CHAPTER - III

A THEORETICAL REVIEW ON STRESS MANAGEMENT AND MENOPAUSAL PHASE
PART (A) STRESS MANAGEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter enunciates a brief theoretical background on the term stress in general, job stress/organizational role stress, job satisfaction and coping strategies for stress in Part (A) and in Part (B) a brief history on women’s menopausal phase (biological stress) has been discussed.

3.1(a) AETIOLOGY OF STRESS

The term STRESS is derived from the Latin word “stringere” which means to clutch, compress or blind which was first introduced in life science by Hans Selye\(^1\) in the year 1936. In the seventeenth century the term was used to mean hardship, strain, adversity or affliction (Cartwright & Cooper, 1997)\(^2\). Later, in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the term stress referred primarily to an Individual’s “force, pressure, strain or strong effort”. It was these early definitions used in physics and engineering that began to influence the notion that stress may affect individuals, where forces are seen to exert pressure on an individual, producing strain (Hinkle, 1977)\(^3\).

“Stress means those environmental factors that stimulate unhealthy individual reactions or characteristics of the job environment that pose a threat to the individual. The premature work of Walter B. Cannon (1932)\(^4\) emphasised that forces in the surroundings could cause disease and that people would have a tendency to resist these forces. Cannon labelled that Stress is a normal reaction when your brain recognizes a threat. When the threat is perceived, your body releases hormones that activate your “fight or flight” response. This fight or flight response is not limited to perceiving a threat, but in less severe cases, is triggered when we encounter unexpected events. Stress is the physical and mental response of the body to demands made upon it”.
Psychologist Richard S. Lazarus (1990)\(^5\) best described stress as “a condition or feeling that a person experiences when they perceive that the demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize.” Stress can be positive or negative. Stress can be positive when the situation offers an opportunity for a person to gain something. It acts as a motivator for peak performance. Stress can be negative when a person faces social, physical, organizational and emotional problems. For most people, stress is a negative experience.

3.1(b) DEFINITIONS OF STRESS

There is no generally accepted definition to define the term “Stress”. Hans Selye, the father of stress management, wrote that stress suffers from the mixed blessing of being too well-known and too little understood. However the term has commonly been defined in one of three ways: (i) as an environmental stimulus, (ii) as an individual’s psychological or physiological response to such an environment force and (iii) as the interaction between one and two. But generally, stress is viewed as a “stimulus” as a characteristic of the environment.

In common, Stress can be defined as "a state of psychological and / or physiological imbalance resulting from the disparity between situational demand and the individual's ability and / or motivation to meet those demands."

Stress is defined as a response to a demand that is placed upon you. Dr. Hans Selye, one of the leading authorities on the concept of stress, described stress as "the rate of all wear and tear caused by life."

According to Cooper and Marshall (1976)\(^6\), organization stress includes environmental factors or stressors such as work load, role conflict or ambiguity and poor working conditions associated with a particular job.

Caplan et al., (1975)\(^7\) “refer stress to any characteristics of the environment which pose a threat to the individuals. In the second approach, stress is conceptualized as a bodily response to some externally imposed demand. Stress is conceived as a pattern of psychological changes or a stress-related disease which may be behavioural, affective or somatic disturbances”.

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One of the most primitive attempts to scientifically explain the process of stress-related illness was done by Hans Selye (1974, 1976). Selye’s work comprises of the three stage model termed as General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). “Alarm resistance” is the first stage in this model where a phase of lowered resistance is followed by shock and defence mechanisms becoming active, the second stage is ‘resistance’ where the individual struggles and is exposed to health risk and distress, and finally the last stage ‘exhaustion’ occurs if resistance is not successful and leads to collapse.

Selye (1956) defined stress as a non-specific response of the body to any demand. According to him, stress is the adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and behavioural deviations for organizational participants. In this approach the interest is on the response. The third approach presents a view that an event can be stressful only if the individual perceived it as such adopting a transactional view.

According to Beehr and Newman (1978), “Stress is a condition where job-related factors interact with the worker to change his or her psychological or physiological condition so that the person’s mind and/or body are forced to deviate from its normal way of functioning”. This approach to stress is relational and process-oriented. The relational characteristic is evident in the definition of stress as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his resources and as endangering his well-being. This relational definition distinguishes this theory from those approaches in which stress is defined as a stimulus or as a response. Process-oriented stress has two meanings in relation to this approach. First that the person and the environment are in a dynamic relationship that is constantly changing and the second is that this relationship is bi-directional with the person and the environment each acting on the other.

In spite of such mixed conceptualizations of stress, a good number of researchers agree that the word stress is reserved as a general term referring to an area of work or study that includes stressors and strains. The term “stressors” is used to refer to environmental situation or events, which are potentially capable of producing state of stress. The term strain refers to the individual response and is the symptoms or indices of stress, which can be physical, psychological or behavioural. They are
indicators of ill health and/or well-being of the individual. The outcomes refer to the consequences or strains that have implications for the work and non-work domains.

3.1 (c) PERSONIFICATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS

From a theoretical perspective, it is recommended that stress results from the transaction or the interaction between the individual and the environment. Empirical work has first and foremost used this interactional approach to assess occupational stress and its outcomes (Cooper et al., 2001)\(^\text{12}\). And it is seen that the interactional approach to occupational stress focuses primarily on the statistical interaction between the stressor and the response. Models of Organizational stress (also termed as job stress or work stress) have generally accepted the transactional model of stress proposed by Lazarus (1966)\(^\text{13}\).

On the basis of a number of different occupational stress theories and practises, Beehr and Franz (1986)\(^\text{14}\) have identified four approaches to studying occupational stress. They are: medical, clinical/counselling psychology, engineering psychology, and organizational psychology. For each of these approaches Beehr and Franz indicated a difference between the typical stressor and a typical outcome (or strain). Medical approach indicates the typical stressor as physical and the typical outcome as physical strain (physiological or biochemical). The clinical/counselling psychology approach identified the typical stressor as being psychological and the outcome being psychological strain (for example, anxiety). Thirdly, the engineering psychology approach suggested that the typical stressor was physical (the physical work environment) and the outcome is related to job performance. Finally, the organizational psychology approach suggests that the stressor would be psychological and the outcome would be psychological strain. It is seen that most of the studies relating to occupational stress targets on both psychological, physical stressors and a number of outcomes.

Several models of stress relating specifically to occupational stress have been developed in an attempt to better understand the relationship between work characteristics and employee well-being. These models include the Job Demands-Control model [Karasek, (1979)\(^\text{15}\); Karasek & Theorell, (1990)\(^\text{16}\)], the Effort-Rewards Imbalance model [Siegrist, (1996)\(^\text{17}\); Siegrist, Siegrist, & Weber, (1986)\(^\text{18}\)], the Job-

The first and the foremost model called Job Demands-Control model of occupational stress [Karasek, (1979); Karasek & Thorell, (1990)] is based upon the proposition that the interaction between job demand and job control which explains strain outcomes. Karasek defines job demand as the independent variable that measures stressors, such as workload demands. He originally conceptualised job control under the phrase job decision latitude and defined this as the control that the working individual has over tasks and their conduct during their working day. Karasek suggested that when job demands are high and job control is low, strain will occur, leading to both mental and physical health problems. The concept of job control has long been acknowledged as an important factor in the occupational stress process (Cooper et al., 2001), however, questions over how to operationalise this construct and how the interaction between demands and control should be measured have led to inconsistent findings and difficulty in replicating Karasek’s proposed model [Fox, Dwyer & Ganster, (1993)\textsuperscript{23}; Jones & Fletcher, (1996)\textsuperscript{24}; Schaubroeck & Merritt, (1997)\textsuperscript{25}].

Secondly, according to these authors (Marmot, Siegrist, Theorell & Feeney, 1999)\textsuperscript{26} the Effort-Rewards Imbalance model of occupational stress places emphasis on both the effort and the reward structure of work and hypothesises that work-related benefits depend on a mutual relationship between the efforts and the rewards obtained from work. Effort has been defined as the job demands or the obligations that are placed upon the employee, and rewards are considered to be distributed by the employing organization and include variables such as salary, job security, and career growth opportunities (Siegrist, 1996). This model of occupational stress hypothesis is that an employee’s work which is characterised by high effort and low reward represents a deficit between the employee’s costs and gains. It is this deficit, or imbalance, that is the cause of stress in the employee which leads to disease and ill-health (for example, cardiovascular disease).
Contrasting, the Job Demands-Control model of occupational stress, the Effort-Rewards Imbalance model examines both situational and personal characteristics of the work environment; however, the Effort-Rewards Imbalance model is limited. It includes a narrow approach to health outcomes (originally used to predict the onset of cardiovascular problems) in comparison to the Job Demands-Control model health outcomes (which was developed to predict both individual strain and learning).

Thirdly, Job-Demands-Resources model of occupational stress (Bakker, et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001) is related to the Burnout model (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001). According to Maslach and Jackson chronic stress is emotionally draining and ultimately leads to a state of ‘burnout’. Burnout has been conceptualised as a psychological syndrome developed in response to chronic interpersonal stressors on the job and is characterised by three key dimensions (Maslach et al.). Firstly, burnout is characterised by overwhelming exhaustion, secondly by feelings of cynicism and detachment from the job, and finally by a sense of ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment.

Maslach et al. hypothesise that the exhaustion component represents the stress dimensions of burnout, that the cynicism component represents the interpersonal context of burnout, and that the ineffectiveness and lack of accomplishment components represent the self-evaluation dimension of burnout. Linked to the model of burnout is the Job-Demands-Resources model of occupational stress. This model proposes that the development of burnout follows two processes (Demerouti et al.).

Therefore, from the above models namely Job Demands-Control, Effort-Rewards Imbalance, Job-Demands-Resources it is concluded that extreme job demands lead to constant overtaxing of the individual and, in the end, to emotional exhaustion with a lack of resources available to the employee complicating the meeting of job demands which then leads to withdrawal behaviours and ultimately to disengagement from work. The Job-Demands-Resources model assumes that although employees in different organizations may be confronted with different working environments, the characteristics of these working environments can always be classified into two categories – job demands and job resources (Bakker et al.). According to the model, job demands are defined as physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of
one’s job that require sustained effort (cognitive and emotional) and are associated with psychological and physical costs to the individual and job resources are defined as the same aspects of one’s job (physical, psychological, social or organizational) but those aspects are functional in achieving work goals, reducing job demands, and / or stimulating personal development and growth. From the above models of occupational stress presented, it is emphasized that the Job-Demands-Resources model works on the assumption that stress in the workplace is a result of the interaction between the person and their environment (P-E fit model).

The P-E (Person-Environment) fit model can be discussed as a subjective model, referring to the fit between the subjective person and the subjective environment (i.e. the individual’s perceptions of the P-E fit). This subjective model is particularly useful in the occupational stress process where it is the employees’ perception of the work environment and their ability to manage that environment which may lead to the experience of occupational stress. The subjective P-E fit model is consistent with other theories of stress which have suggested that stress is subjective in nature, rather than objective (Cox, (1978)27; Lazarus & Folkman, (1984)28; McGrath, (1970)29. From this perspective a model of occupational stress can be proposed to include perceived job demands (the subjective environment) and the individual’s perceived abilities to manage those demands (the subjective person), producing strains which are psychological, physical and or behavioural in nature (Harrison, 1978)30.

**Figure: 3.1 Theoretical Model of Occupational Stress**

![Theoretical Model of Occupational Stress](image-url)
Figure 3.1 displays the theoretical model drawn from the above said theories. As shown in the above Figure 3.1 there is an interaction or a transaction between the stressors and the strains, both influenced by the subjective perception the individual has as to the fit between themselves and the environment. Figure 3.1 also shows that there is the influence of the individual’s job demands, which helps to create the stressors.

Thus, it is concluded that the model of occupational stress presented in the current thesis has been drawn from the theory of Lazarus’ transactional model of stress (Lazarus, 1966) and from the occupational stress models presented above. Lazarus’ theoretical work has influenced the majority of models of occupational stress, in that stress is viewed as an interaction between the person and the environment (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti, et al., 2003; Harrison, 1978; Karasek, 1979; Siegrist, 1996). Finally if the result of the stressors leads to strain then there are consequences for the individual (termed outcomes) psychologically, physically and behaviourally.

3.1 (d) EFFECTS OF STRESS

As stated earlier, Stress may cause you to have physiological, behavioural or even psychological effects. The causes due to physiological, behavioural and psychological effects are listed and explained as follows:

- **Physiological** – hormone release triggers your fight or flight response. These hormones help you to either fight harder or run faster. They increase heart rate, blood pressure, and sweating. Stress has been tied to heart disease. Because of the increase in heart rate and blood pressure, prolonged stress increases the tension that is put on the arteries. It also affects your immune system which is why cold and flu illness usually show up during exams.

- **Behavioural** – it may cause you to be jumpy, excitable, or even irritable. The effects of stress may cause some people to drink or smoke heavily, neglect exercise or proper nutrition, or overuse either the television or the computer.

- **Psychological** – the response to stress may decrease your ability to work or interact effectively with other people, and be less able to make good decisions. Stress has also been known to play a part in anxiety and depression.
3.1(e) GROUNDS OF STRESS

Factors that trigger stress are called "Stressors." The following are the main sources of an organizational and non-organizational stress.

3.1 (e) (i) Causes of an Organizational Stress

The main sources or causes of an organizational stress are:-

1. **Role Ambiguity**: It occurs when the person does not know what he is supposed to do on the job (tasks and responsibilities). The employee is not sure what he is expected to do. This creates confusion in the minds of the worker and results in stress.

2. **Role Conflict**: It takes place when different people have different expectations from a person performing a particular role. It can also occur if the job is not as per the expectation or when a job demands a certain type of behaviour that is against the person’s moral values.

3. **Occupational Demands**: Some jobs are more stressful than others. Jobs that involve risk and danger are more stressful. Research findings indicate that jobs that are more stressful usually require constant monitoring of equipments and devices, unpleasant physical conditions, making decisions, etc.

4. **Lack of Participation in Decision Making**: Many experienced employees feel that management should consult them on matters affecting their jobs. In reality, the superiors hardly consult the concerned employees before taking a decision. This develops a feeling of being neglected, which may lead to stress.

5. **Work Overload**: Excessive work load leads to stress as it puts a person under tremendous pressure. Work overload may take two different forms:-
   
   i. Qualitative work overload implies performing a job that is complicated or beyond the employee’s capacity.
   
   ii. Quantitative work overload arises when numbers of activities to be performed in the prescribed time are many.

6. **Work Underload**: In this case, very little work or too simple work is expected on the part of the employee. Doing less work or jobs of routine and simple nature would lead to monotony and boredom, which can lead to stress.

7. **Career Concern**: If an employee feels that he/she is very much behind in corporate ladder, then he/she may experience stress and if he/she feels that there
are no opportunities for self-growth he/she may experience stress. Hence unfulfilled career expectations are a major source of stress.

8. **Working Conditions**: Employees may be subject to poor working conditions. It would include poor lighting and ventilations, unhygienic sanitation facilities, excessive noise and dust, presence of toxic gases and fumes, inadequate safety measures, etc. All these unpleasant conditions create physiological and psychological imbalance in humans thereby causing stress.

9. **Lack of Group Cohesiveness**: Every group is characterized by its cohesiveness although they differ widely in degree of cohesiveness. Individuals experience stress when there is no unity among the members of work group. There is mistrust, jealously, frequent quarrels, etc., in groups and this lead to stress to employees.

10. **Interpersonal and Intergroup Conflict**: Interpersonal and intergroup conflict takes place due to differences in perceptions, attitudes, values and beliefs between two or more individuals and groups. Such conflicts can be a source of stress to group members.

11. **Rotating Shifts**: Stress may occur to those individuals who work in different shifts. Employees may be expected to work in day shift for some days and then in the night shift. This may create problems in adjusting to the shift timings, and it can affect not only personal life but also family life of the employee.

12. **Organizational Changes**: When changes occur, people have to adapt to those changes and this may cause stress. Stress is higher when changes are major or unusual like transfer or adaption of new technology.

13. **Lack of Social Support**: When individuals believe that they have the friendship and support of others at work, their ability to cope with the effects of stress increases. If this kind of social support is not available then an employee experiences more stress.
3.1 (e) (ii) Causes of Non-Organizational Stress

Certain factors outside the scope of an organization also cause stress. These main sources or causes of non-organizational stress are:-

1. **Civic Amenities**: Poor civic amenities in the area in which one lives can be a cause of stress. Inadequate or lack of civic facilities like improper water supply, excessive noise or air pollution, lack of proper transport facility can be quite stressful.

2. **Life Changes**: Life changes can bring stress to a person. Life changes can be slow or sudden. Slow life changes include getting older and sudden life changes include death or accident of a loved one. Sudden life changes are highly stressful and very difficult to cope.

3. **Frustration**: Frustration is another cause of stress. Frustration arises when goal directed behaviour is blocked. Management should attempt to remove barriers and help the employees to reach their goals.

4. **Caste and Religion Conflicts**: Employees living in areas which are subject to caste and religious conflicts do suffer from stress. In case of religion, the minorities and lower-caste people (seen especially in India) are subject to more stress.

5. **Personality**: People are broadly classified as 'Type A' and 'Type B'. The “Type A” personality of the people feels guilty while relaxing, gets irritated by minor mistakes of self and others, feels impatient and dislikes waiting, does several things at one time. While the 'Type B' personality of the people are exactly opposite and hence are less affected by stress due to above mentioned factors.

6. **Technological Changes**: When there are any changes in technological field, employees are under the constant stress of fear of losing jobs, or need to adjust to new technologies. This can be a source of stress.

7. **Career Changes**: When a person suddenly switches over a new job, he is under stress to shoulder new responsibilities properly. Under promotion, over promotion, demotion and transfers can also cause stress.
3.1 (f) SOURCES OF STRESS

The occurrence of job stress in the workplace plays a vital role for both employees and organizational managers. Stress has taken a massive levy on the physical and emotional health of individuals, as well as the bottom lines of organizations. In reality, stress can lead to such negative consequences as depression, burnout, physiological and psychosomatic illness and low job satisfaction. The determination of the extent of stress that he/she would experience from a job factor or situation depends upon the personal characteristics of an employee and cognitive appraisal of the job factors in the framework of capacity and resources. Some job factors or work conditions such as extreme heat or cold, chronic dangers, demotion, loss of job, are likely to cause stress in majority of the workers. But stress resulted from these factors also vary from one worker to another. The pressures caused from the job factors, in fact, are mediated by the personal characteristics of the focal worker. Moreover, certain psychological and behavioural specialties of the employee also become consistent sources of stress.

3.1 (g) KINDS/TYPES OF STRESS

There are three major kinds of Stress. They are: Acute Stress, Episodic Acute Stress and Chronic Stress.

3.1 (g) (i) ACUTE STRESS

Of all forms of stress, acute stress is the most widely experienced one, since it is typically caused by the daily demands and pressures encountered by each one of us. While the word “stress” connotes a negative impression, acute stress is what actually brings about excitement, joy and thrill in our lives. Riding a roller coaster in a theme park, for instance, is a situation that brings about acute stress, yet brings excitement. However, riding a higher and longer roller coaster can bring so much stress that you wish it would end sooner, or that you should have not gone for the ride in the first place. When the long and windy ride is over, you might feel the effects of too much acute stress, such as vomiting, tension headaches, and other psychological and/or physiological symptoms. Because acute stress occurs only at a very short period of time, these symptoms might only come out when the stress has already accumulated: Emotional distress, such as anger, anxiety, irritability, and acute periods of depression and Physical problems, such as headache, pain, stomach upset, dizziness, heart palpitations, shortness of breath, hypertension and bowel disorders.
3.1 (g) (ii) EPISODIC ACUTE STRESS

Acute stress that is suffered too frequently is called episodic stress. This type of stress is usually seen in people who make self-inflicted, unrealistic or unreasonable demands which get all clamoured up and bring too much stress in their attempt to accomplish these goals. Episodic stress is not like chronic stress, though, because this type of stress ceases from time to time yet not as frequently as acute stress does. Episodic stress is also typically observed in people with “Type A” personality, which involves being overly competitive, aggressive, demanding and sometimes tense and hostile. Because of this, the symptoms of episodic stress are found in “Type A” persons. These include: Longer periods of intermitted depression, anxiety disorders and emotional distress, Ceaseless worrying, Persistent physical symptoms similar to those found in acute stress, Coronary heart diseases, or other heart problems.

3.1 (g) (iii) CHRONIC STRESS

Chronic stress is the total opposite of acute stress; it’s not exciting and thrilling, but dangerous and unhealthy. Chronic stress tears the life of a person apart his mind, body or spirit. This type of stress is brought about by long-term exposure to stressors, such as unhappy marriage, traumatic experiences, unwanted career or job, stress of poverty, chronic illnesses, relationship conflicts, political problems, and dysfunctional families. These stressful situations seem to be unending, and the accumulated stress that results from exposure to them can be life-threatening, and can even lead a person to resort to violence, suicide and self-harm. Serious illnesses like stroke, heart attack, cancer, and psychological problems such as clinical depression and post-traumatic disorder can originate from chronic stress. Common physical signs and symptoms of chronic stress are: Dry mouth, difficulty in breathing, pounding heart, stomach ache, headache, diaphoresis, frequent urination, tightening of muscles and more and Mental signs and symptoms include: Sudden irritability, tension problems with concentration, difficulty in sleeping, narrowed perception, frequent feelings of fatigue.

A number of studies show that women respond to work stress in very different ways from men and that their anxiety can affect the entire organization. Chronic stress can have physical implications, of course, especially if trouble at work leads to women clocking in more hours. Most women don't realise the importance of dealing with such
issues before they could potentially ruin various relationships around them and most importantly, their mental & physical health (www.indiaprwire.com)\textsuperscript{36}.

3.1 (h) CAUSES OF STRESS

The factors that contribute to the experience of stress are many and varied. A useful overview of these causes can be gained by using the “analysis wheel” (already mentioned in chapter one). Using this wheel, six different perspectives on the causes of stress are framed. There are also other causes of stress rather than this.

3.1 (h) (i) BIOLOGICAL STRESS

The causes of stress lie in the biological make up of your body, or the interaction of your body with the food you eat or environment you live in. Some examples of the biological causes of stress include:

- Lack of fitness
- Poor diet (e.g: deficiency of vitamins, too much caffeine)
- Allergic reaction to chemicals in food
- Genetic disorder resulting in chemical imbalances in the body
- Changes in bodily functions, such as pregnancy, puberty, menopause and ageing

3.1 (h) (ii) SOCIAL /CULTURAL STRESS

Stress can be caused by a whole range of social and cultural pressures such as change of social circumstances (e.g: bereavement of spouse, moving job, marriage, holidays):

- Pressure to conform to social or employment patterns of behavior, especially where these behaviors are not the preferred behaviors of the individual (e.g: demands on an introvert to behave in an extrovert manner).
- Conflict in relationships, or an absence of praise and being valued by others
- Lack of social support, time to be listened to, and time for relaxation
- Having a high-pressure job, being unemployed, or only having a small range of sisal circumstances (e.g: rarely leaving the house, few hobbies)
3.1 (h) (iii) **PSYCHODYNAMIC STRESS**

The term “psychodynamic” refers to subconscious thoughts and feeling which often arise from childhood experiences. The way in which you learned to cope in childhood is by using defence mechanisms that involved a degree of self deception. We still use those defences today. Examples of psychodynamic causes of stress include:

- Inner conflicts that have not been addressed but repressed (i.e pushed out of conscious awareness)
- Encountering situations that evoke stressful feelings that were experienced in childhood.
- Expending effort to maintain defences in situations that threaten self-esteem.
- Lack of self-awareness.
- Increasing self-awareness and personal growth.

3.1 (h) (iv) **RATIONAL STRESS**

The rational processes in our minds constantly interpret and evaluate the world around. Events can be interpreted in many ways, and the away in which this is done can influence the level of stress that is felt. Some examples of rational causes of stress include:

- Perceiving the consequences of actions as being dangerous or threatening. These perceptions may or may not be accurate- i.e. the stress might but beneficial, in preparing for a real danger, or harmful, in creating unnecessary stress.
- Having an inaccurate perception of self.
- Believing one is capable of achieving fat too much-setting standards and expectations too high (and therefore falling short of them).
- Misinterpreting the actions of others so as to discount (i.e. not accept) the love and support.
- Not having the skill or knowledge to cope with certain situations such as not having a rational approach to problem-solving, or conflict resolution and therefore being unable to cope with problems as they arise.
3.1 (h) (v) EXPERIENTIAL STRESS

The way in which each individual experiences each snapshot in time, even in very similar situations, is very different, one person may find a situation highly stressful, whilst another may find it stimulating or enjoyable every reaction is unique. There may be many instant pressures that cause an individual to experience stress such as

- Too many simultaneous demands form different people.
- Environmental stresses, such as noise, cramped conditions, or cluttered surroundings.
- Needs that are being unmet or frustrated.
- The appearance of threat to survival, self esteem, or identity.
- Change in patterns of eating, sleeping, time zone, relationships etc.

3.1 (h) (vi) SPIRITUAL STRESS

The need for individual spiritual development has long been recognized by religion. It is only during the last 30 years that psychology has acknowledged the existence of a spiritual side to the individual. Some spiritual causes of stress include:

- Violation of personal or religious moral code, contravention of accepted group practice, or violation of laws.
- Lack of spiritual development.
- An absence of truth (e.g: self-deception and deception of others)
- The lack of a sense of personal agency- i.e. that one can influence events – or the failure to recognize and exercise choice.
- Absence of a relationship with God, and lack of forgiveness.

3.1 (i) CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS

When properly monitored and managed, stress response contributes to a state of optimal health and well-being by fostering productivity and supporting performance. But when stress response is elicited too intensely or very often, the worker is unable to rapidly dispel the effects of stress responses, and the result is individual distress. The negative impact of work stress on mental and physical health of workers has been found to be a strong support by several researchers. The distress resulting from mismanaged stress may be seen clearly in the physiological, psychological and behavioural problems of the individual. The outcomes of stress on the individual are reflected in
organizational consequences in the form of low productivity, accidents, absenteeism and higher turnover and so on. With regard to the individual-organizational interface, the consequences of stress also affect job satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitments and so forth.

3.1 (j) SIGNS OF STRESS

The three signs of stress namely personal, outward and at business cost are listed below: They are:

- **Personal signs of stress** include immediate body changes that may be associated with distress, such as changes in heart rate and breathing rate, muscle tension, nausea or vomiting, feelings of anger, protest or frustration, feelings of anxiety or being out of control, feelings of guilt or embarrassment, irritability and loss of concentration, poor memory, learning difficulties, or prolonged sleeplessness and disturbing dreams.

- **Outward signs of stress** in individuals that could be noticeable to colleagues and managers includes deteriorating relationships with colleagues, irritability, indecisiveness, absenteeism, reduced performance, demand for more precise instructions, increased smoking or alcohol consumption, or drug taking; complaining about ill-health, or actual ill-health such as frequent headaches, gastro-intestinal disturbance, ongoing minor illnesses, skin rashes, deteriorating immune response.

- **Signs of stress across an organization** that represent a business cost includes high staff turnover, increased absenteeism, reduced work performance, poor timekeeping and more customer complaints, stress appearing in those people who cover for the stressed colleague who is absent from work, increased rate of workplace accidents, compensation claims from people whose unchecked stress results in ill-health, reduction in output, product quality, service or morale; increased wages/overtime payments, deterioration of industrial relations, or organizational sabotage.

The effects of stress indicated above could each be signs of a range of other health problems. The diagnosis of severe stress generally requires a trained professional. Stressors cover a large range of symptoms from poor performance, boredom and
deteriorating relationships to aggressive and threatening behaviour, or single shocking incidents.

3.2 JOB STRESS

Noopura Sundaresh., (2010)32 “Job-related stress is one of the highest health risks influencing employees, regardless of the size of the organization or the work sector. Job stressors are defined as job demands, constraints, and or opportunities and job related events or situations that might affect the individual’s feelings of stress”.

Ushashree et al. (1995)33 “on their study considered 80 male and 80 female high school teachers in the age group of 25-40 year(adult) and 41-60 years(middle) age to know the effect of gender on teacher’s experience of job stress and job satisfaction. Analysis of data indicated significant effect of gender on job stress”.

Triveni and Aminabhavi (2002)34 “conducted a study to know the gender difference in occupational stress of professional and non-professionals. The sample consisted of 300 professionals (doctors, lawyers and teachers) and 100 non-professionals. The result revealed that women professionals experience significantly higher occupational stress than men due to under participation”.

According to (Kyriacou, 2001)35 “Job stress also known as occupational stress has been defined as the experience of negative emotional states such as frustration, worry, anxiety and depression attributed to work related factors”.

3.2 (a) WORK-RELATED STRESS

Work-related stress is the natural reaction of people who are placed under intense pressure at work over a period of time. Many people are motivated by the challenges and difficulties that normally occur with work demands and react by improving performance. Meeting those challenges and overcoming the difficulties causes feelings of relaxation and satisfaction. When the pressure of work demands becomes excessive and prolonged, however, people perceive a threat to their well-being or interests and then experience unpleasant emotions such as fear, anger or anxiety. The basis of this reaction comes from instinctive "fight or flight" reactions to danger. The stress response is designed to be used in short bursts and then switched off. If it is
activated for too long, or the period between stressful situations is too short, then the body has no time to repair itself, and fatigue and damage occurs. The stress hormones then literally begin to destroy the body so, over time, this affects physical and mental health and quality of life in just the same way as exposure to industrial toxins. Stress is not a disease or injury but it can lead to mental and physical ill health\textsuperscript{37}.

3.2 (b) STRESS IN THE WORKPLACE

The workplace is one of the greatest causes of stress in our lives. At times we feel overwhelmed as we consider everything we need to accomplish. It becomes an even greater challenge as obstacles arise and keep us from progressing in our day-to-day assignments.

Stress in the workplace is a commonality throughout the world in every business. Managing that stress becomes vital in order to keep up job performance as well as relationship with co-workers and employers. For some workers, changing the work environment relieves work stress. Making the environment less competitive between employees decreases some amounts of stress. However, each person is different and some people like the pressure to perform better.

Salary can be an important concern of employees. Salary can affect the way people work because they can aim for promotion and in result, a higher salary. This can lead to chronic stress. Cultural differences have also shown to have some major effects on stress coping problems. Eastern Asian employees may deal with certain work situations differently than a Western North American employee would. In order to manage stress in the workplace, employers can provide stress managing programs such as therapy, communication programs, and a more flexible work schedule.

3.2 (c) STRESS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS IN WORKPLACE:

Many businesses today have begun to use Stress Management Programs for employees who are having trouble adapting to stress at the workplace or at home. Many people have spill over stress from home into their working environment. There are a couple of ways businesses today try to alleviate stress on their employees. One way is individual intervention. This starts off by monitoring the stressors in the individual. After monitoring what causes the stress, next is attacking that stressor and trying to
figure out ways to alleviate them in any way. Developing social support is vital in individual intervention, being with others to help you cope has proven to be a very effective way to avoid stress. Avoiding the stressors all together is the best possible way to get rid of stress but that is very difficult to do in the workplace. Changing behavioral patterns may in turn, help to reduce some of the stress that is put on at work as well.

Employee Assistance Programs can include in-house counseling programs on managing stress. Evaluative research has been conducted on EAPs that teach individual stress control and inoculation techniques such as relaxation, biofeedback, and cognitive restructuring. Studies show that these programs can reduce the level of physiological arousal associated with high stress. Participants who master behavioral and cognitive stress-relief techniques report less tension, fewer sleep disturbances, and an improved ability to cope with workplace stressors.

Another way of reducing stress at work is by simply changing the workload for an employee. Some may be too overwhelmed that they have so much work to get done, or some also may have such little work that they are not sure what to do with themselves at work. Improving communications between employees also sounds like a simple approach, but it is very effective for helping reduce stress. Sometimes making the employee feel like they are a bigger part of the company, such as giving them a voice in bigger situations shows that you trust them and value their opinion. Having all the employees mesh well together is a very underlying factor which can take away much of workplace stress. If employees fit well together and feed off of each other, there are chances of lots of stress is very minimal. Lastly, changing the physical qualities of the workplace may reduce stress. Changing simple things like lighting, air temperature, odor, and up to date technology.

Intervention is broken down into three steps: Primary, Secondary, and Tertiary. Primary deals with eliminating the stressors all together. Secondary deals with detecting stress and figuring out ways to cope with it and improving stress management skills. Finally, tertiary deals with recovery and rehabbing the stress all together. These three steps are usually the most effective way to deal with stress not just in the workplace, but overall. Stress is an adverse reaction that people experience when faced with
excessive pressure. If the factors creating the pressure are not dealt with, that pressure can lead to mental and/or physical ill health (e.g. depression, nervous breakdown, heart disease) 

3.2 (d) RISKS ARISING FROM STRESS ASSESSED

It is difficult to objectively measure the level of stress in the workplace. For example, there are no simple tests to measure how much pressure a person can work with, before the stress adversely affects their health and safety. There are consultants who can measure the sources of stress and develop appropriate solutions for your workplace, using subjective measures. The design and appropriate solutions identified from will vary according to the size and complexity of the organization, available resources and especially the unique types of stress problems faced by the organization. Minimising stress in the workplace does not have to be costly. In spite of difficulties in measuring stress, both employers and employees regularly make judgements about levels of stress and the level of associated risk.

The absence of objective tests does not remove the need to do a risk assessment nor does it mean that the assessment is invalid. Responsibility for risk assessment rests with the employer, main contractor, self-employed person or person with control over the workplace or access to it, and involves: identifying pressures at work which could cause high and long-lasting levels of stress; identifying people who might be affected by these pressures; deciding whether preventative action in place is sufficient; taking action to prevent pressure growing to an unacceptable level; and reviewing the success of the control measures. It is important that there is early intervention if stress is identified.

Risk assessment should determine the likelihood of stress resulting in ill-health which will prompt actions to deal with those pressures. For example, a supervisor needs to consider whether an employee has too many competing deadlines before asking that person to do an additional task. The employee needs to clearly understand the pressure they may already be under when deciding whether to refuse the extra work or not. The risks arising from stress may also vary depending on the task. Some tasks require a higher level of concentration, coordination or strength in order to carry them out safely. As a result, the level of pressure that may be tolerated will vary between industries and
occupations. Mechanisms should be in place to ensure the risk of stress is identified as early as possible, followed by a risk assessment and the introduction of controls appropriate to your workplace. Stress management systems should only be developed in organizations in which a need is identified. They should be developed in conjunction with grievance procedures to cover both preventative strategies and the provision of help. Otherwise, the application of good management practices that include appropriate organization of work, a healthy corporate attitude, successfully managed change and an appropriate management style will all contribute towards reducing unwanted stress levels in the workplace.

3.2 (e) STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Stress Management is a predetermined strategy for coping with psychological or emotional turmoil. As part of a health benefits package, a company may offer stress management therapy to improve job performance. Studies by Upamanyu, Aujla et.al, Harshpinder and Aujla regarding stress management techniques are given below.

Upamanyu (1997)\textsuperscript{39} “explored the stress management techniques used by the educated working women. The sleep & relaxation, exercise, time management, diet and yoga are the best way adopted to manage stress by educated working women”.

Harshpinder and Aujla (2001)\textsuperscript{40} “investigated the different physical stress management techniques utilized by women. Results showed that working women were making more use of writing dairy, standard furniture and high fiber diet as compared to non working women”.

Aujla \textit{et al.} (2004)\textsuperscript{41} “investigated to analyze the different stress management techniques used by 75 working women and 75 non working women of Ludhiana city. Results showed that majority of the respondents in both the categories were using various stress coping strategies \textit{viz.} relaxation, music, prayer, recreation with family, planning \textit{etc.} Planning and relaxation were most preferred techniques among both the groups”.
The following are some of the stress management techniques which are listed below:

- **Learn how to say “NO!”** – know your limits and do not compromise them. Taking on more than you can handle is not a good choice. It is ok if you don’t do every single activity that your club, fraternity, sorority or your friends are doing.

- **Attitude** – it is human nature to want to freak out. Your mind is a powerful tool; use it in your favour. Thinking rationally can take you a long way.

- **Laugh** – Do something that you enjoy, take on a hobby, hang out with friends, and learn to balance your life. If you are feeling upset, express your feelings. Don't keep them to yourself because that will only add to your stress.

- **Avoid alcohol and cigarettes** – this is just a quick fix. Once the chemical leave your body, you are back to feeling stressed and you are probably worse off than when you started.

- **Healthy eating** – get the proper nutrition. Eat at least one hot-home cooked meal a day.

- **Exercise** – physical activities can help you in not only burning off calories, but burning off stress. Exercise helps release tension. Exercise for 30 minutes a day for at least 3 times per week.

- **Relaxing your mind and body** – take deep breaths. Visualize success. Set some “alone time” where you do something you enjoy. Practice “mindfulness”, focusing your attention on the present moment.

- **Sleep** – at least 7 hours of sleep are needed in order for your brain and body to function at optimum level. Avoid taking naps for more than 1 hour.

- **Healthy relationships** – talk and hang out with friends. Find some you relate to and with whom you can share your problems.

- **Time management** – get a planner, create a schedule, or even a to-do list. Map out what your quarter will look like. Once you have done that, do a schedule for each week. Then create a schedule for each day. Be specific. Mark down your class meeting times, study time for a specific subject, mealtimes, fun activities, and sleep.

- **Organization** – learn how to organize your notes, keep track of your assignments and note important due dates or date of exams. Establish your priorities for the day.
- **Budget** – create a budget for your monthly expenses. Distribute your money according to the bills you need to pay for the quarter (i.e. rent, tuition, groceries, personal items, house bills, gasoline, etc.). Determine about how much money you will be able to spend “for fun.”

- **Spirituality** – spiritually is regarded as finding meaning in your life, the ability to connect with others.

- **Determine your learning style** – find out whether you are a visual, auditory or kinesthetic learner.

- **Slow Down** – take a deep breath and know your limits. Take your time so that you can ensure a well done job.

- **Find a support system** – whether it’s your mom, sister, brother, friend or counsellor, find someone you feel comfortable sharing your feelings with. Sometimes all we need is to vent off the frustration.

- **Make changes in your surroundings** – if you find it difficult to study in your dorm try moving to a place where there is no loud music, and brighter lights.

- **Delegate responsibilities** – when school or work becomes overwhelming, dividing up the work or responsibilities helps alleviate pressure and stress.

### 3.3 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched variable in the area of workplace psychology. Job/work which is an integral part of human life is a source of fulfilment of all types of needs such as physical, security, social and ego needs. Job satisfaction is one of the most crucial but controversial and complex issues in psychology and behavioural management. “One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924-1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel charges in work conditions temporarily increase productivity. It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed. This finding provided strong evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which paved the way for investigating other factors in job satisfaction”.
3.3 (a) DEFINITION FOR JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Spector, 1997). This definition suggests job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their job. While researchers and practitioners most often measure global job satisfaction, there is also interest in measuring different "facets" or "dimensions" of satisfaction. Examination of these facet conditions is often useful for a more careful examination of employee satisfaction with critical job factors. Traditional job satisfaction facets include: co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits." (Williams).

3.4 COPING STRATEGIES

Coping means expending conscious effort to solve personal and interpersonal problems, that will help in overcoming, minimizing, or tolerate stress or conflict. Tolerating stress or conflict. The effectiveness of the coping efforts depends on the type of stress and/or conflict, the particular individual, and the circumstances. The term coping generally refers to adaptive or constructive coping strategies, i.e. the strategies reduce stress levels.

According to Folkman and Lazarus’ cognitive appraisal model of coping, coping involves a conscious effort to reduce stress. Within this model, coping strategies can be broadly categorized as either problem-focused (attempts to manage or alter the problem causing the stress) or emotion-focused (attempts to regulate emotional responses to the stressful situation).

3.4 (a) STRESS COPING STRATEGIES

Coping has long been described as a central role in human adaptation. People ultimately adopt one or another sort of adaptive behaviour in order to deal with the confronting situations of stress. Sometimes they make even spontaneous responses to adjust with the situation of stress at subconscious level. These specific efforts made by the stressed person are denoted as coping behaviour. Biologists use the term coping to refer to the adjustment of a tissue system or the body to noxious agents as in Selye “General Adaptation Syndrome”.

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Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have defined coping at the psychological level of analysis as, “The process of managing (mastering, tolerating or reducing) external or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person”. Pareek “has proposed two styles of coping which people generally adopt in order to deal with perceived stress, i.e., functional and dysfunctional. In functional coping style the focal person confronts and makes some efforts to deal with stressful situations. This style may also be referred to an “approach” mode of coping. In dysfunctional mode of coping, the individual denies the stress or tries to escape from it. This style is denoted as “avoidance” mode of coping. Combining the source of stress and mode of coping (i.e. approach and avoidance), Pareek has suggested four approaches and four avoidance coping strategies which people adopt in their everyday lives”.

Hundreds of coping strategies have been identified. Classification of these strategies into a broader architecture has not yet been agreed upon. Common distinctions are often made between various contrasting strategies, for example: problem-focused versus emotion-focused; engagement versus disengagement; cognitive versus behavioral. The psychology book written by Weiten identifies three broad types of coping strategies:

- **Appraisal-focused**: Directed towards challenging one's own assumptions, adaptive cognitive
- **Problem-focused**: Directed towards reducing or eliminating a stressor, adaptive behavioral
- **Emotion-focused**: Directed towards changing one's own emotional reaction

3.4 (a) (i) Appraisal-focused strategies occur when the person modifies the way they think, for example: employing denial, or distancing oneself from the problem. People may alter the way they think about a problem by altering their goals and values, such as by seeing the humor in a situation: "some have suggested that humor may play a greater role as a stress moderator among women than men".

3.4 (a) (ii) Emotion-focused coping changes a person's emotional response to the stressor. Emotion-focused coping techniques are focused on reducing the negative emotional responses we might experience because of stressors. People are more likely
to adopt emotion-focused coping when they don’t think their actions can affect the stressor itself, so they alter their response to the stressor.

People using problem-focused strategies try to deal with the cause of their problem. They do this by finding out information on the problem and learning new skills to manage the problem. Problem-focused coping is aimed at changing or eliminating the source of the stress. The three problem-focused coping strategies identified by Folkman and Lazarus are taking control, information seeking, and evaluating the pros and cons.

3.4 (a) (iii) Emotion-focused strategies involve releasing pent-up emotions, distracting oneself, managing hostile feelings, meditating or using systematic relaxation procedures. Emotion-focused coping "is oriented toward managing the emotions that accompany the perception of stress". The five emotion-focused coping strategies identified by Folkman and Lazarus are disclaiming, escape-avoidance, accepting responsibility or blame, exercising self-control, and positive re-appraisal. Emotion-focused coping is a mechanism to alleviate distress by minimizing, reducing, or preventing, the emotional components of a stressor. This mechanism can be applied through a variety of ways, such as seeking social support, reappraising the stressor in a positive light, accepting responsibility, using avoidance, exercising self-control, and distancing. The focus of this coping mechanism is to change the meaning of the stressor or transfer attention away from it.

For example, “reappraising tries to find a more positive meaning of the cause of the stress in order to reduce the emotional component of the stressor. Avoidance of the emotional distress will distract from the negative feelings associated with the stressor. Emotion-focused coping is well suited for stressors that seem uncontrollable (ex. a terminal illness diagnosis, or the loss of a loved one). Some mechanisms of emotion focused coping, such as distancing or avoidance, can have alleviating outcomes for a short period of time, however they can be detrimental when used over an extended period. Positive emotion-focused mechanisms, such as seeking social support, and positive re-appraisal, are associated with beneficial outcomes. Emotional approach coping is one form of emotion-focused coping in which emotional expression and processing is used to adaptively manage a response to a stressor”.

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Typically, people use a mixture of all three types of coping strategies, and coping skills will usually change over time. All these methods can prove useful, but some claim that those using problem-focused coping strategies will adjust better to life. Problem-focused coping mechanisms may allow an individual greater perceived control over their problem, whereas emotion-focused coping may sometimes lead to a reduction in perceived control (maladaptive coping).

3.5 CONCLUSION

Hence this part gives a theoretical picture of definition of stress, kinds of stress, job stress, causes of stress, sources of stress, models of organizational stress, signs of stress, work-related stress, stress management strategies, stress coping strategies and job satisfaction with their consequences and significance. We already know the concepts which have been stated above earlier but again here in this part it has been given for the fresh brush up in the minds of the readers and also for the layman who reads this chapter.
PART (B) MENOPAUSE

3.6 INTRODUCTION
The menopause is a natural and unavoidable event affecting all women. Menopausal symptoms will affect each woman differently and it is not possible to predict the severity and duration of these symptoms. Life expectancy is increasing and women may live about 30 years in the post-menopausal state. It is therefore important that health, even in the absence of symptoms, and quality of life is optimised during this time. At some point in their career, women will come into contact with experiencing menopausal symptoms. Menopause is a step of a woman’s life when hormonal changes cause menstruation to stop permanently. Menopausal symptoms can affect women’s health and differ between different races and societies. Some symptoms can last for years and affect a woman’s quality of life. The average age of menopausal for women is 51 but the exact age may vary from woman to woman.

3.7 DEFINITION OF MENOPAUSE
Menopause as the “final menstrual period”, “a period of time in a woman’s life cycle in which hormonal changes in her body signal the end of her reproductive years,” and a newer definition stating that a woman is “considered menopausal for one year following her last menstrual period” (Jones, 1994). However, as Jones suggests, “medical science is uncertain about the subtleties of menopause”. Menopause has been defined in terms of biology, but “its psychological meaning to the individual and its sociological meanings have implications beyond biological change” (O’Toole and O’Toole, 1998).

3.8 BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF STRESS
Walter Cannon (1929) describes the fight or flight response of the body after perceiving danger or stress. This response mobilises the organism to respond quickly to danger but the state of higher arousal can be harmful to health if it is prolonged.
3.9 WHAT CAUSES MENOPAUSE

A Woman is born with a finite number of eggs, which are stored in the ovaries. The ovaries also make the hormones estrogen and progesterone, which control menstruation and ovulation. “Menopause happens when the ovaries no longer release an egg every month and menstruation stops. Menopause is considered a normal part of aging when it happens after the age of 40. But some women can go through menopause early, either as a result of surgery, such as hysterectomy, or damage to the ovaries, such as from chemotherapy. Menopause that happens before 40, regardless of the cause, is called premature menopause”.

There is no consensus on the underlying cause of menopause in the scientific community, and it is not clear whether menopause is triggered by insufficient ovarian follicle numbers or by primary hypothalamic failure. However, there is consensus that menopause involves both the depleted ovarian follicle numbers and changes in levels of estrogen, follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), and inhibit B. At the time of menopause there are only about 1000 follicles left, which are incapable of maturing (Wallace and Kelsey 2004)\textsuperscript{48}. Estrogen levels begin to decrease six months before menopause and FSH levels generally rise after menopause until the fourth year postmenopause (Rannevik et al. 1995)\textsuperscript{49}.

3.10 WHY IS THERE A MENOPAUSE

The next critical question is why menopause should occur. Though \textit{Homo sapiens} was once thought to be unique to the order \textit{Primates} in having a lifespan that continues long after reproductive years have ended, recent research has indicated otherwise (reviewed in Walker and Herndon 2008)\textsuperscript{50}. Approximately half of the potential human female lifespan is lived after menopause and reproductive function in human females begins to decline long before other organ systems begin to show signs of senescence (Hill and Hurtado 1991)\textsuperscript{51}. “Despite prevalent conceptions of menopause as a form of pathology among some members of the medical establishment, it is considered by many to be a normal part of female reproductive ageing” (Mackey 2004)\textsuperscript{52}. Among these are anthropologists and reproductive biologists who have begun to question why menopause has evolved in our species [Hawkes et al. (1998)\textsuperscript{53}; Peccei (2001)\textsuperscript{54}; Lahdenperä, Lummaa, and Russell (2004)\textsuperscript{55}; Kuhle (2007)\textsuperscript{56}].
3.11 STAGES OF MENOPAUSE

Natural menopause is not brought on by any type of medical or surgical treatment. The process is gradual and has three stages:

- **Peri-menopause** - This typically begins several years before menopause, when the ovaries gradually make less estrogen. Perimenopause lasts up until menopause, the point when the ovaries stop releasing eggs. In the last 1 to 2 years of perimenopause, the drop in estrogen quickens. At this stage, many women have menopause symptoms.

- **Menopause** - This is the point when it's been a year since a woman last had her last menstrual period. At this stage, the ovaries have stopped releasing eggs and making most of their estrogen.

- **Post-menopause** - These are the years after menopause. During this stage, menopausal symptoms such as hot flashes ease for most women. But health risks related to the loss of estrogen rise as the woman ages.

3.12 SYMPTOMS OF MENOPAUSE

Many women experience some physical and emotional symptoms during menopause, caused by hormonal imbalance. Typically, a woman will begin to experience menopause symptoms around her mid-40's as her body's reproductive capability comes to the end.

**Table 3.1 Symptoms of Menopause**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptom</th>
<th>Menopause Symptoms</th>
<th>Menopause Symptoms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Irregular periods</td>
<td>Poor concentration</td>
<td>Bladder infection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hot flashes</td>
<td>Poor memory power</td>
<td>Itching and infections in private parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Night Sweats</td>
<td>Irritation</td>
<td>Lack of intimacy relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heart palpitations</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Weight gain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skin itches</td>
<td>More depressed moods</td>
<td>Joint pains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood swings</td>
<td>Headaches</td>
<td>Bone problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiredness</td>
<td>Painful periods</td>
<td>Gum Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sleep</td>
<td>Urinary infection</td>
<td>Digestive Problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incontinence</td>
<td>Bloating</td>
<td>Osteoporosis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.34-menopause-symptoms.com
3.13 CONCLUSION

In this part the researcher has highlighted a brief induction of menopause, importance of menopause, definition of menopause, causes of menopause, stages of menopause and symptoms of menopause in detail. Hence, in this chapter the researcher highlights the theoretical framework of stress management and menopausal phase with their facts and statistics.

3.14 REFERENCES

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