CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS
This chapter presents a review of literatures related to this study. It briefly describes some of the literature related to the dependent variables like occupational stress, job satisfaction, health status, and job security. In addition to this, the influencing personal variables like age, gender, marital status, religion, educational qualification, occupation, years of experience, income, welfare facilities and working conditions on occupational stress, job satisfaction, health status, and job security were also discussed. These reviews are presented under four headings namely occupational stress, job satisfaction, health status and job security.

Sharon Jayson (2010) his study shows that young adults experience negative emotions more frequently than those who are older. Negative emotions, such as stress and anger, are similar in that they consistently decline with age. After 50 things start dropping off dramatically in terms of worry and stress. That's the turning point in some ways, but it is not a magic number in terms of everything that is better. Stress is "constantly dropping, but the curve gets much steeper after age 50. Similar emotion research in which 184 people aged 18-94 were given beepers and asked to share their emotions at random times they were beeped during the day.

Balakrishnamurthy and Swetha Shankar (2009) stated in his study that experience group, viz., with experience between 11 and 20 years, had markedly higher amount of stress than their counterparts, including the entire group taken together. Interestingly, the mean stress score of the group with experience of 21 to 30 years revealed low levels of stress when compared with all the other experience groups. This means more experienced people learnt certain stress-coping tactics in the course of their experience, thereby enabling them to effectively deal with the stress triggered due to their personal and professional commitments. This trend was inverted in the less experienced groups. The study also strongly indicates the relationship between stress and demographic variables such as age and level of experience.
Chen and his collaborators (2009) during a study on the group of platform workers in an offshore oil company in south china, after controlling for age, educational level, marital status and years of offshore working, found that poor mental health is positively associated with occupational stress.

Elizabeth Scott, M.S. (2009) has stated that many people would expect those who hold higher-powered jobs to experience more stress to go with those jobs, but research from psychosomatic medicine and other research sources state that, it is those in lower socioeconomic levels experience greater levels of stress and experience more stress-related health problems as well. More often it is the higher-level workers who have more personal choices in their lifestyles and more resources at their disposal, leading to lower levels of stress. Those in higher socioeconomic levels make healthier choices: those of lower socioeconomic status tend to deal with stress by smoking. They are also more likely to skip breakfast, and have a less diverse social network. These factors are all correlated with poorer health outcomes. Higher socioeconomic status brings greater resources for health: those in lower levels of socioeconomic status tend to have poorer health outcomes because they are less able to take care of their health and even afford health care, among other things. This contributes to greater levels of stress.

Plaisier, et al. (2007) suggested that poor working conditions may be an important precursor of stress and may, therefore, contribute to the development of depression or anxiety. There are abundant studies exploring the relationship between working conditions and stress. Rovik, et al. (2007) illustrate work hours have also been shown to be related to increased job stress, especially related to family, in physicians and to emotional exhaustion in those doing people work (Daalen, Willemsen, Sanders & Veldhoven (2009). Physicians, who tend to work more than 40 hours per week as clergy do, also point to family issues relating to job stress.

Armstrong and Griffin, (2006) conducted a research that indicates that most stress for correctional staff comes from role stress, particularly in terms of role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, perceived dangerousness of the job, and work-family conflict. Dileep Kumar. M (2006) his study indicates that there is significant difference in the level
of occupational stress between nationalized and non-nationalized bank employees, occupational stress is found higher among non-nationalized employees compared to nationalized employees and among different occupational stress variables role over-load, role authority, role conflict and lack of senior level support contribute more to the occupational stress among non-nationalized employees compared to nationalized employees.

Stimulus (2006) identified in private sector that significantly more people experiences higher stress levels (22.6%) than in public sector (13.5%). The sectors showing the highest levels of stress are skilled trades (45% of workers), cleaning (36%), hotels, restaurants and catering, and retail (both 32.4%). In those sectors, two to three times many people experience high stress levels compared to other areas, such as manufacturing (13.1%), teaching (13.8%), the public sector (14.3%) or financial services (15.5%). A very low level of educational attainment is closely related to the experience of high stress levels. William Doyle (2006) found a graded association, where those with highest levels of income and education show the lowest levels of stress, those in the middle show higher levels, and those at the lowest end show the greatest levels.

Fotinatos-Ventouratos and Cooper (2005) revealed significant differences in terms of physical and psychological wellbeing amongst the male and female sample. Mohsin Aziz (2004) found that there was a difference in the level of stress between married and unmarried employees on several role stressors. However, level of education does not emerge as a significant differentiator of stressors. Sethi, King and Quick (2004) proposed that inadequate training, poor performance evaluations, lack of job security, working conditions, poor communication with other co-workers, fuzzy requirements and specifications, and lack of career development were the factors that make employees stressful.

Amat Taap Manshor, Rodrigue Fontaine and Chong Siong Choy (2003) in their study examined the sources of occupational stress and it was found that workloads, working conditions, and relationship at work were the main concern that lead to stress at the work place. The results also indicate that certain demographic variables (age, income, and years of experience) do influence the level of stress.
North (2001) states that nearly two-third of the Australian employees are under extreme stress at work. Japan's institute of life and living reports that 68 percent people in that country say that they often feel worried and anxious, up from 37 percent a decade earlier. All 260 nurses who responded to survey in New South Wales experienced some form of stress at least weekly. Triplett, Mullings and Scarborough (1999) state that work-family conflict has been found to be positively linked with increased job stress among correctional staff.

Shigemi, et al. (1997) in their survey of 782 workers in an electronic company in Japan found that items related to subjective job stress because of "too much trouble at work", "too much responsibility", "poor relationship with superiors", "not allowed to make mistakes", and "unable to keep up with new technology" were related to mental health conditions. Struckhoff (1979) has found that income appears to be a major determinant in the amount of stress experienced.

Lord (1996) in a study of Southern police officers, reported a relationship between job involvement and the stressors of role conflict and role ambiguity. Sharpley, et al. (1996) states that staff between the ages 31 and 40 suffered most from job stress.

Khaled A. and Ben-Bakr (1995) has stated that the employees who are less than 30 years old experienced the highest levels of stress; employees with six-to-ten years of experience showed the highest levels of stress. It is found that there is a significant inverse relationship between educational level and stress level.

Dua (1994) has stated that older employees have often reached a stage where career development is not their major concern, and hence a number of job characteristics which may cause stress to younger staff, who have their career ahead of them, do not cause stress to older staff. It was also found that the staff employed at the higher job levels were found to be less stressed than those employed at the lower job levels which revealed that younger staff members reported more job stress than older staff.

(physical working conditions, role factors, interpersonal conflict, over/under promotion, job insecurity and organizational change). These sources interact with individual characteristics, organizational context, and work group factors, yielding individual symptoms (e.g., poor health, absenteeism, resistance to change, ego defence mechanisms) as well as group symptoms (e.g., groupthink, internecine strife).

Ganster and Schaubroeck (1991) point out that women experience the greater level of stress as they are more vulnerable to the demands of work to the extent that they often have more non-work demands than men.

Bogg and Cooper conducted a study with 1051 British civil servants, in which gender differences in occupational stress and strain were investigated. The OSI was used to measure job satisfaction, mental health and physical health. It was found that the female participants were significantly more job dissatisfied, and had poorer mental and physical health compared to the male participants. They were also more concerned about their role at work, and the work and home interface. The male participants were mainly affected by level of control at work and their achievement oriented behavior.

NIOSH (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health) has stated that job conditions may lead to stress: the design of tasks, management style, interpersonal relationships, work roles, career concerns, and environmental conditions.

2.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Parvathy (2010) made a study and it shows that working condition is an important factor for job satisfaction. Good working atmosphere and pleasant surroundings help increase the production of industry. Working conditions are more important to women workers than men workers.

Liu, Zhen and Yang, Jie (2009) carried out a study and the findings show that there are four factors of job satisfaction; there is no significant difference between demographic variables of employees and job satisfaction, but three work-related factors are uncommonly related to job satisfaction.
Sukumar (2009) has found that the correlation between the age and satisfaction level has a negative correlation and there is a significant relationship between gender and level of satisfaction. The study also reveals that highly satisfied employees are more among above 5 member’s family size and the medium satisfaction in 3 – 5 members’ family size. The study found that there was no significant relationship between family size and level of satisfaction and there was a significant relationship between educational qualification and level of satisfaction. The analysis of the survey revealed that there is a significant relationship between nature of job and level of satisfaction, and there is a significant relationship between monthly income and level of satisfaction.

Ali Mohammad Mosadeghrad, Ewan Ferlie and Duska Rosenberg (2008) found that variables such as employees' age, gender, work experience years, organizational position, type of employment and salaries received, and benefits were seen as having significant effects on their job satisfaction.

Elliot Susseles (2008) has found that the largest decline in overall job satisfaction, from 60.9% to 49.2%, occurred among workers aged 35-44. The second largest decline took place among workers aged 45-54, with the satisfaction level dropping from 57.3% to 47.7%. The smallest decline occurred among workers aged 65 and over. Overall job satisfaction declined from 60.8% to 58.0%, making this group the most satisfied with their jobs.

Lourel, Abdellaoui, Chevaleyre, Paltrier and Gana (2008) state that this sense of control in the workplace also contributes to job satisfaction in fire-fighters. Daalen et al. (2009) states that autonomy was related to decreased emotional exhaustion in those people doing work. Reena Ali and Shakil Ahmed.M (2008) carried their study and it shows that immense support for positive relationship between reward and employee satisfaction. This study suggests the positive relationship between reward and satisfaction.

Justina A.V. Fischer and Alfonso Sousa-Poza (2007) found a positive link between job satisfaction (and changes over time therein) and subjective health measures (and changes therein); that is, employees with higher or improved job satisfaction levels feel healthier and are more satisfied with their health. This observation also holds true for more
objective measures of health. Particularly, improvements in job satisfaction over time appear to prevent workers from (further) health deterioration. Randall (2007) states that increased age has also been found to be related to increased job satisfaction.

Beverley Ann Josias (2005) found that the six biographical characteristics (gender, age, number of dependents, tenure and marital status) significantly explain the variance in job satisfaction. The variance accounted for by these six variables is however, relatively small. Furthermore, the results indicate that job level and tenure are the best predictors of job satisfaction in the selected sample. Hang-yue, Foley, and Loi (2005) state that uncertainty of job expectations, volume of work, incompatibility of expectations, and work-family conflict increase emotional exhaustion, and uncertainty of expectations decreases job satisfaction.

Kim, Sangmook (2005) did not find clear gender differences in overall job satisfaction in Turkey, but did find clear and significant gender differences related to pay satisfaction and satisfaction with the physical environment. Mike Bery (2005) has found that an average level of job satisfaction among British women workers has been falling for 15 years, despite greater equality in work place and flexible working laws. British women workers used to have significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than men in the UK, but now they have almost the same level as male workers. Men's job satisfaction has remained constant over the period. The results seem to be a sign of growing pressures on women in the workplace, as women compete increasingly with men for better jobs.

Nicholas Chileshe (2003) suggests that although both younger and older workers rank the relationship with workmates as being poor, age does not have an influence on the effects of the aspects of work, however, the differences are significant for one of the job satisfaction effects with younger workers reporting higher scores on “indifference”, whereas the younger workers rank poor recognition of abilities as the most effect in comparison to the older workers who reported suffering from a “lack of alertness” as the most ranked effect. Rogers and May (2003) have stated that marital discord and more children are related to decreased job satisfaction.
Spector (2003) maintained those environmental aspects, personality variables, or a combination of these serve as antecedents to job satisfaction. Environmental antecedents include a variety of job-related features that impact on job satisfaction, e.g. job characteristics and job tasks, as well as various aspects of the organisation. He distinguished a number of significant personal and environmental factors specifically, namely job characteristics, role variables, work-family conflict, age, gender, race, cognitive ability, job experience, use of skills, job congruence and occupational level.

Heywood, et al. (2002) also found that British union members had lower job satisfaction and the authors added that public sector workers had higher satisfaction than private sector workers. Huddleston, et al. (2002) indicated that job satisfaction appears to increase with age, and those employees older than 40 years seem to be considerably more satisfied in the workplace than their younger counterparts.

Sempane, Rieger and Roodt (2002) hold that job satisfaction relates to people’s own evaluation of their jobs against those issues that are important to them. Since emotions and feelings are involved in such assessments, employees’ levels of job satisfaction may impact significantly on their personal, social and work lives, and as such, also influence their behaviour at work. Ellickson and Logsdon (2001) argue that job satisfaction has two major groups of causes: environmental antecedents (work-related factors) and personal factors.

Tapan K. Panda (2001) has found that majority of the respondents (73%) are satisfied with the job they are doing and it is observed that salary is rated highest for providing job satisfaction in the companies. It is also found that there is no significant influence of personal factors on the overall job satisfaction except experience and there is a significant positive correlation between job satisfaction and performance. There is a significant negative correlation between the level of satisfaction and perception of the employees on job security. It is observed that job satisfaction has a negative correlation with job status.

Byrd, Cochran, Silverman & Blount (2000); Dennis (1998); Jurik & Winn (1987); Lambert, Edwards, Camp & Saylor (2005); Whitehead & Lindquist (1986); Wright
(1993) state that conversely, lower levels of job satisfaction have been found to lead to negative outcomes, such as burnout, absenteeism, turnover intent and turnover. Harry Onsman (1999) discusses a retrospective Gallup study of one million employees in North America. This study showed that the elements in the workplace that contribute to a state of job satisfaction are all "group-level" items.

Reyhan Bilgic (1998) has found that monthly payment is the best predictor of overall satisfaction. Age, sex, education, number of children, and different measures of tenure are the significant predictors of different aspects of job satisfaction. Marital status is not related to any of the measures of job satisfaction. Schultz and Schultz (1998) hold the view that job satisfaction encompasses the positive and negative feelings and attitudes people hold about their jobs, and that these depend on many work-related characteristics, but also on personal characteristics, such as age, gender, health and social relationships.

Clark (1997) reports that for highly educated individuals, job satisfaction gender differential is insignificant. It is also found that job satisfaction decreases with decrease in age. Cable and Judge (1994) state that pay satisfaction is an important variable that is linked to some rather significant organizational outcomes with evidence showing that it may lead to decreased job satisfaction, decreased motivation and performance/input, increased absenteeism and turnover and more pay-related grievances and lawsuits.

Glenn Bassett (1994) in his article has stated that dissatisfaction is consistently associated with higher levels of labor turnover. Those workers who are most dissatisfied also exhibit a higher frequency of absence. Absences are also known to increase with alcoholism, addiction, and poor health. The most common basis of separation for cause is excessive absenteeism, and the major cause of these absences is the physical inability to be at work. Absences may also be the result of dissatisfaction outside the workplace that has nothing to do with one's job. Thus, while absences and dissatisfaction are sometimes statistically correlated, costly and extensive redesign of work to increase satisfaction with the purpose of reducing absenteeism would be difficult to justify in many if not most instances. There is no indication that high pay alone improves worker satisfaction or reduces dissatisfaction. Indeed, higher-than-market pay for similar work that locks one into the job may become a source of decreased satisfaction among workers who dislike their job
but feel they cannot afford to enter a more satisfying occupation. Wages are most commonly a source of dissatisfaction with those workers who feel they are unfairly paid for their level of effort, skill, and experience. Observing that a co-worker with similar skill, ability, and work output is paid higher is very likely to elicit dissatisfaction.

Bergen, Aceto, and Chadziewicz (1992) in the study of police psychologists found no statistically significant correlation between job involvement and job satisfaction. Ostroff (1992) has stated that the dependent factors include the individual characteristics (values, interests, needs, attitudes); the characteristics of the organization (reward practices, physical work environment, colleagues, immediate supervisor) and the characteristics of job (types of intrinsic rewards, the degree of autonomy, the amount of direct performance feedback, the variety of tasks). Some of the independent variables that have been found to affect job satisfaction are employee motivation and performance. Cranny, Smith, and Stone (1992), reveal that job satisfaction is an effective response by a worker concerning his or her particular job, and it results from an overall comparison of actual outcomes with outcomes the worker needs, wants, or desires.

Culliver, Sigler and McNeely (1991) Camp (1994); Lambert (1999), (2006); Stohr, Self and Lovrich (1992) state that organizational commitment has been linked to positive correctional staff behaviours, such as higher levels of job performance and negatively related to negative outcomes, such as absenteeism and turnover. The results of this study suggest that job involvement may lead to increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment among correctional workers.

The research evidence regarding gender differences in job satisfaction is inconsistent and contradictory. Some studies have found no differences, e.g. De Vaus and McAllister (1991), but others have shown that there are sources of dissatisfaction, but that these differ between females who have chosen a career voluntarily, and those who are forced to work to support their families. There is some speculation that these dissatisfactions may, in fact, not be gender-related but rather sex-related, e.g. revolve around issues such as salary discrimination between men and women, and fewer promotion opportunities for women.
Decarufel and Schaan (1990, 86) state that an individual with a high degree of job involvement would place the job at the centre of his/her life interests. The well-known phrase ‘I live, eat, and breathe my job’ would describe someone whose job involvement is very high. Persons with low job involvement would place something other than their jobs (e.g., family, hobbies) at the centre of their lives”. Decarufel and Schaan (1990) made a study of Canadian police officers observed that job involvement correlated positively with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Rogers, et al. (1987) have stated that occupational stress could also result from work design, job qualifications, job performance and organizational structure. Jackson (1983) states that the impact of stress on satisfaction is far more straightforward. Job related stress tends to decrease general job satisfaction. Fox (1982); Kerce, Magnusson and Rudolph (1994); Lambert, Hogan et al.,( 2005) points out among correctional staff, higher levels of job satisfaction have been linked to positive work outcomes, such as greater support for rehabilitation, satisfaction with life, and compliance with organizational rules and goals.

Rainey (1979 and 1983) showed that private employees are more interested in pay, task, working environment, and promotion opportunities, whereas public employees are more interested in job security and a sense of influence and achievement. Brief, Aldag and Wallden (1976) conducted a study of Midwestern police officers and found that supervisory initiation of structure in the workplace correlated positively with the level of self-reported job involvement which leads to job satisfaction. Kahn et al (1964) states that it is a well established fact that employee’s job satisfaction and job stress are related to one another.

2.3 HEALTH STATUS
As mentioned, mental ill-health is one possible outcome of severe occupational stress. The world health organization (WHO) defines mental health as a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community (WHO 2011). Thus, promoting employees mental health to reduce
organization's lack of productivity, job dissatisfaction and absenteeism is most crucial and urgent.

Rospenda (2002) describes Interpersonal relationships have been demonstrated to be a significant antecedent of the stress/strain process when they are characterized by behaviour that is harassing or abusive. Thus, harassment is seen as a possible job stressor, like as psychological demands and decision latitude, and affecting mental health. Sverke, Hellgren (2002) identifies three moderators -- individual differences, perceptions of fairness, social support -- have been identified in the relationship between consequences of job insecurity such as work-related attitudes, job performance, physical health (insomnia, nausea, headaches), mental well-being, and job induced stress symptoms.

Mackie, Holalan, and Gottlieb (2001) explain that management practices also affect both perceived work stress and depression of those being supervised. Pollard (2001) states that uncertainty about occupational future and role ambiguity during an organizational change appeared to be associated with reduction in mental health.

Soares, Lawoko (2000) explains that aggression is usually associated with poor physical working environment, poor psychological climate and has an impact on both stressful working conditions and the outcomes in terms of psychological health. Vahtera, et al. (2000) through the three-wave studies by addressed the effects of downsizing employees health and found the interaction between job demands and social support, as well as the interaction between job control and social support predicted sickness absence, a facet of psychological illness.

Gardiner, et al. (1999) states that leadership style is also a predictor of both stress and poor psychological health in a male dominated industry. Balloch, et al. (1998) made Scores on the General Health Questionnaire (indicating mental health problems) were higher when the demands exceeded the availability of skills, or when conflicting demands at work were experienced but also when work related violence and abuse were experienced. Rout, Cooper, and Rout (1996) state that job demands in combination with other stressors (practice administration, interruptions, working environment, routine medical work,
emotional involvement and work/home interface and social life) have been found to predict levels of mental ill-health.

Kirkcaldy, Cooper, and Brown (1995) state that lack of social support appeared to be part of an overall job stress measure and did predict reduced mental/physical health and job satisfaction. Norvell, et al. (1993); Schulz, et al. (1995); Hromco et al. (1995) state that while in some studies stress and ill-health are considered to be an outcome of work as is job dissatisfaction, in other studies job stress is seen as causing dissatisfaction as well as mental health problems. Smoot, et al. (1995) reveals that turnover is predicted by the organizational climate or the characteristics of the environment as well as by the feelings of burnout. Warr (1994) also found that lack of decision latitude and high level of job demands were two important stressors that predicted anxiety and depression.

Kirkcaldy, Cooper, Furnham, and Brown (1993) reveal that external locus of control predicted both mental health and physical health and lack of possibilities for promotion is a job stressor leading to mental ill-health. Mishra, and Somany (1993) show clear evidence that employees who work under stressful conditions are suffering from decreased mental health and that traumatic work-related events have psychological consequences. Wollman (1993), Sutherland, and Cooper (1993) found that psychological ill health (anxiety, depression) was primarily predicted by high levels of job demands, demanding customers, lack of social support, coping strategies and administrative tasks.

Johnson, 1986; and Hall (1988) state that low social support at work further increases the risk for negative health consequences. Cooper and Sutherland (1987) in a research on 194 male employees on drilling rig and production platform installations in the United Kingdom and Netherlands in the North Sea concluded that "poor relationships at work and at home" is a significant predictor of reduced mental health.

Karasek (1979) illustrates the Job Demand Control model postulates that a psychological work environment is characterized by the combination of the level of job demands and the level of job control. And the model predicts that the most adverse reactions, or psychological strain, occur when the psychological demands are high and the worker’ decision latitude (constraints in decision making or lack of control over the task) is low.
2.4 JOB SECURITY

Lim and Leng Loo (2003) also prove that there is also evidence that reactions to job insecurity may have consequences for the individual’s family, and even influence children’s attitudes toward work, as they see their parents experiencing and reacting to work stressors. Hellgren and Sverke (2003) have shown that initial levels of job insecurity are related to subsequent mental health complaints, rather than the opposite – that initial levels of mental health complaints influence subsequent levels of job insecurity.

Mattiasson, Lindgärde, Nilsson & Theorell (1990); Mohr (2000) have shown that subjective job insecurity is both more strongly and more often related to mental health complaints as compared to the more physical and biological markers of health. In their model of job insecurity, its antecedents and consequences, Greenhalgh and Rosenblatt (1984) suggested that individual differences could be expected to moderate the relationship between the experience of job insecurity and the employee’s reactions to it. Naswall, Sverke & Hellgren (2001) state there are, for example, indications that men react more negatively to job insecurity than women.

De Witte (1999) has suggested that the degree to which an individual reacts to job insecurity is influenced by demographic characteristics like gender, age, and civil status. Frese (1985); and Kinnunan et al. (1999) indicate persons who have low-status (often manual) jobs and low income are often more dependent on their income and are therefore generally thought to be more vulnerable to the threat of job loss. Netemeyer, Bolens, and McMurrian (1996) suggested that the demands the individual perceives he/she has to live up to when experiencing job insecurity may influence relations outside work, in that it may be difficult to perform well in several demanding roles simultaneously.

Armstrong-Stassen (1993); and Rosenblatt (1999) have empirically confirmed the expectation that higher levels of job insecurity would be associated with decrease in self-rated performance. Roskies and her associates (1993) also found that personality was the most important predictor of distress, even more important than the perception of job insecurity. Roskies and Louis-Guerin (1990) examined the relative importance of various aspects of job insecurity on mental health and work commitment, and found that
insecurity about future working conditions was more strongly related to the outcomes than insecurity about demotion and termination.

Ashford, et al. (1989) showed that employees who felt insecure about their future employment were more dissatisfied with their jobs as compared to those who perceived their future job situation as more secure. Ashford, et al. (1989); Barling and Kelloway (1996); Hartley, et al. (1991); and, Jick (1985) state that in terms of health-related consequences, many studies have documented that job insecurity is negatively related to employee well-being. Physical health complaints, mental distress, and work-to-leisure carry-over tend to increase with the level of job insecurity experienced.

**2.5 SUMMARY**

The review of literature on occupational stress shows that young adults experience negative emotions more frequently than those who are older. Experience group, viz., with experience between 11 and 20 years, had markedly higher amount of stress and demographic variables age, educational level, marital status and years of offshore working, found that poor mental health is positively associated with occupational stress. Higher socioeconomic status brings greater resources for health: those in lower levels of socioeconomic status tend to have poorer health outcomes because they are less able to take care of their health and even afford health care, among other things. Poor working conditions may be an important precursor of stress and may, therefore, contribute to the development of depression or anxiety. Role overload, role authority role conflict and lack of senior level support contribute more to the occupational stress. In private sector significantly more people experience higher stress levels than in public sector. The reviews revealed significant differences in terms of physical and psychological wellbeing amongst the male and female sample.

The review of literature on job satisfaction shows that working condition is an important factor for job satisfaction. Some studies shown no significant difference between demographic variables of employees and job satisfaction, but three work-related factors are uncommonly related to job satisfaction. Studies have found that the correlation between age and satisfaction level has a negative correlation and there is a significant
relationship between gender and level of satisfaction. Studies have found that variables such as employees' age, gender, work experience years, organizational position, type of employment and salaries received, and benefits are seen as having significant effects on their job satisfaction.

The reviews of literature regarding the studies on health status show growing pressures on women in the workplace. As women compete increasingly with men for better jobs, lower levels of job satisfaction have been found to lead to negative outcomes, such as burnout, absenteeism, turnover intent and turnover.

The review of literature regarding the studies on job security shows that insecurity about future working conditions is more strongly related to the outcomes than insecurity about demotion and termination.