumentality, the third dimension of motivation, refers to a linkage between individual’s performance and attainment of rewards. As people progress through career stages, role clarity increases. Over a period of time people are able to determine clearly what they are supposed to do on the job. The hypothesis presumed that the linkage between performance and reward would strengthen as people advance to the next career stage.

Multivariate analysis of variance was employed to assess the overall effects of career stage on the valence, expectancy, and instrumentality constructs. The results highlighted that the respondents in the establishment stage had a valence for higher order needs like pay and promotion as compared to respondents in the maintenance and disengagement stage. They displayed a greater desire to work hard and prove themselves. They were often found to spend more time contacting and servicing customers and preparing for sales call in order to exceed their sales quota. The desire to surpass the performance target and get promotion was strongly exhibited by the respondents belonging to the establishment stage of their career. The hypothesis pertaining to expectancy construct was not supported whereas those related to instrumentality were partially supported. Here the instrumentality estimates were same for both the establishment and the maintenance stage respondents.

An analysis of mid-career stage highlights that the mid level executive experiences certain pressures, which are unique because of the position they occupy in the organization (Kay 1974). The middle management position poses many stress-full demands. The results of the study conducted by Reddy and Ramamurti (1990) showed that those in the age group of forty-one to fifty had more stress than those in the age group of fifty-one to sixty. At this stage of career, individuals either continue their performance, or level off, or begin to deteriorate. Internal strength is one of the most important
characteristics of consistent performers. They are found to influence the external environment through their personality attributes like internal locus of control (Payne, 1988) and high need for achievement (Jex et al. 2001). Their positive attitudes counteract the negative impact of stress. Such mid-career executives (35-45 years of age) experience greater job satisfaction and are found to cope better with group and political pressures. Their experience in the job is a source of strength (Chandraiah et al. 2003).

Alternatively, the middle age employees may also tend to deteriorate in their performance, resulting from loss of both interest and productivity at work (Decenzo 1999). Approach coping strategies (Srivastava and Singh 1987), increased decision making, autonomy and ownership (Cooper 1987) are some of the personal and environmental factors that could help mid-career employees deal effectively with stress.

Maintenance is another possible outcome of the mid-career stage. Plateaued mid-career employees can be very productive. Though they are not as ambitious and aggressive as the “climbers”, they are still competent to progress in their career. They are able to contribute sufficient amount of time and energy to the organization. They are also able to manage both work demands and family demands as a result stress caused due to inter role distance is minimum for plateaued members of mid career stage. The organizations need to reenergize such individuals. They need to boost their morale and productivity. This could be done by providing sensitivity training exercises, getting feedback and identifying discrepancies if any for suitable actions (Decenzo 1999).

The decline or late stage is probably the last rung of the career ladder. For those who had witnessed continued success in career, it is hard to face the reality of retirement. The late career individuals relatively have little
interaction with their younger colleagues and are excluded from the informal discussions. Despite the decision as to when to retire is a personal one, many individuals in this stage of their career dread retirement. They suffer from depression and feelings of resentment. At this point of time they relinquish a major component of their identity (Linda et al 2000).

A study by Gupta et al (1987) determined the nature and magnitude of increase in organizational role stress as a function of service length. A sample of two hundred executives provided data for the study. These executives were divided into three categories on the basis of their length of service, those having service of five and below five years, those in between five years to ten years and those above ten years. Inter-role distance and role overload were found to be higher in executives with long length of service than in those with short tenure.

In another study, Sehgal (1997) attempted to assess the effect of role stress on job involvement of employees. The sample consisted of two hundred and twenty two junior level, middle level and senior level executives belonging to a large public sector organization. The hypothesis sought to test if the nature of role stressors experienced differs across the three levels of executives. Senior level executives scored higher on total role stress as compared to junior and middle levels. It was found that role erosion, resource inadequacy and inter-role distance were dominant contributors of role stress for the total sample. Junior level executives experienced relatively higher role isolation and self-role distance. Middle level executives reported higher role stagnation. Senior level executives experienced more role expectations conflict.

From the above discussions it can be concluded that educational workshops and counseling sessions would help the late career individuals to cope better with the feelings of retirement. Opportunities for a second career
may be offered to achievement oriented individuals as a post-retirement service. Back (1969) had suggested that retirement should be looked upon by individuals as a change to new status; in order to get the feel of accomplished transition.

2.4 CONCLUSION

The findings of the above research studies show that stress affects outcomes such as commitment and satisfaction. It further indicates that the moderators affect the relationship between stress and the outcomes. From the above discussion, it is also evidenced that stress arises at all stages of a career and that individual’s perception of stress in different stages of career differs significantly. This suggests that the nature and magnitude of stress experienced across the different career stages may differ. These varying experiences of stress may also cause moderators to affect the relationship between stress and the outcomes differently in each of the three career stages.