CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The rapidly developing socio-economic and political conditions have added a new avenue to the women permitting them to enter in Police Department which was exclusively men's job all these days. The literature pertaining to the research on women police, their stress, social support and life satisfaction is reviewed in this chapter.

THEORIES ABOUT WOMEN POLICE:

1. GENDER BASED OCCUPATIONAL STEREO TYPES:

   Women performed an important function for society by raising children and teaching them basic social values and by maintaining home. In addition, home provided emotionally supportive role as nurturer and caretaker of the husband and family (Parsons and Bales, 1955). Extending this perspective to policewomen, one sees immediately that nurturing remains a major career outlet for many female offices - Matron work, victim assistance and so on.

2. CONFLICT THEORY:

   According to this perspective, women hold lower status because they have been exploited by men, who have traditionally held power position in
society (Hindman, 1975), but the rapidly changing socio-economic and political conditions have added a new dimension to the problem of policing in this country.

In addition to law enforcement, the Government has enacted a whole range of new social laws such as the Children Act, the Prevention of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act, the Beggars Act, the Young Persons (Harmful Publications) Act, etc, in the post-independent years, and various other measures have been taken for the protection of the weaker sections of society including women and children (Rao, 1975). The distraught mothers of unruly daughters, the girls wandering and beyond control exposed to moral danger - often pregnant and suffering from venereal diseases, unwanted children and small victims of cruelty and neglect brought before the court, usually by the police are surely women's job (Tancred 1970)

ROLE AND FUNCTIONS OF WOMEN POLICE:

The effectiveness of police woman's work depends upon the special training in general social work which qualifies her to diagnose and beat certain social ailments and upon the support and co-operation she secures from the authorities (Higgins, 1962). It is relevant to mention that they were appointed not because the police service wanted them, but because women working for the betterment of conditions of women demanded them (Cornell, 1962)
In principle, the women police officers have the same task as their male counterparts. Legally also, there is no distinction between the duties of a police woman and a police man. A study conducted by Perlstein disclosed that there was no statistically significant difference between the sexes in the usual measures of police performance—assets, summons, sick time, etc. (Perlstein, 1972)

In practice, however, the police women are frequently used for certain 'specialized' or selected tasks for which they are considered to be more suited, by nature, than men. The chief duties ordinarily performed by the women police officers in India are

1. Helping the investigation of offences involving women and children,
2. Assistance to the local police in tracing missing women and children, keeping watch over places of ill fame, recovering minor girls from brothels and escorting them to rescue homes, court and hospitals, and recovery of women and girls involved in abduction and kidnapping cases,
3. Collection of intelligence,
4. Interrogation of juveniles, women offenders, under-trials and witnesses, interrogation of juvenile victims of sexual offences,
5. Arrest, search and escort of juveniles and women offenders,
6. VIP Bandobust and other security duties,
Frisking, guiding and other work relating to women passengers at airport and search of their personal belongings,

Conduct of enquiries in connection with passport applications and family investigations,

Keeping order in women's meetings and processions,

Dealing with women agitations, satyagrahas and labour troubles in which women are involved,

Looking after women and children in fairs, places of pilgrimage and during festivals,

Guiding women passengers at big railway stations and important bus stands, in large towns and cities,

Assist the officers of the Anti-Vice squad in conducting raids and in the arrest, search and interrogation of women accused involved in offences under the Prevention of Immoral Traffic Act,

Attend to complaints and allied works arising out of dowry harassment and disposal of the same,

Attend to miscellaneous duties such as reception duties at the head offices and duties at the telephone exchange and police computer wing,

To be vigilant over drugs, costly equipments, etc., in hospitals, and to give protection to patients, their belongings and newly born babies in the Government Maternity Hospitals,
17 Assist the traffic police in regulating traffic during peak hours at important road junctions, and also help children to cross roads near schools.

18 Assist the law and order man to apprehend women pickpockets, women indulging in selling cinema black tickets and illicit arrack, etc (Rao, 1975 and Ghosh, 1981)

STRESS:

Stress is a term borrowed from physical sciences into social sciences. In social science, it has been in active use from the nineteenth century through the decades, though the concept has taken different meanings. It is said that at present there are about 300 definitions of stress. Cooper and Marshall (1979) explain comprehensively the definitions of stress to denote variously,

1 an extensive environmental force which, by its action on an individual, causes him harm

2 the harm thus caused and

3 the individual's reaction in such a situation

Stress manifests itself in different forms ranging from disinterest and apathy to psycho-somatic disorders. This wide range warrants the extensive research that goes on in the field of stress.
One important facet of stress which has gained a great deal of attention in recent years is occupational stress. By a response-definition-of-stimulus process, occupational stress can be defined as "those aspects of work that have or threatened to have undesirable effects on an individual" (Holt, 1983).

Role-related factors have recently been receiving a lot of attention as stressors since these are felt universally. Role-related variables include an individual's role perception with respect to self, the environment, the job, other role occupants and other roles occupied by the same person.

**STRESS IN LAW ENFORCEMENT:**

Police work is highly stressful, since it is one of the few occupations where an employee is asked continually to face physical dangers and to put his or her life on the line at any time. The police officer is exposed to violence, cruelty, and aggression and is often required to make extremely critical decisions in high-pressure situations.

Stress has many ramifications and can produce many varied psychophysiological disturbances that if intense and chronic enough, can lead to demonstrable organic disease of varying severity. It may also lead to physiological disorder and emotional instability, which can manifest themselves in alcoholism, a broken marriage, and in the extreme, suicide. Three-fourths of the heart attacks suffered by police officers are due to job-related stress.
studies have shown. As a result, courts have ruled that a police officer who suffers a heart attack while off duty is entitled to workmen’s compensation (Washington Crime News Service, 1975). Thus, even a superficial review of the human, organizational, and legal impacts of stress-related health problems should sensitize every administrator to the prevention, treatment and solution of these problems.

In law enforcement, stressors have been identified in various ways (Stratton, 1978). Researchers, such as Kroes (1976), Eisenberg (1975), Reiser (1976), and Roberts (1975), have conducted extensive studies into law enforcement occupational stress, and although they do not group these stressors into identical categories, they tend to follow similar patterns. Most of the law enforcement stressors can be grouped into four broad categories: (1) organizational practices and characteristics, (2) criminal justice system practices and characteristics, (3) public practices and characteristics, and (4) police work itself.

Kroes, Margolis, and Hurrell (1974) interviewed 100 Cincinnati patrol officers about the elements of their job which they believed were stressful. Foremost on their list of items were the courts (scheduling appearances and lack of backing in ambiguous situations), faulty equipment, and community apathy. Other items listed but not with so great a frequency were changing shifts, relations with supervisors, non-police work, other police officers, boredom, and pay.
A survey (Somodevilla et al., 1978) of police chiefs in the Southeastern U.S. confirmed these findings. The chiefs were asked about situations they believed were stressful for the line personnel listed: lack of administrative support, role conflicts, public pressure and scrutiny, peer group pressures, court and imposed role changes. Some of the sources of psychological stress were poor supervision, absence or lack of career development opportunities, inadequate reward, reinforcement system, offensive administrative policies, poor equipments, unfavorable attitude of the public, derogatory remarks by neighbours and others, unfavorable court decisions, ineffectiveness of correctional agencies to rehabilitate, adverse local Government decisions, ineffectiveness of referral agencies, fear of serious injury or disability and death, exposure to people suffering and agonized both physically and mentally, consequences of actions, their appropriateness and possible adverse conditions (Eisenberg 1975).

Police work has been identified as one of a number of high stress occupations. Not only do persons continue to view the nature of police work as very stressful, but they also continue to view police work as leading to physiological ailments and to other problems such as divorce and suicide. Blackmore (1978) for instance, points to studies showing that police officers have among the highest rates of heart disease and stomach disorders, that the divorce rates are twice as high as other occupations, and that suicide rates are two to six times the national average.
Police stress research generally focusses on one dimension of the stress process—stressors. Work demands, the court system, administration, public image, and danger are examples of such stressors (Kroes, 1976). Two other elements of the stress process, actually experienced stress and coping, are often neglected. Actually experienced stress refers to stress that the individual is directly experiencing; it is an independent element and does not refer to stressors. Coping refers to co-ordinative and behavioral responses to stress (Pearlin and Schooler, 1978). The way an individual copes depends on his understanding the stress situation, making sense of it, and developing appropriate responses (Lazarus, 1967). He may choose to avoid, psychologically mediate, or simply contain experienced stress (Pearlin and Schooler, 1978).

THE POLICE STRESS PROCESS

(1) Police Occupational Stressors:

There are many known sources of stress in police work, including occupational demands (Kroes, 1976), Kroes and Hurrell 1976, Selye 1978, Cooper, Davidson, and Robinson, 1982). Two specific demands, depersonalization and authoritarianism, have been associated with increased police stress (Violant., 1981). Depersonalization denotes a sense of forced emotional estrangement (Harris, 1973). Officers are required to objectify emotions when dealing with unpleasant work situations (dead or injured bodies, crime victims, abused children, and so on). Depersonalization increases stress because it creates a conflict between objectified and seemingly real human emotion (Levine and Scotch 1973, Moss, 1973).
# TABLE - 1

## SHORT - TERM / CHRONIC STRESS REACTIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job related stressors</th>
<th>Immediate response to stress</th>
<th>Long term response to stress</th>
<th>Home life</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Health</td>
<td>Job performance</td>
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<td>Job conflict</td>
<td>Temporary increase in</td>
<td>Temporary increase in</td>
<td>Decreased productivity</td>
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<td>Second job</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Smoking rate</td>
<td>Increased error rate</td>
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<td>Inactiivity</td>
<td>Tension</td>
<td>Headaches</td>
<td>Job dissatisfaction</td>
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<td>Shift work</td>
<td>Irritability</td>
<td>Heart rate</td>
<td>Accidents</td>
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<td>Inadequate resources</td>
<td>Feeling 'uptight'</td>
<td>Blood pressure</td>
<td>Withdrawal</td>
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<td>Inequality in pay</td>
<td>Drunking rate</td>
<td>Cholesterol level</td>
<td>Serious error in judgement</td>
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<td>and job status</td>
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<td>Slower reaction time</td>
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<td>territory</td>
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<td>Negative public image</td>
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<td>Conflict values</td>
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<td>Line of duty / crisis</td>
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Psychological Services Unit, Dallas Police Department adopted from Kroes, Society's Victim (1976)
Authoritarianism is a demand considered necessary by the police structure. Clearly, public perception of the police is one of authority or force. The police are often thought of as aggressive, tough, cynical, and preoccupied with power (O'Brien, 1978). Authoritarian attitudes appear to be the result of work socialization rather than individual personality (Niederhoffer, 1967, Reiss and Bordua, 1967, Stewart and Hoult, 1959). Authoritarian attitudes are stressful because they restrict the range of the officer's response repertoire in police work situations. Officers may be forced to be authoritarian in situations which call for different techniques.

(ii) Experienced Individual Stress:

A second element of the stress process is experienced stress. When police officers are faced with demands, and they perceive themselves as unable to deal with these demands, then stress may increase. In this sense, stress may be described as a perceived "imbalance" between demands and perceived capability to respond to those demands (McGrath, 1970). This definition is applicable to police work, where powerful structural influence leads to perceptions of low response capability (Violanti, 1982).

(iii) Police Coping Responses:

Individuals cope differently with stress in different life roles. There are two specific coping strategies believed to be salient in police work: cynicism and deviance. As coping, cynicism and deviance are attempts to lessen stress...
by psychologically and behaviorally adjusting to the strain of work demands. Cynicism and deviance "mediate" the stress process, they are utilized after the strain of demands is experienced, but before actual stress emerges (Pearlin and Schooley, 1978)

FIGURE -1

POLICE STRESS MODEL

(Police stress model adopted from the work of Violanti and Marshall, 1983)
POLICE PROBLEMS IN MARRIAGE:

Marriage of personnel working in the police force are susceptible to certain kinds of stress inherent in the nature of policing. Erratic work schedules, job pressures, and the necessity for 24-hour availability are a few factors that can drive a wedge between the officers and their spouses. There is considerable evidence that police officers as an occupational group have one of the highest divorce rate, and divorce seems to be especially prevalent among young police officers, (Schwartz and Schwartz, 1975)

NEGATIVE PUBLIC IMAGE:

How other people behave towards us is a well-known determinant of social behavior. Most of the police personnel believe that what they do is important, but they are also very conscious of the public’s opinion of them. Public animosity and disrespect impose the negative label of ‘cop’ on the officer. Such a label has adverse effects not only on the officer but also his close friends and family relations.

STUDIES RELATED TO WOMEN POLICE:

Studies about police in general are numerous, but studies about women police are limited. Here are some of the studies, conducted in India and abroad, directly related to women police.

Rao et al, (1975) conducted a study on ‘Women Police in India’. The study was attempted with the object of reviewing the growth and development of the women police in this country, to examine the
Cynicism has been described as a "mocking disbelief" of people and the police system (Niederhoffer, 1967). As a coping technique, cynicism allows the police officer to simply discount work demands by disbelieving them. In this way, cynicism modifies the meaning of stressful job demands.

Police deviance is occupationally based, it emerges within the context of everyday police functions. Deviance is salient in police work because officers have ample opportunity to stray from norms and are influenced by strong peer pressure (Bryant, 1974). As a coping strategy, deviance is an expression of the police officer's will, it reflects overt behavior aimed at weakening the influence of job demands.

STRESS AND POLICE FAMILIES:

A law enforcement career is much more than a job or occupation for the individual, it is a way of life for the officer, his spouse, and his family. A police officer's life becomes one of shared priorities between his family and the outside world in which he functions on an official basis. He brings the problems and frustrations encountered on the job home and to the family. Conversely, he can vent the frustrations, tensions, and hostilities engendered by an unsatisfactory home life on the public.

Administrators are starting to recognize that the spouse and family are significant contributors to the success or failure in a law enforcement career. Marital or family strife, discord, and unresolved emotional problems affect a police officer's development, motivation, productivity, and effectiveness in ways we are only beginning to appreciate and understand.
organizational structure of its units, to analyse its functions and role in various fields of operations and finally to attempt a projection for the future in order to provide broad guidelines for organizational growth and development. No attempt has been made to examine the adequacy of the units to perform the tasks for which they have been set up.

Ghosh (1981) conducted a study on ‘Women in Policing’. It showed that attitudes towards employment of women police essentially have gone through major change in the history of women police around the world. Women are seeking to prove that they can do the job of policing equally as well as men.

Mahajan (1982), conducted a study on ‘Indian Police Women’. The findings of this study revealed that the women’s role in policing remains ambiguous due to organizational apathy, opposition from the male incumbents, societal negative reactions, lack of committed police women and lack of opportunities for women to occupy positions of authority in the police organization.

Singh (1984), conducted a study on ‘Women Policing in Jammu and Kashmir’. The study shows that the total strength of women police in Jammu and Kashmir is more than one hundred. As the state of crime is rising up in Jammu and Kashmir, they require a planned growth and expansion of female wing of police organization.
Saha (1989), conducted a study on 'Police women and Femininity, a handicap?' The study suggests that in order to change the image, the serving women personnel have to display a matchless sense of duty, dedication and a spirit of selfless service and only their performance can silence critics, challenge prejudices and launch campaigns and help them earn recognition and occupy a prestigious place in the police force, dominated by the stronger sex.

Wyles (1952), conducted a study on 'Women at Scotland Yard' It shows that generally women police officers in sharp contrast to their male colleagues believe they are discriminated against, that police men are prejudiced against them, that they greatly overemphasize the importance of physical strength in the job - that women are effectively excluded from some of the more interesting kinds of work and that men will not accept them as full members of the working group or as colleagues on an equal basis.

Charles (1982), in his study on 'Women in Policing - The Physical Aspect', states that traditionally it has been the opinion of many male police personnel that women are not physically, not to mention psychologically or emotionally strong enough to meet the demands of the police profession. Evidence suggests that this perception is incorrect. While women generally may not be as physically strong as men, they may train themselves to achieve a level of fitness within the normal demands of the profession.

Lewis (1983), conducted a study on 'A psychological view of women in policing' It states that the crime fighting performance of most police women is taken to indicate their inappropriateness for patrol work.
Taylor (1974), conducted a study on 'women police officers and their husbands'. The study reveals that police men usually keep wives out of their professional lives. The divorce rate among cops has always been high. Peter et al. (1974), conducted a study on police women on patrol. The study shows that sex is not a bonafide occupational qualification for doing patrol work.

Joyce et al. (1977), conducted a study on 'women on patrol'. It shows that despite the fact that male and female officers performed similarly and used the same techniques to gain and maintain control, female officers were judged by civilians to be more competent, pleasant, respectful and understanding than their male counterparts.

Martin (1980), in his study on 'police women on patrol', shows that many police women do not perform well as patrol officers. They fall into cycles of failure and demotivation.

Lester et al. (1988), studied the personality and attitudes of female police officers. Results indicated that the recruits rated themselves as higher on masculine traits without rating themselves as less feminine.

Aleem (1991), has conducted a study on women police and published a book on 'Women Police and Social Change'. The study was divided into two parts. In the first part, she has tried to make a general survey of the status of women police in India. The second part focuses on an in-depth study of women police in Andhra Pradesh. The focus is more on the functions and role of
women police. An attempt has also been made to study people’s perception of the role of women police. Results indicate that in general people do not have a very high impression of women police but they are confident that if given an opportunity women police can act as an instrument of social change and do well.

Aleem (1991) in her book on ‘Women in Indian Police’, which is an outcome of research for more than five years, presents a brief but comprehensive account of women in the police force at different levels. It includes (1) women who form part of the state police force, (2) women IPS who belong to the all-India services allotted to the state cadre, and (3) women in the CRPF, (Central Reserve Police Force) which is a central force. She has tried to give a comparative picture of personnel policies and practices adopted by the various State Governments.

STUDIES RELATED TO POLICE STRESS:

Violanti and Marshall (1983) conducted a study on police stress. In that study they examined the relationships among three elements of police stress process—(1) Occupational stressors, (2) Individual stress, and (3) Coping strategies. A finding of that study was that a strong relationship exists between depersonalization and stress. Apparent depersonalization creates an incongruity between institutional demand and actual human emotions.
Moyer (1986) conducted an explanatory study of role distance as police response to stress. The aim of the study was to find out the coping patterns and strategies adopted to neutralize the occupational stress. The study was conducted by field observation among police officers in Pennsylvania. The analysis of police behavior suggested that police develop strategies to neutralize the role stress arising due to stressful situations.

Lester et al. (1988) conducted a study to measure stress in police officers. The investigators of the study interviewed 27 members of the police department and identified fifteen sources of stress such as, lack of support from courts and media, negative public image, community relations, poor pay, excessive paperwork, inadequate training and equipment, changing shifts, limited promotional opportunities, unfair policies, lack of administrative support, continuous exposure to tragedy, fear, danger and boredom inherent in the job, concern about individual success and safety, peer group pressure, health, mental problem and alcoholism.

Malloy and Mays (1984) in their evaluatory article on police stress attempt to identify the assumptions that underlay the concept of police stress, review the empirical evidence related to these assumptions, and offer an alternative paradigm designed to guide future research on police stress.

White et al. (1985) conducted a study on factors of stress among police officers. In their study they identified three major areas of stress, namely, physical/psychological threat, evaluation systems, and lack of support.
They related these stress producing areas with age, years on job and race. Results were discussed in terms of an expanded model of police stress incorporating role with a variable of time.

Gudjohnson and Adlam (1985) in their article describing an exploratory study on occupational stress among three groups of police officers, viz., (1) probationary constables, (2) station sargents and (3) relatively senior officers, found some similarities among the above three groups. The results of their study demonstrated that police officers of different ranks tends to experience different stressors. The study revealed that relatively police officers of lower ranks experience more stress. Commonly reported stress producing situations are giving evidence in court, riot control duty and long hours of shift work.

Scotland and Pendleton (1989) conducted a large scale study on police stress and strain. The researchers questioned with regard to their physical, mental and behavioral health. They also examined the policemen’s record regarding sickness, disability, auto accidents and citizen complaints against them. These variables were deemed to be indices of stress. It was hypothesized that stress and strain would be lower with greater tenure on the job. This hypothesis did not receive substantial support. It was found that among patrol officers who were above the medium in tenure reported more job difficulty and stress. Several explanations were suggested for this unexpected findings.
Martell, Water and Martell (1989) conducted a stress survey on policemen. The study was intended to find the relation between stress and job satisfaction. The investigators used the tools constructed by Spielberger et al. (1981) Spielberger et al. constructed this tool to measure stress among police officers in 1981. The test was administered to 99 metropolitan and suburban police officers. The results revealed that administrative and organizational stress were significantly related to measures of job satisfaction.

Beehr and Kaufman (1989) conducted a survey to study the impact of social support on occupational stress among police officers. The researchers conducted a survey among 121 police officers of an U.S. midwestern state. The result of the research revealed that the occupational stressors (under-utilization of skills, quantitative work load, and job future ambiguity) and several types of social support are related to individual psychological stress. The study also revealed that the police in supervisory positions experience less stress and more social support than do non-supervisory police officers.

Cullen et al. (1985) carried out a study to determine the impact of social support on stress experienced by police officers. To investigate that issue, 91 suburban police officers were administered a questionnaire containing four job related stressors, four types of social supports and two forms of psychological stress—work and life. The analysis of the data revealed that feelings of dangerousness were significantly and positively related to both stress scales, while shift change and court problems increased only general life stress. It was also found that supervisory support mitigates work stress while family support helps to reduce more general psychological discomfort.
Elliott et al. (1986) carried out a study to determine the relationship among marital intimacy, marital satisfaction and police officers' stress. In this study a sample of practicing police officers and their spouses were interviewed. Findings of the study showed that (1) marital satisfaction among police officers is relatively unaffected by life stress, (2) marital intimacy does not serve as a mediating variable to police officers' stress, (3) wives' marital satisfaction is more adversely affected by insufficient or excessive marital intimacy than is husbands'.

Preetham Handelwal and Rupali Bhardwaj (1989) jointly conducted a study on role stress among police personnel. The sample of the study were policemen and policewomen from Delhi. The study revealed various stressors experienced by the police officers. The stressors were change in instruction or procedure, requirement to work for more than normal, sudden significant increase in activity level, too much work and too little time and feedback only when the performance is unsatisfactory. Another important factor was restricted family and social life.

Further, the study showed no significant difference between the male and the female at the inspector level. However, the female sub-inspectors were found to be more stressed and found to experience more stress than the women head constables and constables. In this study, correlation of stress with age was also calculated and it was found to be significant with negative correlation. The negative correlation between stress and age indicates that as a person becomes older, less stress is experienced by him.
ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS:

The role theory approach to stress represents a major theoretical development in organizational psychology in the field of stress (Keenan and Newton, 1987) The term role refers to "the position a person holds in a system as defined by the expectations of various significant persons, including himself, have from that position" (Pareek, 1983) Thus it is clear that role represents the functional expectations of a position an individual occupies.

The history of role approach to occupational stress dates back to Gross (1958) Significant contributions made by Kahn et al. (1964), and House and Rizzo (1972) helped in the development of this approach to the study of stress.

The importance of role stress as a set of constructs is largely due to the work done in the early 1960s by members of the Survey Research Centre and the Research Centre for Group Dynamics, both of the University of Michigan (French and Kahn, 1962, Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snock and Rosenthal, 1964) These Michigan groups concentrated on defining role stress constructs and examining how they rose.

Role stress approach in the early 1960s emphasized on the construct - 'Role conflict' Role conflict referred to expectations of two sources from a particular role or role occupant. Kahn et al. (1964) introduced role ambiguity as a major construct of role stress. Role ambiguity referred to lack of clarity regarding a role (Kahn et al., 1964) Later researches included role overload.
excess of a role on its occupant, and underload, equivalent to role erosion.

Role underload indicates lesser responsibilities to a role compared to the expectations of the role occupant.

At this stage, a significant contribution was made by Pareek (1983) who provided a framework for Role Stress constructs. Pareek viewed roles as systems by themselves. Hence, each role system is comprised of two groups of role stressors.

(a) Role space, which is the system of various roles an individual occupies and performs, and

(b) Role set, which is the system of various roles of which the individual's role is a part.

Pareek also chalked out Role space and Role set maps.

Role space

An individual occupies several roles in life. All these roles make up his role space with the self at the centre. The several roles are placed at various distances from the self and each other. These relationships of roles define role space. Role space is therefore, the dynamic inter-relationships both between the self and the various roles an individual occupies and amongst the several roles. The distance between a role and the self shows its level of integration with the self.
Role set

Role set is the complement of role relationships which persons have by virtue of occupying a particular status. Any individual’s role in an organisation is characterised by the expectations of self termed as ‘reflexive role expectations’ (Kahn et al. 1970) and expectations of others. Role set is the pattern of relationship between the role under consideration and other roles (Pareek, 1983)

Apart from studies dealing with role set, the constructs of role stress have been used in research on occupational stress too (Parasuraman and Alutto, 1981), Keenan and Newton, (1987), Caplan et al., (1980)

With an understanding of stress and the concept of role, organisational role stress could be explained as the responses made by an individual to demands created by problems in the role expectations in an organisation. However, role stress constructs have been widely used as variables in stress research.

The following are the role stress constructs

(a) Self Role Distance

The discrepancy between the self concept and the expectations from the role as perceived by the individual
(b) **Inter Role Distance**

Incompatibility between two roles occupied by the individual.

(c) **Role Stagnation**

Role loss due to occupation of the same role for a long time.

(d) **Role Ambiguity**

Lack of clarity about the various expectations people have about the role.

(e) **Role Isolation**

The distance between an individual's role and the role occupied by others.

(f) **Role Overload**

The perception by the role occupant that there are too many expectations from the significant roles in the role set.

(g) **Role Erosion**

The role occupant feels that some functions he would like to perform are being performed by others. This is considered equivalent to Role Underload.
Role Inadequacy

(i) Resource Inadequacy Role occupant does not have adequate resources to perform efficiently

(ii) Personal Inadequacy Role occupant feels less equipped for effective performance

Role Expectation Conflict

Role occupant feels discrepancies between the expectations of self and others of the role

Pareek (1963) made the above comprehensive list of role problems and developed a scale based on the above, which has been used in this study.

OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

It can be seen that thrust in the study of occupational stress came after World War II. The phenomenon of occupational stress has been studied widely using different approaches. Earlier studies concentrated on attitudinal and behavioural outcome of stress (Kahn et al., 1964), Sales (1970), Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) and others. These studies tend to support the view that stressors are critical intervening variables in models of organisational behaviour. They highlight organisational characteristics as generators of stress.
Buzzard, in 1973, did a more generalised analysis of the factors associated with stress. He stated that there are evidences to the idea that stress can contribute to poor work, unhappiness, and to some extent, illness. He put forth examples of stress induced by work factors from what has been learned from half a century of applied research. These have been presented in the form of a framework to aid further research.

Roger (1977) studied the components of stress in organisation in a sample of 113 Canadian male, upper-middle managers. The data was analysed by item comparison, factor analysis and cluster analysis. Factor analysis resulted in stress factor-labelled work-load, organisational structure and design, management responsibility, and communication and interpersonal interaction. Cluster analysis yielded five groups of individuals with different stress frequency patterns. These groups were labelled as organisation-centred, equalization-centred and self-actualization-centred.

Parasuraman and Alutto (1981) state that sources of stress in organizations are not randomly distributed within an organisation, but vary systematically among different roles and different positions or levels in an organisation. In the model established by Parasuraman and Alutto (1981), seven types of organizational stressors were related to three types of antecedent variables. The antecedent variables were (a) Contextual variables, (b) Role variables and (c) Task variables. The stressors included (i) inter-unit conflict, (ii) technical problems, (iii) efficiency problems, (iv) role frustration, (v) staff problems, (vi) short lead times and (vii) too many meetings.
Parasuraman and Alutto (1984) had developed a multidimensional model of stress including contextual, role-related and personal variables, and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes of stress

Brown (1986) attributed professional stress and burnout to organisational structure. He states that supervisors are crucial to decrease burnout. It was found that the traditional structure with lack of participation in decision-making was a cause for stress in organizations.

While Brown (1986) attributes stress to organisational structure, Fenner (1986) declared that variations in the reported organisational stress could be explained by better belief in powerful others than by chance or internality. The presence of stressful events in personal relationships were identified as the strongest predictor of organisational stress.

Certain symptoms have previously been shown to be a positive function of stressful (i.e.) undesirable life events from two domains - (a) job and income-related, and (b) non-job related. In addition to these two known risk factors, a host of other variables operate on symptoms independently of stressful life events (main effects), and/or by moderating the effects of events on symptoms (interaction effects). The additional variables may be classified as person-centred and environmental variables (Dooly, Rook and Catalano, 1987). Thus Dooley et al (1987) points out that non-job or income-related stressors also have an impact on stress.
STUDIES ON ROLE STRESS

One of the important approaches to stress is the role theory approach. This approach dates back to Gross (1958). Kahn et al. (1964) made significant contribution to role stress studies. Later researches have concentrated on this approach to a great extent.

One of the oldest subjectively defined variable of stress is role ambiguity, the opposite of clarity about what one is supposed to do on a job, its purpose, its responsibilities, etc. Kahn et al. (1964) reported substantial correlations of role ambiguity with strain variables. This was found from a nation wide self-report survey done in the United States of America among 1,500 respondents. Some of these findings have been replicated often. The results from the study show significant relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction ($r = -0.32$), job related tension ($r = 0.51$), and self confidence ($r = -0.27$).

Kahn et al. (1964) studied role conflict in relation to job satisfaction and personality. The results showed that greater role conflict led to lower job satisfaction and higher job tension. In introverts, role conflict produced greater tension, than in extroverts. Flexible individuals suffered greater job tension due to conflict than the rigid, since they tend to blame themselves when things go wrong while the rigid blame the environment.
Caplan and French (1970) studied 205 NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Association) engineers, scientists and administrators. They reported that role ambiguity was correlated with job satisfaction \( r = -0.42 \), with feelings of job-related threat of well being \( r = 0.40 \).

While the above studies concentrated on the constructs of role stress, House and Rizzo (1972) studied the concept of role stress as a whole. They found that structural factors such as formalization were related to perceived role stress.

Hamner and Tosi (1974) and Caplan and associates (1975) reported significant association between job conflict and anxiety. Schuler (1975) found significant relationships of role perceptions to job satisfaction and job performance. Role stress also incorporate role overload, underload, etc. Frankenhauser in (1977) outlines a multi-dimensional approach to role overload and underload. He identified a variety of determinants to them.

In 1976, Miles examined the relationships between major role requirements and experienced role stress using data from 202 research and development personnel. The variables studied were (i) role conflict, (ii) role ambiguity, (iii) role requirements including role boundary spanning and role integration, (iv) personnel supervision, and (v) scientific research.
It was found that (a) Role conflict was more sensitive than role ambiguity to differences in research and development requirements. (b) Integration and boundary spanning activities were the best predictors of experienced role stress especially of the intersetender variety.

Harigopal (1980) found that high and low ego strength differed significantly with role ambiguity and role conflict. Ego strength was found to moderate the relationship between role ambiguity and company satisfaction, role ambiguity and job involvement, role conflict and job involvement.

Parasuram in and Alutto (1984) reported significant relationship between role frustration and felt stress through net regression weights \( p = .27 \) (significant at .01 level) similar relationship between role stress and job satisfaction \( p = -.15 \) (significant at .05 level).

A comprehensive study of role stress was done by Keenan and Newton (1987). A multi-variate analysis which examined the relationship between three sets of predictor variables and four role stress variables was carried out. The variables are given below:

a) Role stress variables - Role conflict, role ambiguity, quantitative overload and qualitative overload

b) Predictor variables -
   (i) Personal variables
   (ii) Interpersonal variables, and
   (iii) Organizational factors
The study found a strong support to hypothesized relationships. Significant association was found between both type A behaviour and higher order needs and role ambiguity, support from immediate supervisor and overload, organizational climate and both conflict and overload, and other similar results. The results of this study are highly illuminating.

When reviewing the studies on occupational stress and specifically, organizational role stress, it can be seen that role stress and the component constructs are related negatively to social support, warm climate, job satisfaction, well being, job performance, etc., and positively related to job tension, felt stress reactions, anxiety, etc. The replication of these results by later researchers shows that these relationships are rather consistent.

SOCIAL SUPPORT

Stress, in recent times, has often been related to social support (Keenan and Newton, 1987). The concept of social support refers to providing material and non-material support to individuals when needed. Social support has been defined by House (1981) as "an inter-personal transaction involving one or more of the following:

1. emotional concern (liking, love and empathy)
2. instrumental aid (goods or services)
3. information (about the environment)
4. the appraisal (information relevant to self evaluation)
Thus, the features of social support are adequately brought out by the definition. Social support is a two-way process. It involves both material and non-material support. Social support can be provided by family and other primary group members, co-workers, supervisors and others including quasi-formal networks.

The concept of social support has a rich background of theory and practical application. It has been used very frequently as a moderator. Social support has been in use in clinical, educational, social and community psychology (Snoenfield, 1986, Sokolove and Tru'le, 1986, Haltzinger, 1985, Ross, 1987, Beehr et al., 1989, etc). The history of research in social support is extensive considering the wide areas of application.

Social support in relation to stress which is specific to job situations has considerable theoretical background (Dooley, Rook and Catalano, 1987, La Rocco et al., 1980, Mitchel et al., 1983).

A review of some of these researches leads to some issues. Some of the main contentions are:

a) Social support has become the most studied moderator of stressful life events in recent years.

b) Social support has been identified as a resource that enables individuals to cope with stress (House, 1981). Individuals who have supportive relationships are able to rely on others to aid them in dealing with stressful situations.
c) Research to date has focussed almost exclusively on the consequences of support and has paid little attention to its causes or correlates (House, 1981)

d) There is a controversy regarding whether social support has a general ameliorative effect rather than specific stress buffering effect (La Racco et al., 1980, Mitchel et al., 1983, etc).

e) Extending the above contention, could the source of support, personality of the individual, the type of situation calling for support, etc., (Russell et al., 1987) affect the level of support.

f) Social support has been studied in depth as a moderator of stress-train relationship. It is now viewed that support could also be an antecedent determining the extent to which stress is perceived (Keenan and Newton, 1987).

g) Social support has been related to stress very often. There could be other areas of research where social support could be effectively applied as well (Russell et al., 1987). Furthermore, since social support is essentially inter-personal in nature, cultural influence could significantly affect the results.

Social support is also a relatively new concept to organizational behavior. It has been widely used in researches in psychopathology, criminology, social psychology, community psychology, etc. Significant contributions to the study of social support has been made by Caplan et al., (1975), Cobb et al., (1976), House and Rizzo (1972, 1976), Pinneau (1976), etc.
According to Pinneau (1976) "men with high support from either the supervisor or co-workers generally reported low role conflict, low role ambiguity, high participation and good utilization of skills" He also found that depression, anxiety and irritation were affected by support both from home and on the job. There are however, no clear evidence of any buffering effect, no diminution of the psychological effects of stress when support was present. Pinneau (1976) added that his scrutiny of previous research failed to find any either. He felt that social support should be most ameliorative when the amount available fits the amount wanted. However, later studies show a different set of results.

Research to date has focussed almost exclusively on the consequences of social support and has paid little attention to its causes or correlates (House, 1981, Workman and J Dunkel-Schetter, 1987). Factors possibly influencing social support receipt include characteristics of recipients, of provider of stressors, of environments, etc. (Dunkel-Schetter et al., 1987). Later researches also lend credence to this.

Griffith (1985) reports his findings that most of his 359 subjects preferred same sex friends and immediate family as support provider. Women and persons of similar age, race and background were better preferred as supporters.

Goldberg et al., (1986) reported that most of her subjects were able to meet important social support needs with the aid of primary group rather than formal organizational supporters.
Dunkel-Satter et al., (1987) states that certain types of people receive more support than others and certain types of situations are more strongly associated with support than others. Such results have been reported by others too.

**Social Support and Stress**

Social support is viewed most often as a moderator of stress. This result has been proved true in clinical and therapeutic psychology.

Pinneau (1976) reports no buffering effect on psychological effects of stress by the presence of social support. Later results contradict these findings to a great extent.

House (1981) states that individuals who have supportive social relationships are able to rely on others to aid them in dealing with stressful situations. He also reported that support from co-workers and supervisors was most helpful for the reduction of job-related stress.

Zautra (1963) also stated: "It has been suggested that social support would be most likely to serve as a buffer if it is specific to the needs posed by the stressors." This view was not shared by Mitchel et al., (1983). Haltzinger (1985) reported that stress and high social support provided by children, relations and neighbours and even other non-family members reduced not only stress but stress-induced depression also.
Dooley and Rook (1985), regarding specifying of social support to stress, stated that interventions aimed at enhancing social support could be as effectively targeted at the general population as at specific stressed sub-populations.

Sokolove and Trimble (1986) discuss the importance of assessing the social support and life stressors of chronic stress patients. They also provide a guideline for such assessments.

The role of social support as a buffer of stress was also reported by Ross (1987). She reported significant interaction between negative life events as stressors and social support and the impact of masculinity and femininity on this. In her subjects, social support combined with sex role typing proved to be an effective buffer of stress.

Dooley et al., (1987), add to the controversy regarding the specificity of social support. They hypothesized that social support has general beneficial effects rather than specific stress oriented buffering effects. This was proved true from their findings also.

However, Russell et al., (1987) point out that consistent with studies on job stress and social support in other occupations, among teachers, support received from co-workers and supervisors may be more important for reduction of stress and burnout.
Looking into the studies done on social support, it can be inferred that (a) social support is very much person and environment-dependent. Individuals have specific preferences to the source and amount of social support.

Keenan et al. (1987) in a comprehensive study on role stress found that social support could act as a precedent to role stress by influencing the perception of role stress.

(b) Regarding the relationship of social support to stress, it can be derived that (a) social support has been used as an effective moderator of stress. (b) However, there is a controversy regarding whether social support should be specific to the stress situation or whether it could serve as a general buffer.

The general inference tends to favour a negative relationship between the two variables—occupational stress and social support.

**LIFE SATISFACTION**

Quality of life may be defined as an individual's sense of psychological well-being or avowed happiness (Bradburn 1969). Life satisfaction is an index of quality of life. It has various "haves" and "have-nots." Life satisfaction is influenced most by satisfaction with five domains of life, viz., family, health, community, work, and spare-time activities (Andrews and Withey 1973, Bharadwaj and Wilkening 1977, Campbell et al., 1976).
Andrews and Whithey (1973) gave some measures of perceived life quality. Social indicators of life satisfaction were classified into subjective and objective (Andrews, 1974). Studies in the United States (Campbell, 1976) and in Scandinavia (Allardt, 1975) show consistently low correlations between objective level of indices and measures of subjective satisfaction. This discrepancy between objective welfare and subjective well-being has upset the old notion that life satisfaction would continue to improve only with increasing material assets (Boyden, 1973, Frankenhausser, 1977).

Kavanagh and Halpern (1970) studied the impact of job level and sex differences on the relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction and found that job satisfaction was a contributing factor for life satisfaction but they may not always correlate.

Iris and Barrett (1972) measured life satisfaction on four dimensions, i.e., life (life in general), family, leisure and job. Positive correlation between life and job satisfaction were found, similar to the results obtained by Kornhauser (1965).

Rao and Srivastava (1977) explored the linkage between family life and work life including factors such as quality of work life, job satisfaction, attitude towards family planning, caste, religion, determinants of family life satisfaction, etc.

Mehta (1973) found money as an important factor in general life satisfaction, though not the only one. Sinha (1969) presents the concept of happiness on a village sample, giving an insight into the "life" needs and values.
Sinha (1982) in his study on 'Quality of working life and quality of life', concludes that the quality of working life and quality of life have a direct relationship, but the relationship varies with socio-cultural effect. This implies that an individual leading a happy and contended life will certainly have a better quality of working life than an unhappy person whose life quality is not good. The changed need patterns, the changed environment and different requirements, which result from socio-cultural background are also instrumental in the assessment of one's quality of working life as well as quality of life.

Wilensky (1960) attributes three hypotheses which have generally dominated job-life satisfaction research (1) spillover hypothesis - work experiences generalized or extended to the other domains of life (Parker and Smith, 1976, Seeman, 1967), (2) compensation hypothesis-extra-work activities compensate for experiences and rewards denied at work, and (3) segmentation hypothesis - the work and non-work domains of life are sharply separated from one another without significant mutual influence (Dubin, 1956, 1958, 1973).

Based upon observed correlations between job-and life satisfaction typically in the 20's and 30's, researchers generally have concluded that the spillover hypothesis appears to be the most plausible alternative. The position is buttressed by the Western emphasis on work as the path to self-improvement (Neff, 1968) and the tremendous amount of time people devote to work (Robinson, 1977). Conversely, however, it is important to note that job satisfaction adds relatively little to the prediction of life satisfaction when

A study conducted by Khaleque and Jahan (1986) reveal that though the majority of the working women (71%), in their study, have expressed satisfaction with their job, yet they have described many aspects of their life negatively. Although the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction has no often been investigated, yet the results of a number of studies suggest that job satisfaction is related to life satisfaction (Kornhauser & Sharp, 1932, Herzberg et al, 1957, Hulin, 1969, Andrews & Withey, 1976)

A study conducted by Srivastava (1978) on ‘Life Satisfaction of Executives’ brought out the following results. The results confirm that life satisfaction goes on increasing as one goes up in the organizational hierarchy. Upper status people are more satisfied with their lives than the lower status ones. His data also confirmed the association between income and life satisfaction. Life satisfaction goes on increasing as income increases. This was true even when occupational level was kept constant.