CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
Many job as well as personal factors influence individuals perception of their job as stressful or otherwise and their coping behaviour too. Psychological literature is replete with studies conducted in India and other parts of the world in this regard. A review of cognate literature would appraise us with the present status of research and pointout the lacunae in the field. Examination of studies in the literature indicated job involvement, job satisfaction, perceptions of organizational climate and locus of control as key factors related to occupational stress and coping behaviour. Therefore, a modest attempt is made in the following pages to present some of the available studies related to variables chosen for the present investigation.

Job Involvement:

Job involvement is psychological identification of individuals with their job (Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977) or the degree to which the work situation is central to the person or his identity (Lawler and Hall, 1970). It results from the fulfilment of an individual's self-esteem and self-actualization needs (Vroom, 1964).

Job involvement is considered to be one of the indices of the quality of work life (Cherns and Davis, 1975; Taylor,
1975) and in recent years there has been an increasing interest in researching the impact of the design of jobs in organizations on employees affective reactions. The idea of viewing job involvement as a performance self-esteem contingency can be traced back to the work of Allport (1947) on the psychology of participation and ego-involvement. The process of ego-involvement in work has been a concern of both psychologists such as Allport (1947) and sociologists such as Hughes (1958) and Dubin (1958). The psychologists have tended to focus on organizational conditions that lead to job involvement. The sociologists have been more concerned with the aspects of the socialization process that lead to the incorporation on the person of work relevant norms and values (Kanungo, 1979).

Many attempts have been made to define the term job involvement. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) defined it in two ways. First it refers to the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem, second it also refers to the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image. Combining these two definitions Lodahl and Kejner developed a questionnaire to measure job involvement.

According to Saleh and Hosek (1976) a person is involved (a) when work to him is a central life interest, (b) when he actively participates in his job, (c) when he
perceives performance as central to his self-esteem and (d) when he perceives performance as consistent with his self-concept.

After an exhaustive review of several definitions of job involvement Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) concluded that the definition of job involvement could be grouped into two categories each representing a distinct way of conceptualizing the construct. One category views job involvement as a performance self-esteem contingency. According to this, job involvement is the extent to which the self-esteem of the individuals is affected by their level of performance at work. The higher or lower job involvement means higher or lower self-esteem derived from work behaviour. The other category views job involvement as a component of self-image. According to this job involvement refers to the degree to which individuals identify psychologically with their jobs.

Although many attempts were made to clarify the construct of job involvement (Blau, 1985; Brook, Russell and Price, 1988; Hollenbeck, Connolly and Rabinowitz, 1982; Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977; Saleh and Hosek, 1976), it was primarily the work of Kanungo (1979, 1982a) that provided a new direction. In an attempt to clear up some of the confusions and ambiguities surrounding the concept, he proposed that one should make a clear distinction between job involvement and work involvement. According to Kanungo
(1982b) earlier conceptualization of job involvement failed to distinguish between two different contexts in which individuals could show personal involvement, namely, the work context and the job context. Accordingly job involvement should be viewed as a "generalized cognitive state of psychological identification with the job".

Involvement in a job is more a function of how much the job can satisfy one's salient needs. Likewise, work involvement is viewed as a "generalized cognitive state of psychological identification with work". Involvement with work in general is considered a normative belief about the value of work in one's life and is more a function of one's past cultural conditioning and socialization. Involvement, therefore, in a particular job is somewhat different from an individuals involvement with work in general. Whether an individual is involved in a job is dependent upon the extent to which the job satisfied his or her salient needs, and hence job involvement in this respect is more situationally determined (Kanungo 1982b).

Various variables such as age, education, sex, locus of control, protestant work ethic, higher order needs, marital status and situational variables like participation in decision-making, job characteristics, job level, leader bahaviour, social factors, organizational climate, structure, size and control systems etc., are found to be influencing persons involvement in their job and out put of work (job satisfaction, performance, turnover, absenteeism
success etc). It appears from the review of literature that highly job involved persons have positive job attitudes than the low job involved.

Several researchers reported positive relationships between demographic variables such as age, education, income, and seniority or tenure of service and job involvement (Aldag and Brief, 1975; Cherington, 1977; Koch and Steers, 1978; Jones et al., 1977; Mckelvey and Sekaran, 1977; Newman, 1975; Rabinowitz et al., 1977; Steers, 1975).

There are other studies showing no relationship (Bigones, 1978; Gechman and Wiener, 1975; Ivancevich and McMahon, 1977; Mitchell et al. 1975) and some reporting negative relationship (Lefkowitz, 1974; Taylor and Thompson, 1976) between the two variables.

However, in a cross-cultural analysis, Sekaran and Mowday (1981) found that variation in job involvement was explained by demographic and job characteristics for American subjects than for Indian subjects. They suggested that for Indian subjects religious values and philosophy exerted a greater influence on the work orientation and job involvement. In a study of job involvement through the life course Lorenz and Mortimes (1985) found that job involvement was positively related to age. In initial stages job involvement was not stable, but as the time passes it becomes stable.
Khandelwal and Preetam (1986) indicated a positive correlation between job involvement, age, length of service among managers from four industries. However, Happalı and Mallappa (1988) obtained no significant correlation between job involvement and age, length of service, salary, education, marital status among bank employees.

Das (1983) reported that those who had the experience of 10 to 15 years in the middle management level had significantly lower job involvement than those at the higher and junior levels. There are very few studies in the available literature which explored how employees in different job levels differ in their job involvement.

Sharma and Sharma (1978) investigated the relationships between job involvement and job level, age, length of service, and technical qualifications among 77 engineers using Loden and Kejner scale and found that middle and upper job level engineers reported higher job involvement than those in lower levels. They also suggested that job becomes more important to self-image as individuals age.

Pathak and Pathak (1987) found that among managers, engineers and supervisors, managers and engineers showed high job involvement. They also reported that age, tenure and professional education had positive relationship with job involvement.
Choudhary (1988) studied job involvement among public and private sector managers, supervisors and workers and found significant differences in the level of job involvement of managers, supervisors and workers of the private sector, but no significant differences were observed between the employees from the two sectors.

Contrary to the above Singh (1987) examined the effect of occupational level on job involvement in industrial personnel (100 supervisors and 100 workers) and found that there was no significant difference between job involvement scores of supervisors and those of workers.

Anantharaman and Begum (1982) also administered a job involvement scale to managers, officers and clerks working in banks and found no significant differences among these groups. All the three groups showed high level of job involvement. They explained that there were no differences because the three groups had similar working conditions, salaries and nature of work.

Not many studies appear in the available literature which attempted to study job involvement of employees in different sectors. Kumar (1987) found that public and private sector employees did not differ significantly on job involvement. However, in another study he found that job level is significantly related to job involvement and job
satisfaction. Job involvement was influenced by age, job level and resource inadequacy. Managers were more job involved than engineers and clerical staff. Older employees were experiencing more job involvement than younger employees (Kumar 1991).

In a study of employees in public and private sector industries Basha(1990) found significant differences in the job involvement scores of employees in three job levels. Workers and executives were found to be more involved in job compared to supervisors from both the sectors.

Review of literature shows the evidence several Indian studies indicating significant positive relation between job involvement and anxiety (Anantharaman and Kaliappan, 1982; Srivatsava, 1983), certain personality factors of 16PF (Harigopal, 1980; Agarwala et al., 1979; and Prabhakar, 1979) and motivator variables (Kulkarni, 1976). Studies relating locus of control to job involvement are very few, if any, in the literature.

Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction of the employees is of great significance for efficient functioning of any organization. Satisfied workers are the greatest asset and dissatisfied workers the biggest liability of any organization. In fact, no organization can successfully achieve its goals unless
and until those who constitute the organization are satisfied in their jobs.

Hoppock was the first industrial psychologist to provide the concept 'job satisfaction'. He defined job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say 'I am satisfied with the job'. It has been contended by a number of psychologists that job satisfaction is a global term which includes not only the adjustment made by the worker in his job environment but also the adjustment of the individual in several other areas. (Blum and Naylor 1968, Glimer, 1966 and others)

Locke gave a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. Job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things which are viewed as important.

There are three important dimensions to job satisfaction: First job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred. Second, job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcomes meet or exceed expectations. Third, job satisfaction represents several related attitudes. Thus, Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969) suggested that
Individuals job satisfaction is a feeling or affective response to various facets of the job situation in association with perceived differences between what is expected and what is experienced.

Morse (1953), Herzberg et al. (1957), Tiffin and McCormic (1960) also defined job satisfaction as a summation of employees feelings. It refers to an employee's general attitude towards his job to the extent that a person's job fulfils his dominant needs and is consistent with his expectations and values, the job will be satisfying. A number of characteristics of the job may be relevant to a person's need fulfilment and can therefore influence his job satisfaction. These characteristics include pay, benefits, supervision, working conditions, the nature of work itself, co-workers and company policies (Kenneth and Gar, 1975).

Several authors have generated lists of characteristics considered to be desirable in the attainment of job satisfaction (Hill, 1973; Johnson, 1973; Johnston and Gherard, 1970; Margolis, Kroes and Quinn, 1974; Slawina and Moykin, 1975; Taylor, 1974; Vamplew, 1973) but the original organization from which many contemporary views evolved owes much to the works of Maslow and of Herzberg, despite the fact that their theories were largely developed from the studies of limited levels of society.
Maslow's theoretical model postulated the existence in men of primary and secondary drives arranged in a hierarchy which serve to motivate individuals seeking their gratification (Maslow, 1954).

According to Herzberg (1966) the main factors involved in job satisfaction are advancement, recognition, responsibility, growth and the job itself. These factors, termed "satisfiers" will correlate, if optimised, with improved performance, reduced labour turnover, more tolerant attitudes to management and general "mental health". He also recognised "dissatisfiers" which act in a negative direction. These include such things as working conditions and amenities, administrative policies, relationship with supervisors, technical competence of supervisors, pay, job security and relationship with peers. He argues that if the quality of the "dissatisfiers" is inadequate, dissatisfaction will occur. Improvement in the degraded condition or conditions will remove the dissatisfaction with beneficial effects on morale and perhaps on productivity. Raising the level above the adequacy, however, will not of itself form a basis for the potential fulfilment of the "higher needs", defined by Maslow (1954).

Vroom, as cited by Hunt (1971), adds another dimension to job satisfaction theory. He argues that the choice of a job initially depends upon what he refers to as "first level
outcome", namely, money or direct reward. Behind the first level outcome, perceived by the worker with greater or less clarity are second level outcomes, which may be inherent in the job, such as prestige and power or may be attainable by way of the money provided as a first level outcome. The effort that the worker is willing to expend and the satisfaction that he derives in doing so, are directly related to the strength of the second level goals and the clarity of the perceived relationship between the primary and the secondary goals. Expectancy is a third factor. The higher the expectancy of the secondary goal, as perceived by the worker, the greater is the perceived worth of the primary and hence the satisfaction derived in attaining it.

Fox (1971) defined three fields of concern in job satisfaction, namely, content of the job (i.e., skills), context of the job (i.e., the network of structure and reward within which the worker functions) and the needs of the incumbent. In terms of desirable job content he refers to skills that require qualities of perception, motor coordination, intellect and education and provide opportunity for creative expression and flexibility of responses. The structural context of the job includes the financial rewards, the location of the work, the nature of the work load, and the adequacy of the equipment. More intangible factors are security of tenure, prospects for promotion, justice in promotion and company attitudes, while the company structure itself, its planning policy and
reputations are also significant. In the areas of supervisory and peer relationships competent supervision, co-operation and communication through the hierarchy is important while outside the actual task environment the provision of recreational resources is significant. He defined the needs of the incumbent in personal and social terms akin to the higher order drives of Maslow or the 'satisfiers' of Herzberg, namely, the requirement for recognition of one's own values and the need for creative drive and fulfillment. He recognised that there must be orientation towards a personal goal with however, an awareness of the system of priorities within which one may be permitted to achieve it. The individual must at the same time possess an appropriate level of physical and mental energy to achieve his ends along with the capacity to conform when required and to tolerate stress. For many, there is also a need for social involvement.

The significant individual differences in motivational variable for the prediction of job satisfaction had been emphasized by various researchers. The rationale generally associated with predictions in the need fulfillment model is that job satisfaction is a function of the degree to which needs are met (fulfilled) by the worker's environment.

Harris et al. (1974) explained sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job among white and blue collar workers. It was found that white collar employees were more
likely to derive satisfaction and dissatisfaction from motivator events (especially achievement and failures) and blue collar employees from wage.

McAllister (1977) found that the social esteem, autonomy and self-actualization needs of top executives were appreciably more satisfied than the needs of their middle and lower level counterparts. He also observed little difference in the ordered need arrays for bank, accounting, military and industrial managers.

Yucelt (1982) examined the relationship of absenteeism to job satisfaction and fulfilment of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Among blue collar workers inadequate promotions and insecurity were responsible for high absenteeism. White collar workers reported unfulfilled upper level needs and blue collar workers reported unfulfilled lower level needs.

May (1978) found that the three highest ranking factors for the satisfying job experiences were work itself, achievement and inter-personal relations. The four most important factors for dissatisfaction for the academic personnel were lack of achievement, policy and administration, lack of recognition and personal life.

Little (1978) found that two motivators—achievement and recognition were related to job satisfaction and two hygienes which appeared with statistical significance in
periods of their job dissatisfaction were school policy and administration and interpersonal relations with subordinates and superiors.

Reward is also one of the incentives which can moderate the performance of the employee. If the employee thinks his job is providing all benefits, he will be satisfied with his job. Juorovsky (1976) found significant correlation between the amount of pay and work satisfaction, employment stability, work attitudes, identification with work and general adjustment to work. Pay was found to be the strongest work motivation but it did not fit into the general structure of work motivation.

The nature of work itself has been considered as an important determinant of job satisfaction in a series of studies reported by Sharma (1978, 1979, 1980A and 1980B). Work technology was observed to be one of the three major determinants of job satisfaction. Recruitment policy, union involvement and work technology together accounted for 96 per cent of variation in job satisfaction in a sample of industrial workers. Other than job factors, various personal factors like self-concept, aspirational level, home, social and emotional adjustment were also reported to be related to individual's job satisfaction (Jagadish, 1986; Kalanidhi and Devasenapathy, 1982; Nair and Kulkarni, 1984; Stephan, 1984).
Pestonjee (1980) studied organizational variables in relation to job satisfaction, morale, and found no relation between the two concepts. Ghosh and Shukla (1967) found job satisfaction to be more a function of job conditions than of personal factors. For them job satisfaction had three correlates, i.e., attitude towards supervision and job environment, discriminate social situations and unreasonable work load.

Age effects are developmental in nature and as such they are autogenetic or systematically related to time. There are two causes of age effects such as psychological and biological aging which influence work attitudes and behaviour. Several studies indicated positive relation between age and job satisfaction (Lee and Wilbur, 1985, Srivastava, 1978; Singh and Singh, 1980 and others).

Lee and Wilbur (1985) examined 1707 U.S. Public employees and found that job satisfaction had greater relationship with age indicating that increase in age caused greater satisfaction. Younger subjects were less satisfied with their jobs, mainly with intrinsic factors of the job and older subjects more satisfied with extrinsic needs.

Tandon and Dhawan (1981) examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction among employees engaged in two different occupations, 100 blue collar workers in electrical manufacturing plant and 50 white collar employees
in government departments. The analysis of data revealed that the sources of satisfaction were different for blue and white collar employees for the same age group. Moreover, in both groups the younger and older employees differed significantly on job satisfaction.

Mottaz (1987) studied the relationship between age and overall work satisfaction among 1385 full time workers in different occupations. Results suggested that age had an indirect positive effect on work satisfaction through its relationship to work rewards and values. This was explained in reward-accommodation hypothesis which suggests that in situations in which rewards are not generally available, extrinsic rewards tend a terms of intrinsic overtime, to become increasingly important sources of work satisfaction.

Salayadain (1983) reported a significant curvilinear relationship with age and job satisfaction in a sample of 778 Indian and 620 Nigerian employees. The number of dependents as well as experience were also found to be positively correlated to job satisfaction.

O'Brien and Dowling (1981) opined that the small but positive and significant correlation between age and job satisfaction could result from influences associated with aging or cohort membership or both. Their study on 1383 employees from a metropolitan city showed decreasing discrepancy between desired and perceived job attributes
with increasing age.

Imbach and Steiner (1981) reported that older workers had a lower need for growth and were more satisfied than younger workers. Education of the subjects had a positive relationship with need for growth and the relationship between age and education was less strict for females than for male workers.

Altimus and Tersine (1973) investigated on 63 male blue collar workers using JDI and Porter's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire and found the younger workers to be significantly less satisfied with work itself, esteem, self-actualization and overall work satisfaction than older blue collar workers.

Examination of the relationship between age and employees satisfaction with intrinsic and extrinsic outcomes in 177 female (mean age 36.7 years) and 96 male (mean age =33.3 years) blue collar operators holding organizational experience constant using Minnesota satisfaction Cornell Job Descriptive Index indicated that a linear approximation of the age and job satisfaction relationship is adequate and that only satisfaction with intrinsic outcomes is consistently related to age. These findings suggest that conventional wisdom regarding age-satisfaction relationships require modification.
In addition to the above studies which stated higher job satisfaction among older subjects than the younger, the study conducted by Ganguly (1953) revealed that younger and older workers were more satisfied than the middle aged group.

However, Pratap and Srivastava (1983) investigated job satisfaction among 20-50 years old workers using Ganguli's job satisfaction scale and found no relationship between job satisfaction and age, education, experience and marital status, while job satisfaction was related to wages.

Studies reported significant differences in job satisfaction of employees in different sectors and in different job levels (Lahari and Choudary 1966, Weaver 1974). Bhushan and Jagadish (1983) studied job satisfaction of colliery workers as a function of private and public management and found that overall job satisfaction of workers in the public collieries was significantly higher than those in the private colliery.

Bhushan and Sinha (1987) studied employees in steel industries under public and private management. Employees in public sector expressed significantly higher overall job satisfaction. With regard to fringe benefits and growth private sector employees scored significantly higher than public sector employees. The rank difference on the industrial workers had a significant influence. Executives
scored the highest job satisfaction in comparison with skilled and unskilled blue collar workers.

Grupp et al. (1975) surveyed executives in 10 state government, federal government and private industries. Job satisfaction was assessed by Likert type scale. It was found that the state executives were more satisfied with their jobs than either federal or business executives. The degree of satisfaction did not differ measurably among the sample. The moderating variables among state executives included age, year of state employment, hierarchical level, salary and career speed. The most frequently endorsed variables were job security, opportunity to serve the public and job challenge. The least frequent were political interference, lack of self determination and salary level. Srivastava (1985) examined job satisfaction among 100 employees of public and private sectors and found that subjects from the two sectors differ significantly in the areas of achievement motivation and job satisfaction. Private sector employees scored higher on both measures.

In school settings, private school teachers were found to be more interested in teaching and more satisfied with job than public school teachers (Srivastava, 1982).

Verma and Sinha (1983) examined the levels of job satisfaction of 450 respondents from public and private organizations. An inter-organizational comparison revealed
that high degree of power, prestige, better promotional avenues and opportunities for demonstration of skills and abilities in the private sector led to higher satisfaction among the employees.

Weaver's (1974) investigation of the correlates of job satisfaction indicated a strong positive relationship between job satisfaction and satisfaction with income and job levels. Job satisfaction varied little with level of education but it was found to be higher for professional and skilled blue-collar workers than for unskilled employees.

With university employees (non-supervisory, non-professional or clerical; faculty or professional; supervisory and professional) Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) found that job and life satisfaction were positively related for both males and females regardless of their job level. They also found that job and life satisfaction did not increase with the higher level of jobs. But the findings of Gakhar and Sachdeva (1987) revealed that the subjects job satisfaction increased as their occupational level increased from primary through middle to secondary level teaching. When compared to private school teachers, government school teachers reported greater job satisfaction.

In another study Porwar (1987) reported that job satisfaction did not differ significantly between officers and clerks of nationalized banks. Studying assistants and
lower level management personnel in government and quasi-government agencies, Rajendran (1987) found that within the levels of different organizations, organizational structure had little effect on job satisfaction, but job satisfaction was high for lower level managerial personnel than for assistants. Managers in quasi-government seemed to exercise more control than their government counterparts.

Singh and Srivastava (1975) administered S-D Employees Inventory to supervisors and workers and found that the status of job and job satisfaction were positively correlated and the two occupational groups differed significantly in their level of job satisfaction. The pattern of work satisfaction arising from combinations of the components differed in measurable and appreciable ways for individuals in different types of careers. Similarly, the degree of satisfaction also differed from career to career (Van and Katz, 1976).

Starcevich (1972) examined the job factor importance for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction across different occupational levels, i.e., 155 first line managers, 182 middle managers and 181 professional employees and found that occupational level did not significantly affect the judged order of importance of the job factors for either job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction.
In some studies personality characteristics of the incumbents were also found to be major determinants of their job satisfaction (Blood and Howard 1981; Sah et al, 1989).

Rahim's (1981) study of job satisfaction as a function of personality, job congruence showed that congruence between personality and occupational environment had no influence on job satisfaction. However, personality characteristics such as extroversion, introversion did influence job satisfaction irrespective of the subject's occupation.

Buhmeyer and Hunt (1982) indicated that more satisfied faculty members had lower aspirations. Older faculty members had less aspirations and less satisfaction. It was reported that different occupational groups differed in their level of job satisfaction.

Apart from certain demographic and personal factors job satisfaction was also reported to be related to job involvement (Dreher, 1980; Mukherjee, 1969; Misra and Kalro, 1981; Porat, 1979).

Kanungo, Misra and Dayal (1975) in their study of industrial employees in India proposed that the employees attitudes of job involvement could act as a moderator variable and influence the employees cognitive evaluation of the importance of various job factors. Results indicated
that job involvement of the subjects influenced either actual satisfaction on the job or the strength of the employees various needs.

Santhamani (1983) found no significant difference between the scores of two different organizational employees job involvement. Job involvement increased with increasing level of job satisfaction and a significant difference was reported between high and low job involved persons on hygiene variables.

Although some studies reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement and some other studies indicated that these two were different attitudes (Baltis, 1978; Gannon and Hendrickson, 1973; Porat, 1979; Santhamani, 1983; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; and Verma and Upadhyay, 1986).

According to Gechman and Wiener (1975) satisfaction and involvement should be thought of as separate and distinct job attitudes. They found that among female teachers devoting personal time to work related activities was positively associated with job involvement but unrelated to job satisfaction.

Cumming and Bigelow (1976) explored that for both blue and white collar workers job involvement and job satisfaction were conceptually distinct and empirically
Independent attitudes. Brooke et al. (1988) also found that the measures of job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment were empirically distinct concepts. However, Pathak (1983) reported that there was no strong relationship between job involvement and need satisfaction. His results indicated that subjects were particular about decision making authorities, recognition, and personal growth.

Occupational Stress:

With growing complexities in technological and human domains, occupational stress has become a costly problem for both the organizations and individuals. While the list of causes of work related stress is a long one, stressors are not necessarily 'out there'. Stress involves the operation of several cognitive factors. Perhaps the most central of these is the individual's cognitive appraisal of the situation as potential stressor. Recent evidences suggest that through proper socialization in work setting and work environment, the individual's commitment and self control can be strengthened as two most important potence for resistance to stress (Chatterjee, 1992).

Stress in modern times is an all too common part of every day life, something which few can avoid. To many persons, stress is an experienced state of emotional nature accompanied by high levels of arousal. However, experts on
the subject view it as a response to homeostatic imbalance which may be both physiological and psychological in nature with the predominance of one or the other.

The term stress was used popularly in the 17th century to mean hardship, strain, adversity or affliction. Only during the 18th and 19th centuries did its use evolve to denote force, pressure, strain or strong effort: with reference now also to objects but still primarily to a person or a person's organs or mental powers (Hinkle, 1973). These connotations of an external being resisted by the person/object, which it sought to distort and disrupt were taken up when the term gained currency in engineering and physics and had subsequently been passed on to social scientists.

A seminal influence on the entire area of stress research had been the work of the eminent Canadian scientist Hans Selye (1950, 1974, 1976) who defined stress as the "non-specific response of the body to any demand". Approaching stress from a physiological point of view, Selye and his colleagues conducted extensive investigations over the past 40 years on the widespread non-specific bodily changes that occur as reactions to stressful situations.

Beehr and Newman (1978) define job stress as a condition where the job related factors interact with the workers to change (disrupt or enhance) their psychological
or physiological condition such that the persons (mind and
or body) are forced to deviate from normal functioning.
Stress arises from conditions which may be regarded as
either positive (enhancement) or negative (disruption).

Morgolies, Kroes and Quinn (1974) used Cannon's (1939)
concept of physiological 'homeostasis' in defining
occupational stress as a condition at work interacting with
workers characteristics disrupting their psychological or
physiological homeostasis.

Researches on occupational stress initiated by Kahn and
French since 1959 extended to such subjects as physical and
mental health, role conflict, tension, adjustment in relation
to industries. Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) also
contributed significantly to the development of stress
research. According to these researchers stress refers to a
misfit between the person and his environment, social,
situational characteristics, and concerned with the impact
of organizations and individuals. It is a major cause of
psychological, physiological and behavioural strains.

Several sources of stress have been identified by many
investigators in organizational settings.

Gross (1970) classified sources of occupational stress
into three classes: i.e., stress due to (1) organizational
careers (not losing job career advancement, disengagement,
(2) task routinization of work, and (3) task difficulty and organizational structure.

Landy and Trumbo (1976) issued an intuitive list of stresses in organizations, i.e., job insecurity, excessive competition, hazardous working conditions, task demands, long or unusual working conditions.

Cooper and Marshal (1976) distinguished between extra organizational and intra-organizational sources. The latter consisted of five broad categories of stressors, i.e., factors intrinsic to the job, role in the organization, relationships within the organization, career development and organizational structure and climate. According to Schuler (1980) other than role characteristics, factors such as task characteristics, leader processes, organizational structure, interpersonal conditions and physical qualities also act as sources of stress. In addition to the above House and Rizzo (1972), Rogers and Molnar (1976), Miles and Perreault (1976) also investigated the organizational sources of stress. All these studies tended to support the theoretical perspective of stressors as critical intervening variables in models of organizational behaviour and highlighted the importance of examining organizational characteristics or qualities serving as generators of felt stress.
Many researchers linked working conditions of a particular job to stress and physical or mental health. The frequently researched source in this area is work overload which leads to breakdown (Miller, 1960). French, et al, (1965) differentiated work load in terms of quantitative (too much to work) and qualitative (too difficult to do) overload which represent a category of potential stressors. Examination of qualitative and quantitative work load in a large university revealed that one symptom of stress, low self-esteem, was related to work overload but some difference was observed between two occupational groupings. Qualitative overload was not significantly linked to low self-esteem among the administrators but was significantly correlated for the professors. Environmental conditions and social situations which either overload or underload, were found to be directly associated with individuals need for stimulation (Levi, 1972). Levi, further stated that situations of overload were associated with too much stimulation and situations of underload with too little stimulation. Although qualitative overload may be more stressful (Eden et al., 1977; French and Caplan, 1973; Pincherle, 1972; Wardwelle et al., 1964), it was suggested that underload represents a demand (Terry Berry, 1968), but either way the situation was associated with stress (Cooper and Marshal, 1978; Frankenhaeuser and Gardel, 1976; French, 1974).
An other source of stress researched in this area is working overtime (Breslow and Buell, 1960; Hall and Lawler, 1970; Russek and Zohman, 1958). It was found that work for sixty or more hours per week would result in prolonged emotional strain which in turn might result in cardiac arrest. Similarly, Swent (1979) found that a source of great stress in administrators was the management of activities and time.

In addition to above the sources of stress were those of resource inadequacies with regard to materials, equipment and personnel and inadequate authority (Buck, 1972; Kahn and Quinn, 1970; Kearnes, 1973; Kornhauser, 1965; Nix and Bates, 1962), under utilization of skills, job insecurity, variation in work load and lack of participation (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977), complexity, routinization, interdependence and closeness of supervision (Parasuraman and Alutto, 1981) and technological changes (Kritsisikis et al. 1968) which could act as potential stressors in a role performance.

Role characteristics have been one of the most widely investigated organizational qualities or sources in stress research. Kahn et al. (1964) were one of the earliest to draw attention to organizational stress in general and role stress in particular. Kahn and Quinn (1970) classified role stress into three categories—expectation generated stress which include role conflict and ambiguity; expectation resource discrepancy which include role overload,
responsibility, authority dilemma; and inadequate information.

In the Indian context Pareek (1983) classified role stress under two categories of role space and role set. He identified five main role stresses or conflicts in the role space of individual, viz., self-role distance, inter-role distance and role ambiguity, role overload, role isolation, role erosion and role inadequacy. The role space is said to be the system of various roles an individual occupies and performs. The role set is the system of various roles of which his role is a part.

Several studies in support of Kahn et al. (1964) findings state that role concepts of conflicts and ambiguity and certain organizational variations in job related tension or stress (Decoties and Gryski, 1981; Miles, 1976; Ratsoy et al., 1986; Rogers and Molner, 1976; Savery, 1986), prediction of burnout symptomology (Dignam and associates, 1986) and various psychological and physical effects (Ruben, 1986).

Abdel-Halim (1978) and Van Dijkhuizen and Reiche (1980) state that role conflict, ambiguity and role overload act as sources of stress and dissatisfaction among managerial level personnel. The two role stressors tend to be more aversive for individual with low rather than high levels of job enrichment. Similarly Drory (1981) showed that role ambiguity was more strongly related to job
attitudes in the higher levels. Role conflict was strongly related to job attitudes more for the line supervisor than production planning employees. Ratsoy et al.'s (1986) study supported the findings of the Drory study. They found role conflict and role ambiguity were sources of stress more in district based administrators than in supervisory personnel. Role conflict and role ambiguity were found to be adversely related to a host of work related outcomes (Miles, 1976).

Heald (1977) found the common mid-life events like the following to produce stress:

1. fiscal events that influence career decisions,
2. juniors often moving faster occupationally,
3. shifts in occupation that increase anxiety and guilt,
4. the body's subtle and steady underscoring of human mortality, and
5. automatisation (i.e., newly revised skills and knowledge and demographic changes that increase work insecurities).

According to Cooper and Payne (1978) the source of managerial stress is simply being in the organization and threat to individuals freedom, autonomy and identity. This situation poses problems such as a little or no participation in decision making process, no sense of belonging, lack of effective consultation, poor
communication, restrictions on behaviour and office politics.

Brown (1986) found that burnout among probation officers could be partially attributed to the organizational structure in a traditional beaurocracy. Added to this, studies on different samples like military officers (Rogers, Li and Shani, 1987) and upper middle managers (Rogers, 1977) also showed organizational structure as a potential source of stress.

Physical conditions at work such as existence of pathogenic agents, e.g., poisons and chemicals, noise, space, lack of privacy and poor visibility were also found to be some of the potential sources of organizational stress. Each of these are associated with individuals needs particularly those for minimum biological functioning such as physical safety and interpersonal needs (Manning, 1965; Oldham and Brass, 1979; Rousseau, 1978; Selye, 1976; Sundstrom, 1977).

Theorell (1974) found that a person's relationship with supervisor, lack of support from co-workers and inadequate performance by subordinates can also be sources of stress. Lazarus (1966) was also of the same opinion that stress can be caused not only by the pressure of poor relationship but by its opposite, viz., a lack of adequate social support in different situations.
Schuler (1980) indicated that other than role characteristics factors such as task characteristics, leader processes, organizational structure, interpersonal conditions and physical qualities also act as sources of stress.

Thus, several environmental, economical, political, technological, organizational, individual and job factors were identified as sources of stress.

Job stress has a substantially negative impact on physical as well as psychological health (Antellman and Craggivla, 1977; Goodyear, 1974; Krumbacher and Meyer, 1963; Monat and Lazarus, 1977; Vinokur and Selzer, 1975; Weitzman et al., 1975; and Zegans, 1982) psychological effect; (Grinker and Spiegel, 1945; Hamburg and Degoza, 1953).

Cox (1979) categorization of consequences of stress includes subjective, behavioural, cognitive, psychological and organizational effects.

Relationship between occupational stress and strain which have hypothesized that good support work. Relationship may buffer the effects of job stress on individuals strain (French, 1973; French and Caplan, 1973; Kahn, et al., 1974; Pardine and Peter et al., 1981; Van Dijkhuizen and Reiche, 1980; Kullapur et al., 1988; Parrewe et al., 1990).
Jhas (1988) examined the effect of job stress on strain in 3 work group (production, personnel and data processing) executives and differences in levels of job stress and strain due to occupational level in steel manufacture organization. Regression analysis indicated that job future ambiguity had a significant negative effect on job satisfaction in each group of executives. Role overload and role ambiguity had negative effects on job satisfaction. The pattern of stress and strain were different in three groups, difference due to occupational level indicated that the employees of middle levels had more role ambiguity than those at the high level.

Several studies reported differences in causative factors as well as the experience of stress among incumbents at various levels in different organizations.

Ahmad et al. (1985) studied role stress in male executives from 30 public and 30 private sector organizations using Pareek's Role Stress Scale. Results indicated that private and public sector executives did not differ significantly in their role stress.

Chandraiah (1993) investigated occupational stress, job involvement and job satisfaction among 440 public and private college teachers. Results indicated that private and public college teachers did not differ with regard to
their occupational stress but there were significant age differences among the college teachers in their experience of occupational stress and was found to be decreasing with increasing age.

Desphande (1978), Shah (1978, 1980) and Kumar (1981) provided an indepth analysis of the facilitating and restraining forces that impinge upon senior executives, in terms of management policies, manpower planning, appraisal system, promotions, work-routine, interpersonal relations, lack of coordination and the perception that their abilities remain unutilized, lack of communication, general social political and economic environment, poor interpersonal relationship etc.

Job performance is another consequence related to job related stress (Andrews and Farris, 1972; Anderson, 1976; Allen and Green, 1982; Drabek and Haas, 1960; Hackman and Oldham, 1975; Likert, 1961; 1967; Margolis et al., 1974; Mcgrath, 1976; Mohammed, 1985 and Srivastava and Krishna, 1991). Mild degrees of stress improves performance and more severe degrees lead to impairment of performance, i.e., stress that is higher or lower than this amount results in steadily decreasing performance.

Different sources of stress were found to influence job behaviour differently. Singh and Sinha (1987) investigated how the dimensions of organizational stress influence job
behaviours namely job satisfaction and job performance in work organizations among 250 junior middle level executives from private and public organizations. The results suggested that all the significant contributors to job behaviour had negative impact on the feelings of inequality, lack of leadership support and role ambiguity. Inadequacy of role authority, role overload, and problem of coping changes had negative influence only on job satisfaction, while lack of group cohesiveness and job requirement capability mismatch had a negative relationship with job performance only. Surprisingly role conflict had an impact on neither of the job behaviours.

Owing to aging lot of physical and psychological changes occur in an organism. When the organism becomes less resistant to disease it is not in a position to maintain bodily homeostasis, so that a state of helplessness occurs which may produce stress. Aging is a highly individualized process. Pincherle (1972) in a study of executives in U.K. found that there was evidence of physical stress being linked to age and level of responsibility. The older and more responsible the executives, the greater the probability of the presence of CHD risk factors.

Hunt and Hunt (1974) identified the common chronic ailments of the aged as asthma, bronchities, diabetes, nervous and mental disorders as reactions to stress. They found age trends of increasing problems around the
retirement period and decrease there after and again increase of problems from 61 years which continued till 70 years. All these aging changes were also found to produce stress.

Pearlin and Lieberman (1977) pointed out that younger workers were more likely than olders to experience disruptions in employment excluding, of course age based retirement. Younger people are more often involved in the formulation and dissolution of marriages whereas older persons are more apt to be confronted with illness and mortality. Younger groups reported more conflicts than older ones. Reddy (1990) studied stress and coping styles among older and younger 200 industrial executives of three age groups. Results indicated that there were significant age differences in the scores of stress. The working condition was a chief source of stress in all age groups.

Kobasa (1979) in an occupational setting reported that middle and upper level 40-49 year old executives had comparably high degrees of stressful life events. Medinger and Varghese (1981) explained that cycles of stress and anxiety in middle age may have developmental etiology and may be necessary part of the developmental process in the phase of life. Middle age is often punctuated by recurrent episodes of stress. Findings indicated that the cycles are a function of psycho-social development in mid life with
stress, which is resulting from the need to integrate with an existing cognitive system of beliefs and values. Similarly Rosenberg and Farrell's (1976) review of literature concerning male midlife transition show considerable evidence that the entrance into middle age is associated with stress and to maladaptive patterns of reactions.

Above studies suggest that the observed age related differences would reflect not only natural developmental changes but also the results of differential treatment of people in various age groups in differential conditions in organization.

Job stress was largely found to be negatively related to job involvement (Abdul-Halim, 1978; Brockner, 1988; Edward et al., 1970; Green and Organ, 1973; Gross Ranson and McEachern, 1958; Hammer and Tosi, 1974; Hollingworth et al., 1988; Kaur and Chadha, 1988; Lyons, 1971; Madhu and Harigopal, 1980; Mishra, 1987; Schuler, 1975; Selye, 1956; and Valenzi and Dessler, 1978).

Srivastava and Singh (1983) examined the effect of employee's ego-strength and job involvement in their experience of role stress on a group of supervisors and managerial personnel from a large automobile industry. The results of the study indicated that a high level of ego-strength and job involvement minimized the employees
experience of role stress and ego-strength.

Eisenstat et al. (1984) examined the relationships between the characteristics of the human service work environment, workers attitudes towards their jobs and their reported attitudes and behaviours towards clients. The subjects of the study were 168 workers in human service (Mean age = 32.4 years) in North east US. The tools used were job diagnostic survey, job related tension scale, Maslach burnout inventory. Job enriching characteristics were found to be related to levels of job involvement, job satisfaction and personal accomplishment. Job stressors were found to be clearly associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion but not related to levels of work involvement or accomplishment. Feedback from staff strongly related to subjects job satisfaction. Higher levels of involvement with clients were associated with decreased resistance to the stress of human service work while general job involvement was associated with increased resistance to such stress.

Burke (1976) investigated the relationship between 14 sources of occupational stress and 12 aspects of job satisfaction among full-time professional engineers, industrial accountants or charted accountants. He reported that greater the occupational stress lower the job satisfaction and certain types of occupational stresses primarily associated with enlarged demanding jobs were
positively related to employee job satisfaction.

Srivastava (1987) found that employees' job satisfaction had a markedly buffering effect on the relationship between perceived occupational stress and mental health. He also found that the highly satisfied employees were having positive attitudes towards various aspects of their job and perceived stressful job situations to be not very pressing and undesirable. The positive job attitudes of these employees moderated the adverse effects of perceived job stress on their adjustment and mental health.

Srivastava and Parmar (1977) examined the relationships of role conflict, role ambiguity and role accuracy to job satisfaction among 62 supervisors from textile mills. Results indicated that job satisfaction was negatively related to role stress. However, the magnitude of the relationship depended on the instruments used for measuring satisfaction. According to Howell et al. (1987) role stress is inversely related to job satisfaction. Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) were also of the opinion that role ambiguity and role conflict had highly significant and negative correlation with satisfaction.

Hammer and Tosi (1974) found among 61 high level managers that role conflict was negatively related to the amount of reported influence and positively related to the amount of perceived threat and anxiety. There was a
negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction, and role ambiguity was positively related to job threat and anxiety.

Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) applied path analytic procedure to cross-sectional data and found support for a model which hypothesized that two role stresses would have negative effects on job satisfaction, both directly and indirectly, through job tension. Similarly, job tension was presumed to be a direct cause of dissatisfaction.

Examining a sample of professional government employees Keller (1975) reported that role conflict was negatively correlated with the JDI dimensions of satisfaction with supervision, pay and promotion. Role ambiguity was negatively related to the JDI dimension of satisfaction with work itself. In another study Schuler (1975) found that role conflict and ambiguity were negatively related to job satisfaction. The same relation was not found for performance.

Gross, Manson and McEachern (1958) and Kahn (1964) reported a significant negative correlation between perceived role conflict and job satisfaction. Those who suffered more role conflict were found to have lower job satisfaction and high job related tension. The greater the power of authority of people sending the conflicting role messages the more did role conflict produce job dissatisfaction. If
the managers role was at the boundary, i.e., between departments or between the company and out-side, it had high role conflict.

Dubinsky and Skinner (1984) examined the relationship among perceived job characteristics, job satisfaction, motivation, organizational commitment, role perceptions and job performance among retail sales people. Results revealed that task identity, role conflict and role ambiguity had a negative effect on job satisfaction. Role ambiguity had a negative effect on work motivation and job performance. Overall job satisfaction and autonomy had a positive effect on organizational commitment and job performance respectively.

Job stress was also found to have a significant inverse relationship with job satisfaction across different job levels.

Abdel-Halim (1987) studied the interaction effects of role conflict, ambiguity and overload and job design characteristics on employee satisfaction with work across different organizations—manufacturing and banking (N=89 and 81 managerial and non managerial personnel respectively). Role conflict, ambiguity and overload were found to be associated with lower work satisfaction for individuals on simple low scope job in long linked (manufacturing) technology and for individuals on complex high scope jobs in
mediating (science) technology. And those on complex jobs in long linked technology or on simple jobs in mediating technology seemed to be unaffected by the levels of role variables. Similar results were obtained by Abdul-Halim (1978), Beehr (1976), Keller et al., (1976), Miles and Pereault (1976), Tosi (1971).

Among Indian workers Harigopal (1979), Narayanan and Venkatachalam (1979) found organizational stress and motivation to be negatively related. While studying different dimensions of stress, Pestonjee and Singh (1982) reported that role stress was negatively associated with all dimensions of job satisfaction except for social relations aspect of job satisfaction. Self role distance, inter-role distance, role ambiguity, role stagnation and role inadequacy, were negatively related to job satisfaction except for social relations aspect of job satisfaction.

McGeegall et al. (1987) found that among high and low stressed subjects high stressed employees reported greater job satisfaction and perceived their jobs as more challenging, interesting, useful and fewer supervisor problems and worked with managers whom they perceived to be high in referent power.

Drory (1981) examined the relationships between role ambiguity and conflict with job satisfaction, job involvement and performance expectancy among industrial
plant employees. A strong relationship was found between role conflict and job attitudes for line supervisors than for production planning employees. The same trend was found for role ambiguity although the differences were significant only for job involvement.

Mishra (1986) studied the role of strenuous working conditions as a potential moderator of the job satisfaction, job involvement relationship, with the subjects of 400 industrial supervisors in 10-20 years of service. It was found that strenuous working conditions did not have any moderating effect on the job satisfaction-job involvement relationship. Several studies in the literature indicated an inverse relation between the experience of occupational stress and perceptions of organizational climate (Bedian et al., 1981; Misra, 1982, Misra, 1989; O'Driscoll et al., 1988).

Revicki et al. (1989) examined the organizational characteristics, occupational stress and mental health among 232 nurses aged 21-62 years working in rural community. Organizational climate, supervisor behaviour and working relations were found to directly influence role perception. Increased role ambiguity led to decreased job satisfaction and increased perceived stress.

Personality is a more or less stable set of characteristics and traits that account for how people respond to various situations. At work, personality...
influences: 1. how individuals are likely to perceive situations and stressors and 2. how they will react to these environmental stressors. There are some studies in literature illustrating how personality influences perceptions of and reactions to stress (Hendrix and Michael, 1986; Srivastava, 1989; Vizekiovicvalste, 1984).

Laster (1982) hypothesized that police officers who had belief in external locus of control would experience more stress as a result of their work than would officers who believed in internal locus of control, since the former would be more likely to blame others for their psychological state and so be less likely to take steps to reduce the stress. 73 state and municipal police officers (mean age 35.3 year) completed Rotter's I-E scale, an assessment of subjective level of stress and a questionnaire on sources of stress. Results confirmed the hypothesis. Subjects who believed in external locus of control were more likely than other subjects to report that aspects of their job were stressful.

Jenner (1988) explored the influence of externality on both organizational and relational stress and tested for an effect produced by the interaction of stress in a
relationship and belief in powerful others on a sample of 142 employees. External locus of control, specifically strength of belief in powerful others was found to be related to work stress but not stress in primary relationships. Newman and Buehr (1979) investigated the relationship between role stress measures (ambiguity, conflict and overload) and psychological strain among 79 male and female (mean age = 37 years) middle managers in a large public organization. Role stress was associated with low job satisfaction and high tension level at work but these relationships were moderated by personality characteristics. Subjects with type A personality showed stronger relationship than those with type B.

Coping Styles:

Coping is a form of problem solving or a synonym for adjustment. The word coping is derived from the word 'cope', whose roots come from the ancient Greek word 'Kolaphos' meaning 'to strike'. This early meaning come to mean 'to meet', 'to encounter' or 'to strike against'. In contemporary times, the early meanings have evolved new definitions that imply its early roots but that embody yet new connotations. Reviewing several definitions of the term in various behavioural science publications, Marsella and Dash-Scheuer (1985) stated that as a group, these definitions were characterized by several key elements
experience. As problems, emotions and perception change over a difficult situation course the illusions may be modified or restructured and the meaning of the situation may change. Once a satisfactory illusion or set of illusions is formed, it imparts a sense of control over one's past, present and future and provides a foundation for later coping efforts. Coping is generally defined "as the cognitive and behavioural efforts made to master, tolerate or reduce external and internal demands and conflicts among them (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980).

To understand an individual's reaction to a radically changed task environment is the resource base available for responding to the stressful situation. These resources (monetary, physical and plant etc.) have been considered as important intervening variables between the source of stress and a person's reactions to it (Bates, 1963; Dynes, 1970). Besides monetary and physical resources, past experiences with similar stressors may assist the individual in deciding which types of resources and strategies may be most helpful in reducing the stressfulness of the situation (Postman, 1952; Weiner, 1966).

Research and logic indicate that those individuals who have personal resources do not perceive the same amount of stress in the environment as do individuals who do not have personal resources to cope with the situation. Thus among the contenders for the mediating role in stressful life
events and illness symptoms, coping techniques can also be included. This may be because of growing conviction that the way people cope with stress affects their psychological, physical and social well-being (Antonovsky, 1979, Coelho et al., 1974, Cohen and Lazarus, 1979). This damaging effect of improper coping can be traced back to half a century (Cannon, 1939).

Even behavioural scientists have begun to experience this phenomenon. Glass (1977) and Glass et al. (1980) argued that fluctuations in cathcholamines which influence the pathogenesis of coronary heart disease are elicited by a coping style that alternates between intense efforts to control stressful transactions and helplessness when coping efforts fail.

Miller and Dworkin (1977) suggested that individuals who are unable to manage stress psychologically may learn to cope physiologically, that is, by elevating blood pressure so as to produce the sedative like effects that accompany baroreceptor stimulation. These elevations in blood pressure would then continue to occur in stressful situations because they are reinforced by immediate reductions in stress related emotions.

Srivastava (1988) revealed that the use of approach coping strategies to deal with role stress altered the positive relationship between role stress and mental ill-
health whereas the avoidance strategies intensified their relationship.

Hall (1971) examined organizational and individual changes resulting from severe environmental stress and concluded that lack of expected individual coping behaviour might have been associated with high levels of internal strain. Selye (1975) in his concept of General Adaptation Syndrome also emphasized that illness occurs when the adaptive reaction to stress does not function properly.

Folkman and Lazarus (1988) identified that though there is widespread conviction among health care professionals that coping affects emotion but theory and research have emphasized the effects of emotion on coping. Thus they addressed this imbalance by evaluating the extent to which coping mediated emotions during stressful encounters. The results of the study indicated that coping was associated with changes in all four sets of emotions, with some forms of coping associated with increase in positive emotions and other forms associated with increase in negative emotions.

Rosenberg et al. (1987) indicated that depressed subjects reported more avoidance strategies to cope with the stresses while non-depressed subjects were more likely to utilize active coping techniques.
Aldwin and Revenson (1987) revealed the relation between coping strategies and psychological symptoms. Multiple regression analysis showed directionality in the relation between coping and psychological symptoms. Subjects who were in poor mental health and under greater stress used less adaptive coping strategies such as escapism. But coping efforts still affected the mind independent of prior symptom levels and degree of stress.

Anderson (1976) examined the relationship between stress, coping behaviours and performance among managers. Results showed that perceived stress and organizational performance displayed a curvilinear nearly inverted 'U' relationship. Actual financial loss, a different stress level, did not account for performance differences; problems solving coping behaviour related to an inverted 'U' relationship with perceived stress, while emotion coping behaviour displayed a positive linear relationship.

Newton's (1985) examination of coping behaviour among young professionals indicated that all the three predictor groups (stress-appraisal, individual, and environmental characteristic) were important in relation to the coping behaviour reported. Evidence also emerged suggesting that certain types of coping response were behaviour correlates of particular individual characteristics when others were more likely to be related to differences in the environmental context and to the way in which the stress
incident was appraised. The results questioned the relevance of attempts to derive effective coping techniques that can be applied universally regardless of differences between individuals or environment.

Kahn et al. (1964) employed three types of categorization of coping behaviour, first type of coping responses were aimed at dealing with the objective task situation which involves problem solving behaviours, such as obtaining resources to counter the initial loss, second type of coping behaviour deal with emotional or anxiety reactions to the stimuli. In this another situations they would employ withdrawal, group affiliation, hostility and aggression. A third type is aimed at problems resulting from earlier coping attempts.

Burke (1971) asked a group of managers how they coped with stress. One of the ways was to talk their problems with others, i.e., seeking help and advice. In another study Burke and Belcourt (1974) indicated that coping methods used by persons in organizational context could be divided into five categories. 1. talking to others, 2. working harder and longer, 3. changing to an engrossing non-work or play activity, 4. analysing the situation and changing the strategy of attack and 5. withdrawing physically from the situation.
Hall (1972) indicated three coping strategies for dealing with inter-role conflict. Type-I coping (structural role redefinition) involves an active attempt to deal directly with role senders and lessen the conflict by mutual agreement on a new set of expectations. Type-II coping (personal role redefinition) entails changing one's attitudes and perceptions of role expectations rather than attempting to change the expectations themselves. Type-III coping (reactive role behaviours) relies strictly on existing role behaviours (i.e., meeting all role senders expectations with no attempt to alter the structural or personal definition of one's roles).

Pearlin and Schooler (1978) identified 17 coping responses and classified them into three major types of coping depending upon the nature of their functions. They were: 1. responses that change the situation out of which stressful experience arises. This is the most direct way to cope with life strains for they are aimed at altering or eliminating the very source of stress. 2. responses that control the meaning of the stressful experience after it occurs but before the emergence of stress which includes such mechanisms as positive comparisons, selective ignoring, etc., 3. responses that function more for the control of stress itself after it has emerged. These coping functions are more to manage the stress than for its mitigation. Such coping mechanisms essentially help people to adjust to existing stress without being overwhelmed by it.
types of coping mechanisms include such as that potentially function in this manner, try to not worry because time itself will solve the problems, accept hardship because it is meant to avoid confrontation, just relax, etc. These types of themes suggest that out of the beliefs and values in the culture people are able to create a strategy for managing suffering, a strategy that can convert the endurance of unavoidable hardships into a moral virtue.

Folkman and Lazarus (1980) indicated two types of coping functions such as: 1. the management or alteration of the person's environment relationship that is the source of stress (problem focussed coping) and 2. the regulation of stressful emotions (emotion focussed coping). These functions of coping were also recognized by George, (1974), Mechanic, (1962), Murphy, (1974), Murphy and Moriarty, (1976), White, (1974). Menaghan and Merves (1984) identified four coping factors: 1. direct action to resolve problems, 2. optimistic comparisons of one's situation relative to the past and relative to one's peers, 3. selective unattention to unpleasant aspects and heightened attention to positive features of the situation, and 4. a conscious restriction of expectations for work satisfaction and a focus on the monetary rewards from employment. Except for direct action the rest three coping efforts were largely interpretive strategies rather than direct efforts of optimistic comparisons, selective ignoring and restricted expectations were aimed at modifying problem perception, each by
selectively emphasizing some aspects of one's experience more than others.

Billings and Moos (1982) organized the dimensions of coping procedures into three domains according to their primary focus on appraising or reappraising a situation dealing with the reality of the situation and handling the emotions aroused by the situation.

Appraisal focused coping: It involves attempts to define the meaning of a situation and includes such strategies as logical analysis, cognitive redefinition and cognitive avoidance.

Logical Analysis: Strategies in this category include trying to identify the cause of the problem, paying attention to one aspect of the situation at a time, drawing on relevant past experiences and mentally rehearsing possible actions and their consequences.

Cognitive Redefinition: This category includes cognitive strategies by which an individual accepts the reality of the situation but restructures it to find something favourable. Such strategies involve reminding oneself that thinking could be worse thinking of oneself as well off as with respect to other people, concentrating as something good that might develop from the situation and altering values and priorities in line with changing reality.
Cognitive Avoidance: Included here are such strategies as denying fear or anxiety under stress, trying to forget the whole situation, refusing to believe the problem really exists, and engaging in wishful fantasies instead of thinking realistically about the problem.

Problem Focussed Coping: Seeking Information or Advice: Responses in this category involve seeking more information about the situation, obtaining direction and guidance from an authority, talking with one's spouse, other relatives, or friends about the problem and asking some-one to provide a specific kind of help, such as lending money etc.

Take Problem Solving Action: These strategies include making alternative plans, taking specific action to deal directly with the situation, learning new skills directed at the problem and negotiating and compromising to try to resolve the issue.

Develop Alternative Rewards: This strategy involves attempts to deal with the problematic situation by changing one's activities and creating new sources of satisfaction. Examples are building alternative social relationships, developing greater autonomy and independence, and engaging in substitute pursuits such as doing volunteer work or studying philosophy or religion.
Emotion Focused Coping:

Affective Regulation: These strategies involve direct efforts to control the emotion aroused by consciously postponing paying attention to an impulse (suppression) experiencing and working through one's feeling, trying not to be bothered by conflicting feelings, maintaining a sense of pride and keeping a stiff upper lip, and tolerating ambiguity by withholding immediate action.

Resigned Acceptance: This category includes such responses as waiting for time to remedy the problem, expecting the worst, accepting the situation as it is, deciding that nothing can be done to change things and submitting to fate.

Emotion Discharge: Included here are verbal expressions to let off steam, crying, smoking, overeating and engaging in impulsive acting out. These responses may involve a failure of affective regulation, and can be categorized separately in order to distinguish persons who alternate between emotional control and emotional discharge.

Not many original studies are available in the Indian psychological literature on stress and coping. Udipareek (1976) used the term coping to denote the way of dealing with stress. He proposed two types of coping strategies. The passive or avoidance strategies are called dysfunctional
styles of coping. In this the person accepts or denies the experience of stress or puts the blame on one self or others. The other are active approaches and termed as functional styles of coping. In this the person face the realities of stress consciously and takes some action to solve the problem.

Singh and Pandey (1985) explored coping styles used to face problematic conditions related to economic, family, personal and social aspects of life in male university students. Results revealed that use of coping dimensions varied with the nature of the problems which an individual faced. Five conceptual dimensions of coping were arrived at appraisal focussed, emotion focussed, problem focussed, secondary coping and collective coping. The patterns of coping and defenses in relation to well-being were examined by Caplan, Naidu and Tripathi (1984) among undergraduate students facing the stress of annual examinations. Results show that coping was generally and positively correlated with positive affects (such as satisfaction), whereas, defense was primarily and positively correlated with somatic complaints and negative effects.

Personal strategies aimed at changing one's psychological characteristics or conditions include mediatation (Frew, 1974; Gavin, 1977; Kuna, 1975; Kory, 1976; McLean, 1974; Oates, 1971), and psychological withdrawal (Echoes Bucks, 1972; Hall and Mansfield, 1971;

Holdorf's (1976) study on coping to organizational role conflict indicated that individuals would tend to cope mostly through the use of complaint behaviour. Beehr and Gupta (1979) found role stress especially conflict and ambiguity related to withdrawal strategies.

Pearlin and Schooler (1978) felt that coping to work situation was more effective, which involved the manipulation of goals and values in a way which would psychologically increase the distance of the individual from the problem increasing with drawal behaviour.

Folkman and Lazarus's (1980) study analyzed the ways in which community residing men and women aged 45-65 years coped with the stressful events of daily living during one year. The study indicated that people in work contexts favoured problem focussed coping.

Parasuraman and Hansen (1987), measured the effects of coping behaviours on nurses to work generated stressors and found that adaptive coping, reflecting problem solving behaviours was found to moderate the relationships of work overload and resource adequacy with felt stress. The stressors of resources inadequacy and assignment changes with organizational commitment, maladaptive coping,
representing emotional self-protective behaviours, had significant main effects on the outcome measures and was associated with increased felt stress as well as decreased job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Etzion and Pines (1986) found significant cultural differences in burnout and coping mechanism among human service professionals in U.S. and Isreal and the pattern of correlation between coping and burnout, suggested that active direct strategies were most effective.

Madhu and Preetam's (1988) study on 120 engineering executives attempted to ascertain the relationship between the stress experienced by them and the coping strategies used to deal with this stress. The results indicated that individuals experiencing high role stress used more avoidance strategies than using approach strategies. Conversely individuals experiencing low stress used approach strategies to a higher degree. The results further made apparent the fact that in a work environment too high degrees of role stress resulted in punitive or avoidance coping strategies. Sen (1981) and Surti (1982) also indicated avoidance as a form of working coping under conditions of high stress.

Dhillon and Geeta (1987) examined the coping strategies of managers of public and private organizations and stated that avoidance mode of coping and approach strategies were
used equally. But private sector managers employed the extrapersistive style of coping, viz., expectation that solution would come from some one else, probably the boss, more than the public sector managers. The results of the study showed that factors like type of organization, the manager working with affected the causes of stress and the strategies employed to cope with occupational stress.

Srivastava and Singh’s (1988) study on modifying effects of approach and avoidance coping strategies and mental health among 300 industrial supervisors showed significant positive relationship between role stress and mental health. The approach coping group reported more role stress but scored lower on the measure of mental ill health in comparison with the avoidance coping group, suggesting that approach coping behaviour intensified the harmful effects of role stress on mental health.

Havilovic et al. (1991) examined the relationship between the common work stressors of role conflict and role ambiguity with the coping strategies among mid-west managers. Five coping factors were identified. Positive thinking, direct action, help seeking, avoidance/resignation and alcohol use. Subjects experiencing role conflict reported higher alcohol intake while subjects encountering role ambiguity tended to use less direct action coping. Positive thinking was a coping activity used more often by those exhibiting type A characteristic as well as those with
greater job tenure used fewer help-seeking activities and increased avoidance/resignation coping.

According to Lee et al. (1984) ageing is a highly individualized and variable process. Their new view of oldage coping is defined as a healthy and positive process characteristic of development at later ages. Coping is regarded as a critical strategy that allows the older population to appraise their situation, assess needed skills and face critical and radically distinct life tasks. They further stated that the traits of defensiveness and rigidity, which were regarded as characteristics of the aged were inappropriate.

Pfeiffer (1977) in the Handbook of Psychology of Aging says that while some older persons continue to use the entire range of adaptive mechanisms others may return to the use of more primitive defence mechanisms.

Gutmann (1970) identified three types of ego-master styles active mastery, passive mastery and magical mastery, which is based on distortion and denial, a "wishing away" of real life problems and found that subjects in aged group used the magical mastery more than the other two younger groups.

Irion and Blanchard-Fields (1987) showed that patterns of coping varied across age groups, with adolescents and
younger adults endorsing more defensive mechanisms such as escape-avoidance, hostile reactions and self-blame. Instrumental strategies were used more in challenging situations whereas palliative strategies were endorsed in threatening situations across all age groups. Findings further support that adaptive coping processes characterize later adulthood.

Keyes et al. (1987) compared the responses of middle aged and older adults to a single stressful event and in a correlational analysis showed a relationship between aged coping, depression and behavioural dysfunction. The results indicated that the older colostomy patients, who participated in this study used less active behavioural coping than younger subjects. Added to this they also observed that regardless of age, subjects who used more emotion discharge and more avoidance coping strategies had higher levels of depression and sickness related dysfunction. These theorists point to a return to earlier and less effective ways of coping with increased age. This position can be called the "regression hypothesis".

Labouvie Vieuf et al. (1987) examined the developmental variation in coping and defense strategies among 100 male and female aged from 10-77 years. Results indicated that age could predict the use of coping mechanism. Also they suggested that in addition to age, the developmental measures of ego level, sources of stress and sex could
predict the use of particular coping and defense strategies.

Cappeliez and Blanchet (1986) suggested that coping strategies used by elderly (age 54-70 years) do not fundamentally differ from the one's advocated by younger individuals in that they favoured strategies involving goal oriented action. But the subjects who reported the most depressive feelings differed from the other 2 points, viz., they less frequently relied on the strategy of problem solving, and they considered general activity as less useful in their struggle against depressive feelings.

Fettan and Revenson (1987) examined the correlation between age and sex in coping strategies among middle aged and other chronically ill adults. Coping strategies included cognitive restructuring, emotional expression, wishful fantasy, self-blame, information seeking and threat minimization. Older adults were less likely to use emotional expression or information seeking than were middle aged adults in their efforts to coping with illness. These strategies were related to age even when numerous illness characteristics were used to control variables. Interaction effects showed that older adults who perceived their illness as highly serious were less likely than were others to cope by simply minimizing the illness threat. Consideration of related research studies suggested that the age differences in emotional expression may be due to age related shifts in the types of stress experienced whereas
the age differences in information-seeking may be more strongly linked to cohort phenomena.

Thus the foregoing research evidence supports a view that ways of coping have a developmental sequence. However, there are few studies which do not find any relationship between the two variables. Billings and Moos (1981), Reddy (1988) found that age was unrelated to any particular method of coping. Folkman and Lazarus (1980) also studied 100 middle aged (45-64 years) and found no relation between age and scores on problem or emotion focussed coping.

McCrae (1982) in two cross-sectional studies tried to assess the influence of age on the use of 28 coping mechanisms and found that the older people in this sample coped in much the same way as younger people and that where they employed different mechanisms, it appeared to be largely because of the different types of stress they were facing. However, middle aged and older persons were consistently less inclined than younger persons to rely on hostile reactions and escapist fantasies regardless of type of stress.

Reddy (1990) investigated stress and coping styles among older and younger executives and found significant differences in the frequency of coping styles used among the age groups. In general problem focussed coping was used more irrespective of age groups, followed by appraisal
focused coping. He also found an association between the sources of stress and the coping styles used.

Naidu (1990) study of stress and coping in clinical and non-clinical groups showed that personality factors contributed significantly to the perception of stress and coping ability of an individual.

Western literature on coping is extensive. They viewed that coping as primarily a direct action emanating from a conscious personal decision. According to Lee and Newton (1981) culture is represented both externally and internally in our values, beliefs, attitudes, cognitive styles, epistemologies and consciousness levels. Both the external and the internal representations of culture reflect its active dynamic nature and the functional role that it plays in human behaviour. It is a force that can facilitate and promote human survival and evolution.

Several studies in the literature focussed their attention to the relationship between individuals coping styles and their personality characteristics (Coyne Aldwin and Lazarus, 1981; Green Glas, 1988; Glasses, 1977; Geringer and Stern, 1986; Kirmeyer and Dimmond, 1985; Vingerhoets 1984).

McCrae and Costa (1986), in their study of 406 community dwelling adults tested the influence of
personality and coping responses, the perceived effectiveness of coping mechanisms and the effects of coping and personality on well-being. The personality dimensions of neuroticism, extroversion and openness to experience were related to coping mechanisms. Subjects who used more effective ways of coping generally reported higher subsequent happiness and life satisfaction, although this association was reduced when personality measures were partialled out.

Longbonita (1988) explored the coping strategies of 20 professional women in response to work related stress and the implications of these strategies for counseling and personnel management. Subjects coping strategies, emotional behavioural responses, job related outcomes, career progress and other personality factors were examined. Subjects seemed to be effective copers whose emotional response to work related stress not only included anger and frustration but also feelings of success and satisfaction. Subjects who believed they had influence over events that happened at work and regarded changes in their jobs as normal one's that would lead to growth. They also tended to use problem focused coping (seeking information) or advice or taking problems solving action.
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE

Organizations are social systems, a combination of science, human technology and humanity. Organizations differ with each other in their characteristics or internal environment. The internal environment of organizations may be termed as organizational climate. According to Campbell et al. (1970) it is a set of relatively enduring characteristics that describe an organization, distinguishing it from other organizations and influencing the behaviour of people in it.

Defining organizational climate Litwin and Stringer (1968) stated it as the perceived, subjective effect of the formal system, the informal 'style' of managers and other important environmental factors on the attitudes, beliefs, values and motivation of people who work in a particular organization. According to this definition, organizational climate may be regarded as the "personality" of an organization as perceived by its employees. The totality of personality of individuals working in the organization has an impact on it and also the climate that emerges within an organization represents a major determinant of employees' behaviour. Thus the organizational climate has a significant effect on organization behaviour.
Georgopoulous (1965) suggests that the organization is best regarded as a specialized group situation and that climate is determined by the normative behavioural standards and attitude which direct activity within the organization and on the basis of which the individual may interpret the situation. Meyer (1967) emphasizes management style and the policies and operating conditions of the organization in the organizational climate.

Gilmer (1971) considering different aspects of climate offered the definition that it is those characteristics that distinguish the organization from other organizations and that influence the behaviour of the people in the organization.

According to Schneider and Hall (1972) climate perceptions emerge as a result of the person's numerous activities, interactions, feelings and other daily experiences in the organization. They also suggest that perceived climate may be related to a number of outcome variables such as individual job satisfaction, involvement and performance.

Thus organizational climate has been viewed as a product of leadership practices, communication patterns, enduring and systematic characteristics of the working relationship among persons and division of any particular
organizations. However, Baumgartel (1971) opines that there is much less agreement as to what exactly is meant by the term. Descriptions of climate vary from such purely objective organizational factors as structure, policies and rules, to such subjective perceived attributes as warmth and support. For Litwin and Stringer (1968) it is a set of cluster of expectancies and incentives that represents a property of environment perceived directly or indirectly by the individuals in the environment. It is a molar construct which:

(i) Permits analysis of the determinants of motivated behaviour in actual, complex, social situations.

(ii) Simplifies the problems of measurement of situational determinants by allowing individuals in the situation to think in terms of bigger, more integrated chunks of their experience, and

(iii) makes possible the characterization of the total situational influence of various environments, so that they may be mapped and categorized.

Davis (1977) presents an organizational behaviour system through which the climate of each organization is achieved. The climate of an organization derives originally from the philosophy and goals of those who join together to create it. Persons bring their own psychological, social
and economic wants, which they express in both individual and group ways. All these different interests come together in a working social system. The philosophy and goals of people are implemented by leadership working through both formal and informal organizations, formal and informal organizations provide the structure to find the institution together into a work team.

Litwin and Stringer, (1968) who are credited to have provided for the first time a systematic framework for study of organizational climate, have identified nine dimensions of climate i.e. structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standard, conflict, identity. Their model of organizational behaviour illustrates the concept of organizational climate as an intervening variable, mediating between organizational system factors and motivational tendencies. The perceptions and subjective responses which comprise the organizational climate are seen as stemming from a variety of factors. Some stem from the patterns of leadership and management practices others are related to the formal system and structure of organization (such as the knowledge of monetary incentive plans or regular promotions). Still others are the result of the behaviour of the coworkers, such as the anticipations and feelings about social support and rewards resulting from the activities, interactions and sentiments that build up in the group.
Later Campbell and others (1970) added many other variables such as achievement, training and development, recognition and feedback, superior - subordinate relationships, decision centralization etc. In the formulation of climate dimensions by Litwin and Stringer(1970) Campbell et al. and Lafollette (1975) noted a special commenting on divergencies feature that these divergencies tend to converge on certain major organizational factors. A general affect towards other people in the organization, a general affect towards management, policy and promotion opportunity, job pressure and standards, openness of upward communication and risk in decision making. Many studies reported positive relation between peoples' perceptions of organizational climate and their job behaviour. Padakis (1982, 1983a, 1983b) studies of organizational climate in textile mills indicated that a good climate may contribute to high organizational performance though quite possibly high performance may also contribute to a good climate.

Sharma and Sunderajan (1983) and Sharma (1983b) studied the impact of organizational climate on employer-employee relationships (the management being deemed as the employer). They observed that organizational climate was significantly correlated with the quality of employer-employee relations.

In a study Singh and Das (1978) examined the impact of organizational climate on the level of commitment to work using 200 male respondents from 3 organizations, with
similar production processes and products. It was concluded that commitment of individuals to the organizations' goals and requirements might be a function of the perceived organizational culture.

Rao (1972) studied the perceptions of managers, supervisors and the workers of industries of organizational climate. The dimensions of organizational climate covered include working conditions, communication, decision making, loyalty, work atmosphere, permissiveness, promotions, handling of complaints, job clarity, favouritism, knowledge of progress in work, job security etc. Analysis revealed intra as well as inter-unit differences in the perception of organizational climate. There were no consistent differences in the perceptions of the managers, supervisors, and workers and the differences shown were dependent on the units. Normality was observed in the perceptions with most of the people perceiving the climate as moderately or fairly favourable. The personal factors such as age, education, professional training and previous experience were not associated with their perceptions. Kumar and Dwivedi (1988) found among 180 middle level managers from 4 private industries and 190 middle level managers from 5 Indian textile industries found that the organizational climate was a significant predictor of acceptance of change.

Sharma and Sharma (1989) examined the relationship of organizational climate with job satisfaction and anxiety in
group of 50 officers and 50 subordinates (clerks and assistants). Organizational climate was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively to job anxiety in both officers and their subordinates. The correlations were strong for subordinates in the leadership and communication dimensions and stronger for officers in the interaction influence, decision making and goal setting dimensions of organizational climate.

Prakash (1987) investigated the relationship of normative expectations, organizational climate and leadership among 300 employees of 4 public sector industries. The sample comprised managers, supervisors and skilled and unskilled workers. Results showed that organizational climate was a predictor of integration and that integration was significantly related to supervisory and peer leadership. Findings suggest that supervisory leadership facilitated integration more than did peer leadership.

Payne and Mansfield (1978) collected 387 respondents from different organizations. It included both chief executives and operatives. The interactions between organizational structure and context (size, age of organization, span of control), positional variables (salary, age etc.), organizational climate and perceptions of others were examined. In general, structure had a somewhat limited influence on individuals perceptions of organizational climate. The view of others in the
organization, particularly colleagues and supervisors had a considerable effect upon an individual's perceptions of climate.

Are there differences in the perceptions of organizational climate of employees from different sectors? Studies pertaining to this question are mentioned below.

Kumar (1986) studied the perceptions of employees in government departments and banks of their organizational climate. The results revealed that significant differences in the perceptions of organizational climate of incumbents from the two sectors. The organizational climate was perceived more democratic by civil servants compared to those in banks.

Balgir (1990) states that perception of organizational climate differ from sector to sector. The private sector provides challenging work, due recognition for good work done, opportunity for growth and learning, freedom to act and congenial working conditions. While in general the public sector departmental undertaking offers high job security, moderate chances of promotion, growth and development.

Rajendran (1987) studied job satisfaction, job involvement and perceived organizational climate among the assistants and lower managerial personnel of government
organizations. Results indicated that organizational structure had little effect on job satisfaction, levels of the two different organization types. But job satisfaction was found to be higher for lower level management than for assistants and that managers in quasi-government organizations exercised more control than their government counterparts.

Srivastava (1987) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate among 100 junior and middle level managers of central government departments. Findings indicated that junior and middle level officers' perception of job satisfaction and organizational climate were significantly correlated and that the two management levels did not differ in their perceptions. They exhibited neutral feelings about their jobs and about organizational climate.

Churchill et al. (1976) examined the organizational climate and job satisfaction among 479 industrial salesmen from 10 companies and concluded that organizational climate was an important determinant of salesforce morale. The highly autonomous and non-routine nature of the sales job differentiated it from most other non-managerial positions in a firm and the nature of the relationship between a salesman and his role partner and organizational supervisors, customer, family members and others also had an effect on high job satisfaction.
Pratap and Srivastava (1985) compared public and private sector textile industries in terms of job satisfaction and organizational climate. Results indicated that there were significant differences between public and private sector employees in terms of job satisfaction and organizational climate.

The inter-relationships of the concepts of organizational climate and job satisfaction were studied in various organizational settings. Ganguly (1964), Indirsan (1973), Srivastava and Pratap (1982), Pritchard and Karasick (1973), Sharma (1985), Krishna and Krishna 1984, Kumar and Bolisa (1979) studied job satisfaction of workers and their perception of the existing organizational climate in private sector. The perceived organizational climate tended to significantly affect the job satisfaction of the workers. The workers who perceived the existing organizational climate as democratic were found to be higher on overall job satisfaction than the workers perceiving the same climate as autocratic or undecided.

Friedlander and Margnies (1969) in a study of 95 employees from a research and development organization indicated that maximal satisfaction with different areas of one's work demands different mixes of climate components, as moderated by the work values of the employees. Satisfaction with task involvement was found to be maximized in climates
high in management thrust, satisfaction with interpersonal relations heightened in climates low in routine burdensome duties. In high work valued groups, satisfaction was heightened in climate high in management thrust and intimacy, and low in burdensome duties, among those with a lesser value on work; satisfaction was maximized by climate high in spirit and low in disengagement.

From the data collected on 284 work groups in 15 different organizations, Taylor and Bower (1972) concluded that organizational climate showed evidence of being more the cause of, than caused by, satisfaction.

A model to explain the relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction was proposed by Lawler, Hall and Oldham (1974). This study was designed to test the view that organizational structure and process were related to organizational climate which in turn was related to organizational performance and employees job satisfaction among 117 directors, 291 scientists. Results showed that organizational process variables were significantly related to the climate of the organization as perceived by the scientists. Perceived climate was in turn related to measured organizational performance and job satisfaction.

Schneider and Snyder (1975) examined the relationship among the measures of job satisfaction, one measure of organizational climate and seven production and turnover
indices of organizational effectiveness in 50 life insurance agencies (N=522). It was found that climate and satisfaction measures were correlated for people in some positions in the agencies but not for others. People agreed more on the climate of their agency than they did on their satisfaction. Neither climate nor satisfaction were strongly correlated with production data, and satisfaction, but not climate, was correlated with turnover data.

James, Hartman, Stebbins and Jones (1977) obtained a significant association between psychological climate and components of violence-instrumentality expectancy model of job satisfaction on a sample of 504 managerial employees.

Muchinsky (1977) studied the relationships among measures of organizational communication, organizational climate, and job satisfaction among 695 employees of a large public utility. The results indicated that certain dimensions of organizational communication were related to both organizational climate and job satisfaction.

While many studies indicated a positive relation between job satisfaction and perceptions of organizational climate Mishra (1982) obtained negative correlation of 0.49 between job satisfaction and organizational climate among a sample 60 supervisors and executives working in a public sector undertaking. Some studies were made reporting the relation between perceptions of organizational climate and
the experiences of stress among the incumbents. O'Driscoll et al. (1988) conducted a 2 phase study on the relationship between organizational climate variables and burnout among 64 personnel in a multifunction community service agencies. The MRA showed that perceived interaction between head office administrators and sections of the agency contributed significantly to emotional exhaustion, where as perceptions of within section interactions and involvement in decision making had a positive impact on personal accomplishment. Findings highlighted the importance of organizational variables and the strategies for burnout reduction and effective stress management in human service organization.

Bedelian et al. (1981) examined the relationship between job related interpersonal and organizational climate factors and experienced role stress among 202 male and female nursing personnel aged 22-59 years. Results showed the impact of organizational level on relationship of role ambiguity and role conflict was significantly related.

Mishra et al. (1989) examined the effects of various personal and organizational variables in producing stress among front line and middle level executives from public and private sector. Both organizational climate and work environment explained 23.08 per cent of variance in mental health. Job satisfaction, work-related values and perceived organizational support explained 31.23 per cent of variance in coping styles. These variables (s) were
negatively correlated with emotion focused coping style in both sectors and (b) had a negative relationship with experience of inequity. Significant differences were obtained between public and private sectors on both personal and organizational variables.

Studies reported that individuals perceptions of their organizational climate were related to their personality disposition (Glimer, 1971; George and Bishop, 1971).

George and Bishop (1971) using Cattell's 16 P.F and Halpin and Croft's OCQ (1963) demonstrated that the type of organizational climate perceived was directly related to the degree of compatibility between the organizational structural characteristics and the individual personality traits of its members. Stern (1970) and others found no relationship between personality and climate. However, Payne and Push (1976) after reviewing several studies concluded that the relationship between climate and personality was far from clear.

Perceptions of organizational climate was found to be related to need satisfaction (Ganesan, 1978; and Pillai, 1978) and level of self actualization (Kumar and Usha, 1978). Ganasen et al., (1981) in another study of university lecturers (25-50 years) found significant relationship between personality orientation and organizational dimensions of confirmity, reward, warmth and support.
Rotter (1966) stressed the importance of locus of control as more or less stable dimension of personality. In tune to her thinking she developed the I-E scale to distinguish people who are internals (I) and people who are externals (E). Since then this is widely accepted and the idea is pervasively used in psychological literature. The internals perceive themselves as responsible for their actions and externals perceive that some external forces like nature, god and others responsible for their actions. The internals feel that they are all powerful, whereas the externals feel that they are pawns in the hands of some unforceen forces.

A large amount of research on locus of control consistently showed that individuals who rate themselves high in externality are less satisfied with their lives, alienated from the work setting, and are less involved in their jobs than internals. Why are externals more dissatisfied? The answer is probably because they perceive themselves as having little control over those organizational outcomes that are important to them. Internals, facing the same situation, attribute organizational outcomes to their own actions. If the situation is unattractive, they believe that they have no one else to blame but themselves. Also the dissatisfied internals is more likely to quit a dissatisfying job.
The impact of locus of control on absenteeism at work is interesting. Internals believe that health is substantially under their own control through proper habits, so they take more responsibility for their health and have better health habits. This leads to lower incidences of sickness and hence, lower absenteeism. According to Robbins (1991) we should not expect any clear relationship between locus of control and turnover. The reason is that they are opposing forces at work. On the one hand, internals tend to take action and thus might be expected to quite job more readily. On the other hand, they tend to be more successful on the job and more satisfied. Empirical evidence indicates that internals generally perform better on their jobs, but that conclusion should be moderated to reflect differences in jobs. Internals search more actively for information before making decision, are more motivated to achieve, and make a greater attempt to control their environment. Externals, however, are more complaint and willing to follow directions. Therefore, internals do well on sophisticated tasks which includes most managerial and professional jobs that require complex information processing and learning. Additionally, internals are more suited to jobs that require initiative and independence of action. In contrast externals would do well on jobs that are well structured and routine and where success depends heavily on complying with the direction of others (Robbins, 1991).
Internal locus of control was found to be one of the major characteristics contributing to the entrepreneurial behaviour (Venkatapathy, 1984). Harrison et al. (1984) indicated that internals experienced more satisfaction when they were given choice in their work and externals showed greater satisfaction when they were not given choice.

Gregory (1981) indicated that internals showed better performance than externals in negative outcome conditions, but there was no difference in the performance of externals and internals in positive outcome conditions.

Assigning 16 trials to 24 externals and 24 internals in an assembly task, Ruble (1976) found internals were able to perform better when they were provided an opportunity to participate in planning but externals performed better after providing a plan.

Miller et al. (1982) examined 24 top executives and made it clear that highly internal subjects were able to pursue more market innovation, undertake greater risk and lead the competitor, rather than follow them. Internals viewed the environmental constraints as challenges for innovations.

Indians, in general, are known to be externals with profound faith in fate, luck or some other strong external resources (Graves, 1961). Hence it would be interesting to
note whether results would or would not be confirming with those of the West. Is individual locus of control related to their job involvement? Studies showed positive correlation between internality and job involvement (Chandraiah, 1993, Runyon, 1973).

Examining sex, locus of control, job involvement of a six-country investigation of 372 Americans, 487 Mexican, 716 Japanese, 478 Yugoslav, 575 Turkish and 254 Thai, Reitz and Jewell (1979) explained that internals particularly male subjects were more job involved than externals.

Dailey (1980) studied a sample of 281 'R and D' research leaders from private and public institutions and found that more internally oriented subjects perceived greater job involvement, job satisfaction, job motivation and psychological growth and satisfaction than the individuals who were more externally controlled. However, internals did not perceive the relationship between task characteristics and work attitudes differently than the more externally oriented subjects.

Batlis (1980) examined the moderating influence of locus of control and job involvement on the relation between role conflict, role ambiguity and three individual outcomes (job satisfaction, job related anxiety and propensity to leave the organization). Moderated multiple regression analysis failed to provide evidence of any significant
moderating effects. However, job involvement by itself did not add significantly to the prediction of propensity to leave.

Regarding the differences among individuals in different job levels Reddy and Rahman's (1984) study on 40 managers and 90 workers showed that the subjects did not differ with respect to their locus of control and job involvement but they differed in work involvement, with workers being more involved. It was also found that job involvement and work involvement were not dependent on locus of control and employees locus of control, job involvement and work involvement were independent of their job experience. However, these findings do not support the contention of Spector (1982) and Reitz et al. (1979) as their studies showed that managerial employees were likely to be more internal than the workers and that internals were more job involved than externals. Kimmans and Greenhans (1976) in their study with 193 managers of a large public utility company indicated that internals were more involved and satisfied with their jobs than externals. Also internals perceived more autonomy, feedback and performance reward contingencies on their jobs than did externals.

Job satisfaction, another variable that was found to be related significantly and positively to locus of control. (Lester and Genz, 1978; Singh, 1978).
Mitchell et al. (1975) studied the relationship of locus of control with supervision and work satisfaction, administering questionnaire to 900 employees. Results showed that internals had significantly higher overall job satisfaction than externals. Internally oriented supervisors tended to see rewards, respect and expertise as the more effective way to influence their subordinates but externals tended to see coercion and their formal position as the most effective.

In a study of randomly selected sample of 93 college officials to determine the relationship of locus of control and need achievement to job satisfaction, Hartly (1976) found that job satisfaction of the internals was higher than that of the externals. However, the differences between internals and externals in their need achievement scores were not significant.

To explore the relationship between locus of control and a variety of variables associated, Knoop Robert (1981) divided 1960 teachers into two age groups, 20-35 and 35-60 years. Seven out of 8 variables (education, sex, income, self-esteem, job involvement, job satisfaction and alienation) showed stronger correlations with for older than for younger subjects. Only status was not found to be related to locus of control for either age group.
Majumder et al. (1977) studied 90 practising counsellors and observed that internally oriented subjects associated with higher job morale, greater job satisfaction and more positive attitude toward supervisors.

Richford and Jim (1984) showed internality was positively related to job satisfaction and non-manipulative behaviour. Sharma, Umesh and Choudari (1980) also reported that externality was significantly and negatively correlated with pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and the work itself but not with satisfaction and coworkers. They suggested that subjects who would influence their environment to a greater degree might experience more satisfaction.

Kasperson and Conrad (1982) investigated hospital employees to determine whether perceived job satisfaction was related to their locus of control. While high scoring (external) subjects were relatively less satisfied than were the low scoring (internal) ones, their attitudes towards the hospital, their working conditions and their managers were significantly less positive. It was concluded that the external group might be dissatisfied since they felt that they could not control their lives and project their frustration on the organization and its management.

In a study of locus of control and job satisfaction among engineers in heavy electrical equipment firm Sharma et
al. (1980) found that externality was significantly and negatively correlated with pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and the work itself but not with satisfaction with co-workers. It was suggested that subjects who believed that they could influence their environment to a greater degree perceived their job more satisfying.

Duley (1978) studied the relationship between locus of control, perceived group cohesiveness and satisfaction with co-workers. Results showed that internals were less satisfied with co-workers than were those who scored more on externality. Cohesiveness was significantly related to criterion and subjects designated as externally oriented demonstrated a stronger relationship between perceived cohesiveness and satisfaction with co-workers than their internally oriented counterparts.

Dennis and Charles (1974) in a sample of engineers and scientists found that locus of control was related to both role ambiguity and satisfaction and that locus of control provided a greater independent contribution to satisfaction than did role ambiguity.

Introducing locus of control as a personality attribute, Rubbin (1991) found that when internal and externals confront a similar stressful situation, the internals were likely to believe that they had a significant effect on the results and therefore acted to take control of
events. Externals were more likely to be passive and defensive, rather than doing something to reduce the stress, they acquire. It was concluded that externals who were more likely to feel helpless in stressful situations were also more likely to experience stress.

Shejwal and Palsome (1986) studied the role of locus of control as personality correlate in perception of stress caused by life events among 150 Hindu middle class adults and found that externals experienced low stress than internals. It was indicated that as externals were having faith in God and therefore the results or the outcome might not have bothered them much compared to those with internal locus of control.

Individuals mode of coping to stress may be influenced by their personality characteristics. However, not many studies were available in the documented literature. Age, in addition to individuals personality disposition was found to have moderating effect under stressful situations.

Locus of control is Banchard-Fields and Irian's (1988) study of as moderator between locus of control and coping in adolescents, young adults, middle aged adults and older adults showed that age moderated the relationship between locus of control and coping. Internality was positively related to escape-avoidance, hostile reaction and self-blame for younger individuals and negatively for older
adults. In another study Balchard-Fields and Robinson (1987) also obtained similar results. Sandler, Reese, Spencer and Harpin (1983) and Lefcourt (1983) have explored how locus of control may be used as a moderator variable.

Several studies in the literature explored the relation between locus of control and age and found that as individuals age they show more and more external orientation (Lumpkins, 1986; Chandraiah, 1988; Premchandbabu, 1990).

Dartzbach (1976) investigated moral judgement and perceived locus of control in a cross sectional developmental study of adults aged 25-75 years. Locus of control scores were found to correlate positively with age. The high external scores of the oldest group was attributed to situational changes like retirement and health problems.

The foregoing brief review of available literature shows the evidence of several studies made to identify the sources of stress in industrial settings as well as in human service organizations. Especially in industrial context several personnel and organizational sources were identified. Among personal factors were individuals life satisfaction, motivational level, anxiety and other personality factors and among organizational sources were role overload or underload, role ambiguity, role conflict, strenuous working conditions, poor peer relations etc. Despite the cultural lag between the developed western countries and the
developing Indian setting more or less similar sources of stress were identified. However, surprisingly not many Western studies could be seen involving sector differences as one of the independent variables while the same attained considerable importance in some of the Indian studies. Most of the Indian studies were showing positive role attitudes, less stress and relatively poor performance among the public sector workers compared to their counterparts in private sector. Are the incumbents in cooperative sector organizations differ in some of these job related attitudes from their counterparts in other sectors? Not many Indian or Western studies were found to answer this question.

Differences in job levels and the related experience of stress had been formed part of some of the researches showing glaring differences in job attitudes of the incumbents. Similarly age was also included in some of the studies with most of them showing increasing positive job attitudes with growing age. However, these results could not be taken as conclusive in view of the contradictions to the above which perhaps might be result of differences in samples selected and instruments used to assess the criterion variables.

Several studies in the literature reiteratively emphasized the importance of many factors like job involvement, job satisfaction, perceptions of organizational climate and individuals locus of control to the experience
of job stress. However, studies attempting to explore the experience of stress in relation to these variables among individuals from different sectors, job levels and age groups were very few, if any. While each of these variables was found to be contributing significantly to the dependent variable, occupational stress, a study attempting to explore the combined effect of variables attains great importance in the developing Indian context. Similarly, although many studies identified the importance of job involvement and job satisfaction to the welfare of incumbents and as well as to that of the organization, studies conducted on the parameters selected for the present study were very few, if any.

Positive perceptions of incumbents of their organizational climate had been identified by many studies as having buffering effect on their experiences of increasing job stress and decreasing job involvement, job satisfaction. However, studies either Indian or Western on these lines involving incumbents from the three sectors and different job levels and age groups were sparse and non-conclusive, if any.

Review of literature shows a large number of studies made in the recent decades emphasizing the importance of positive coping to stress. Each culture would exert its unique control over its members and reward or reinforce culture approved coping strategies only. Therefore
differences in coping strategies may be expected among individuals in different cultures. However, there is a dearth of cross cultural studies made in this regard. Examination of Indian studies showed coping behaviour similar to that reported in Western studies perhaps owing to the similarities in the samples in certain characteristic like age, education, job experience etc. Not many studies in the literature attempted to study coping behaviour of executives, supervisors and workers from different sectors and age groups. Age effects on coping behaviour reported by some studies were not conclusive. Thus a need had been identified to make a study in these lines.

Regarding the contribution of personality factors to job involvement, job satisfaction, job stress, perceptions of organizational climate and coping behaviour, the available studies were not conclusive. Many studies identified factors like anxiety, type A behaviour etc., in influencing the selected variables. Internal-External dimensions of personality did not find place in many of the Western studies while the same was included in some of the Indian studies related to the field of present study. Especially, the studies relating locus of control to coping behaviour and perceptions of organizational climate were very limited in the literature. A brief review of related literature thus point out some of the lacunae in the literature when specific information relevant to the Indian cultural context were sought. Therefore, in this context the present study was envisaged.
CHAPTER-3

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES