2.1 STRESS

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2.4 STRESS, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND TABP: THEORY AND RESEARCH
2.1 STRESS :-

The present section presents a review of literature in relation to employed and non-employed women and stress. This section contains two parts dealing with the relevant theory and research separately.

2.1.1 STRESS : THEORY :-

The concept of stress was defined differently by almost every scientist. The concept stress and strain are used generally as common words in daily life without having any scientific base. The scientific literature reveals that studies on stress can be easily classified into three groups representing the main approaches to the problem of its definition :

1) Stress as a response - as dependant variable.
2) Stress as a stimulus - as an independant variable.
3) Stress as an interaction between stimulus and moderating factors.

1) Response - based Model - Here stress is the response or pattern of response to a stimulus. In this the stress is usually treated as the dependent variable, as the response to a stressor.

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Environment  
Stressor  Stessor  
Stimulus  Response  

Psychological stress  
Physiological stress  

Figure :- 2.1 Response - based model of stress.

(After Cox, 1983, P.4)```
Hans Selye (1974, P.47) has described this particular view of stress. In Selye's concept of stress, there are three basic ideas implied. First, the response syndrome represents a universal pattern of defense reactions serving to protect the person and preserve its integrity. Second, he gives the General Adaptation Syndrome (G A S). It is characterized by three stages:

i) Alarm reactions-- if the stressor is severe for a body and level of resistance is reduced in the alarm stage itself, then it results in the death of that organism.

ii) Stage of resistance-- in alarm stage, level of resistance is reduced. But this characteristic reaction to alarm disappears and the person adapts to the situation.

iii) Stage of exhaustion-- if the stressor is same and prolonged, intense or often repeated, the person may feel extreme weakness for adaptation due to which final collapse may occurs.

The third idea given by Selye is that these defense responses, if intense and prolonged, result in disease states, the so-called diseases of adaptation. But he gives importance to the non-specificity of the stress response and ignores the role of psychological processes.

Levi and Kagan (1971) have described psychological stimuli and disorder by suggesting that, "if physiological stress response is prolonged, intense or often repeated it is accompanied by an increase of wear and tear in the person and produces structural as well as functional damage."
But there are several weaknesses associated with response-based definitions. McGrath (1970) indicated that physical exercise, the various emotions and excitement, fasting and fatigue are not always treated as stressors. So the multivariate approach to describe later is the best for defining stress.

(2) Stress as a stimulus - The Engineering Analogy - stress itself is a stimulus. Sir Charles Symonds (1947) has expressed this view of stress very frequently. Hook's law of Elasticity is compared with this engineering type model. This law describes how loads produce deformation in metals. Just as physical systems have an elastic limit, people also have their own limits in resistance to stress. Upto a limit stress can be tolerated but if it goes beyond that point, it becomes intolerable and permanent damage, physiological and psychological may occur.

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<th>Environment</th>
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<td>Stress</td>
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Fig. 2.2. Stimulus based (Engineering) Model of stress

(After Cox, 1983, P.12)

Of course, individual differences appear to be great in resistance to stress and levels which one person finds easily tolerable may be intolerable to other person. Studies of the Mercury astronauts in 1960, show that some personality characteristics and backgrounds are related to high resistance to stress. People who are ambitious, able, intelligent and successful, free from self doubts,
preserving, highly controlled and accurate in their testing of reality and whose backgrounds are demanding and stimulating have a high resistance to stress (Korchin and Ruff, 1964; Ruff and Korchin, 1964).

Because of its simplicity, the engineering analogy in stress research is quite appealing. Men and their organisations have machine-like aspects, but they are not machines—and so the analogy breaks down rather to reality. Another weakness is regarding conditions. Which should be accepted as stressful? The individual differences present the greatest difficulty.

(3) Interactional Definitions and Models - Cox and Mackey (1976) suggest that stress can be most adequately described as part of a complex and dynamic system of transaction between the person and his environment. They give five stages of this system:
Figure 2.3 Transational model of stress.

(Cox, 1983 P.15) (After Cox Mackay)
The first stage is actual demands relating to the person and is part of his environment. By demands we mean the person's external environment. A person has needs, and the fulfillment of these is important in determining his behavior. The person's perception of his demands and his actual ability to their fulfillment is the second stage. If a situation demands too much of a person, but he does not know his limitations, he will work in that situation. But after he realizes his limitations, and the difference between demands and his own ability, he experiences stress. The critical imbalance is accompanied by the subjective (emotional) experience of stress. So the psychophysiological changes that occur as a result of that are regarded as the third stage. The result of the coping response is the fourth stage in which both the actual and perceived consequences are important. Feedback is the fifth stage which occurs at all other stages in the stress system and it is important in shaping the outcome of each of these stages. These stages comprise a system which adequately describes the operation of stress. It treats stress as an intervening variable, the reflection of a transaction between the person and his environment, and like the model given by Levi and Kagan, it is part of a dynamic cybernetic system.

Lazarus (1976) has presented an interactional definition of stress. He suggests that 'stress occurs when there are demands on the person which tax or exceed his adjustive resources'. But the interactional approach does not offer much more by way of definition than the other two approaches discussed. Most
workers would agree that stress is to be understood in person-environment relationship, and considering it in that relationship, individual perceptual factors become important. However, it is felt that the response based or situation based approaches are best dealt when a situation is more 'mechanical' than interactional in nature. But the interactional model is a psychologically based approach and explicitly deals with these factors and because it is eclectic it provides clear guidelines for the study and alleviation of stress. Hence it is considered more adequate and useful.
2.1.2. STRESS AND EMPLOYED- NON-EMPLOYED WOMEN: RESEARCH:

There are many studies of educated employed and nonemployed women and their problems in India and in the West. Considerable literature regarding women and their role in the social set-up in India has attracted attention of psychologists. They have substantially contributed to the study of women's position in the changing pattern of urban society. In recent years, however, the emphasis of research studies has shifted to educated women and women at work and the problems they have to face.

There have been contradictory results from these studies. Some of these studies have shown that working women are generally happier and more satisfied with their lives, while some other studies at the same time have reported that working women are always under stress because of work and family responsibilities.

McCall (1977) has applied the term workwife and has found that the workwife (1) is seeking individualism and personal identity, (2) accepts leisure time for pleasure, (3) is better educated than non-working women, (4) and better identifies with a new role model. Nye and Hoffman (1963) have found that working women are more satisfied in the field of their work and community compared to housewives. Bruke and Weir (1976) have examined life satisfaction among wives of Canadian professional men. Among these upper middle class women, employment outside the home seems to have produced greater satisfaction with life in general and in marriage particular.
Housewives as such in their survey have reported lower satisfaction score and poor mental health and physical health. Ferree (1976) has reported that employed wives are more satisfied than housewives. However, women who worked part-time are reported to be more satisfied than either housewives or wives who worked full-time. Neddlson and Eisenberg (1977) have found that a women with a career becomes a more stimulating spouse and parent, coping with stressors, enhances personal growth and leads to a more rewarding marital relationship. Lazer and Smallwood (1977) have found that working women are more education oriented and interested in self improvement, travel, leisure and their own individualism. They tend to be independent and confident and take a more active part in decision making in the home. Wright (1978) has found that women with job outside the home are generally happier and more satisfied with their lives than are fulltime housewives. Yadev (1982) has found that women with children have very high ideals about combining career and family. They feel that they can be successful in their career as mothers and wives all that without feeling overloaded or overworked. Van Sell, Brief and Aldog (1979) have found that women's job satisfaction positively relates to such variables as life satisfaction and negatively relates to the number of teenagers at home. Yogev (1983) has concluded that today's professional women are going through a process of role expansion (adding new responsibilities without relinquishing old ones) rather than a process of role redefinition which may be what tommorow's
professional women will experience. Again Yogev (1984) has shown that there is small evidence supporting the view that professional women have personality disturbances because of their career. On the other hand, working women combine career with family without psychological conflicts and personality disturbances. Gray (1983) has suggested that married professional women who develop effective coping strategies find the challenge of combining profession and a family a rewarding experience. Martin and Hanson's (1985) data suggest that women who work to supplement family income look not only for challenging and materially rewarding work but also respond favourably to jobs that provide a degree of convenience. Hofetaller's (1988) survey has shown that a large majority of housewives considered the lives of those women who besides being housewives were also wage-earners as more stimulating and interesting than their own. The unemployed housewives show interest in accepting at least a half-time job. They wish to achieve more self-confidence and independence perceived as enjoyed by working housewives by them.

Gray, Lovejoy, Piotrkowski & Bond (1990) have found that husbands' psychological support for working full-time women and their participation in family work are most strongly associated with the ability of such housewives in coping with stress and life satisfaction. Weaver and Matthews (1991) data has suggested that currently women who work full time outside the home have greater work satisfaction than women engaged in full time house keeping.
Meleis and Stevens (1992) have found that working women characterise their spousal satisfaction in rational terms and companionship and communication with their partners as pleasing. They also enjoy being loved and more openly offer nurturance to please their partners. Messing (1993) has found that working women adapt their use of time especially in household work. They actively integrate a household support network, which includes external family members and other caregivers and accommodate their office employment to meet household needs. These efforts enable them to fulfil the demands of full-time paid employment and to absorb the primary responsibilities for the performance of domestic work. Barker (1993) has found that part-time working women report greater happiness at home and greater satisfaction with their jobs and children and comparable marriage satisfaction and personal satisfaction with work compared with full time working women. They do not report lower role conflict and role overload. Forgays and Forgays (1994) have found fewer differences in maternal or child based stress associated with parenting among employed and non-employed groups although there has been a trend for non-employed subjects to rate themselves as more stressed.

Martin, Phyllis and Christian (1962) have found that non-working mothers who are dissatisfied with their not working status show greater problems in child rearing. They have reported lesser emotional satisfaction in relationship with their children and also lesser confidence in their functioning as mothers. Nelson (1977)
has found that in the comparison of housework and jobs, housework elicits a higher percentage of negative responses than jobs. On specific work, housewives have shown higher percentages of alienated responses than the employed women. It has been noted that housework is experienced as an alienating experience by many women although both homes and families are treated as very important in their lives. Newberry, Weissman and Myers (1979) have found that working women derive considerably more satisfaction from their outside jobs than either they or the housewives did from their work in the home. Ferree (1984) has noted that working class housewives are less satisfied with life and just as satisfied with their work as either middle class housewives or working class women with paid jobs.

While some studies show that women as such are more satisfied in their mothering role in comparison to their working role, other studies show that the number of children at home is positively related to the woman's conflict. Hoffman (1980) has found that maternal employment seems well suited to the needs of adolescents appropriate for the emotional and cognitive development of daughters. Housekhecht and Macke (1981) have noted that marital adjustment of working women is higher than that of non-working women. Ritchie (1982) has found that working mothers find their child rearing more pleasurable, their relationship with the child better and the child is more likely to be happy and contented. Ivanovich and Matteson (1982) have reported that full-time home makers are more stressed by children, domestic work conditions and role issues than part-time home makers.
Given studies show that stress among working women is related to the number of children in the home and multiplicity of related roles. Snock (1966) has shown that women with one or more children under six years old in the household are significantly less satisfied with their job than are women with no children. Cohen (1976) has found that multiple role responsibilities are partially responsible for the consistently higher rates of symptoms found among women workers. Although women are beginning to have increasing work opportunities, there has not been a corresponding change in the expectations of their wife-mother role. Moulten (1980) has reported that the professional woman suffers much anxiety about not being 'feminine' and requires reassurance especially from men. Vansell, Brief and Aldog (1979) have found that women's job satisfaction is negatively related to the income and to the number of teenagers at home and unrelated to educational level, income level and altitude toward working women. Ewer, Criminins and Oliver (1979) have found that the presence of small children consistently exerts a strong negative effect on the wife's employment among young married couples. Beutell and Greenhouse (1982) have reported that the number of children at home is positively related to the woman's conflict when her husband is highly work-oriented. Haw (1982) has shown that work may have a beneficial effect on mental health for women but certain type of jobs in combination with family responsibilities may lead to increased risk of cardiovascular diseases.
Harrison and Minor (1982) have reported that the single employed woman is more satisfied with her worker role than their married employed counterparts. States and States's (1982) findings show that women report a higher overall level of stress and their stressors appear to be primarily familial and not job related. Mowbray, Lahir and Hulce (1982) have found that stress normally relates to women's pregnancy and motherhood and as they have become more educated, they have acquired greater role conflicts. Krause and Geyer's (1985) results show that young children at home do cause a significant conflict between the work and home roles and is also a significant predictor of depression. Burris (1991) has noted that professional mothers give work a higher priority in their lives where as working-class women tend to given their families the highest priority in their lives and family concerns are more likely to intrude on work than work on family due to structural disadvantages such as inadequate child care and inflexible jobs. Stevens and Meleis (1992) have found that working women list many aspects of their maternal role satisfying, like participating in their children's growth in nurturing them, in receiving unconditional love and finding companionship. However they have identified multiple and pervasive stresses including boundless worries, strained relationships, role overload, child care problems and financial burdens. Walker and Best (1992) have observed that employed subjects report greater perceived stress in their lives and less healthy life styles when compared with homemakers. The most frequently reported sources of stress is the health of working women.
Aryee's (1963) results indicate that married professional women experience moderate amounts of each type of work family conflict.

Nye, Hoffman and Conyers (1983) have noted that women seek types of employment which are best adjusted to the possible strain of combining their home duties with those of any paid activities. That is one of the reasons why a teaching career seems to appeal so strongly to women.

In India many studies have pointed out the problems faced by educated working women. Kapur (1972), Hate (1969), Dube (1963), Kapadia (1958) and Desai (1975) have observed that though many changes have occurred in traditional conceptions of role and status of Indian women through new opportunities for education and employment, the pressure of traditional customs and norms continue to affect the society's attitude towards them. Kapur (1960) has noted that a wife's being employed does make a marital interaction a little more complicated and creates more problems in the family. With multiplicity of roles, her behavior becomes complex in terms of 'expected' and 'actual' conduct and she finds herself confused with regard to her new status and traditional role. Bhattys (1971) results have shown that working women's big problem is when they go for work as they have to leave their children in the care of others. This she feels results in improper socialization of her children. Singh (1972) has observed that only 25% of working women feel fully satisfied with the time they devote to their children; 75% of them feel that they really fail to devote proper attention to their children and home as
the major part of their day is spent outside the house. Rani's (1976) study on the role conflict in working women in Bihar has indicated that working women feel more role conflict because of their dual duties. She has observed that working women are haunted by the feeling of guilt if their child has a bad school report or suffer from a sickness. They then blame it to their job and thus feel guilty. Hate (1948) has stated that dual role of women is still not recognized in Indian Society. Many working mothers experience role conflict and live with a guilt feeling.

Ghadially and Kumar's (1989) results have shown that the salient stressors of female professionals are inadequate pay, underutilization of skills, variability in work load, lack of participation in decisions and conflict between home and job. Frequently reported strains also included tension and fatigue. Nanda (1991) has studied the feelings of 80 children regarding the employment of their mothers outside the home. Most of them gave favourable opinions concerning their mothers employment and few of them had agreed that they would have been happier if their mothers stayed home. Most subjects stated that mothers worked to raise family income and they noted an improvement in standard living due to this employment.

Khanna (1992) has studied life stress among working and non-working women in relation to anxiety and depression. He has found anxiety being significantly and negatively related to positive life changes in non-working women. Further he has noted that depression relates significantly and positively to positive life changes in working women and negative life change in non-working women.
There could be various reasons for this. The presence of small children, the number of teenagers at home, husband's attitude toward their employment, women's dual duties seems to create stress among working women.

2.2 LOCUS OF CONTROL

The concept of Locus of control was first outlined by Rotter (1966). It is not a typological concept as people are not internally or externally controlled. It is a continuum and people can be placed along that continuum.

2.2.1 Locus of Control: Theory

This variable is important in understanding the nature of learning process in different kinds of learning situations and the consistent individual differences that exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to ascribe personal control to reward in the same situation. Then social Learning theory (Rotter, 1954, 1955) gives the general background for understanding the concept of locus of control and the nature and effects of reinforcement. In social learning theory, a reinforcement acts to strengthen an expectancy that a particular behavior or incident will be followed by that reinforcement. It is a general hypothesis that when reinforcement is seen as not depending upon the subjects own behaviour its occurrence will not increase an expectancy as much as when it is seem as contingent. On the other hand, if the behaviour does not occur, it will not reduce an expectancy so much as when it is seen as contingent.

The expectancies usually generalise from a specific situation to a series of situations which are perceived as related or
similar. As a result a generalized expectancy belonging to a series of related events possesses functional properties and becomes an important class of variable in personality description. It has been observed that individuals differ in learned generalised expectancies involving relationships between various types of behaviors and their possible outcomes. This belief seems similar to Harow's (1949) concept of high level learning skills. A generalized attitude, belief or expectancy concerning the nature of the relationships between one's own behavior and its importance might affect a variety of behavioral choices in many life events.

Such generalized expectancies along with specific expectancies tend to play a role in deciding choice behavior along with the value of possible reinforcements. The characteristics differences observed in behavior in a situation culturally categorised as chance determined versus skill determined are a results of generalised expectancies and this may also lead to individual differences within a specific event.

In learning theory, it has been recognised that differences in individual behavior are related to task differences along a dimension of skill and chance. Various social scientists have discussed the significance of belief in fate, chance or luck over a long period of time. Most of their concern has been with differences among groups or societies rather than individuals. Veblen (1899) feels that a belief in luck or chance represents a barbarian approach to life and is generally characteristic of an inefficient society. He has further stated that belief in luck is related to or similar to a general belief in
fate. Marx, Weber and Merton (1959) who have placed greater importance on the concept of alienation which has played an important role in sociological theory for many years does seem related at a group level to the variable of internal external control. The alienated individual is reported helpless to control his own destiny.

There are a number of other psychological variables which appear to bear some relationship to this concept. McClelland and his associates (1953) have found that people who are high on the need for achievement have some belief in their own ability or skill to determine the outcome of their efforts. Within, Lewis, Hertzman and Wapher (1954) have suggested that people can be ordered on a continuum in some perception experiments, describing whether they derive most of their cues from the field or from internal sources. It seems that there is some relationship between individual views of reinforcement and his other modes of perception.

2.2.2 Locus of control and stress: Research

Most studies in the area show that externals feel more stress than internals. Anderson's (1977) results indicate that internals perceive less stress than externals. The successful internals are reported to become more internals whereas unsuccessful externals are said to become more externals. Queen and Freitag (1979) have found that internality is positively correlated with low anxiety and high life satisfaction. Kilmann, Leval and Walllass (1978) have noted that for females stress in the preschool and pubescent years and for males in the elementary and pubescent years is related to externality.
Kyriacou and Satelifte (1979) have reported that occupational stress as indicated by a self-report measure is positively associated with the person's generalized belief in external control over reinforcement. Archer (1980) has found a relationship between greater externality and higher levels of both general trait and state anxiety. Johnson and Sarason (1980) have predicted that significant correlations between life change and depression and anxiety would be found only with externally controlled persons. Bar-tal, Kfir, Bar-Zehar and Bohe(n, 1980) have noted that in general internals express less anxiety than externals. Motinari and Khanna (1980) have reported that internal persons do not interpret their arousal as anxiety because their arousal facilitates performance while defensive external subjects interpret their arousal as anxiety because it hinders with their performance. Sandler and Lakey (1982) have found that correlation between negative events and anxiety are greater for externals than for internals. It is also noted that defensive externals are vulnerable to stress (Schill, Rommanaiah and Toves, 1983).

Greater external locus of control has been reported to relate to poorer adjustment by persons. At the same time, a greater internal locus of control has failed to relate to better adjustment by subjects (Schaeneman, Reznikoft and Bacon, 1983). Kulkarni (1983) has found that there is a significant negative relationship between job satisfaction and external locus of control as subjects with higher locus of control are reported to register higher satisfaction in their jobs (Norris and Niebuler, 1984). Marcoen and Vanham (1983) have reported a significant positive correlation between life
satisfaction and the perception of one's social contacts and between belief in internal control. Revicki and May (1986) have found that individual with strong sense of personal control possess beneficial support systems in the presence of stressful situations. Halpin, Harris and Halpin (1986) have noted that locus of control is related to teacher stress as subjects who felt that they were in control reported less stress at their place of work than did those who did not feel that way.

Mackenzie and Goodstein (1986) have found that higher levels of stress are manifested by people with strong external beliefs in comparison to those who believe less in external control of events as persons who were more external in locus of control experienced significantly more active and passive stress reactions. Jenner (1986) have reported that belief in the influence of powerful others is associated with greater perceived organizational stress. Soh (1986) has found that in educational context (teacher) locus of control functions as a moderator of stress. Zika and Chamberlain (1987) have noted that chronic daily stressors (hassles) are found to have a direct effect on the well-being reports. Among the personality variables, the meaning in life is consistently reported to predict positive well-being.

Tung (1980) has found that females experience substantially lower level of self-perceived occupational stress than males. However, Heretickls (1981) results show that among males external locus of control is related to reported stress and among females also it is independently related to stress. Toves, Schill and Ramanaiarch (1981) have found that internality is of equal advantage.
For both males and females. They have found an internal locus of control more effective in helping one deal with stressful life events.

Rajmohan and Kuppon (1987) have noted that there is no significant relationship between internals and externals as well as between males and females in the level of anxiety as internal females score higher on the anxiety scale than internal males. Richart (1982) has found a positive linear relationship between locus of control and anxiety in different situations for men and women and between externality and different expression of anxiety for each sex. Chusmir's (1983) results indicate that women who choose nontraditional careers are generally internally motivated.

Bagaighis, Schumn, Bollman and Junich (1983) have found that the greater the internal locus of control for the wife the higher is the marital satisfaction experienced by her.

A number of studies have shown that externals feel less stress than internals or there is no relationship between internals, externals and level of stress. Rajmohan and Kuppon (1980) have stated that there is no significant relationship between internals and externals in the level of anxiety. Job specificity has been found to be related to job stress among internals and negatively related to job stress among externals (Marrito and White 1985) and the high stress group are reported to show an external locus of control (Shejwal 1984). Krause (1987) has found that elderly persons with extreme internal or external locus of control beliefs are especially vulnerable to the deleterious effects of life stress. Rao and Natarajan (1981)
have found that subjects from small families show higher rating of internality whereas sex, education and income give no relationship with internal or external locus of control. Tiwari and Tripathi's (1982) results indicate that low socio-economic status subjects are more internally controlled than higher socioeconomic status subjects.

Teski, Arcuri and Lester (1980) have noted that housewives who have never worked have a significantly stronger belief in external locus of control than housewives who have worked. Matud and Pelechano's (1991) results reveal that pregnant women exhibit inhibitory reactions in stressful situations, more external locus of control in social relationships with depressive components, more external control of situational luck and more internal locus of control in decision making. They have further noted that subjects who only worked at home and had a previous pregnancy showed the highest scores in inhibitory reactions to stressful situations. Konefal and Duncan (1992) have found significant within person decreases in trait anxiety scores and increases in internal locus of control scores. Kliewer and Sandler (1992) have reported that locus of control buffers the effects of stressors on psychological symptoms when faced with many negative life events as girls who had both an external locus of control and low self esteem showed the highest psychological mal-adjustment.

Amatea and Fong (1992) have found that professional women who experience higher levels of personal control and social
support as well as a greater number of roles report lower levels of strain symptoms. Rees and Cooper (1992) have observed that subjects who regard themselves as having high control report less work pressure and higher job-satisfaction. Pilisuk, Montgomery, Parks and Acredolo (1993) have found that an internal locus of control buffers the deleterious effect of symptoms of physical illness on self-rated health. Thus, a supportive network and a sense of control tends to build confidence in one's capacity to cope with external stressors and with sickness itself.

From these studies it could be summarized that externally controlled persons feel more stress than the internally controlled ones. There are very few Studies which show that internality is related to stress. As such, women who choose nontraditional careers are generally said to be internally motivated (Chusmir, 1983).

2.3 TYPE A BEHAVIOR PATTERN (TABP)

Type A behavior pattern is not psychosis or a complex of worries or fears or phobias or obsessions, but a socially acceptable—indeed often praised form of conflict.

2.3.1. TABP : Theory

Type A behaviour pattern is not a typological concept. It is a continuum of behavior ranging from extreme Type A to extreme Type B. Three other factors have been identified within Type A behaviour pattern—Speed and impatience(s), Job involvement (J), and hard driving and competitive(H). Speed and impatience refer to the time urgency or 'hurry sickness' trait of Type A person which is most
important in him. For this he wants to do too many things in the available time at his disposal by creating deadlines for himself. Type A man tries so desperately to do more and more in less and less time that he finally impairs his creative power and only too often acuity of his judgement. Work involvement means the degree of dedication to and involvement in one's work and work activity. Hard driving and competitiveness means to compete with or to challenge other people. He has an intense drive to succeed in achievement-related activities and wants to realize a maximum number of achievements in a minimum amount of time.

The quest for numbers is another trait of Type A man. This probably begins quite early in the childhood. Because of his obsession with numbers and because so many of the world's activities are expressed in currency units, Type A men often than not appears to be absorbed in money. The insecurity of status is another trait. Aggression and hostility is an important trait in Type A person. Most Type A subjects possess so much aggressive drive that it frequently evolves into a freefloating hostility. Some psychological theories possess the greatest potential for explaining Type A behaviour pattern. A cognitive social learning theory system relies heavily on social modelling and familial/cultural reinforcers. Psychoanalysis, Hebb's (1949) neuropsychological theory and Allport's (1937) functional autonomy theory should hold some promise for explaining obsessive-compulsive acts. Roger's self concept theory is that an individual acts in a manner consistent with his or her self concept.
The self concept is derived from "evaluational interactions" with others, especially significant others such as parents. Rogers (1980) has also stated that the basic drive is to actualize, maintain and enhance the self. Thus all that is necessary to explain Type A behaviour pattern is a set of circumstances in which individuals come to think of themselves in terms such as "efficient", "high achiever", "tough", "go-getter", "multifacted" and so forth.

2.3.2 **TABP and Stress: Research**

Acceptable researches show that Type A person feels more stress and working women are more likely to report Type A than housewives.

There are quite a few studies which show that working women are more likely to report Type A behavior pattern than housewives. Morell and Kalkin (1982) have found that professionals have significantly higher scores than do homemakers on Type A, job involvement, speed and impatience, hard driving and competitive scales on the JAS. Type A behavior has been found to be associated with employment outside the home. Hayer and Feinldile (1982) have noted that women report more symptoms of emotional distress than men do. They have further noted that working women are more likely to report Type A behavior pattern than housewives and also they are reported to experience more daily stress than housewives, who are married with 3 or more children. Lawer, Rixse and Allen (1984) have also found the working women scoring as strong Type A's than housewives. Anderson and Meininger (1993) who have factor
analysed components of Type A behavioural patterns using structured interviews, self report and measures of TABP in employed women have identified 5 factors, i.e. Clinical Rating, Hurried Drive, Impatience, Pressured, competitiveness and expression of Anger.

There are also studies which show that Type A person feels more stress than Type B person. Hayers and Others (1982) have found that Framingham Type A behavior scale significantly correlates with daily stress (.47) and tension (.42). Orphen (1983) have noted that the relation between role conflict and physical strain and between role conflict and psychological strain is significantly positive and higher among Type A than Type B personalities. Francis (1983) has found that Type A subjects are more apt to perceive their events as more stressful than Type B subjects. Glass (1984) has noted that physiological responses of Type A's to psychological stressors are mediated via the sympathetic nervous system. Abush and Burkhead (1984) have noted a significant relationship between tension and a linear combinations of Type A personality and job characteristics. There have also been significant relationship between job tension and Type A personality.

It is found that Type B subjects in contrast to Type A personalities experience less stress as a result of the frustrations of daily life and feel less preassured by too many things to do. They are more likely to view life as a joy and express fewer concerns about the meaning of life than do Type A's. They tend to get married, be employed, remain satisfied with their work and show better general
health (Nowack and Thomas, 1987). Daily (1987) has found that Type A behavior and symptoms of adaptation to stress are strong predictors of tension discharge rate. Ganster (1988) has noted that Type A persons are hyper-responsive to subjective work stressors; however examination of objective stressors is rare. Greenglass (1990) has investigated relationships between Type A behavior, career aspirations and role conflict in female university faculty members. Type A scores are reported to correlate positively and significantly with role conflict. A multiple regression predicting Type A behavior in women with children living in home has shown that total number of hours spent on home and professional work accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in Type A scores. Margiotta, Devilla and Hicks (1990) have observed that Type A subjects generally report significantly more hassles and uplifts than Type B subjects. Type A person, it seems, may experience life events with greater salience than Type B person.

Both job stress and stressors (role ambiguity, overload conflict and resource inadequacy) are found to significnatly relate to various outcome variables Type A behavior pattern tends to associate with high job stress, high role ambiguity, conflict, resource adequacy and psychosomatic health problems. In addition Type A behavior pattern is found to be an important moderator of stress outcome relationships (Jamal, 1990). Adams, Washburn and Haile (1990) have found that for both men and women Type A is positively correlated with stress. Chew and chee leeny's (1991) findings have
indicated a positive relationships between stress and Type A personality. It is noted that Type A persons are normally more hostile, and that this hostile behavior makes them prone to stress.

Type A subjects are also found to report more job stress under lower levels of perceived control. The reported higher job stress levels consequently lead to greater physical and psychological impairments, especially for Type As (Rhodewalf and others, 1991). Though role overload and conflict are found to associate with psychological distress, the observed role ambiguity shows hardly any significant relationship. It is also noted that buffering or exacerbuting effects of Type A/B Personality on stress-strain relations vary between genders across job positions and across the types of stress at work and distress (Iwata and others, 1992). Gamble and Matteson (1992) have also found that Type A behavior is heighly correlated with daily stress and job related tension. Dinning and Guptill(1992)have indicated that Type A scores associate with reported menstrual symptoms at all levels of stress.

Overall Type A subjects, mothers in paid and nonpaid employement with children have reported higher levels of child related stress and personal stress than Type B subjects. Hurry, control and hostility factors have also been found to associate with stress indices. There has been substentive evidence showing a close relationship between Type A behaviour pattern, hurry and self reported somatic complaints (Forgays, 1992). Malastesta and others (1993) have found that Type As do not differ from Type B's on anxiety or depression but they do differ on anger and aggression.
However Froggatt and Cotton's (1987) result do not support the observations that Type A individuals are more likely to feel stressed than individuals with Type B behavior pattern. Possibly the differences in reported stress between Type A's and Type B's seems to occur because Type A persons seek out situations that are objectively more stressful than Type B persons. Heilbran and Robert (1987) have found that Type A college students of both sexes do not necessarily report significantly more stress than Type B's. However repression, lack of awareness and narrow scanning seems to serve moderator roles for Type As, each considered singly or in combination, thus contributing to higher stress levels in them.

From above studies it is summarized that Type A persons feel more stress than Type B persons and that dissatisfaction and stress are related to Type A behavior patterns.

2.4 STRESS, LOCUS OF CONTROL AND TABP: THEORY AND RESEARCH

Studies show that locus of control and Type A behavior pattern are related to stress. That is, those who give importance to their ability, skill, efforts and action and are known as having 'internal' locus of control feel lesser stress than those who give importance to luck, chance and faith. Another personality variable—Type A behavior pattern is also found to relate to stress. As Type A people are aggressive, competitive, and put themselves under constant pressures by setting high standards they feel more stress than Type B people who are more relaxed and easygoing. Hence, as far as the stress is concerned, there seems to be a close relationship between
externality and Type A behavior pattern. Type A persons are also reported to suffer more such role ambiguity and psychological strain than Type B persons.

But some results show that there is a marginal or no relationship between the health, locus of control beliefs and Type A behavior pattern (Furham, 1984). It is noted that externally controlled persons do not make excessive demands on themselves, enjoy recreation and leisure, do not believe in fixing deadlines and are easygoing and relaxed. So as a result they do not feel stressed like Type A persons who are always under time pressure and want to do things more and more in less and less time. This also makes them less prone to physical ailments related to stress, such as heart attacks.

However, most studies show a close relationship between Type A behaviour pattern and externally controlled persons.