Chapter 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE
A study of relevant literature plays an important role to get a full picture of what has been done with regard to the problem under study. Such review brings about a deep and clear perspective of the overall field. The literature in any field forms the foundation of the study on which all future work will be built.

Hence, sincere efforts have been made by research scholar to locate the both critical and allied literature pertaining to the present study. The related literatures to the present study found from various sources have been abstracted in this chapter to provide a background material and to evaluate the significance of the present study as well as to interpret its findings.

A general tendency exists in the research literature according to which females are supported to experience higher levels of occupational stress than males in work environment (Offerman & Armitage, 1993 in Antoniou et al., 2006). For example, Sharpley et al. (1996) found that males have statistically significant lower job stress scores. Davidson et al. (1995 in Fotinatos - Ventouratos & Cooper, 2005) too reported that
female managers are under much more pressure than their male counterparts.

Gender differences in the pattern of experienced stress may be a function of gender differences in occupations, job assignments and job duties. Cranor, Karasek and Carlin (1981), for example, argue that women are typically over-represented in high stress jobs, particularly those that carry high demands with little discretion. Other researchers suggest that working women tend to have greater home and family responsibilities, which exposes them to unique kinds of stressors (Cleary & Mechanic, 1983). Maslach (1982) also used traditional sex roles to explain differences in burnout among women and men.

Moreover, males were observed to have higher stress and anxiety than female teachers (Cheng, K.-L., Kelly, 1993; Brember et al., 2002; Gursel et al., 2002; Chaplain, 1995). Quite contrary to this, female teachers tended to complain more of burnout than male teachers (Chan & Hui, 1995; Ravichandran & Rajendran, 2007; Bhadoria & Singh, 2010).

Women are expected to be more oriented toward people than are men. They are supposed to be nurturant, sociable, and sensitive to people's feelings. They are also supposed to be very emotional. Men are supposed to be hard, tough, and unemotional (the “big boys don't cry”
Because of these differences in the way men and women are brought up, they may have different strengths and weaknesses with respect to burnout. To the extent that women are more likely to get emotionally involved with people, they run a greater risk of emotional exhaustion. To the extent that men are less oriented toward close contact with people, they are prone to exhibit depersonalization.

**Bandura’s (1977)** self-efficacy theory proposes that if a person has high self-efficacy (i.e. belief to his/her ability in executing a course of action) this will not invoke his/her negative cognitive thoughts.

**Harrison’s (1978)** person-environment (P-E) fit model, and Karasek and Theorell’s (1990) job-demand- control model state that individuals who experience high work demands with low work-control show difficulties to meet the job demands. This may increase the occupational strains.


**Tung (1980)** study on occupational stress among male and female educational administrators suggests that women experienced significantly lower levels of self perceived occupational stress than men.
Davidson and Cooper (1983) found that, as a rule, women managers experienced significantly more pressure and reported greater number of stress manifestations than their male counterparts. Generally, woman managers reported stress arising from the work, home/social and individual arenas.

Som (1984) reported that female teachers tended to be higher than males in their attitudes towards teaching profession and pupils.

Quick and Quick (1984) through an all-embracing review of the medical, psychological, and managerial literature, also classify stressors faced by individuals in organizations as role demands, job demands, environmental demands, interpersonal demands and extra organizational demands. All these stressors can have a consequential impact on the mental health of the employees at the workplace.

Jha (1988) has noted the pattern of stress and strain in three work groups namely production, personnel and data processing divisions in an organization. Results indicated that abort job-future ambiguity had negative effect on job satisfaction in all the three groups. The pattern of stress in was different among different levels of hierarchy. Among different levels of managers, the middle level managers had relatively greater role ambiguity than others.
Landsbergis (1988) and Terry et al. (1993) showed that higher level of work stress is associated with low level of job satisfaction. Moreover, Cummins (1990) have emphasized that job stressors are predictive of job dissatisfaction and greater propensity to leave the organization.

Anand (1989) conducted a study on mental health of schoolteachers using a mental health scale and observed that fifty nine percent of teachers were mentally healthy. The state of working bears no relation to mental health while social values were positively related to mental health of teachers.

Martocchio and O’Leary (1989) found no significant difference in occupational stress between men and women.

Gregory (1990) notes that, for the female professionals gender stereotyping in the workplace adds to the role conflict related stress experiences.

Nelson et. al. (1990) noted that female HR professionals report significantly more stress as a result of organizational politics than their male counterparts.

Ushashree and Jamuna (1990) examined role conflict and job stress among special and general school teachers. Teachers from special
schools experienced significantly greater role conflict and job stress compared to their counterparts in general schools.

**Ganster and Schaubroeck (1991)** point that women experience the greater than 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.

**McDonald and Korabik (1991)** on the other hand, found that women reported being subjected to different types of stresses than did men. These authors found that female managers were more likely than their male colleagues to report stress arising from work-home interface, discrimination and gender-based barriers in the workplace, and problems in managing subordinates.

**Mishra (1991)** studied relationship between organizational climate in school teacher’s stress and burnout in relation to teacher’s personality. Keeping in view the paucity of Indian researchers on the mental health of teachers and inconsistent findings, the present research has made to study the effects of sex, type of teacher and job satisfaction on the mental health of teachers of Jammu district of J&K state.

**Reddy and Ramamurthi (1991)** analysed the influence of age, personality and general ability in determining the perception of stress. It
was found that only age influenced the perception of stress. There was only very limited contribution of personality and general ability of the individual to the intensity of stress experience of the individual.

**Kamau (1992)** is one who is free from anxiety and disability symptoms. If the individual can establish relationships with others and cope well with life’s demands, then that individual’s physical, mental, social and emotional well-being can be said to be complete.

**Kamau (1992)** studied burnout and mental health of male and female teachers and found out that male teachers are more capable of coping with stress in comparison to female teachers.

**Mittal (1992)** revealed a positive and significant correlation between work motivation and job satisfaction. The male teachers were more motivated as compared to female teachers.

**Rajeswari (1992)** found significant negative relationship of age and experience with stress. This study also found negative correlation between family size and stress level. The level of stress did not differ between different levels of workers namely officers, and clerks.

**Singh (1992)** observed “a teacher with bad mental health not only tends to incapacitate himself for the performance of his multifarious duties in the school but also creates difficulties and problem for his students.”
Smith and Bourke (1992) reported that satisfaction with school administration was associated with reduced stress arising from lack of rewards and recognition while satisfaction with work conditions was related to diminished stress from time pressure.

Sengupta (1993) found that teachers with direct influence led to low feelings of security, low acting level and low intelligence than indirect teachers.

Travers & Cooper (1993) found on stress and burnout among teachers has also received some attention.

Kamau and Gupta (1994) constructed a mental health scale for study of mental health with 5 areas.

Lazarus’s (1994) transactional stress model explains that inability of individual cognitive processes and emotional reactions to manage strains may lead to increased occupational tensions.

Sudhira (1994) observed that the physical education teachers working in private and semi- government schools have higher job stress than those working in government schools.

Srivastava and Krishna (1994) indicated that the ‘need for achievement’ and ‘self-control’ were the most dominant motivating
forces for male as well as female teachers whereas the ‘monetary gain’ was the least effective motivator for them.

Corrigan, Holmes and Luchins (1995) reported that satisfaction with collegial support was associated with diminished burnout.

Sharma (1995) attempted to study changes brought about by the influence of recent life experiences on mental health of school teachers.

Singh and Sehgal (1995) investigated the patterns of stress and strain among men and women as well as single and dual career couples. They found that male and female managers shared similar pattern of stress. Gender difference was prominent in strain. Women were characterized by anxiety, whereas men exhibited greater somatic symptoms. The male managers with spouses working experienced higher workload than managers whose spouses were not working. In strains also single career male managers had less irritability than dual career male managers. In general single career male managers had higher psychological well-being than others. Working women managers had better physical well-being than their working husbands but had poorer psychological well-being.

Sultana (1995) investigated the level of organizational role stress among male and female teachers of professional and non-professional
courses. She found significant difference between professional and non-professional female teachers on the role stress dimensions of inter-role distance and role overload. She also found significant difference between professional and non-professional male teachers on the role-stress dimensions of inter-role distance and role overload.

Ausekar and Pratibha, (1996) investigated the job satisfaction of government and private teachers and found that only 13% of the school teachers are greatly satisfied with their job.

Das, Lakshaira and Panda (1996) found no differences in the degree of job satisfaction of male college and higher secondary teachers.

Mishra (1996) found significant differences between male and female teachers in the areas of private life, workload, and role conflict. Females experienced more stress in these areas as compared to male teachers. However, no significant differences were found between the two groups in environmental and personal areas. Significance differences were also observed between male and female teachers on overall stress and overall job satisfaction. Stress was found to be correlated negatively and significantly with job satisfaction in both the groups. Male teachers obtained maximum scores on under load area whereas female teachers obtained maximum scores on overload area.
Lindholm (1997) indicated that the teachers reported significantly lower incentives for accomplishment and recognition and significantly higher affiliation incentives.

McCormick (1997b) reported that job dissatisfaction was more strongly associated with stress from external forces (such as system expectations and government policies) than stress arising from personal issues (such as perceived suitability to teaching). On the other hand, teachers reporting higher job satisfaction were more likely to identify stress arising from personal issues as sources of stress.

Anand (1998) studied the job satisfaction of the teachers and found that central school teachers are more satisfied as compared to state school teachers.

Yagil (1998) found that the inexperienced teachers compared to experienced ones stated that they had an overall higher level of stress. The major sources of stress for inexperienced teachers include interaction with pupils' parents and workload. The inexperienced teachers are less involved emotionally in their work, especially in regard to the incidents of unsatisfactory performance. However, they are similar to the experienced teachers in both their emotional reactions to successful performance and in their actions in stressful situations.
Barkat and Parveen (1999) studied the organization role stress of female university teachers and bank managers and found university teachers have high organization role stress than bank managers.

Cozens and Payne (1999) review of studies carried out in the US between 1979 and 1998, teachers were classified first in terms of levels of emotional exhaustion compared with other professional groups. The consequences of occupational stress and burnout are particularly grave for individuals who work in health and social services.

Lewis (1999) examined that the teachers estimations of stress arising from being unable to discipline pupils. Discipline emerged as a stressor, with those worst affected being teachers who placed particular emphasis on pupil empowerment.

Deostnalee, Pravin G. (2000) found that age has no effect on the stress experienced by engineers. However the gender as well as education has displayed significant effect on job stress. Male engineers experienced more stress than that of females whereas the higher the education the lesser the stress the engineers experienced.

Gaur, Shubhla P., and Dhawan, N (2000) investigated the relationship between work related stress and adaptation patterns among women professionals and found that women in all the four professions i.e.
teachers, bank officers, doctors and bureaucrats reported moderate work related stress.

**Kutty, S. (2000)** proposed reasons for stress at work place as work pressure, meeting deadline, positions in work place, interpersonal relationship, job content or profile, promotion and growth opportunities, imbalance between personal and professional commitments, commuting time especially from long distance suburban areas to the office.

**Singh (2001)** found that female teachers have more job satisfaction as compared to their counterpart male teachers.

**Spector and Goh’s (2001)** emotion-centered model of occupational stress posits that individuals who feel stressful when exposing with an event in particular environments may experience occupational strains. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion (Cannon, 1927) states that a person who experiences physiological stress. (e.g. heart attack) may simultaneously experience psychological stress. (e.g. mental illness).

**Upadhaya and Singh (2001)** studied the occupational stress among school and college teachers. Their study revealed that the school teacher were under more occupational stress as compared to college teachers. They found that work overload, role conflict, higher
expectations of students and their parents were found to cause more stress among the school teachers.

The concept has been expanded by Mueller and Maluf (2002) to establish a physical stress theory, which posits that the level of one’s physical stress would determine a person’s predictable biological response. For instance, a person who can habitually reduce his/her level of physical stress will experience greater positive biological response compared to a person who often has high level of physical stress. This situation may lead to higher job satisfaction (Swanson et al., 1998; Stacciarini et al., 2004).

Prakash Mathur and Agrawal (2002) found in their study that high coping group and low coping group significantly differ the experience of different stressors and female lectures have facing more role boundary stress than Male lecturers.

Ursin and Eriksen (2002) states that a person’s feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and inability to cope in stressful situations can trigger lower emotional health, which can potentially lead to feelings of frustration, deprivation or discontent.

According to Chandraiah et al. (2003) higher level of job stress and job satisfaction are significantly related across different age groups.
and are shown that the age was negatively correlated with occupational stress and positively with job satisfaction.

Clarke and Cooper (2003) noted that working in a stressful environment not only increases the risk of physical illness or distress, but also increases the likelihood of workplace accidents.

Fairbrother and Warn (2003) occupational stress can be negatively related to job satisfaction among navy trainees onboard ship. They also revealed that the most important features of stress onboard ship are uncertainty and loss of control.

Gupta and Jain (2003) reported that a variety of factors such as salary, security, physical conditions, promotion, recognition etc. influence job satisfaction.

Kirk (2003) noted that certain professional variables stimulate teacher stress. For example secondary teachers experience stress more frequently than elementary teachers also the fewer years of professional preparation a teacher has increases the greater the likelihood of stress. However, age and gender are not significant when examining stress.

Marshall, V.G. (2003) revealed that there were no significant difference found in occupational stress as measured by occupational role,
adjustment psychological strain and an availability of personal coping resources based on demographic variables of race, age, marital status, work schedule, education, work hours, gender and job title.

Rao & Shekhar (2003) found that the prospective teachers have average adjustment level woman teachers have possessing a little bit of high adjustment than male teachers.

Shah (2003) observed that most of the employees experience medium to high level of stress at work. Role stagnation, inadequacy of role authority and role erosion was comparatively higher. The employees belonging to the clerical cadre experienced relatively greater level of stress on most of the stress dimensions.

Berhem et.al. (2004) found that role ambiguity was the main source of work stress and self-knowledge as the main coping strategy to overcome work stress.

Duggal (2004) investigated teacher’s burnout in relation to their personality characteristics, work environment and job satisfaction. During her study, she found that private school teachers are more prone to stress as compared to their counterparts from government schools. The teachers of rural areas as well as of higher age group experienced more stress.
Kumar and Patnaik (2004) reported that job satisfaction and attitude towards work are highly correlated.

Monica (2004) found that the teachers of Punjabi medium schools are more stressed as compared to the teachers of English medium schools. Also, the environment also affects the stressful experience of the person. The teachers from Chandigarh were found to have lesser degree of stress than those from the rural areas.

Sanchez, et. al., (2004) found that job pressure was negatively associated and was the most important predictor of job satisfaction.

Fotinatos-Ventouratos and Cooper (2005) revealed significant differences in terms of physical and psychological well-being amongst the male and female samples.

Kang (2005) investigated the various stressors related with the job of a medical representative. The results showed interference of job in personal life. Work load and continuous pressure for improved performance were key factors causing stress among the medical representatives.

Mathews (2005) noted that 48% of teachers of Kottayam district experienced low stress whereas 80% teachers of Idukki district showed
low stress. In this study, it was found that there was no significant relationship between the levels of occupational stress of both the districts.

*Mokdad (2005)* found that the major sources of stress were society, parents, teaching, the teaching environment, pupils, supervision, curriculum and administration. More than 70% of the teachers reported headaches. As to strategies for coping, 62% use to watch TV programmes. The differences were significant only for age and gender.

*Moreau, Osgood and Halsall (2005)* found that women teachers are still encountering many difficulties. The different groups of women experience gender and gender discrimination in different ways.

*Sharma and Bansal (2005)* observed in their study that occupational stress and job satisfaction have negatively correlated.

*Sheena et al. (2005)* studied in UK and reporting there were some occupations worse than average scores on each of the factors such as physical health, psychological wellbeing, and job satisfaction.

*Sheena et al. (2005)* found that there are some occupations that are reporting worse than average scores on each of the factors such as physical health, psychological well-being, and job satisfaction. The relationship between variables can be very important to academician. If a
definite link exists between two variables, it could be possible for an academician to provide intervention in order to increase the level of one of the variables in hope that the intervention will also improve the other variable as well (Koslowsky, et al., 1995).

Yang Xw, Wang Zmand Jin Ty (2005) found that there are heavier occupational roles, stronger interpersonal and physical strain in males than females.

Antoniou et al. (2006) observed that female teachers experienced significantly higher levels of occupational stress compared to their male counterparts.

Antoniou and Polychroni (2006) reported that female teachers experienced significantly higher level of occupational stress, specifically with regard to interaction with students and colleagues, workload, student’s progress and emotional exhaustion. Increased occupational stress among teachers had weakened the efficiency of the teachers (Sabu & Jangiah, 2005).

Kaur (2006) indicated that male and female teachers take care of their personal well being. Males are less anxious and have less disabling symptoms as compared to female teachers. Private school teachers are more mentally healthy than Govt. school teachers. Teachers of both the districts have poor attitude towards job.
Mukherjee and Malhotra (2006) found a significant positive effect of role clarity, a reverse construct of role ambiguity, on job satisfaction among employees of in-bound telephone call centers in the United Kingdom.

Singla (2006) found that doctors and teachers are highly stressed as compared to their professional groups. Both the teachers and doctors face a significant amount of work load. It was also noted that females are most stressed as compared to males.

Devi (2007) investigated the effect of life stress and role stress in relation to demographic variables like age, experience and income. For the purpose of study, 180 women professionals (six different occupations) were chosen. It was found that science and technology professionals and doctors experienced significantly greater life stress and role stress.

Kaur, K (2007) investigates occupational stress, mental health and coping resources of high and higher secondary school teachers and their relationship. The results revealed that teachers are stressed due to role overload, responsibilities and physical stressors present in school. Mentally healthy teachers use coping resources to combat the effect of occupational stress. Teachers use recreational activities such as T.V., music, social support from friends to get relief from mental tensions. The
result also indicated that correlation between occupational stress and mental health is negative. Occupational stress and coping resources also tends to be negative.

**Ravichandran & Rajendran (2007)** reported that there was a significant relationship between gender and mental health. Their study revealed that female teachers had more occupational stress as compared to male counterparts.

**Dhanalakshmi (2008)** measured the level of stress of the transport corporation employees and studied the factors that could predict stress. It was found that the employees experience moderate level of stress. Further, stress is predicted by quality of work environment, safety and security.

**Kumar, Udayasuriyan and Vimala (2008)** found significant differences in work motivation based on the demographic variables such as age, gender, teaching experience in the present organization, marital status and monthly income.

**Srivastava and Khan (2008)** conducted a study to know the impact of mental health on the level of burnout of the teachers teaching at different education level. They concluded that teachers with low mental health are more prone to burnouts than the teachers of average and high mental health.
Educational planners and administrators, in particular, have been interested in understanding the association between occupational stress and job satisfaction as well as the relations between these two variables.

Ahsan et. al. (2009) examined the determinants of job stress including, management role, relationship with others workload, pressure, homework interface, role ambiguity, and performance pressure.

Ahsan et. al. (2009) found significant negative relationships between job stress and job satisfaction. Studies show that role stress leads to lower job performance, job dissatisfaction, and lack of confidence, lower self-esteem and intention to leave the job.

Ismail (2009) demonstrated that level of physiological stress has increased job satisfaction, and level of psychological stress had not decreased job satisfaction.

Though there is a paucity of research on work motivation there are some studies which evince that it is an important correlate of job satisfaction.

Dombrovskis, Guseva and Murasovs (2011) concluded that the motives of work satisfaction and social status were found to occupy the lowest position in the work motivation structure.
Kaur and Sidana (2011) found that level of job satisfaction of male teachers was greater than their female counterparts.

Mondal et al. (2011) found that male teachers had more psychological and physical stress than their female counterparts.

Gupta, Pasrija and Bansal (2012) reported that female teachers were more satisfied than their male counterparts and more experienced teachers, teachers belonging to rural areas had better job satisfaction than their counterparts.

In addition, meta-analytic studies reveal that both role conflict and ambiguity have negative influences on job satisfaction (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Ortvqvist & Wincent, 2006; Tubre & Collins, 2000).

Occupational stress can reduce productivity, increase mistakes and accidents at work, encourage absenteeism, lower morale, increase conflict with others and cause physical and emotional problems (Pflanz & Ogle, 2006) and finally poor life satisfaction (Pawar & Rathod, 2007). High levels of work stress are associated with low levels of job satisfaction. Padmanabhaiah, S. found that secondary school teachers in general were dissatisfied with their job.
Chronic stress deteriorates both physical and mental well-being (Agius, Blenkin, Dey, Zealley & Wood, 1996; Haynes et al., 1999; Richardson & Wood, 1991).

Stress directly contributes to conditions such as heart attack, stroke, cancer, peptic ulcer, respiratory disease, high blood pressure, asthma, diabetes, hypertension, reduced immune response, allergies, back problems, depression, anxiety, irritation, sleeplessness, headache, back pain, and arthritis (Akerstedt, Knutsson, Westerholm, Theorell, Alfedsson & Kecklund, 2002; Swanson & Taylor, 2000; Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991; Bjorksten & Edling, 2001; Weldner, Boughal, Connor, Peiper & Mende).