A BRIEF REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The manner in which man interacts with his work is interesting to investigate. From the theoretical point of view, it is understood that the way one possess mental health and satisfies with his job depends upon the degree of the stress experienced with the job and his personal and demographic aspects. The present study was planned to explore these variables viz., job/occupational stress, mental health and job satisfaction and their interrelations.

Studies on the aforementioned areas were scanty, especially in the case of clerical employees. Little evidence was available concerning the mental health and its relation with other variables. An attempt was made in the succeeding pages to document some of the studies that have been undertaken during the last two decades.

OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

In recent years, research interest in occupational stress, health and job satisfaction have grown considerably. Job related stress is inevitable in working life today. It occurs whenever a person has inadequate stress management and need frustrating work environment. In many job situations, particularly in human services, high levels of stress are an integral and largely unavoidable component of the work (Cooper and Payne, 1978). Many researchers found that job related stress factors are related to variables like role ambiguity, role conflict, employee performance and satisfaction, work overload, need for achievement and organizational effectiveness (Dunnette, 1976; Ghosh and Ghorpade, 1981; Mohanthy, 1986).

Available evidences also suggest that investigators concentrated their studies either on role conflict or role ambiguity as stressors with other organizational variables (Harigopal and Ravikumar, 1978; Shamir, 1980; Singh et al., 1981; Tharakan, 1988).

Sources Of Occupational Stress

Several sources of stress have been identified by many investigators in organizational settings. There are two central features of stress at work, the interaction of which determines either coping or maladaptive behaviour and stress-related disease (Cooper and Marshall, 1976): (i) the dimensions or characteristics of the person and (ii) the potential sources of stress in the work environment; or as Lofquist and Dawis (1969) have labelled this interaction, The Person Environment Fit. There was, however, a third set of extra-organizational variables.
which can also be sources of stress. These were not linked directly to the individual's characteristics or the work environment, but are related to outside relationships and events, for example, family problems, financial difficulties, life crises (death in family) etc., which have an impact in the work place.

Cooper and Marshall (1976) distinguished between extra-organizational and intra-organizational sources. The latter consisted of five broad categories of stressors, viz., factors intrinsic to a job role in organization, relationships at work, career development and organizational structure and climate. Following the similar categorization Schuler (1980) stated that other than role characteristics, factors such as task characteristics, leader processes, organizational structure, interpersonal conditions and physical qualities also act as sources of stress. In addition to the above, studies of House and Rizzo (1972), Rogers and Molnar (1976), Miles and Perreault (1976) also investigated the organizational sources of stress. All these studies tended to support the theoretical perspective of stressors as critical intervening variables in models of organizational behaviour and highlighted the importance of examining organizational characteristics or qualities serving as generators of felt stress.

Factors Intrinsic to a Job

A great deal of work has been done linking the working conditions of a particular job and its relationship to physical/mental health. Kornhauser (1965) found, for example, that poor mental health was directly related to unpleasant work conditions, the necessity to work fast and to expend a lot of physical effort, and to excessive and inconvenient hours. The frequently researched source in this area is work overload which leads to breakdown (Miller, 1960). French et al (1965) differentiated work load in terms of quantitative (too much to work) and qualitative (too difficult to do) overload which represent a category of potential stressors. They examined the qualitative and quantitative workload of university professors and administrators in a large university and revealed that one symptom of stress, low self-esteem was related to work overload but observed some difference between two occupational groupings. Qualitative overload was not significantly linked to low self-esteem among the administrators, but was significantly correlated for the professors. Environmental conditions and social situations which either overload or underload, were found to be directly associated with individuals need for stimulation (Levi, 1972). He further stated that situations of overload were associated with too much stimulation and situations of underload with too little stimulation.
French and Caplan (1973) suggested that both qualitative and quantitative overload produce at least nine different symptoms of psychological and physical strain: job dissatisfaction, job tension, lower self-esteem, threat, embarrassment, high cholesterol levels, increased heart rate, skin resistance and more smoking. Although qualitative overload may be more stressful (Eden, 1977; Pincherle, 1972; Wardwelle et al., 1964), it was suggested that underload represents a demand (Terry Berry, 1968), but either way the situation was associated with stress (Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Frankenhaeuser and Gardell, 1976; French, 1974).

In this area, another source of stress is working overtime (Breslow and Buell, 1960; Hall and Lawler, 1970; Russel and Zohman, 1958). It was found that work for sixty or more hours per week would result in prolonged emotional strain which in turn might result in cardiac arrest. In addition to this, the sources of stress were those of resource inadequacies with regard to materials, equipment and personnel and inadequate authority (Buck, 1972; Kahn and Quinn, 1970; Kornhauser, 1965; Nix and Bates, 1962), under-utilization of skills, job insecurity, variation in workload and lack of participation (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977), complexity, routinization, interdependence and closeness of supervision (Parasuraman and Alutto, 1981) and technological changes (Kritikus et al., 1968) which could act as potential stressors in a role performance. Sweeney et al. (1993) studied the factors that contributed to stress in 316 occupational therapists. Results indicated that subjects who worked longer hours, who had been in the job longer and who were employed in social services tended to score higher on the dimension of rewards and recognition.

**Role in Organization**

Another major source of occupational stress was associated with a person's role at work. A great deal of research in this area has concentrated on role ambiguity and role conflict, since the seminal investigations of the Survey Research Centre of the University of Michigan, which were reported in the classic book Organizational Stress: Studies in Role conflict and Ambiguity (Kahn et al., 1964). Role ambiguity exists when an individual has inadequate information about his work role, that is where there was lack of clarity about the work objectives associated with the role, about work colleagues' expectation of the work role and about the scope and responsibilities of the job. Role conflict exists when an individual, in a particular work role, was torn by conflicting job demands or while doing things he/she really does not want to do or does not think were part of the job specification. The most frequent manifestation of this was when a person was caught between two groups of people,
who demand different kinds of behaviour or expect that the job should entail different functions. Kahn et al. (1964) found that men who suffered more role conflict had lower job satisfaction and higher job-related tension. It was interesting to note that they also found that the greater the power or authority of the people 'sending' the conflicting role messages, the more job dissatisfaction, produced by role conflict. Kahn and Quinn (1970) classified role stress into three categories: expectation-generating stress which include role conflict and ambiguity, expectation-resource discrepancy which include role conflict and ambiguity, expectation-resource discrepancy which include role overload, responsibility, authority dilemma and inadequate information.

In the Indian context Pareek (1983) classified role stress under two categories of role space and role set. The role space is said to be the system of various roles an individual occupies and performs. The role set is the system of various roles of which his role is a part. He identified five main role stresses or conflicts in the role space of individual, viz., self-role distance, inter role distance and role ambiguity, role overload, role isolation, role erosion and role inadequacy.

Abdel-Halim. (1978) and Van Dijkhuizen and Reiche (1980) found that role conflict, ambiguity and role overload act as sources of stress and dissatisfaction among managers. Similarly Drory (1981) showed that role ambiguity was more strongly related to job attitudes in the higher levels and role conflict was strongly related to job attitudes more for the line supervisor than production planning employees.

The study of Ratnayaka et al. (1986) supported the findings of Drory study. They found role conflict and role ambiguity were major sources of stress more in district-based administrators than educational personnel.

Natha (1980) showed that role conflict was experienced more frequently at the middle management rather than at the lower management level, supervisors manifest relatively higher role conflict than managers, whereas, both managers and supervisors manifest higher role conflict than workers. Miles (1976), found role conflict and role ambiguity to be adversely related to a host of work related outcomes.

Another important potential stressor associated with one's organizational role is 'responsibility for people'. One can differentiate here between 'responsibility for things' (equipment, budgets etc). Increased responsibility for people frequently means that one has to spend more time interacting with others, attending meetings, working alone and, in consequence, as in the Goddard study (French and Caplan, 1970) more time in trying to meet...
deadline pressures and schedules. The finding by French and Caplan in the Goddard study does indicate that responsibility for people must play some part in the process of stress, particularly for clerical, managerial and professional workers.

**Career development**

Another set of environmental stressors was related to the career development; this refers to the impact of overpromotion, underpromotion, status incongruence, lack of job security, thwarted ambition etc. Taylor (1969) suggests that this 'career development' stress is rooted in Freudian theory which suggests that work has value solely as a utility for individualistic motives of 'getting on in the world' and the desires of fame and success. This was confirmed by Kleiner and Parker (1963), who proposed a general theory which linked frustrated work aspirations to mental disorder, and their results, from a later and larger study with urban Negroes (Parker and Kleiner, 1966), support their hypotheses.

In an earlier study Arthur and Gunderson (1965) found that promotional lag was significantly related to psychiatric illness. Erikson, Pugh and Gunderson (1972) found that Naval personnel experience greater job satisfaction. When their rates of advancement exceeded their expectation and dissatisfaction increased as advancement rates were retarded. Those who were least successful with regard to advancement tended to perceive the greatest amount of stress in their lives. Blum (1952) stated that opportunity for advancement was most important to sales, clerical and skilled personnel and least to the unskilled.

**Relationships at work**

Another major source of stress at work has to do with the nature of relationships with one's boss, subordinates and colleagues. A number of behavioural scientists (Argyris, 1964; Cooper, 1973) have suggested that good relationships between members of a work group were a central factor in individual and organizational health.

Nevertheless, very little research work has been done in this area to either support or disprove this hypothesis. French and Caplan (1973) defined poor relations as 'those which include low trust, low supportiveness and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with problems that confront the organizational member'. The most notable studies in this area were by Kahn et al (1964), French and Caplan (1970) and Buck (1972). Both the Kahn et al and French and Caplan studies came to roughly the same conclusion: that mistrust of
persons one worked with, was positively related to high role ambiguity, which lead to inadequate communications between people and to 'psychological strain in the form of low job satisfaction and to feelings of job-related threat to one’s well-being'. It was interesting to note, however, in the Kahn et al study that poor relations with one’s subordinates was significantly related to feelings of threat with colleagues and superiors but not in relationship to threat with subordinates. Buck (1972) found that those workers, who felt that their boss was low on 'consideration', reported feeling more job pressure.

In a study conducted by Theorell (1974) person’s relationship with supervisor, lack of support from co-workers and inadequate performance by subordinates were found to be the sources of stress. Lazarus (1966) was also of the same opinion that stress can be caused not only by the pressure of poor relationship but also by lack of adequate social support in different situations. Adeoye (1991) studied 50 professors at two universities and found that administration and interpersonal relationships were strongly correlated with stress.

**Organizational Structure and Climate**

The other potential source of organizational stress was ‘being in the organization’, which means those aspects of the structure of an organization which can make working life either satisfactory or stressful, such as little or no participation in the decision-making process, lack of effective consultation, restrictions on behaviour (e.g. budgets), office politics, individuals’s freedom, autonomy and identity.

Coch and French (1948) found that the greater the participation, the higher was the productivity, the greater the job satisfaction, the lower the turnover and the better were the relationships between boss and subordinates.

French et al (1960) found that greater participation lead to significantly more favourable attitudes by workers toward management and more involvement in their job. Kasl (1973) also found that low job satisfaction was related to non-participation in decision-making, inability to provide feedback to supervisors and lack of recognition for good performance; and that poor mental health was linked to close supervision and no autonomy at work (Quinn et al., 1971).

Neff (1968) has highlighted the importance of lack of participation and involvement by suggesting that 'mental health at work was, to a large extent, a function of the degree to which output was under the control of the individual worker'. French and Caplan (1973) indicated that greater participation lead to lower staff turnover, higher productivity, high performance...
improvements and that when participation was absent, lower job satisfaction and higher levels of physical and mental health risks result. Brown (1986) found that burnout among probation officers could be partially attributed to the organizational structure in a traditional bureaucracy. In addition to this, studies on different samples like military officers (Rogers, Li and Shani, 1987) and upper middle managers (Rogers, 1977) also showed organizational structure as a potential source of stress.

Physical conditions at work such as existence of pathogenic agents e.g., poisons and chemicals, noise, space, lack of privacy and poor visibility were also found to be some of the potential sources of organizational stress. Each one of these are associated with individuals needs particularly those for minimum biological functioning such as physical safety and interpersonal needs (Manning, 1965, Selye, 1976, Sundstrom, 1977; Rousseau, 1978, Oldham and Brass, 1979).

Schuler (1980) found that other than role characteristics factors such as task characteristics, leader processes, organizational structure, interpersonal conditions and physical qualities also act as sources of stress.

**Extra-Organizational Sources of Stress**

Needless to say that there were a number of extra-organizational sources of stress which affect the physical and mental well-being of an individual at work, such as family problems (Pahl and Pahl, 1971), life satisfaction and crises (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend, 1974), financial difficulties etc.

**Occupational Stress, Organizations and Job-Levels**

Several studies reported differences in causative factors as well as the experience of stress among incumbents at various levels in different organizations. Surti (1983) studied different job level employees and reported their level of role stress. According to him nurses and bank employees have minimum role stress, whereas university and college teachers have maximum role stress. Social workers and gazetted officers were more efficacious in their roles than that of researchers and bank employees. In a similar study, Dharmangadan (1988) studied five similar occupations and found that the police personnel were experiencing the highest degree of stress, teachers the lowest, whereas the other three groups viz., the administrative officers, the bank managers and the supervisors and foremen didnot show any consistent tendencies to differ from one another.
Jha (1988) examined the effect of job stress on strain in 3 work group (production, personnel and data processing) executives and differences in levels of job stress and strain due to occupational level in steel manufacture organization. Results indicated that the pattern of stress and strain were different in three groups; difference due to occupational level indicated that the employees of middle levels had more role ambiguity than those at the high level.

In a study conducted by Ahmad et al (1985) it was found that private and public sector executives did not differ significantly in their role stress. King and Winett (1986) studied levels and sources of stress in married working clerical and professional women and found that clerical workers experienced more stress than the professional workers and suggested the need for stress/conflict reduction programmes.

Joseph (1989) showed that police personnel belonging to the ranks of constables and head constables perceived more stress than their superior officers (sub-inspectors). Sudha and Bharathi (1990) investigated occupational stress in five different categories of occupations and found that the effect of stress was most significant among women in service oriented occupation and least in administrative jobs. No significant variation was noticed among all dimensions of ‘professional’, ‘clerical’ and ‘factory’ employees. Individuals in different organizational or job situations may respond differently to role conflict, ambiguity and overload (Abdel-Halim, 1978; Beehr, 1976; Miles, 1976; Szilagy et al., 1976).

Natha (1980) showed that role conflict was experienced more frequently at the middle management rather than at the lower management level; supervisors manifest relatively higher role conflict than managers, whereas, both managers and supervisors manifest higher role conflict than workers.

Chandraiah (1993) studied occupational stress, job involvement and job satisfaction among 440 public and private college teachers. Results indicated that public and private college teachers did not differ with regard to their occupational stress but significant age differences were found among the college teachers in their experience of occupational stress and it was found to be decreasing with increasing age. Basha (1994) revealed significant differences among employees in public, private and co-operative sectors in their experience of occupational stress. And among them private sector employees were found to be experiencing highest amount of stress followed by those in co-operative and public sectors.

Corrigan (1993) surveyed 322 clinicians and administrators at a large state hospital/developmental center regarding stressful experiences at work. No differences were found
Several investigations studied the effect of personal and demographic variables on occupational stress. Frentz et al. (1986) studied the effect of personal variables like age, level, position, and organizational background on occupational stress.

### Occupational Stress and Age and Experience

Teachers were substantially more distressed and burned out than nurses. Results showed that music and arts teachers working in secondary schools reported higher emotional distress and burnout.

Schäfer and Jancar (1994) conducted a cross-sectional study on burnout among 200 teachers and related stress factors to a higher rate than men.

### Groups

In comparison to age, personal accomplishment was the most discriminating indicator in the two groups.

Peplau and McKinney examined the differences between cortisol and stress levels in the two groups.

### Study

A study on the differences between stress levels of car drivers and nurses showed significant differences in psychological and emotional stress levels.
occupational setting reported that middle and upper level, 40-49 year old executives had a lower work-related stress level compared to younger workers in the same age groups. Kobasa (1979) found that younger employees reported higher stress levels compared to older executives, even though they were performing similar tasks. The study by Kobasa suggests that younger workers may have different stress responses than older workers, possibly because of their unique life experiences and social roles.

Other studies have also highlighted the importance of age differences in stress responses. For example, a study by Marmot et al. (1985) found that younger workers were more likely to experience work-related stress compared to older workers. This finding aligns with the concept of the "generation gap," where younger workers may face different pressures and expectations compared to older workers.

In addition, studies have shown that younger workers are more likely to experience burnout compared to older workers. For instance, a study by Maslach and Leiter (1997) found that younger workers experienced higher levels of burnout compared to older workers. This may be due to the fact that younger workers are more likely to be in the early stages of their career, where they may experience higher levels of stress and workload.

The findings of these studies suggest that age differences in stress responses are significant and should be taken into account when designing interventions to mitigate stress. Future research could focus on understanding the specific factors that contribute to these differences and developing targeted interventions to support younger workers in managing their stress levels.
comparable; high degrees of stressful life events. Modinger and Varghese (1981) explained that cycles of stress and anxiety in middle age may have developmental etiology and may be necessary part of the developmental process in the phase of life. Middle age is often punctuated by recurrent episodes of stress. Findings indicated that the cycles are a function of psycho-social development in mid-life with stress, which is resulting from the need to integrate with an existing cognitive system of beliefs and values.

These studies suggest that the observed age related differences would reflect not only natural developmental changes but also the results of differential treatment of people in various age groups in differential conditions in organization.

**Occupational Stress and Gender**

There are some differences in the stress experienced by men and women, which have been observed and researchers continue to explore the utility of research on gender-difference in various areas. One such area is the effect of gender-difference on occupational stress.

Fontana and Abousene (1993) examined stress among 51 women and 44 men teachers and revealed that 72.6% of the sample experience moderate levels of stress, 23.2% experience serious levels. No significant gender related differences in stress levels were found.

Rajeswar (1992) examined bank employees and revealed that stress was independent of gender and the position occupied.

According to Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) men were reputed to be more distressed than women in promoting and maintaining their image as successful achievers and providers; excessive pressure and conflict from attempts to exercise leadership and career goal discrepancy when a man fails to progress as rapidly as expected.

Ogus et al (1990) compared burnout in 227 female and 243 male teachers and found that men experienced greater work stress.

On the other hand, the image of working women struggling to carry both a job and family suggests that women were more likely to exhibit signs of distress (Bhagat and Chassic, 1981). The results of Sime et al (1990) showed a distinct cross-cultural and cross-gender difference between U.S. and Brazilian professionals with regard to stress related disorders. Manthei (1987) indicated that female school counsellors reported significantly more stress.
due to job overload than males. In other similar study, Lowe and Northcott (1988) examined postal workers and found that males and females responded similarly to stressful jobs, although female tended to report slightly higher levels of distress.

Okebukola (1992) studied 69 female and 126 male Nigerian science teachers in rural and urban SV schools and 51 female and 122 male controls from non-SV schools regarding stress. Results revealed that female subjects were more stressed than male subjects and subjects in urban schools were more stressed than subjects in rural schools.

As working women typically maintain major responsibility for the home and family and thus, more often than men, bear the burdens of role overload and role conflict (Cleary and Mechanic, 1983).

Gadzella et al. (1990, 1991) investigated stress experienced by business professionals and found women to be more stressful when compared to men. In another study, Beena and Poduval (1992) found that the degree of stress experienced by women executives was significantly greater than men executives. This was supported by Weinstein and Zappert (1980) and Haynes and Feinleib (1980) that regardless of employment status women experienced more emotional distress than men.

Above studies revealed that women showed higher rate of stress than men because they experience greater amount of work change and associated stress. The greater difference in job stress was the consequence of work family conflict, societal expectations and behavioural norms that women face as they occupy a combination of roles rather than an inherent biological difference between men and women.

**Occupational Stress and Other Variables**

Dubey and Harmesh (1986) indicated that financial problems, family problems and more number of dependents were some of the factors which cause stress.

According to a study done for the purpose of cross-cultural comparisons between India, U.S. and Taiwan, the salient stressors in India were found to be inadequate pay, under-utilization of skills, variability in workload, frequently reported strains included tension and fatigue (Gmelch et al., 1984).

**Occupational Stress and Mental Health**

In the present era of high stress and anxiety, occupational stress has been observed
to be a causal factor in coronary heart disease and mental ill-health resulting in a serious cost for industry both in human and financial terms.

Occupational stress has a substantially negative impact on physical as well as psychological health (Antelman and Gaggvla, 1977; Goodyear, 1974; Krumbacher and Meyer, 1963; Monat and Lazarus, 1977; Vinokur and Selzer, 1975; Wetzman et al., 1975; and Zegans, 1982).

The relationship of occupational stress to health has become more popular because of its undesirable effects which may lead to poor mental health (Morrn and Snyder, 1979). Coronary heart disease (Jamuna and Sujatha Ramamurthi, 1984), absenteeism (Gupta and Beehr, 1979) and job dissatisfaction (Beehr, 1976).

A good number of research studies, though rare in Indian context, have revealed the adverse effect of stress particularly job/role stress on employees' psychological well-being (House and Rizzo, 1972; Miles 1975; Brief and Aldag, 1976; Keenan and McBain, 1979; Morris and Koch, 1979; Kobasa, 1982; Aldridge, 1970; French and Caplan, 1970; Kahn and Quinn, 1970; Shepherd, 1974; Rosenthal, 1978 and House, 1979).

Positive relationship was reported between the role ambiguity and various symptoms of mental ill-health, i.e., anxiety (Beehr et al., 1976; Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo et al., 1970), lowered self-esteem and depressed mood (Margolis et al., 1974), tension at work (Kahn et al., 1964; Rizzo et al., 1970), anxiety, depression and irritation (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977) and heart disease (Caplan and Jones, 1975; House et al., 1979).

Numerous investigators reported that role conflict was inversely associated with discomfort (Rizzo et al., 1970), tension (Brief and Aldag, 1976; Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; House and Rizzo, 1972; Kahn et al., 1964; Keenan and McBain, 1979; Singh et al., 1981), threat and anxiety (Brief and Aldag, 1976; Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; Rizzo et al., 1970; Tosi, 1971).

Stress arising from role overload, was found to be inversely related to tension, anxiety depression, resentment and heart rate (Abdel-Halim, 1978; Caplan and Jones, 1975; Cooper and Roden, 1985; Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; Keenan and McBain, 1979).

Margolis et al (1974) also found a number of significant relationships between symptoms of physical and mental ill-health with role ambiguity in their representative national sample (n=1496).

Job stressors such as under-promotion, non-participation, were observed to be
significantly associated with psychiatric illness and health risk factors (Arthur and Gunderson, 1965; Margolis et al., 1974)

Srivastava (1983) examined the effect of perceived role stress on mental health of white-collar employees and the investigation revealed that the two groups of the identified as high and low stress groups, significantly differed from each other with regard to their level of mental health.

Jagdish and Srivastava (1989) found that the supervisors perceived job stress stemming from various dimensions of their job was significantly negatively correlated with their mental health.

Srivastava (1991) studied supervisory cadre employees of Life Insurance Corporation and revealed positive correlation ($r=0.84$) between role stress and mental ill-health.

Tyler and Cushway (1992) found that staff conflicts and workload stress increased with grade of nurse and negative mental health outcomes were mainly predicted by nurses’ perceptions of excessive workload.

Most of the studies mentioned above have examined the relationship of job stress with mental ill-health. Thus, it was apparent that positive aspect of mental health has been least studied by the organizational psychologists, in their attempts in examining the effect of occupational stress on employees’ well-being.

**Occupational Stress and Job Satisfaction**

Burke (1976) examined the relationship between 14 sources of occupational stress and 12 aspects of job satisfaction among full-time professional engineers, industrial accountants or charted accountants. He reported that greater the occupational stress, lower the job satisfaction and also reported that certain types of occupational stresses, primarily associated with enlarged demanding jobs, were positively related to employee job satisfaction.

Howell et al (1987) reported that role stress was inversely related to job satisfaction; high self-esteem reduced role stress indirectly affecting job satisfaction.

According to Kanungo (1980), highly stressed employees reported greater social and autonomy, need satisfaction than low stressed subjects. The high stress group preferred to share work experience and responsibility with others.

Hollingworth et al (1988) study revealed that stress was strongly associated to job
satisfaction. High stress was associated with low job satisfaction. Ahmad et al (1991) studied 50 middle managers and found that organizational role stress was significantly, but negatively, correlated with job satisfaction.

Individual stressors of role stress were studied by several investigators. Role ambiguity was a lack of understanding about the rights, privileges and obligations that a person has, for doing the job. It was found that role ambiguity was significantly related to low job satisfaction and feelings of job related threat to one's mental and physical well-being. Further more, the more ambiguity a person reported, the lower the person's utilization of intellectual skills, knowledge and leadership skills (Organ and Greene, 1974; Orphen, 1977; Keenan and McBain, 1979; Posner and Randolph, 1979).

Ivancevich et al (1982) reported that middle level managers indicated more stress and less job satisfaction than did lower and upper managers.

Kahn et al (1964) found that about 67 percent of employees reported some role conflict. Their study further found that workers who suffered more conflict had lesser job satisfaction and job-related tension.

Among professional government employees, Keller (1975) reported that role conflict was negatively correlated with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) dimensions of satisfaction with supervision, pay and promotion. Role ambiguity was negatively related to Job Descriptive Index dimension of satisfaction with work itself. In another study, Schuler (1975) found that role conflict and ambiguity were negatively related to job satisfaction.

Gross et al (1958) reported a significant negative correlation between perceived role conflict and job satisfaction. Individuals who suffered more role conflict were found to have lower job satisfaction and high job related tension. The greater the power of authority of people sending the conflicting role messages the more did role conflict produce job dissatisfaction.

Yarworth (1979) found that among school teachers role conflict and role ambiguity were negatively related to general job satisfaction. Role conflict was more closely related to extrinsic job factors which lead to dissatisfaction, while role ambiguity was more closely associated with intrinsic job factors which lead to the job satisfaction.

Srivastava and Parmar (1977) investigated the relationships of role conflict, role ambiguity and role accuracy to job satisfaction among 62 supervisors from textile mills. Results indicated that job satisfaction was negatively related to role stress. However, the
magnitude of the relationship depended on the instruments used for measuring satisfaction.

According to Medrano (1979), role conflict predicts job related tension better than does role ambiguity. Role ambiguity was not related either to the job satisfaction, or to the job tension. Job satisfaction was negatively related to role conflict and job related tension.

Fry and Greenfeld (1980) reported no significant differences between police women and police men in attitudes on measures of organization commitment, job satisfaction, work anxiety, role conflict and role ambiguity. These results offer further support for the argument that personal and organizational factors were strong predictors of attitudes in the work place than gender.

A causal model proposed by Jackson (1983) described the effect of participation in decision-making on perceived influence, role conflict, role ambiguity, personal and job related communications, social support, emotional strain, overall job satisfaction, absenteeism and turnover intention. Results revealed that participation has negative effect on role conflict and role ambiguity and positive effect on perceived influence. Role conflict and ambiguity were positively related to emotional strain and negatively related to job satisfaction. Participation in decision-making appeared to be an important causal determinant.

In 1984 Dubinsky and Skinner examined the relationship among perceived jobcharacteristics, job satisfaction, motivation, organizational commitment, role perceptions and job performance among retail sales people. Results revealed that task identity, role conflict and role ambiguity had a negative effect on job satisfaction.

McCormick and Solman (1992) investigated the association of occupational stress with job satisfaction among 387 teachers and inferred significant differences for biographical variables (sex, school type, location etc).

Occupational stress was also found to have a significant inverse relationship with job satisfaction across different job levels.

Abdel-Halim (1981) studied the interaction effects of role conflict, ambiguity and overload on employee satisfaction with work across different organizations: manufacturing and banking (N=89 and 81 managerial and non-managerial personnel respectively). It was found that role conflict was negatively related with satisfaction in the manufacturing sample but not in the banking sample. Role ambiguity was negatively related with job satisfaction in both the samples. Role overload was not correlated with satisfaction, however, in either sample. Similar results were obtained by Abdel-Halim (1978), Beehr (1976), Miles and
Perreau (1976) and Tosi (1971)

Among Indian workers Hangopal (1979), Narayanan and Venkatachalam (1979) found organizational stress and motivation to be negatively related. According to Bernardian (1979), role ambiguity and conflict were significantly related to sergeant's overall ratings and job satisfaction with the work itself and with supervision. While studying different dimensions of stress, Pestonjee and Singh (1982) reported that role stress was negatively associated with all dimensions of job satisfaction except for social relations. Self-role distance, inter-role distance, role ambiguity, role stagnation and role inadequacy were negatively related for job satisfaction.

Mishra (1988) studied the role of strenuous working conditions as a potential moderator of the job satisfaction-job involvement relationship, with the subjects of 400 industrial supervisors in 10-20 years of service. It was found that strenuous working conditions did not have any moderating effect on the job satisfaction-job involvement relationship.

Among production, personnel and data processing employees, Jha (1988) studied the effect of job stress and strain. Results showed that for all the three groups job future ambiguity had negative effect on job satisfaction. Role overload of production employees had a negative effect on job satisfaction. Role ambiguity had a negative effect on job satisfaction for data processing employees. Role ambiguity was higher to middle level employees than higher level employees.

Newman and Beehr (1979) investigated the relationship between role stress measures (ambiguity, conflict and overload) and psychological strain among 79 male and female (mean age = 37 years) middle managers in a large public organization. Role stress was associated with low job satisfaction and high tension level at work but these relationships were moderated by personality characteristics.

McCormick and Solman (1992) examined 111 teachers and found the main contributors to the correlation between stress and satisfaction factors as (1) the personal domain (stress) and income (satisfaction) and (2) the school domain (stress) and school culture (satisfaction).

Tharakan (1992) compared 90 professional working women (doctors, engineers and lawyers) with 90 non-professional working women (clerks, officers and teachers) on their job-related stress and level of job satisfaction. Results revealed that the relationship between occupational stress and job satisfaction was significantly associated with job status. It was observed that professional working women experienced greater work-related stress than
non-professional working women, because the expectations of the former group were much higher than those of the latter group.

Norvell et al (1993) examined 52 female officers and 52 male officers of a state highway patrol agency and found that male officers experienced a greater degree of perceived stress and greater dissatisfaction with their work than did women.

In the studies cited, occupational stress was negatively related to job satisfaction. However, some authors reported that those who have more responsibilities and coercive powers, despite their high level stress have greater job satisfaction. McGeegail et al(1987) found that among high and low stressed subjects, high stressed employees reported greater job satisfaction and perceived their jobs as more challenging, interesting, useful and whom they perceived to be high in referent power.

MENTAL HEALTH

Mental health is defined as the full and harmonious functioning of the total personality. It includes a feeling of emotional, physical and social well-being with satisfaction to self and benefit to society.

According to English and Finch (1954) mental health is a relatively enduring state wherein the person is well adjusted, has a zest for living and is attaining self actualization.

In view of the "Alma Ata Declaration", the goal being health for all by 2000 A.D. defining health as physical, mental and social well-being. Shah (1982) has expressed that mental health is "the most essential and inseparable component of health—an integrated component of public health and social welfare programs—".

Mental health professionals however agree that positive mental health is not the mere absence of mental illness but something different (Nagaraja, 1983).

According to Menninger (1945) mental health is the ability of the individual to make personal and social adjustment, to face problems and make choices, to find satisfaction, success and happiness in the accomplishment of everyday tasks, to work efficiently and to live effectively with others to demonstrate socially considerate behavior and to contribute to the betterment of society.

Mental health is the adjustment of individuals to themselves and the world at large with maximum effectiveness, satisfaction, cheerfulness, society considerate behavior and the ability to face and accept the realities of life (Bernard, 1951).
Roehm (1955) defined mental health as a condition and level of social functioning which is socially acceptable and personally satisfying.

**Mental Health and Other Variables**

Kornhauser (1965) found that poor mental health was directly related to unpleasant work conditions, the necessity to work fast and to expend a lot of physical effort, and to excessive and inconvenient hours.

Cooper and Roden (1985) conducted a study on tax officers and pointed out that qualitative and quantitative work overload was the major source of lack of mental well-being.

Neff (1968) suggested that mental health at work was to a large extent a function of the degree to which output was under the control of the individual worker.

Michael et al (1980) used General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12) as an indicator of mental health in three studies involving employees in an engineering firm, recent school-leavers and unemployed men and found very high scores on GHQ-12 (indicating lower mental health) for those who were unemployed, higher for women than men in one sample and unrelated to age, job level and marital status.

Hurh and Kim (1990) studied correlates of male and female Korean immigrant's mental health and found that subjects who were married, highly educated and currently employed in a high status occupation indicated better subjective mental health than others. Significant gender differences in the correlates of mental health were observed.

O'Rourke (1986) revealed that psychological well-being of employed women was significantly and positively related to higher income and academic employment status and no significant relationships were found between psychological well-being and age, marital status or sex of persons in the household.

The results of Srivastava et al (1987) showed no gender differences with regard to mental health of post-graduate students.

Amaro et al (1987) studied Hispanic women indicating that income and job stress were related to mental health measures.

Safia and Bushra (1983), studied mental health and its relation to job satisfaction among the blue collar workers and found no relation between the personal variables like age, education, experience and income and mental health. Further, significant relation was found
between job satisfaction and mental health. This study was supported by Srivastava and Sinha (1974) and Krishna Murthy (1971).

When an employee perceives his salary to be less in comparison to the quantum of his work, he gets frustrated and his work motivation and job involvement get deteriorated. Several investigators reported that inequitable reward systems or income creates symptoms of poor mental health among employees. Kasl (1978) concluded that poor mental health was associated with inadequate income. The employees who perceive equitable reward systems, trust, and consideration for employees tend to have more favourable indices of mental health (Gavin, 1975).

Parikh and Rane (1991) investigated mental health of Gujarat and Maharashtra state employees working in fertilizer organizations and found that culture of the respondents played a significant role for mental health. Further, it was found that Gujarati employees exhibited better mental health than MaharashTRAN employees and cadre of the employee, length of experience did not differ significantly with regard to mental health.

The most general dimension of the work environment, prestige or status level of job, was clearly associated with higher job satisfaction and with better mental health (Gurin et al., 1960; Kahn, 1972; Kornhauser, 1965; Langner and Michael, 1963; Quinn et al., 1971; Robinson et al., 1969; Vroom, 1964, 1969).

A New York study (Roman and Trice, 1972) failed to find any mental health differences between assembly line workers, workers in blue collar (manufacturing) jobs and those in a large engineering (R and D) company.

Billete and Bouchard (1993) compared the mental health problems of 2 groups of female data entry clerks drawn from 39 government agencies pools. One group consisted of 182 clerks who worked in large pools and second group of 87 clerks in small pools. The clerks who have worked in large pools had higher average scores on the Psychiatric Symptoms Index. The effect of pool size was indirect and originated from the more intense job stressors found in large pools, greater pressure to increase output, more fragmented work and bureaucratic work relationships.

The study of Priyanka and Arun (1994) attempted to compare subjective mental health of the two groups of employees, i.e., managers and supervisors in a private sector organization. The results showed that managers and supervisors differed significantly on four variables of subjective mental health scale.
Mental Health and Job Satisfaction

Number of factors were responsible for mental health and it would be difficult to view the problem in isolation and simply in terms of one factor. However, there were ample evidences that job satisfaction was one of the important governing factors operating behind mental health.

Job satisfaction plays an important role to the employee in terms of health and well-being (Kornhauser, 1965; Gardell, 1971; Shipley, 1979; Khaleque, 1979).

Several authors reported positive relationship between job satisfaction and mental health. Kornhauser (1965) reported that better satisfied employees had better mental health in comparison to the less satisfied employees. He found consistent association between job satisfaction and mental health indices, including self-esteem, sociability, life satisfaction, personal morale, hostility, anxiety and tension.

In a Swedish study of workers doing machine controlled repetitive work, Gardell (1971) found them to be of poorer mental health and with lower job satisfaction.

Jagdish (1986) revealed positive relationship between job satisfaction and mental health of 400 first level supervisors, randomly selected from diesel locomotive works. The results indicated that the employees, satisfied with their job possess good mental health. Similar relationship was also found by Kasl (1973).

Sinha (1973) found that subjects with higher job satisfaction scores tended to have higher social and private self-esteem and more stable self-concept.

Khaleque et al (1992) indicated that there was significant influence of job satisfaction on mental health, fatigue and performance of 100 industrial workers selected randomly from two different organizations located in and around Dhaka city. The results also revealed a significant positive association between job satisfaction and mental health. Other studies reported that there was positive correlation between job satisfaction and mental health (Khaleque and Siddique, 1984; Khaleque and Jahan, 1986).

Whenever job satisfaction was operationalized not in the usual way but as worries, problems, upsets at work (in fact, as a mental health indicator for the work setting) then the correlations with mental health indices may be stronger (Langner and Michael, 1963; Roman and Trice, 1972; Siassi et al., 1974).

Jayaseetha and Murthy (1986) found that job satisfaction was correlated with mental...
health only for the younger age group managers and also that the two groups of younger and older managers did not differ significantly on job satisfaction.

Gechman and Wiener (1975) in their study on female elementary school teachers observed that the teachers, who felt satisfaction with the job, reported positive mental health.

Hoppock (1935) and Smith (1955) indicated that dissatisfaction with job was related to dissatisfaction with other aspects of employees' life.

Ganguli (1967) reported that normal group of workers showed greater satisfaction with terms and conditions of their service as compared to those who are unwell.

According to Kornhauser (1970), jobs in which workers were better satisfied, were conducive to better mental health, jobs in which larger number were dissatisfied, were correspondingly conducive to poor mental health.

Robinson and Hoppock (1952) reported that satisfied workers showed fewer indications of emotional maladjustment. Gupta and Sharma (1982) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and peptic ulcer which was an indicator of mental health.

**JOB SATISFACTION**

According to Blum and Naylor (1968), job satisfaction was the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, their attitudes were related to the job and were concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, opportunities for advancement, recognition of ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment by employer and other similar factors.

Many other personal factors of the employee like his temperament, health, age, social status, activities in different-labour, political or social organizations also contribute to his satisfaction. In short, job satisfaction is an attitude which is the result of many specific attitudes in three areas viz., specific job factors, individual characteristics and group relationships outside the job.

Kanungo (1982) has administered Job Satisfaction Scale to 919 lower-middle-level managers, belonging to 3 job categories (administrative, sales and technical services) in 3 large organizations in U.S. The findings suggest that extrinsic managers are both more satisfied and more involved in their present jobs than intrinsic managers. The extrinsic
managers not only expressed greater overall satisfaction but also were more satisfied with each of the 15 job factors than the intrinsic managers.

Jacob (1990) studied 224 engineers, spread over 138 organizations, using Job Satisfaction Scale. His findings reveal job satisfaction to be correlated with job involvement. However, comparison between very intrinsic group and very extrinsic group by Jacob indicates very intrinsic group is more job satisfied than the very extrinsic group.

Misra and Kakoo (1981) did not notice any significant difference between intrinsic group and extrinsic group regarding overall job satisfaction.

**Job Satisfaction and Type of Organization**

According to Bhushan and Sinha (1987) subjects in the public organization expressed high overall job satisfaction when compared to private organization.

An investigation by Porwal (1987) among 100 officers and clerks of nationalized and non-nationalized Indian banks on job satisfaction showed that the job satisfaction did not differ significantly between two types of banks. Further, it was asserted, that in long run nationalization may lead to a higher level of job satisfaction and increase in efficiency.

Srivastava (1985) stated that private sector employees scored high job satisfaction when compared to public sector employees.

Pratap and Srivastava (1985) found that private firm employees were more satisfied and perceived the climate better, in terms of job satisfaction and organizational climate. But the findings of Gakhar and Sachdeva (1987) revealed that, when compared to private school teachers, government school teachers reported greater job satisfaction.

Agarwal (1979) examined the level of job satisfaction among women engaged in two professions, teaching and banking. The findings revealed that women from the banking profession were significantly more satisfied.

Anita (1986) reported that teachers from technical and non-technical educational organization do not differ significantly in terms of expressed job satisfaction.

Juhl et al (1993) identified differences in job satisfaction between 111 nurses working in public health settings and 146 nurses working in home health settings. Although both groups reported low satisfaction with salary, public health nurses were significantly less satisfied with their salaries than were home health nurses. Home health nurses were
significantly less satisfied with benefits/rewards, task requirements and professional status.

Zeitane (1994) studied 1,300 employees from the Australian telecommunications industry and indicated that satisfaction increases when greater certainty about future directions/outcomes of the organization is experienced and when job incumbents perceive positive work group performance.

According to Basha (1994) job satisfaction was significantly more among the public sector employees than those in private and cooperative employment. Further, subjects from the private and cooperative sectors did not differ in their job satisfaction.

**Job Satisfaction and Experience**

According to Siegel (1969), job experience was related to satisfaction in a rather interesting fashion. As one might expect, new employees tend to be relatively well satisfied with their jobs. This 'honeymoon', however, terminates after a period of time unless the worker feels that he was making a rather steady progress towards the satisfaction of his occupational and social needs.

Almost every company employs a large number of persons who after several years with the company feel that advancement or salary enhancement have not been forthcoming with sufficient regularity and that they are working at a dead-end job. The effect of this was to cause a perceptible decline in the prevailing level of job satisfaction during the several years following the start of employment. The level of job satisfaction appears to increase again and reaches a maximum for workers, who have remained with a company for a long time (Hull and Kolstad, 1942). This was undoubtedly due to the fact that the most dissatisfied employees have sought other employment either voluntarily or involuntarily. In addition employees who have been encouraged to remain with the company over a long period as 20 years have probably been provided with the kind of incentives that lead to feelings of job satisfaction.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) found that job satisfaction increased with increasing experience for a period of 10 years and decreasing afterwards. Hodge (1977) observed that the level of job satisfaction increased for both Negro and White professors, as years of employment at the institutions increase in number.

McClusky and Strayer (1940) revealed that teachers between 4 and 12 years of experience were less happy in their work than those of lesser or greater teaching experience.
been reported in various studies for women when they are in men. The late that work was generally a
satisfaction than men. Morse (1935) observed that a higher overall level of job satisfaction has
changed since, and Stockard and Kunze (1950) found that women workers were more
no significant difference between the level of job satisfaction of men and women employees.
co-workers' (g) women were more satisfied than their men co-workers and (ii) there was
They were (i) women employees were more satisfied with their jobs than their men
satisfaction and gender. These were little contradiction found observable in the literature.
Several investigations have been carried out to study the relation between job

Job Satisfaction and Gender

Job satisfaction
correlations were found between experience, number of promotions obtained, and the level
service.

revealed that job satisfaction was negatively correlated to both age as well as length of
job satisfaction, job involvement, age and length of service among college academics. Results
The study of Linder and Farnish (1992) explored the nature of relationships between

satisfaction and experience

but ago (1970) and Langdon (1987) found that there was no association between job
relationships between satisfaction with the work itself, salary, age and company tenure.
relationships between the age of tenure and job satisfaction. They indicated a positive, monotonic
Huon and Smith (1965) did not find any evidence of significant L-shaped relationships
year of work and tended high for a number of years, after which it decreased
have a U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction. Job satisfaction dropped within the first
employees' time in the organization (tenure) was found by Hertzberg et al. (1959) to be
job satisfaction but a negative linear relationship between job tenure and satisfaction

Lindon and Klein (1970) found a positive linear relationship between worker age and
in a survey of white collar workers. Jones and Peller (1975) found that age and tenure

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less consuming element in the lives of women and hence of somewhat lesser importance to
their status in the community.

In some studies women were found to be less satisfied than men. For example, Hulin
and Smith (1964) found that women workers in 3 of the 4 plants surveyed, were less satisfied
than their counterparts. Goble (1977) found that women workers evidenced more dissatisfaction
with work than men, but they expressed more satisfaction with pay. Englardt (1973) and
Weaver (1977) however, did not find any significant difference between men and women
workers with regard to their job satisfaction.

Furnham and Goddard (1986) reported no sex differences in overall job satisfaction,
although females were generally more satisfied with their working conditions than the males.

In a study of 25 male and 25 female employees from various banks, matched for age,
number of dependents and education on job satisfaction, Pratap and Gupta (1986) found that
females were more satisfied with their jobs than males.

Wahba (1978) revealed that librarians reported lower satisfaction than normative
sample and women librarians reported more dissatisfaction than men with their work,
supervision, pay and promotions.

Among the university professors, it was found that either no significant sex differences
in job satisfaction exist or that, the differences were not psychologically meaningful (Smith
and Plant, 1982). Surbida (1984) found that there was no significant relationship between
principals’ sex and their ratings of their overall job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction and Other Variables

Job Satisfaction and Salary

Those who were working under financial incentives had better job satisfaction than
those who were under no such incentives (Pestonjee, 1971). This finding laid support to
Ganguli’s (1964) prediction that, for the present and in the foreseeable future, money will
remain as an important incentive for Indian workers.

Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1977) studied 240 blue-collar workers working under
a financial incentive scheme and found that the workers belonging to the high income group
were found to be satisfied with their job. Income generally affected job satisfaction. However,
age and tenure were more effective correlates of job satisfaction than income.
Hopwood (1983), Singer and Stambaugh (1992), Anand (1972), Weaver (1974), and

educational qualification of the employees was one of the significant determinants of job satisfaction. Research has shown a significant relationship between job satisfaction and education.

A study by supervisors in a study of supervisory slip on job satisfaction respondents with four or less number of dependents was found to be more satisfied with their job (Singh and Singh, 1980).

A study by supervisors in a study of supervisory slip on job satisfaction respondents with four or less number of dependents was found to be more satisfied with their job (Singh and Singh, 1980).

Job Satisfaction and Level of Education

The level of satisfaction among different salaried groups varied from their jobs (e.g., Baker, 1961; and Hammack, 1961) and reported no difference in the level of satisfaction among different salaried groups. In a study of employees in different positions, earnings, medical representation, and other variables were found to be the main influences on job satisfaction. According to Mayeda (1972), salary was not the main influence on job satisfaction. However, salary tended to have a higher level of job satisfaction with higher salaries. The group with higher salaries was significantly related to job satisfaction. Several studies have indicated that groups with higher salaries and job satisfaction were positively related (Avolio et al., 1976; and Lawler, 1969). Anand (1972) and Lofquist (1967) found that salary was significantly related to job satisfaction. In most of the studies, managerial salaries were found to be the most effective.
Bernard and Kulandaivel (1976) concluded that there was no relationship between the level of education and job satisfaction among employees of various occupations.

Al-Khalidi (1983) found that employees with higher educational levels were less satisfied with their salary than those with lower education levels.

Grau et al (1991) investigated institutional loyalty and job satisfaction among nurse aides in nursing homes and found that subjects with low education were significantly more satisfied with all dimensions of work except for social environment. Also, Anirudh and Mandal (1990) found that education had a negative association with job satisfaction.

Frances (1986) in a study of company managers explored that the low educated staff were not as satisfied as their more educated colleagues in same job.

The study of Mullis et al (1986) revealed that subjects (female child care workers) with the highest levels of education reported being more satisfied with most aspects of their jobs.

Pestonjee et al (1981) in a study of 45 persons, with professional qualification and 45 without qualification, all working in a university library, found that the overall job satisfaction of the professional group was significantly higher.

**Job satisfaction and Marital Status**

A few studies have been reported on the relation between marital status and job satisfaction of employees.

In a study on a group of 240 blue-collar workers, who were working under a financial incentive scheme in a leading locomotive works, Neeraja Dwivedi and Pestonjee (1975) found that married workers showed higher job satisfaction than the unmarried.

National Education Association (1956) reported that married individuals expressed more job satisfaction than did the unmarried ones. In the same way Kates (1950), Inlow (1951), Herzberg et al (1957), Venkatarami Reddy and Babban (1980) also observed that married teachers were more satisfied with their jobs than the unmarried.

Generally, married adults are better adjusted than their unmarried counterparts (Srole et al 1962; Orden and Bradburn, 1968; Bradburn, 1969).

According to Butler (1961) married beginning teachers were more likely to be dissatisfied than single teachers.
Smith (1977) observed that women's job satisfaction was significantly correlated with their husband's marital adjustment.

However, no relationship between job satisfaction and marital status was found in the studies of Radler (1964), Sayadain (1985) and Venkatarami Reddy and Krishna Reddy (1978).

**Job satisfaction and Occupational Level**

Ther (1954) conducted an extensive study to determine the influence of job status on job satisfaction. It was observed that occupational status was the most influential factor in creating differences in job satisfaction.

Porter (1962) found that in general, those in lower management positions were more dissatisfied than managers in top level positions. He also stated that higher levels of employment offer more ego satisfaction, more status, pay and self-direction.

Ray (1982) concluded that higher the level of the occupation, the higher the morale of the worker and the achievement need was an important mediator of the relationship between job level and job satisfaction. Therefore, the level of employment was one of the factors that contributes to job satisfaction.

The management literature was highly consistent in showing a positive relationship between status of occupation and job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1957; Kahn, 1972; Vroom, 1964).

The evidence generally shows that supervisors were more job satisfied than non-supervisors (Morse, 1953, Porter and Lawler, 1965).

**OCCUPATIONAL STRESS, MENTAL HEALTH AND JOB SATISFACTION**

Kahnet al (1964) found in their study that men who suffered from role ambiguity experienced lower job satisfaction, high job related tension and lower self-confidence.

French and Caplan (1970) found in a sample of 205 volunteer engineers, scientists and administrators that role ambiguity was significantly related to low job satisfaction and to feelings of job-related threat to one's mental and physical well-being.

Revicki et al (1989) examined the organizational characteristics, occupational stress and mental health among 232 nurses aged 21-62 years working in rural community.
Increased role ambiguity led to decreased job satisfaction and increased perceived stress.

Rees and Cooper (1992) examined levels of occupational stress in 1,176 employees of all occupational groups. In comparison with a normative group of workers from non-health care sectors, health workers reported significantly greater pressure at work. Where as General Managers reported the lowest levels of pressure, the lowest levels of ill health and the highest levels of job satisfaction. Nurses reported the highest levels of pressure. While the ancillary and maintenance staff and scientists and technicians had low level of job satisfaction.

Tery et al (1993) examined 153 employees (aged 20-63 years) of a large public sector organization and found role ambiguity and role conflict as significant predictors of psychological well-being and job satisfaction.

Sutherland and Cooper (1993) identified sources of job stress and personality factors as predictors of psychological ill-health and job dissatisfaction among 670 male and 243 female general practitioners (aged 27-73 years) in U K. Compared to a normative sample, male subjects exhibited significantly higher levels of anxiety and depression, where as female subjects compared favourably to the population norm. Job satisfaction levels were significantly lower than when they were measured in 1987, although women were less job dissatisfied than men. The main predictors of lack of mental well-being were the job stressors associated with the demands of the job.

APPRAISAL

It may be seen from the brief review of literature presented in the foregoing pages that most of the studies examined the relationship of job/occupational/role stress with mental ill-health. Thus, it is apparent that positive aspect of mental health has been least studied by the organizational psychologists. Very few studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between job satisfaction and positive mental health, particularly in Indian setting. Besides, most of the studies have been conducted on the subjects selected from higher (managerial) level of employees. The studies available are conducted in public or private sector organizations and not compared in business, service and commonweal organizations.

In view of the facts mentioned above, the present study intended to examine the occupational stress, mental health (positive dimensions) and job satisfaction of clerical employees, in three different organizations viz., business, service and commonweal.