CHAPTER - 2

BASIC CONCEPTS

&

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
JOB INVOLVEMENT

1. THE CONCEPT

The most important need of an organisation is to achieve the effective utilization of the resources that the organisation has got at its disposal. Men, money and material have been classified as the principal resources. From all these three resources, the most important source, which needs to be taken care of properly in handling of its work force, that is men.

For the success of any organisation, job involvement is of vital importance. The workers who are satisfied and highly involved are the biggest assets to an organisation whereas the uninvolved and dissatisfied workers are the biggest liabilities. The organisation cannot achieve its goals and targets unless its workers who constitute the organisation are involved in their job. Job involvement plays an important role for the happiness and prosperity of the individuals and the organisation that has employed them.

Today, the human factor in industry is being increasingly recognised and occupies the central place in industrial research. The worker is no longer treated as a mere cog in the machine. His personal and social activities influence his job performance in many different ways and in turn his job influences his personal and social life in many respects. The creative pleasure which the worker derives from his work, the satisfaction he gets from his achievement and the fulfillment of both his immediate and remote personal and social needs are a part of the labour's stake in industry.

All people have attitudes (predispositions) to react favourably or unfavourably towards jobs/job factors, which result in tendencies to respond positively or negatively to another person, a group of people, an object, a situation involving objects and people or an idea. Very often these attitudes predisposes the individual to react in a specific direction. A favourable feeling towards workplace and work itself will predispose the
individual to show more concern, interest, and satisfaction, which in turn will result in high level of involvement in the job, with work and workers.

According to Harrell (1964), job involvement is derived from and caused by many different factors. Broadly they can be decided into –

(i) Personal factors – age, sex, number of dependants, time on job, intelligence, education, and personality.

(ii) Factors inherent in the job – type of work, skill, status, geography and size of organisation.

(iii) Factors controlled by management – security, pay, opportunity for advancement, co-workers, working conditions, responsibility and supervisor.

In the recent years the concept of job involvement has gained much importance, both theoretically and empirically. Many different terms have been used to describe job involvement, as central-life interest, work role involvement, ego involvement, morale, intrinsic motivation etc.

Job involvement and the process of ego-involvement in work has been a concern for both sociologists such as Hughes (1946) and Dubin (1958, 1961) and psychologists such as McGregor (1960), Allport (1947) and Maurer (1972).

According to Dubin (1961), when a person internalizes a value, norm, goal or behaviour pattern these become guide for future activity. Internalization means acceptance into the personal behaviour system and ways of thinking. Literally, it means putting these work values inside the personality, modes of activities and thoughts, so that they become in future the basis for behaviour.

Job involvement is the internalization of values about the goodness of work, the importance of work in the worth of the person and perhaps it thus measures the ease with which the person can be further socialized by an organisation.
Patchen (1970) considered job involvement as a convenient table summarizing several characteristics that make the job more important and potentially satisfying to the individual. The job involved person is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work.

French and Kahn (1962), stated that if job performance is central to the worker then it is said to be ego involved performance.

These conceptualization in general indicate that the job involved person is one for whom work is very important part of his life and also one who is very much affected personally by his total job situation.

Personal values, job characteristics such as autonomy, friendly relations, supervisory behaviour, trust and support all lead to higher job involvement.

Lodhal and Kejner (1965), described job involvement as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work.

Hence job involvement can be defined in two different ways as an individual's level of performance at work affecting his self esteem and how involvement in the job affects a person's identity and self-image.

2. JOB INVOLVEMENT AS PERFORMANCE & SELF ESTEEM CONTINGENCY

Several definitions might be considered to study job involvement in light of performance and self esteem. They consider job involvement as the extent to which self esteem is affected by level of performance.

Allport (1947), defined ego involvement as the situation in which the person engages himself in status seeking motive in his work.

Guion (1958), defined morale as an attitudinal frame of reference in which a person perceives his job to be so important to himself, to his company and to the society that his superiors' blunders are not to be tolerated. To run the organisation efficiently and profitably, it is essential that
all the human elements in the factory should cooperate and work in coordination. And this can be achieved only when all workers are in a position to be enthusiastic and happy about their work.

Frunce (1971), stated that occupational involvement means a commitment to a particular set of tasks or task area where successful role performance is regarded as an end in itself and not as a means to some other end. Thus the degree of occupational involvement refers to the extent to which success and failure in the occupational role affects self-image. Similarly French and Kahn (1962), viewed involvement in terms of the degree to which performance affects self esteem. The centrality of ability is the degree to which it affects self esteem. If job performance is central to the worker, then it is ego-involved performance. According to Vroom (1964), involvement exists when a person's feeling of esteem are increased by good performance and decreased by bad performance.

The notion of job involvement is also closely related to motivation. Involvement can result from the fulfillment of motivation and new sources of involvement can generate other motivations. Motivation to work is human state where competence to work and will to work fuse together. In absence of one, the other does not produce results. Kleinback (1987), defines motivation as the direction of attention, effort directed to the task and the content to which it is maintained. This is important in the work setting because employees are expected to maintain high attendance, good performance and likes as long as they remain with the organisation.

Lawler (1971), applied the term 'intrinsic motivation' to this area, which refers to the degree to which a job holder is motivated to perform well because of some subjective rewards of feelings that he expects to receive or experience or experiences as a result of performing well.

Thus according to the above definitions tied together, a job-involved person is one for whom work is a very important part of life and as one who is very much personally affected by his whole job situation, the work itself, his co-workers, the company etc. On the other hand non-job involved worker
does the majority of his living off the job. Work is not as important a part of his psychological life. Although it is referred that a job involved worker is not necessarily happy with his job, in fact it has been found that sometimes very angry people may just be as involved in their jobs as very happy ones.

3. JOB INVOLVEMENT AS A COMPONENT OF SELF-IMAGE

Another way of describing a job involved person is the degree to which a person is psychologically involved or identifies with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image. Lawler (1971), focussed on job involvement as referring to 'psychological identification with one's work', as well as the degree to which the job situation is central to the person and his identity.

The concept of 'work role motivation' is also employed to describe the degree to which an individual places work role as important to himself, as well as the extent to which it forms the basis of self-definition, self evaluation and success definitions.

Patchen (1970), was concerned primarily with the personal goal attainment, as a predominant fact in job involvement. Thus according to his conceptualization a job involved person is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work. Patchen, hypothesized that one who feels highly identified will be more likely to get pride in job achievement than one whose occupation plays a minor role in his self-identification.

4. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON JOB INVOLVEMENT

Rabinowitz (1977), reviewed the various concepts and ideas associated with job involvement by identifying various personal, psychological and situational variables and the interaction between them.

4:a  Job Involvement As An Individual Difference Variable:

Job Involvement as conceived by Dubin (1958), is intimately tied up in the moral character of the worker and a sense of personal responsibility. Anyone who has internalized these traditional values will probably be job
involved regardless of situational context within which he might be employed. Lodhal & Kejner (1965), hypothesized that the main determinant of job involvement is value orientation towards work that is learned early in the socialization process. He further believed that job involvement is a result of the introduction of certain values about work into the self, it is probably resistant to changes in the person due to the nature of a particular job.

Hall and Mansfield (1971), brought in view the effect of stress on job involvement. He suggested that if job involvement is a personal characteristic, then there should be a little change in it under the periods of organisational stress and strains.

4:b Job Involvement As A Function Of The Situation:

Vroom (1964), has suggested that job factors can influence the degree to which an employee is involved in his job. A person becomes ego-involved in his work performance to the extent that performance is perceived to be relevant to certain aptitudes, abilities, or other attributes that are central to his self-concept.

The physical and socio-psychological conditions under which people work, exert a strong influence on productivity level, job involvement and satisfaction. Industrial and organisational psychologists, together with engineering and environmental psychologists, are concerned with a variety of physical, social and psychological factors in their efforts to create working environment that will be efficient, safe, and pleasant, and will satisfy workers’ needs and motivations.

Bass (1965), concluded his discussion of job involvement by echoing the feeling that six conditions lead to strengthening of the variable: a) the opportunity to make more of the job decision; b) the feeling that one is making an important contribution to company success; c) success; d) achievement; e) self-determination; f) freedom to set oneself over work place. Blau (1981), hypothesized that involvement in work may come from a sense of purpose. A man who is in control of his immediate work process...
regulating the pace, the quality of the output, the quality of the product, choosing tools to work techniques may be according to Blau, relatively more involved in the work.

Other factors that are situational induced and may affect job involvement are leader behaviour, participation in decision making, social factor, and job level.

4:c Job Involvement As An Individual Situation Interaction Component:

Lawler (1971), suggested that the realistic view of Job involvement would be a function of an individual-job interaction. They support the individual difference, point of view by expressing the feeling that people probably do differ in the degree to which they are likely to become involved in their jobs as a function of their backgrounds and personal situations. However, the situational viewpoint is also a very important and determining factor since it is also true probably other things being equal, more people will become involved in a job that allows them control and a chance to use their abilities than will be involved in a job that is lacking in these characteristics.

Farris (1971), assumed that job involvement was a function of the interaction of a person with his environment, thus not considering it solely an individual characteristic.

Lodhal and Kejner (1965), although initially stating the individual difference viewpoint, concluded their studies by declaring that job involvement is affected by organisational conditions, (mostly social ones) as well as by value orientations learned in early socialization process.

5. JOB INVOLVEMENT AND WORK MOTIVATION

A major problem facing virtually all organisations are that of motivating their employees to work for more productivity. Even substantial pay raises and lavish fringe benefits, once thought to be the surest incentives for better performance and involvement, no longer seems to be
effective in increasing employees involvement in his job. Money is not the
major motivating factor. Its value as an incentive has decreased. Workers
today are better educated than past generation of workers. They want more
satisfying, meaningful and challenging jobs and will not be contented with
work that is boring, routine and unstimulating.

To stripe work of the humanitarian attributes, is to reduce it to the
mechanics of an automatic machine, and this cannot be done if we are to
understand its meaning and dimensions associated to it. Work has an
economic aspect and a mechanical aspect, but it has also a psychological
aspect. Any attempt to overlook this psychological aspect can result in an
oversimplification of the term work and can lead to misunderstanding of the
whole scenario of work in its totality.


Why do we work so hard? If persistent efforts are an index of
motivation then surely work motivation is the most potent of human drives.
But we do work because of what it gets us in material rewards (Pay offs) and
because work itself is enriching (job-satisfaction). According to Mc. Gregor
(1960), under the sets of assumption called Theory 'Y', the belief is that
people are basically creative and responsible, that the expenditure of energy
in some form of work is a natural process. To the extent that work objectives
fulfill personal needs and thus people will be intrinsically motivated to do
well.

An alternative set of assumptions is called Theory 'X' by Mc. Gregor
involves the belief that people basically dislike work and will do everything
possible to avoid it. Although they want security, they have little ambition and
do not like to have responsibilities.

There are several theories concerning the direct impact of work
motivation on job involvement and other work related behavioural patterns.
5:b  **Need-Achievement Theory (McClelland, 1961):**

The need for achievement refers to the desire to do a good job, to be the best, and to accomplish something. People who are high in the need for achievement derive great satisfaction from their accomplishments and are highly motivated to excel in whatever they undertake.

Organisations that employ executives who are high in achievement motivation must provide the proper working conditions that will allow for the satisfaction of the need (i) To take personal responsibility for solving problems. Those who are happy show highest amount of involvement in jobs that provide challenge, responsibility and autonomy (ii) A situation in which they can assume tasks of moderate difficulty. If job-related tasks or goals are too easy, there is little sense of achievement in reaching the goals. (iii) Precise and continuous feedback of the progress. With adequate recognition in the form of production figures, pay raises, promotions, or pats on the back -- they have tangible reasons to get more concerned about their job.

Apparently, many people possess the need to achieve. It arises from a unique pattern of parental behaviours that shape the individual so that they find satisfaction, and emotional security in doing a given job.

5:c  **The Self-Actualization Theory (Maslow 1970):**

This theory suggests that all human beings are motivated by five innate needs arranged in a hierarchy from the strongest to the weakest.

(i) **The physiological needs:** are for food, water, air, sleep and sex; and they must be satisfied if human beings are to survive. A salary sufficient to allow us to satisfy these needs is vital, but once satisfied, they not longer operate as needs.

(ii) **Safety needs:** Includes the need for security, stability, protection and freedom from fear and anxiety. Although these needs may be satisfied by activities outside the job, one’s work can also contribute greatly to it.
(iii) **Love needs**: The need for belongingness and love appears after the safety need is satisfied. Many aspects of a person's life, such as a warmth, loving family, can contribute to these needs. Work can also provide love when people find a sense of togetherness through a sense of affiliation and identification with the organization.

(iv) **Esteem needs**: This refers to a drive for family based high evaluations from others, for self-respect and self esteem. Elements of esteem needs, such as prestige, success, etc. can be satisfied in part by salary, and by such status indicators as plush carpeting, a corner office, a private secretary etc. Self esteem can be derived from the knowledge that one is doing one's job competently.

(v) **Need for self-actualization**: This need is defined as the supreme development and utilization of all our capabilities, the fulfillment of our unique qualities and capacities.

    Maslow (1954), insisted that the nature of our work is vital to satisfying the need for self-actualization. He believed that it was impossible to become self-actualized without an intensive dedication to and absorption in work that is meaningful and challenging. In order to satisfy this need one must have work that provides opportunities for growth and responsibility, and the chance to exercise and develop. Routine, boring and non-challenging work cannot satisfy this need, no matter how high a salary the job pays.

5:d **The Motivation-Hygiene Theory (Herzberg 1966)**:

    This is a simple theory that had a major influence on the job design. This theory suggests that man has two sets of needs; the need to avoid pains and the need to grow psychologically. It proposes that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two independent and distinct experiences and that one is not the opposite of the other.

    According to Herzberg, man has two different categories of needs which are essentially independent of each other and affect behaviour in
different ways. When people feel dissatisfied about their job, they are concerned about the environment in which they are working. On the other hand, when people feel good about their job, this has to do with the work itself. The first category of needs is called as hygienic factors, because they describe man's environment and serve the primary function of preventing job dissatisfaction. The other set of needs is called motivators since they seem to be effective in motivating people to superior performance. Hygiene factors include company policy, and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, money, status and security. The motivation factors include achievement, recognition, increased responsibilities, challenging work, growth and development.

6. CASUAL FACTORS IN JOB INVOLVEMENT

A job is not an entity but a complex interrelated settings of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives, and rewards. Thus a thorough understanding of job attitudes require that the job be analyzed in terms of its constituent elements. Constitute factors can be adequately classified as 'Events or conditions', and 'Agents'. Conditions or events include all those factors, which are caused by some one for better work perspective like working conditions, pay, work, etc. And Agent is the one who is perceived as having done something in relation to the individual e.g. supervisor, coworker, etc.

6:a Events And Conditions:

(i) Work: Work attributes that have been found to be related to work interest and satisfaction include (i) Opportunity to use one's valued skills and abilities; (ii) Opportunity for new learning (iii) creativity (iv) Variety (v) difficulty (vi) amount of work (vii) responsibility (viii) non arbitrary pressure for performance (ix) control over work method and work pace (autonomy) (x) job enrichment (which involves increasing responsibility and control), and (xi) complexity.
(ii) **Pay**: The root of the desire for pay is to satisfy his physical needs (food, shelter, clothing etc.). It also means more than that. It also serves as a symbol of achievement Mc. Clelland (1961), as a source of recognition, means of obtaining other values (e.g. Leisure, work of art, etc.). It is a means of security, it allows greater freedom of actions. And also salary reflects management's concern for the individual employee

Lawler (1971), contrasts discrepancy theory – the view that pay satisfaction depends upon the difference between obtained pay and valued pay and equity theory – the view that pay satisfaction is a function of obtained pay in relation to the individual's perceived inputs and outputs in relation to other people holding similar jobs. Discrepancy theory poses a model of pay satisfaction, while equity theory provides content for that model.

According to equity theory these factors are judged on a comparative basis so that an individual who possesses more of certain traits or works harder or has a more demanding job than another individual (same department, company, union etc.) thinks he should be paid more.

(iii) **Promotion**: Satisfaction with promotion can be seen as a function of the frequency of promotion in relation to what is desired and the importance of promotion to the individual. The roots of the desire for promotion would include: the desire for psychological growth (by greater responsibility), the desire for justice; desire for higher earnings, and the desire for social status. Desire for frequent promotions reflects a very high degree of personal ambitions of the individuals. One would expect that self esteem and self-confidence would affect the desire for promotion at all occupational levels, although this issue has not been frequently researched.

(iv) **Verbal recognition**: All employees value being praised for their work and being given credit, where credit is due especially by supervisors
and colleagues whose judgement they respect. Recognition is one of the single most frequently mentioned events causing job satisfaction and high involvement.

(v) **Working conditions:** Employees value physical surroundings which are not dangerous or uncomfortable. With respect to features such as temperature, humidity, ventilation, lighting and noise. Moderate rather than extreme working conditions cause physical discomfort and reduce the ability to work. Most employees also value a location close to home, new buildings, cleanliness, and adequate tools and equipment.

6:b **Agents:**

(i) **The self:** One of the most important area of job attitude is the individual's view of himself and the way in which this view affects what he seeks for pleasure on the job and how various job experiences and conditions affect him. The concept of self esteem is also a crucial factor. Kormann (1968), argues that high self esteem employees get more pleasure from task success than from failure, low-esteem persons do not. Argyris (1964), argued that individuals will experience pleasure with success only to the degree that they perceive themselves as casually responsible for it.

(ii) **Supervisors, co-workers and sub-ordinates:** This perspective can be studied under two types of human relationships. 'Functional' and 'Entity'. In functional relationships the bond between two (or more) persons consists of specific services they can provide for each other. Here an exchange of specific actions or material value is involved. These values can be divided into two broad classes –

- **Task related values:** Freedom from interruptions, good equipment, interesting and challenging work help in attaining work goals.
- **Reward for task performance:** promotion, pay raises or high earnings, verbal recognition etc.
It is logical to assume that the greatest degree of overall liking for another person in the work place will arise when both entity and functional attractions are high.

(iii) **Company and Management:** All the functional activities as applicable to supervisors, would also apply to the organization as a whole. The organization can determine the nature of the individual's work tasks, his workload, his degree of responsibilities, his promotional opportunities his rate of pay, and the physical conditions of work.

Two other concepts that have been used to describe organizational policies are: (i) role conflict, the degree to which role expectations are incompatible or self contradictory, and (ii) role ambiguity, the degree to which role expectations are vague, unclear, or undefined.

(iv) **Fringe Benefits:** Retirement provisions, medical benefits, leaves, vacations and holidays are fairly standard part of most jobs. Benefits have been found to have a strong influence on job attitudes. Both management and union have emphasized these. Benefits are considered as non-inflationary means of improving the economic conditions of employees.

Job Involvement is of great significance for efficient and profitable functioning of any organization. The organization can be evaluated in terms of satisfaction, high morale, positive attitude and high level of involvement on part of the individuals serving in any organization. Thus it affects the working individuals, the organization which employs them, and the society as a whole.

Along with this background of theoretical impetus, we may now pass on to the pertinent literature on Job Involvement.

In recent years 'Job Involvement' has been an active field for researchers. It has mainly been studied in relation to demographic variables.

In view of the present investigation a brief review of recent researches carried out between year 1990 to 2001 in the field of Job Involvement by various researchers is presented below:

Mannhein, (1993). Examined whether women differ from men in work centrality by exploring the factors of socialization, status, work values, as well as job satisfaction. Although in the aggregate, women were found to be less work centered than men. This was true mainly in the intermediate SES category only. A combined model of status, work value, socialization and job satisfaction explains work role centrality best for men, whereas status, socialization and job satisfaction explain best for women.

Goble & Dangello, (1994). Addressed the effect of Job Involvement on the relationship between machiavellianism and job performance. Results showed a significant linkage between machiavellianism and the 3 measures of job performance for managers who perceived themselves as possessing high levels of Job Involvement.

Singh. & Pestonjee, (1995). Examines the effect of Job Involvement and participation on on-the-job factors and off-the-job factors of job satisfaction in different groups. Results support previous research findings regarding the moderating effects of Job Involvement and participation on on-the-job and off-the-job factors in different groups. Significant interaction between Job Involvement & participation and job level & participation were obtained.

Saini, Yadav & Mal, (1997). Their study was an attempt to explore burnout feelings among private school teachers in relation to negative affectivity (High/low) and teaching experience. The results indicated significant effects of negative affectivity on burnout feelings.

Bhatt (1997), investigated the correlation between primary school teachers job stress, job involvement, and job satisfaction. Results indicate
that job stress was highly significantly negatively correlated with job involvement and satisfaction. There existed a significant negative correlation between job stress and job involvement but there was negative insignificant partial correlation between the job stress and job satisfaction.

Virk & Kumar, (1997). The investigation was carried out to study main and interactive effects of age, gender and Type – A behaviour pattern on job stress and Job Involvement of bank employees. Results showed that two independent variables – gender and Type-A behaviour rendered their significant effects on job stress. Also, the independent variables of age and Type-A behaviour yielded significant differences in the Job Involvement of the subjects.

Zafar & Nageswara Rao, (1998). Job related attitudes and outcomes play a major role in shaping behaviour of managers in organizations. Managers evaluate these attitudes of work environment both positively and negatively. If the interaction between the Individual – Environment (work) is good, it leads to realization of organizational goals, needs and satisfaction. Otherwise, the outcome may lead to low involvement, stress, frustration, alienation and intention to quit the organization.

Patel, (1999). Investigated the impact of age on job involvement and organizational commitment of nationalized and co-operative bank employees in India. Results show that younger subjects of both the banks exhibited less Job Involvement and organizational commitment than the middle – aged and older subjects. The only significant difference between employees of the 2 kinds of banks were that middle-aged nationalized bank employees showed more commitment than did middle-aged employees of co-operative banks.

Bhargava & Kelkar (2000), studied managers, officers, and supporting staff of a business organization for job involvement, job satisfaction, and empowerment. Results show that job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related, but both were unrelated to job involvement. They indicated the importance of decentralization for managing people in organizations and
concluded that organizations should opt for the strategies that could take into account the all-round development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Judge, Bono & Locke, (2000). This study tested the model of the relationship between core self-evaluations, intrinsic job characteristics, and job satisfaction. The model hypothesized that both subjective (perceived) job characteristics and job complexity mediate the relationship. Results from study revealed that core self-evaluations measured in childhood and in early adulthood were linked to job satisfaction measured in middle adulthood.
SELF ESTEEM

1. THE CONCEPT

One of the most interesting social objects one may perceive or react to is oneself. 'I' and 'Me' constitute what is called myself. 'I' means I as a knower, thinker, evaluator, judge, feeler, doer etc. 'Me' means what is mine, my ideas, my beliefs, my house, my people, my country, whatever is mine and whatever is related to me physically or even emotionally. Self is both material and non-material and it has its past, present and future.

Self has unique attribute of knowing, feeling, loving and praising itself. This special consideration of the self for the self is known as the sentiments of self-regard or self esteem. It is very natural therefore on the part of an individual to love one's self, one's possessions, one's body, one's ideas, one's deeds one's beliefs. When anybody loves himself his possessions, his friends and habits etc. he is only expressing attachments and preferences towards his self.

Interest in the self, what it is and how it develops, is not a recent phenomenon. As a theoretical concept, the self has ebbed and flowed with the currents of philosophical and psychological pondering since the 17th century when the French mathematician and philosopher, Rene Descartes, first discussed the 'cognito', or self, as a thinking substance. As psychology evolved from philosophy as a separate entity, the self as a related construct moved along with it. But with the tides of behaviorism, which swept the shores of psychological thinking for the first 40 years, the concept of self disappeared. Study of the self was not something which could be easily investigated under rigidly controlled laboratory condition. The concept was kept alive by Cooley, Mead, Dewey, and James. During the period since word war II, the concept of self has been revived and has exhibited remarkable vitality.
2. THE NOTION OF SELF

The concept of self has its origin in the general theories of behaviour which accounts for the unique organization of behaviour within the single individual. Sigmud Freud used the term 'ego' to refer to this organization. The term 'self' is used to label the totality of action and behaviour of the single individual. It represents the summation of what he 'is' behaviourally and thus it represents object of perception that 'he is'.

The self deals with the person's subjective, internal experiences and personal concepts. According to Rogers (1959), the self denotes, the organized consistent conceptions composed of perception of the characteristics of the 'I' or 'me' and the perception of the relationship of the 'I' or 'me' with others and to various aspects of life.

The self is an abstraction that an individual develops about the attributes, capacities, objects and activities, which he possesses and pursues. This abstraction is represented by the symbol 'me', which is person's idea of ownself to himself. The concept of self is formed out of diverse experiences and evaluations. The evaluation produces positive and negative self-attributes. These attributes may reflect an individual's expectancies and estimations. The value he places upon himself.

3. RELATED COMPONENTS OF SELF

3:a The Self, Self Concept, And Self Esteem:

Self, self concept and self esteem are overlapping terms and each refers to a particular component of a person's total personality. The 'self', as we will use it here, is that part of each of us of which we are consciously aware. 'Self concept' refers to that particular cluster of ideas and attributes we have about our awareness at any given moment in time or self concept can be viewed as the organized cognitive structure derived from experiences of our own self. Thus, out of our awareness of ourselves grow the ideas (concepts) of the kind of person we see ourselves as being. Self concept is
the cognitive part of the self. We might view 'self esteem' as the affective portion of the self. That is, not only do we have certain ideas about who we are, but we have certain 'feelings' about who we are. It refers to the extent to which we admire or value the self. This clearly points why personalities differ so greatly among individuals. Different people have different trends of awareness of the self, different ideas about their awareness, and as a consequence, different feeling about themselves as a person.

3:b The Ego:

Although there is no single, universally accepted definition of the self, most psychologists accept a distinction between two major facets of the self, one of which the person himself is aware and one inferred by an external observer. The 'inferred self' is the dimension of the self commonly called the 'ego'. As per Freudian definition, ego refers to that portion of personality structure that embodies the core of decision making, planning and defensiveness. Ego is called as inferred self, because an external observer (who, in fact, may detect unconscious features of which the individual is unaware) can best understand it. Thus, the ego is a construct of behaviour, a hypothetical construct that, though it cannot be directly observed, can be inferred, from one's behaviour. We speak of a person as having a weak or a strong ego based on how we have observed that person behaving under given condition. Thus ego is the primary agent of personality, which is inferred on the basis of certain observed effects.

4. HUMANISTIC SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES OF SELF

4:a J.F.T. Bugental (1964) - Personal Experience:

The theoretical orientation focuses on human as social being who are influenced and guided by the personal meanings they attach to their experiences. It is concerned with the sort of human experiences and expressions such as love, creativity, sense of self, higher values, spontaneity, warmth, fair-play, transcendental experiences, psychological health, and related concepts.
Bugental (1964), suggested basic postulates for understanding the human behaviour.

1. Man, as man, supersedes the sum of his parts.
2. Man is aware of himself and his existence.
3. Man has choice to a given experience, thereby to become not a bystander but a participant in experience.
4. Man is intentional. He intends through having purpose, through valuing, and through seeking meaning in his life.

4:b  **C.H. Cooley (1902) - The looking Glass Self:**

Cooley, was one of the earliest social psychologists to explore the idea of self. He recognizes that the social milieu from which a person comes contributes heavily to how a person views himself. The social reference takes the form of a somewhat definite imagination of how one's self appears in a particular mind, and the kind of self-feeling one has.

The self that is most important is a reflection, largely, from the minds of others. This is the process of self-appraisal by an individual, the importance of his accurate perception and interpretation of the reaction of the other person to him.

4:c  **George H. Mead (1934) - Socially Formed Self:**

Mead, felt it necessary to root the self in the social conditions relevant to the individual and to derive the content of the self from the interaction between the individual and his social world. Mead's self is an 'object of awareness', rather than a system of processes. Mead's self is a 'socially' formed self, which grows in a social setting where there, is 'social' communication.
4:d Harry S. Sullivan (1953) - Reflected Appraisals:

Closely related to the social interaction ideas of Mead and Cooley is the theoretical position of Sullivan. From the first day of life, the individual gets immersed in a continual stream of interpersonal situation in which he is the recipient of a never-ending flow of 'reflected appraisals'. It is through his assimilation of these reflected appraisals that the child comes to develop expectations and attitudes towards himself as an individual. If these appraisals have been mainly derogatory, then the self-image is apt to be disparaging and hostile, and if the reflected appraisals have been positive and constructive then one's feelings about self are more inclined to be positive and approving.

4:e Adler (1927) - Life plan in Life system:

The essential pillar of this theory is the 'Life Plan' of the individual. Adler's self is a highly personalize, subjective system through which a person interprets and gives meaning to his experiences. He viewed each person as a conscious being ordinarily aware of his reason for behaviour. More than this, each person is a self-conscious individual, who is capable of planning and guiding his actions with full awareness of their meaning for his own self realization.

Adler saw every person as having some goals, and there are countless different 'Lifestyle' for achieving them. A person's Lifestyle is determined by specific inferiorities that a person has, which determines the persons' total reaction to his environment. The individual sets up certain 'Life Plan' to either overcome or compensate for it. It is this setting up of a goal or a direction in life that gives meaning to events, which might not otherwise make sense.
Karen Horney (1955) - Moving towards, against and away from people:

Horney's ideas spring from her primary concept of basic anxiety. At the early stage of childhood a wide range of adverse functions in the environment can produce this insecurity in a child; direct or indirect domination, indifference, erratic behaviour lack of respect, lack of real guidance, disparaging attitude etc, can predispose an individual to adopt certain strategies of adjustment in order to satisfy a neurotic need growing from disturbed human relationships. Horney, developed a list of ten needs, anyone of which could be acquired as a consequence of trying to deal with the problems of disturbed human relationship. These needs are neurotic because they are irrational solutions to the basic problems.

The needs are the sources from which inner conflicts develop. Everyone has these neurotic conflicts to some degree but some people, usually because of early experiences with rejection, neglect, over protection and other expressions of unfortunate parental treatment, develop anxiety.

Carl Rogers (1959) - The fully functioning person:

Rogers self-theory and ideas about the fully functioning individual represents a synthesis of phenomenology, social interaction theory and interpersonal theory.

The principal conceptual ingredients of Rogers self-theory are the following,

1. The organism, which is the total person.
2. The phenomenal field, which is the totality of experience, and
3. The self, which is a different portion of the phenomenal field and consists of conscious perception and values of the 'I' or 'Me'.
4:h  A.H.Maslow (1970) - Self-Actualization:

Maslow offers a theory of human motivation which assume that needs are ordered along a hierarchy of priority or prepotency. That is when the more basic need is satisfied, the next need in the hierarchy energies and presses for satisfaction.

As per Maslow (1954), Psychology does not take into account such experiences as compassion, gaiety, exhilaration and well being to the same extent that is dealt with hate, pain, misery, guilt and conflict. Maslow has undertaken to supply the other half of the picture, the brighter, better half, to sound out a portrait of the whole man. Self-actualizing persons are free from fears and inhibition, they accept themselves and they accept other they have self esteem and confidence.

4:i  Festinger (1954)- Social Comparison Process:

The evaluation aspect of the self-concept is also highly dependent upon social origins. The culturally defined standard of social desirability governs the recognition of particular qualities in oneself. They also provide a standard against which aspirations and ideals are framed and against which one gauges his regard for himself. One's direct experience of success and failure in his various efforts underline his evaluation of himself. Even success and failure are defined with respect to some standard of evaluation. Festinger (1954), formulated a theory of social comparison process, which holds that most people evolve their own standards for personal success and failure, out of implicit comparison of themselves with the performance of other people whom they regard as 'peers' or 'equals'.

5. THE NOTION OF SELF-CONCEPT

The term self-concept is used to refer to the organized cognitive structure derived from one's experience of his ownself. The self-concept is a particular kind of attitudinal structure and it includes elements of sheer
perceptual recognition, which do not necessarily always correspond fully to the reality of the self.

Like other cognitive organization, the self-concept tends to be self-sustaining i.e. once evolved, it tends to guide selectively the admission of new experiences. The existing self-concept at any given point of time provides a 'frame of reference' for interpreting new experiences.

The self-concept is a coherent and internally consistent cognitive system, but from time to time new experiences necessitate adjustment and revision of the self-concept. Information that is compatible or incongruent tends to be filtered out and denied admission into the concept.

5:a  **Cognitive Rigidity – Flexibility:**

The dimension of cognitive rigidity-flexibility describes one aspect of the self-concept. Changing circumstances often force a reorganization of self-concept in a direction inconsistent with one's earlier conception of himself. Rigidity, which prevents such realignment of the self-concept, is serviceable in meeting the changing world with changing demands on the individual and thus generate difficulties in personal adjustments. On the other hand, an excessive flexible self-concept, which reshapes itself capriciously in the face of each new experience, also is of limited utility, in achieving consistency in a changing world. The person who feels that he is a genius every time he earns an 'A' and an idiot every time he fails a quiz, is an inconsistent person who lacks a stable and serviceable personal estimate of himself as a frame of reference. For long range planning and decision making such a condition contributes to what Freudian psychoanalytic psychologists have described as 'low ego strength'. As in the case of excessive rigidity of the self concept, excessive flexibility may also produce pathological conditions in personality organization.
6. DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-CONCEPT

The developmental evolution of the self-concept follows very much the same course that occurs with the development of other kind of cognitive concepts. The first item of information which comprise the concepts are associated together because of various kinds of similarity or relatedness. At first there may be very primitive kind of generalizations later they become very subtle and refined ones. As further experiences accumulate, items of information are added, when they are congruent with the structure of the particular concept, but turned aside if they are incongruent. The early formation of the self concept is specially crucial in that it guides or steers the subsequent development of the self-concept.

6:a Existential Self:

At the most basic level, there is existential self, the fundamental sense of being separate from others. Until this develops we can't really speak of the child as having a self-concept at all.

The first step is for the infant to recognize that he is separate from others that the mother or 'caregiver's' body is not part of his own. The awareness of this sense seems to develop during the first six to eight months.

6:b Categorical Self:

Second, is the categorical self. The child comes to define himself in terms of a set of categories such as age, sex, size, colour and specific skills or knowledge. The specific set of categories value a child (e.g. young, tall, male, smart, slow, etc.) is his self concept image. As individuals progress along the lines of cognitive development, developing more and more complex concepts and categories.
6: Affective Self:

Finally, there is the affective aspect of the self-concept, the value the child gives to the qualities he sees himself as having. The child describes himself on a whole series of dimensions and compares himself to others on those same dimensions.

This aspect is usually described in terms of self esteem. A child with high self esteem places a positive value on his self-perceived character whereas, a child with low self esteem places a neutral or negative value of his character.

7. SELF ESTEEM

Self esteem refers to the evaluation, which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to his 'self'; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates, the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy.

Self esteem is a personal judgement or worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself. It is a subjective experience, which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour.

Self has a unique attribute of knowing, feeling, loving and praising itself. Self is both material and non material and it has its past, present and future. When self regard is the motive, then one makes sure that nothing is done or said which might injure his image in his own eyes and in the eyes of others. In a way the sentiments of self-regard not only make a man conscious of his positives which he constantly endeavors to strengthen further but also make him aware of his negatives which he equally constantly tries to mitigate and convert into positives.
7:a **The Significance of Self esteem:**

It is widely held belief that self esteem is significantly associated with personal satisfaction and effective functioning. This sentiment also helps an individual to develop sensitivity towards his positives and explore them fully so that he is able to overshadow his inferiority, if any. A feeling of inferiority-physical or mental blurs one's vision and dampens one's spirit. Individual becomes pessimistic and non-functional.

Studies have revealed that people who seek psychological help frequently acknowledge that they suffer from feeling of inadequacy and unworthiness. These people see themselves as helpless and inferior, incapable of improving their situations and lacking the inner resources to tolerate or reduce the anxiety readily aroused by everyday events and stress.

Clinicians observe that persons who are plagued by doubts of their worthiness can neither give nor receive love, apparently fearing that the exposure that comes with intimacy will reveal their inadequacies and cause them to be rejected. They report feelings of guilt, shame or depression and come to conclude that their actual achievements are of little importance unless and until they can attain their desired goals, they regard themselves as unsuccessful and unworthy.

7:b **Self Esteem as a Motivator:**

Self esteem also works as a motivator and infuses in oneself the spirit of compilation and pursuit of excellence. An individual possessing self esteem appreciates the need of development of all dimensions of the self. As such his development becomes harmonious and balanced. Usually an individual with self esteem keeps him cool, Uconsiderate nd constructive, helpful and co-operative, confident and careful.

Experimental studies indicate that a person on the low-esteem is less capable of resisting pressure to conform and is less able to perceive threatening stimulants and is led by self-doubt and minor personality
disturbances. A person with high self esteem maintains a fairly constant image of his capabilities and of his abstractness as a person. He is also more likely to assume an active role in social group and express his views frequently and effectively less troubled by fears and ambivalence. The person with high self esteem apparently moves more directly and realistically towards his personal goals.

8. **A NEED FOR POSITIVE SELF REGARD**

Rogers (1959), contends that all persons possess a basic desire to experience attitude such as warmth, respect, admiration, love and acceptance from significant people in their lives. This need for getting positive regard develops as the awareness of self-emergence, and it is pervasive and persistent. It starts with the infant's need to be loved and cared for, and is subsequently reflected in the person's satisfaction when approved by others and frustration when disapproved.

The development of positive self-regard assures that the tendency towards becoming an independent person will take up forms of behaviour that is compatible with the self-concept. Consequently, one is unlikely to behave in the ways which are inconsistent with one's self-concept; because this would frustrate him for the need of positive self-regard.

9. **SELF ESTEEM AND EVALUATION BY OTHERS**

Like the other aspects of the self, this is learned from others. It is the reflection of how others regard us, or more accurately, the value we think others attach to us, as person. One's behaviour is likely to reflect his self esteem and this in turn, has a reassuring effect on others. Thus there is a reciprocal interaction between one's self esteem and the esteem expressed for one by the others. Miyamato and Dornbusch (1956), found that people with high self ratings tended to be rated high by others and that the opposite was true of persons who had low self rating. In other words, persons were apparently more influenced by what they thought others felt about them than what others actually did feel.
10. SELF ESTEEM AND EVALUATION OF SELF-PERCEPTION

Like any other attitudinal structure it includes not only elements of sheer perceptual recognition but also evaluative component. Beyond the fact that a person may misperceive and distort his conception of himself, he may either like or dislike what he recognizes about himself. This evaluative aspect of self-perception, which might be thought of as the degree to which one likes oneself, is 'self regard' or 'Self esteem'.

A person who regards himself favorably, has a general feeling of approval of what he perceives in himself, and thus likes himself, would be said to hold a higher level of self esteem.

10:a Significant Others and Generalized Others:

Self esteem one holds is evaluative reaction to what he perceives in himself, which is turn a part product of his assimilation of what others think of him. One is particularly likely to make use of feedback from other individuals who are especially important to him i.e. 'significant others' and also to utilize a composite notion of what other people in general think of him i.e. 'generalized others'.

10:b Ideal Self and Real Self:

Freud refers to the 'ego ideal' as an aspect of the super ego that serves as a reference point or standard in controlling behaviour. This notion of ideal self should not be confused with the fact that standard of social desirability or social acceptability often leads to 'idealization' or 'glamorization' in one's concept of himself. Process of perceptual defence and vigilance often give rise to inaccuracy in self-perception and distortion in the direction of greater social desirability. Karen Horney (1955), specially distinguished the 'ideal self' (a set of notion about what one would ideally like to be) from what she called the 'idealized self' that constitutes a distorted self-concept.
The use of such terms assume a difference between the self that one perceives as the 'real self' the 'perceived self' and the self that one ought to have or ought to be 'ideal self'.

Rogers (1959), theorized that the existence of a large gap between the perceived self and the ideal self is generally an unhealthy state of affairs. Individual whose behaviour does comply to this state of discrepancy is likely to be plagued by anxiety and feeling of inferiority.

11. SELF ESTEEM RELATED TO PHYSICAL GROWTH, APPEARANCE, AND DEVELOPMENTAL OUTCOMES

How we feel about ourselves is related to how we feel about our bodies. The self-image is the first and foremost body image. Our experiences on our-body as a psychological object, are infused widely into our lives. Our height, weight, eye colour, hair colour, complexion, and general body proportion are very much related to our feelings of personal adequacy.

The kind of body image we have depends less on what we're born with and more on what we do with that sensible eating habits and daily exercise. Good grooming can work wonders in assisting any person towards a more positive self-concept, thus leading to a high self esteem.

11:a Self Image and Body Image:

Mead (1913), observed self as a product of our symbolic interaction with others and we can perceive ourselves only as a reflection in the eyes of another. Cooley (1909), described our tendency to use others as a kind of 'looking glass' which we perceive in another's mind, some thoughts of our appearances, manners, aims, deeds, character and so on. The looking glass view is a neutral and uncritical agent whereas what others perceive in us is affected by the bias of what they are prepared to perceive, and what we think they perceive is further distorted by our own perceptual bias.
The self may thus be thought of as an 'image' the impression it makes on others and the impression it makes on ourself. This is 'self-image'. The other individuals perceive and react to an individual partially in terms of his size, skin, colour, appearance, and physical make-up. The individual's perception of himself, reflects considerable attention to such features. Deformities and physical abnormalities may seriously affect one's perception of himself and distort his self esteem.

12. SELF ESTEEM AS RELATED TO FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS.

Parental care is a vital factor in self-development, a core element in the structure of self. The child is always free to choose his response, but certain adult attitudes tend to bring about certain changes in these responses. Rejection usually makes the child devaluate himself and produce hostility and rebellion. Over protection may develop irresponsibility and excessively strong needs for approval. Inconsistent discipline may lead to a lack of self-control. There must be a balance. Too much praise and over indulgence by the parents can be just as harmful as the lack of it. The parents must be realistic in their evaluation of the child's ability so that the child is able to meet the expectations of the society.

The parents must play an important role in making the child feel genuinely loved and accepted as he is.

12:a Parental Characteristics related to Self Esteem:

Several parental characteristics are related to self esteem. These can broadly be classified as:

(i) Parental Values: Parents influence their children not only by what they are and what they believe but especially by what they do. The codes of behaviour they set before their children, both by tuitions and examples serve as guides to achieving success and power. Parents provide the criteria by which performance is interpreted and courses
of action established, revealing what the parents believe to be fitting with proper behaviour.

(ii) **Marital History:** Children from families marked by divorce and separation are found to be lower in self esteem.

(iii) **Parental Role Behaviour:** The behaviour of each parent represents a personal expression of the behaviour designated as acceptable and necessary. The social definitions of what parenthood signifies and how it should be conducted play an important role in shaping parental behaviour, which further influences the child.

(iv) **Interaction of Mother and Father:** Parents must define their relationship to one another as well as to their children. They must determine whether expectations of marriage and parenthood are mutual and whether these expectations have a basis in reality. Perfect and total agreement on all issues is rarely, if ever, achieved, the evaluation of parental interaction must be phrased in more relative terms. The pertinent question is whether the amount of disagreement and tension generated is greater than the agreement and satisfaction achieved. This is the basis on which marriages are largely sustained and it is this psychosocial environment in which children develop. Thus the amount of tension and conflict existing between husband and wife and the methods they adopted in decision-making are important issues.

(v) **Parents' Self Esteem and Stability:** The parent's acceptance of their role will have a positive bearing on the children's self esteem. The parents with high-esteem are more self worth, self-reliant and resistant in their attitudes and actions concerning parenthood and care. This sense of self-worth is conveyed from one generation to the next. The relation between parental self esteem and child's self esteem indicates that unconscious identification and conscious modeling may well underlie the self-evaluation of many individuals. These processes need not contribute equally to the history of each
person but there appears to be a general relationship between parents' self esteem and the manner in which they treat their children.

Parents with high self esteem are generally more accepting of others decision, inclined to lead a active personal life, and are convinced of their power. They presumably have more need to gain satisfaction from the accomplishments of their children and are able to provide their children with definite idea of what they expect and desire.

13. FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF ESTEEM

There are four major factors contributing to the development of self esteem.

Firstly, the amount of 'respectful', 'accepting' and 'concerned' treatment that an individual receives from the significant others in his life contributes largely in development of self esteem. In effect, we value ourselves as we are valued, and this applies to extension of ourselves as well as the more centrally experienced aspects of our self-images.

Our history of 'success' and the 'status' and 'position' we hold in the world are important determinants of our life satisfaction. Our success generally brings us recognition and is thereby related to our status in the community. They form the basis in reality for self esteem and are measured by the material manifestation of success and by indications of social approval. All persons will not necessarily interpret these indices of successes and approvals equally and favourably. It is by living up to aspirations and expectations that one regards as personally significant, thus the individual achieving high self esteem.

Thirdly, the experiences are interpreted and modified in accord with the individual's 'values' and 'aspirations'. Success, power and attention are not only directly and immediately perceived but are filtered through and perceived in the light of personal goals and values.
The fourth factor is the individual's manner of responding to the 'de-evaluations'. Person may minimize, distort or entirely suppress demanding actions by others as well as failures on their own part. They may reject or discount the right of others to judge them, or conversely, they maybe highly sensitive and aware of other peoples' judgements. This ability to defend self esteem reduces the experience of anxiety and helps to maintain personal equilibrium.

Along with this background of theoretical impetus, we may now pass on to the pertinent literature on Self esteem.

The evaluative aspect of 'self' has been well demonstrated in number of studies. (Rogers 1959, Cooley 1909, Mead 1934). Self esteem although a relatively new concept has evolved many concepts and dimensions related to job factors like job satisfaction, decision making style, stress, work achievement etc. (Khan & Alvi 1983, Helbing 1985, Brook 1991).

In view of the present investigation a brief review of recent researches carried out between year 1990 to 2001 in the field of Self esteem by various researchers is presented below:

Lyoons & Chamberlain, (1990). Examined the effect of minor daily events on upper respiratory infections to test the predictions that optimism and self esteem would interact with minor events to affect health. Increase in both desirable and undesirable events affected URIs over the study period, but interpersonal hassles had greater impact on physical symptoms for optimistic than for pessimistic. self esteem did not interact with minor events to affect health. Results showed that minor events affect URIs and not other health outcomes.

Brook, (1991). Self esteem, the evaluative component of self-concept was operationalized as ideal self / real self discrepancy to measure the perceptions of paid employees and other aspects of life. Data analysis investigated the relationship between self identification and subjects perception and attitude towards work and non-work spheres of life. Self
identity was related to achievement, and to feelings of satisfaction with the
non-work aspects of life, and it was not associated with job satisfaction or
with work involvement.

self esteem self-consciousness and depression. Self-reflectiveness and
internal state awareness scores were significantly correlated. Low self
esteem was associated with greater self-reflectiveness.

Kamath & Kanekar, (1995). Examines gender difference in personality
in relation to loneliness, shyness, self esteem and extraversion. Findings
indicate that: 1. Compared to men, shy women were more likely to have low
self esteem, and lonely women were less likely to have low self esteem. 2.
Lonely women were less likely than men to be extraverted. 3. Personality
variables may have different configurations and behavioural implications for
men and women.

Abouserie, (1996). Investigated the sources, level of stress in relation
to self esteem on undergraduates. Examination and the results were the
highest cause of stress, followed by studying for exams, and to learn. There
were significant differences between female and male subjects in both types
of stress, with female more stressed than males. Results indicated a
significant negative correlation between self esteem and both types of stress
emerged, indicating that students with high self esteem are less stressed
than are those with low self esteem.

Koberg & Boss, (1998). On the basis of a model development by D.M.
Hunt and C. Michael (1983), they studied self esteem and job involvement.
showed that protege characteristics (ethnicity and education), group
characteristics (intragroup trust and leader approachability), and the gender
and racial composition of the mentoring pair had significant effects on
psychosocial mentoring among a sample of working professionals from a
large, private hospital. Psychosocial mentoring was associated with
increased self esteem and job involvement at work and a decreased
propensity to leave the organization.
Holland and Andre, (1999). Examined the relationship of selected variables of self esteem amongst male and Female high school & college students. The results indicated that higher masculinity scores and greater levels of activity participation were related to self esteem. For Males in small school, athletics participation was a significant predictor of self esteem. For females in small schools, more non-traditional or egalitarian attitude towards women were related to higher self esteem scores. Only masculinity and activity participation were significantly predictors of self esteem for both males in large schools.

Leifman, (2001). Completed a survey including measures of family of origin role behaviour and adult workplace. Results indicated that congruence between family of origin role behaviours and adult workspace role behaviours was found to be correlated significantly with several adjustment measures, including life satisfaction, trait anxiety, depression, self esteem, job involvement job satisfaction and job success.
STREES AND HEALTH

1. THE NOTION OF STREES

We live in a world of rapid and accelerating changes. These changes affect each of us differently. For many of us this is an existing world filled with new events, opportunities, and people. We experience relatively little frustration, and enjoy the challenges of rapid pace of life. However, many others of us find changes to be confusing upsetting, and very tiring. These various varieties of problems and decisions that we experience build up a constant level of stress.

This modern day syndrome is called the "disease of civilization". This is the stress induced by intense environmental stimulation. It is the non-specific response of the body to any demand made on it. It brings about important reactions on an emotional, behavioral, physiological, and cognitive level.

Stress is a Latin derived term first used in English during the 17th century to describe distress, oppressions, hardships and adversity. During the 18th century, the popular meaning of stress shifted to denote a force, pressure or strong influence acting upon physical object or person.

Stress is bodily experience that generally refers to the circumstances that place physical or psychological demand on an individual and to the emotional reactions experienced in this situation. Stress has physiological, glandular and psychological components coming up at various degree and combinations.

George Eugel (1979), associated stress with the equilibrium of the body system. When a person feels a pressure exerted upon him, individual tries to resist the force pressure, to maintain the original state of equilibrium.
This process give rise to distress which manifests in the form of psychosomatic symptoms.

The stress response is not always harmful or unpleasant, stress is quite often the spice of life, the feelings of exhilaration, excitement and challenges that makes living a fun.

Stress is the non-specific result of any demand made upon the body, be it a mental or somatic demand for survival and the accomplishment of our aim.

Stress refers to a complex psychobiological process that consists of three major elements. There are the emotional responses, like sadness, anger, irritation, frustration, rage, etc. There are the behavioral reactions, which show up changes in performance like, poor concentration, forgetting, lessened productivity, or inability to get along with other people. Finally at a cognitive level, the person may begin to think of him-or herself in certain ways that lower self esteem and lead to feelings of helplessness, and hopelessness.

2. HUMAN ADAPTABILITY

Human being are organisms of incredible adaptability. They don't just make with what they have; they adapt to what is available sometimes by altering the environment to make it more livable, or by adjusting with the environment itself.

The greatest threat to our adaptive ability is in the process of unifying our environment to make it serve the goal of comfort and luxury. We have created an industrial technology that has potentially bethel side effect, making human beings vulnerable to both physiological and psychological ailments.

The key to human adaptation goes beyond survival. Human beings adapt not only biologically but also psychologically. It is found in the delicate balance of our internal environment with the demands imposed by the
external environment. This equilibrium is challenged when the demands are intense or chronic, and we are not psychologically prepared or biologically fit to respond optimally to these challenges. Health is signaled by our ability to respond effectively in a total way – by our thoughts, feelings and actions to the environmental demand. Human health transcends purely biological health because it depends primarily on those conscious and deliberate choices by which we select our mode of life and adapt creatively, to its experiences.

What account for human adaptability? The answer to this question lies in our highly evolved nervous system. It allows us to share in common with the lower species the primitive types of adaptation through the signal learning of classical conditioning and the consequent learning of operant conditioning. But, in human beings it is the refined development of cerebral cortex that enables us to think, plan, and solve problems through manipulation of abstract symbols. Through cognition and the use of language we can profit from our past mistakes to transform the present into a more desirable future.

3. PHYSIOLOGY OF STRESS

3:a Arousal and Stress Pathways:

Emotional arousal is one of the most frequent causes of stress. But all arousal are not stressful.

The physiological changes associated with stress reaction are mediated by a nerve center in the brain called the hypothalamus. When a stressor excites the hypothalamus, a complex chain of neural and biochemical process begin which alter the functioning of almost every part of the body.

The Autonomic nervous system (ANS) which mobilizes the body for coping with stress is directly activated by the hypothalamus, which also activates the pituitary gland. This in turn releases a biochemical hormone called Adreno cortiotropic hormone (ACTH) into the blood stream.
Stimulated by ACTH, the Adrenal gland secretes Adrenaline and other biochemical agents that further arouse and mobilize the body's mechanism. The heart steps up its activity, providing more blood for the brain and muscles; blood vessels close to the skin constrict and the clotting time shortens. Breathing is faster and deeper, providing more oxygen. Saliva and mucus dry up, increasing the size of the air pressure to the lungs and increased perspiration cools the body. The brain's reticular activating system (RAS) that has the job of 'waking up the cortex' makes the organisms vigilant and aware of what is happening in the environment. There are bundles of fibers running from the spinal cord through the medulla into the cortical regions of the brain that makes the organism alert, aroused, and sensitive to the changes in environment. This generalized arousal coupled with appropriate information about bodily needs and environmental demands play an important role in determining the ultimate expression of behaviour.

Relaxation and arousal are not the poles of a simple continuum, they involve an intricate balance of nervous system and hormonal factors. Contact with a stressor stimulates a complex system of the hypothalamus the cerebral cortex, the reticular formation, the limbic system, the autonomic nervous system, and the endocrine system. This complex physiological response marshals the body's full energy resources almost instantly. It does so without any conscious effort or preparation.

4. THE GENERAL ADAPTATION SYNDROME

Stress is a psychobiological state manifested by a syndrome. Selye (1936), spent over forty years studying this syndrome of 'just being sick'. According to Selye's theory, the body's reaction under stress which he calls 'general adaptation syndrome', which occurs in three major phases:

4:a Alarm reaction:

Sometimes called the 'emergency reaction' consists of the physiological changes that are the organism's first response to a stress provoking agent or 'stressor'. A stressor is anything injurious to the organism
whether psychological or physical. The alarm reactions consist of various complicated bodily and biochemical changes that usually have the same general characteristics regardless of the exact nature of the stressor. All seem to complain of such symptoms as headache, fever, fatigue, aching muscles and a general feeling of being 'run down'.

4:b **Stage of Resistance:**

If the exposure to the stress-producing situation continues, the organism seems to develop a resistance to the particular stressor that provoked the alarm reaction. The symptoms that occurred during the first stage of stress disappear, even though the disturbing stimulation continues, and the physiological processes that had been disturbed during the alarm reaction resume to normal functioning. Resistance to the stressor seems to be accomplished in large part through increased level of secretions of the anterior pituitary and the adrenal cortex.

4:c **Stage of Exhaustion:**

If exposure to the injurious stressor continues too long, a point is reached where the organism can no longer maintain its resistance. It is then enters the final phase, the stage of exhaustion. The anterior pituitary and adrenal cortex are unable to continue secreting their hormones at the increased rate. This means the organism cannot continue to adapt to the chronic stressor. Many of the symptoms of the alarm reaction begin to reappear. If the stressor continues to act upon the organism after this time, death may occur.

5. **CONSEQUENCES OF STRESS**

In the fourth century B.C., Plato asserted that "all diseases of the body proceed from the mind or soul". Now the studies indicate that stress is a contributing factor in 50 to 80 percent of all the psychologically induced physical illness.

In the face of repeated stressful arousal, the physiological defence of the body may become maladaptive and injurious. Deterioration in bodily functioning that is psychogenic in form and has a psychological-emotional
source, is called a psychosomatic disorder (Psycho is mind, and 'Soma' is equivalent to body). This term is used to refer to the symptoms involved in a persistent stress reaction, such as rapid pulse and high blood pressure, and to actual tissue damage. Emotional factors have been clearly demonstrated in the development of some cases of ulcers, high blood pressure, colitis, migraine, low back pain, dermatitis, obesity, asthma, and many other ailments.

Although prolonged stress can lead to a wide range of serious disorders, psychosomatic reactions cannot be predicted solely on the basis of exposure to behavioral stress. Constitutional factors and specific kind of past experiences appear to play a significant role not only in weather stress will result in a psychosomatic reaction, but in the kind of reactions as well.

If intense demands are put on the body to perform adaptive functions and stress is the body's nonspecific response to such demands, then both mind and body must be treated. Furthermore, the coping model employed must be flexible enough to search for consistent patterns of correlation between environmental inputs and bodily reactions.

The studies and available evidences on factors related to acquiring or resisting infectious disease indicates that relatively subtle psychological and environmental factors appear to influence susceptibility to a wide rage of infectious and parasitic agents. Emotional factors have also been implicated in the onset of cancer. Most physicians have long realized that even when symptoms are due primarily to physical causes, emotional strains can work against successful treatment. Unless efforts are made to help the patient maintain a cheerful mood, a disease that is essentially organic maybe intensified by the emotional factors. Physicians are now being cautioned to be more responsive not only to the patient but to the social emotional network in which the patient lives. Although the significance of the 'mind' in physical illness is receiving greater attention in medical circles, the general trend of moving away from family doctors and general practitioners, to clinics and specialists, mean that the patients emotional needs will receive less attention, thus leading to unsuccessful treatment.
6. PSYCHO-SOCIAL MODEL

Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1978), with the help of psycho-social model explained the process by which the effects of stress are produced in an individual.

This model provides a comprehensive description rather than to represent any particular, possible controversial theory. This model rests on a theory emphasized by Selye (1936). (i) stressor (ii) an event that initiates the stress process, and (iii) the immediate reaction to that event. The state of stress which is observed in the simplified model of psychosocial stress process states that if a stressful life event shows its effect on an individual and certain unfavorable states of internal and external mediating factors are present, then dysfunctional behaviour or illness will result.

In general in the absence of evidence that a person has recently experienced one or more stressful life events, one cannot infer that his dysfunctional behaviour or illness was induced by psychosocial stress. Therefore to study psychological stress process, it is needed to know how to identify the stressful life events and to minimize its impact both physically and psychologically.

7. SOURCES OF STRESS

Stressful circumstances are encountered every day and at every stage of human development from the trauma of birth itself right through to adolescence. The young meet unavoidable sources of stress, from weaning and toilet training as babies to the process of formal education and learning social skills a little later.

Many things that happen to us are stressful in some degree. Most of these are not serious and we readily adjust to them. It is when we want to cope with too many pressures at one time or with continuing pressure over an extended period of time then stress becomes a serious problem.

Following are the sources of stress that are encountered during the normal course of human growth and development.
7:a **Stress and Human Development:**

Doctors have recognized the potentially traumatic effect of stress during pregnancy and labour. Not only the mother but also fetus and a newborn infant can be affected.

The main stress psychoanalysts believe that the way in which the stress of infancy and childhood are handled, can have profound effect on subsequent personality development. Toilet training is a matter of considerable concern for many parents as well as for the child.

7:b **Stressful School Environment:**

Going to school normally makes the first continuous separation of a child from his parents. While teacher provides assistance and emotional support for the child, they are also source of stress when they need to correct mistakes or punish misbehaviours.

Learning to read is generally the first stressful educational task that confronts the school going child. Changing school, transition from primary to secondary school and entry to university are also major sources of stress.

7:c **Career and Job Stress:**

Job satisfaction, material success and recognition from others are in general what the least ambitious person hopes for. So the task of choosing a career and finding a job in which one can pursue, places great pressure. Even having the necessary skills and training to perform well and competition from others can produce high levels of anxiety. Job includes many potential sources of stress like poor working conditions, long hours, time pressure and deadlines, and difficult relationships with boss and fellows membership. These individually or in combination produce deleterious pressures on the person.

Occupational stress maybe defined as the condition in which some factor, or combination of factors, at work interact with the worker to disrupt his/her psychological or physiological homeostasis.
Stress on job is most likely to occur when there is a poor fit between person and environment. This can happen when the job makes demand beyond the worker’s abilities, or when the worker’s needs are frustrated by an mass-stimulating job. At conscious or unconscious levels such workers perceive their job as a threat to their mental and physical well being. Thus the consequences like high blood pressure, ulcer, insomnia, colitis, anxiety problems, sexual failure, or nervous breakdown, etc. develop.

7:d  **Marriage and Aging:**

A mature well-adjusted spouse can be a constant source of emotional support and a reducer of stress. On the other hand an incompatible, conflict ridden relationship between husband and wife can be an invading source of stress. With advancing age, most people become increasingly vulnerable to a wide range of stress. Physical and psychological disorders increase with age. The incidence of heart diseases, cancer and arthritis increases rapidly after the age of 50. Physiological and psychological changes associated with menopause and decline in sex can arouse intense anxiety and may also undermine self-respect and mental health, thus leading to the onset of psychological ailments like depression, anxiety, hypochondria, withdrawal, etc.

7:e  **Environmental Stress:**

Sources of stress in our surroundings range from natural and man-made disasters, like earthquakes and war to the daily hassles of community life. They range from day to day workouts like to pass by in a heavy traffic or on a crowded train or bus or to the high rise in urban living problems. The pressure on people, noise, air and water pollution are also common sources of stress. The problems of unemployment, poverty, malnutrition and poor sanitary conditions are also still severally associated with stress inducing agents in large cities.
Stressful Life Events

There is substantial evidence that stressful life events play an important role in causing physical and mental illness. There is a clear cut connection between stress and a number of different diseases, including heart attacks, ulcer, arthritis, allergies, and psychiatric conditions such as anxiety, neurosis and depression.

Underlying most critical life events is a separation from other people. Someone dies, one moves away, one gets another job, one is promoted, graduated, or demoted, in all these cases one is distanced from former associate. Even a positive event such as marriage often involves a separation from an established network of friends and family. Events that are isolating and those that decrease one's prestige raise the distress level in all groups of people.

8. STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS

Selye (1936), work on the general adaptation syndrome (GAS) led stress an area of active research during the past years. While selye was interested primarily in the response of stress, Holmes and Rahe (1967), focussed primarily on psychosocial factors as stressor, and their role in precipitating psychosomatic reactions. The social Readjustment Rating Scale of Holmes and Rahe (1967) represents a more recent variation of this approach, in which specific stressor life events have been identified. Another approach to study the life events was the Life Experience Survey by Sarason and Johnson (1976).

The interactionist approach to the study of stress, as exemplified by the work of Lazarus and his associates (1963), focussed on the cognitive appraisal of the stressor by the individual, in the process if transaction between the person and the potentially stressful environment takes place.
Speilberger (1979) also emphasized the interaction between the individual and the environmental in linking anxiety to the perception of the threat induced by a potential stressor.

In the past two decades, researches have demonstrated with certainty that stressful life events have an adverse impact on individual's psychological and physical well being. Persons who have experienced many negative life events are more likely to suffer symptoms of psychological distress such as anxiety and depression and are prone to develop a broad range of physical illness as compared to those individuals who have experienced fewer such events, Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend, (1978).

Although these findings are consistent, correlation between measures of life stress and measures of psychological and physical illness are typically modest. There are several obvious reasons for the low correlation e.g. life stress is not the sole and probably not even the major determinant of well being. The reliability and validity of measures of life stress and well being are often problematic. A third reason, which has proved to be heuristically valuable is, that individuals differ in their resistance to stressful life events. Simple life stress – illness correlation represents simple relations averaged across heterogeneous group of persons.

9. **CLASSIFICATION OF LIFE-EVENTS**

According to Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1978), there are mainly five different kinds of life events. Out of these five some events are under direct control of individuals, some are not; and others are those that disturb the mental peace of the individual.

1. Events possibly reflecting superior functioning and for which the person may be held responsible e.g. outstanding personal achievement.
2. Events possibly reflecting inferior functioning and for which the individual may be least or partially responsible e.g. divorce, fired from job etc.

3. Events may themselves be symptoms or complaints of psychiatric illness e.g. sex difficulties.

4. Events which are probably outside the individual's control and which are not signs of illness e.g. death of spouse, retirement.

5. Events referring to the health of individual e.g. illness, injury etc.

10. DYFUNCTIONAL COPING PATTERNS

Human life is shaped by the genetic code, by modes of adaptation to the environment, and by the ability to perceive alternatives and choose amongst them. It is through the exercise of our choice of action possibilities that we can most radically opt for good or for bad – the way we adapt to the environmental demands.

10:a Coronary Prone Behaviour Pattern:

The style of coping behaviour has been found to be associated with the increased likelihood of heart disease. Several cognitive factors have been discovered to be associated with illness, such as: a sense of unrelatedness, external demands, intense striving for achievement, competitiveness, easily provoked behaviour, impatience, abruptness of gestures and speech, excess drive and hostility.

A coronary prone behaviour pattern is more prevalent among men than among women. The personality characteristics like competitive, aggressive, impatient etc. are almost seen to be sex-linked. Among 'Type A' individuals, more than twice as many men under the age of fifty have coronary heart diseases as compared to pre-menopausal women. The prevalence of such disease among 'Type B', is equally low for both sexes. This suggests that men who adopt a less competitive, less intense life style
are able to avoid coronary heart disease to the same extent as 'Type B' individuals. Women of 'Type B' behaviour, are three times less likely to develop it than are 'Type A' women.

10:b Suicide Behaviour:

When stress is chronic, when we have lost a loved one, suffered a blow to our self esteem, and when we believe the future won't be any better, then for some suicide becomes an alternative strategy for adaptation.

Suicidal behaviour are often plagued by the crushing combination of hopelessness and helplessness, the feeling of despair that nothing can be done and no one can do it. The single most outstanding characteristic of those who attempt suicide is 'depression'.

Any sudden and radical change that removes an individuals basic source of security and predictability can make that person more susceptible to suicide. Rapid social and economic change, the unexpected loss of a loved one, or strong feeling of life's injustice coupled with a sense of powerlessness to exert any control can become a precondition for suicide.

11. EFFECTIVE STRESS MANAGEMENT

Stress is a part of life but too much stress is a partner of death. We can avoid excessive levels of stress by consciously choosing occupations, dwelling plans and general life-styles that are conductive to health maintenance.

11:a Relaxation and Physiological Control:

Just as stress is the non-specific response of the body to any demand that is made upon it, there is growing evidence that there is an anti stress response, a relaxation response. In this response muscle tension decreases, cortical activity decreases, heart rate and blood pressure decreases, and
breathing slows down. The stimulant required for this sort of reaction is identical with those employed in meditation practices.

11:b **Progressive Relaxation and Transcendental Mediation:**

Both enable the practitioner to undergo deep relaxation. This approach teaches people to alternatively tense and relax their muscles. Maharishi Yogi depicts it as 'turning the attention inwards towards the subtle level of thought until the mind transcends and experiences the subtle state of thought and arrives at the source of the thought'. It utilizes the repetition of a "mantra" as part of its meditation technique, leading to physiological changes in the nervous, circulatory and respiratory systems.

11:c **Bio-Feedback:**

Individuals can be taught to control a variety of internal body processes by technique of bio-feedback. By this technique, all changes occurring in the body or brain are detected, amplified and displayed to the person and/or researcher. But the most effective use of bio-feedback has been for its general effects in training people to relax. Patients using bio-feedback are able to learn relaxation more quickly than those attempting meditation but the results of bio-feedback do not exceed those of meditation.

11:d **Cognitive Appraisal:**

How one perceives a situation has a lot of importance in coping with stress. There are many psychological factors, which can drastically affect the outcome of event. The cognitive appraisal one makes of the stress can increase or limit its autonomic impact. Adequate preparation for stressful events is an important principal in stress management.

11:e **Verbal Self-Instruction:**

Stress management can also be approached as a process in altering the verbal instructions a person gives to him or herself, when stress looms ahead. This has a four-stage approach
i) preparation

ii) confrontation

iii) coping with feelings of being overwhelmed

iv) self-reinforcement.

11:f  **Encounter Group:**

Many people find resources for coping with the stresses of life in group interaction and sharing the intense interpersonal experience in a small group, focussing on the interactions and feelings that emerge within the group setting. Thus providing a prompt and honest feedback. Group members become more open minded, more aware of their own needs and feelings, and more sensitive to the needs and feelings of others.

Thus in the light of the above basic concepts of the study, it was found that all the concepts taken for the present research work are subjective in nature. It is individual's personal evaluation and judgement to speak of his involvement, self esteem, stress perception and health with regard to the various characteristics associated with a particular profession, as seen by the individual himself and the other people in society.

Along with this background of theoretical impetus, we may now pass on to the pertinent literature on Stress and Health.

Researches concerned with responses to 'stress' have been prominent in the psychological literature. Studies indicate that stressful life events play a precipitating role in the onset of physical and psychological disturbances (Holmes & Rahe 1967, Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend 1978, Johnson & Sarason 1979).

In view of the present investigation a brief review of recent researches carried out between year 1990 to 2001 in the field of stress and health by various researchers is presented below:

Kohn Hay & Legere, (1990). Examined the effects of hassles and coping style on perceived stress, psychiatric symptoms and minor physical
ailments for students and teachers. For students emotions-focussed coping contributed to perceived stress and psychiatric symptomatology. For teachers emotions-oriented coping exacerbated the adverse effects of hassles on psychiatric symptomatology made a separate positive contribution to perceived stress.

Bromet & Dew, (1992). Examined physical and psychological effects of occupational stress on female blue collar employees. After controlling the demographic and biological risk factors, non work, life events and solvent exposure, job related conflicts were associated with depressive symptomatology. Job demands were only associated with multiple symptoms. Social support and source of support were in the direction of reducing symptomatology.

Goklaney, (1993). Stress is generally viewed as a negative stimulus. In this study, however, a more positive view is explored: in trying to cope with a high stress situation, a person could be more creative. The results of the present study indicate that certain stress variables were related to some of the creativity variables.

Paul & Anthony, (1995). Their stress research has focussed on individual response pattern to both habitual and real world stressors. The present study investigated utility of the dispositional model that postulates three types of individual coping style. Accurate stress appraising, stress augmenting and stress denying. Results from the present study indicate that there was no difference on measure of psychopathology between stress deniers, stress augmenters and accurate stress appraisers. There was also found that individuals with high level of subjective stress shows higher level of psychopathology.

Shukla & Tripathi, (1995). Identifies stress areas in interpersonal relations at work, by exploring the influence of gender and occupational hierarchy in various aspects of interpersonal interactions. Results revealed: i) Female experienced more openness but less significance than males. ii) Clerks experienced more control but expressed less significance than
managers. iii) Managers experienced more inclusions, openness and competence than clerks. Findings suggest that in the work setting the main issues related to interpersonal relations were controlled, openness and significance.

Kohn, Gurevich, & Pickering, (1996). Explored the impact of hassles, reactivity and alexithymia on negative well being. Results indicated that hassles correlated quite highly with perceived stress, Physical and psychiatric symptomatology. Reactivity was unrelated to physical ailment when gender, hassles and alexithymia were controlled. It was related to subjective hyper-responsiveness to hassles based stress.

Price & Spence, (1998). Investigated the relationship between work and non-work stressor to determine burnout among employees. Results show that daily hassles contribute to employees burnout reactions for both men and women. Employees emotional and behavou rab le react ions to work are strongly influenced by stressor that occur outside the work place. Thus employees with lives characterized by a high level of daily hassles are more likely to report symptoms of fatigue, apathy, feeling of helplessness and hopelessness.

Rawson; Bloomer & Kendall, (2001). Examined the interrelationship of stress, anxiety, depression and physical illness in undergraduates. Significant correlation were found in the stress-illness, anxiety-illness, depression-illness and anxiety-depression relationships. Partial correlations demonstrated that the stress-illness relationship remained significant, though lowered, when first anxiety and then depression were held constant.

Gordus, (2001). Discusses involuntary unemployment or employee displacement (ED) and stress associated with building a new career. This research program has identified the significant problems of job seekers and career specialists: labor market information problems, inadequate job-derived skill packages, wage expectations that exceed wages currently offered to new employees, the probability of little experience in recent job
search, and the high probability of low self-esteem and high self-blame associated with unemployment.

Brooklings, Bolton & Clifford, (2001) studied burnout with job satisfaction, role stress, self esteem, alienation, and locus of control. Principal components factor analysis indicated considerable covariation of Self reported burnout with job dissatisfaction and perceived role stress and general feelings of alienation and low self esteem.