CHAPTER-II

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2.1 Concept of Job Stress

Stress has become one of the major concerns of present times. We are under stress of some sort or other. Most of the time stress at work, stemming from increasing job complexity and its divergent demands has become pervading feature of modern organizations. A little amount of stress may be helpful from organizational and personal point of view. It is reported that stress creates as well as promote employee's inclination towards the job, thus enhances the performance and develops positive attitude among employee's. However, it has been more frequently observed that excessive and persistent stress is aversive for employees.

Job stress is widely recognized as a major problem for both workers and the organizations that employ them. For workers, stress is frequently a factor contributing to accidents, job dissatisfaction and illnesses such as heart disease, alcoholism and hypertension (Davidson & Cooper, 1981). For organization, stress related problems result in enhanced company medical expenses, absenteeism and decreased productivity.

Beehr and Newman (1978) defined job stress "as condition where in job related factors interact with the worker to change (disrupt or enhance) his /her psychological or physiological condition (mind and body) so that the person is forced to deviate from normal functioning".

Marshall and Cooper (1979) devised following seven sources of organization stress:

i) Job (working conditions, overload).

ii) Organizational role (role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility etc.)
iii) Relationships at work (relationships with supervisors, relationships with colleagues).

iv) Career development (lack of job security, status incongruity).

v) Organizational structure and climate.

vi) Extra-organizational matters (marriage pattern, mobility)

vii) The individual (intra psychic characteristics, behaviour patterns, self help literature).

Aggarwal, Malhan and Singh (1979), observed that the focus in India appears to be on the effects of stressors such as noise, dust, dirt, temperature, excessive working hours, pesticides, dangerous and unguarded machinery, carbondioxide etc., on policemen, industrial workers, drivers, sweepers and scavengers.

Studies in India involving psychological stressors are few and far between. A few theoretical articles and research papers published in early 1960 and mid 1970s have dealt with the effects of socio-cultural factors on adjustment and behaviour at work. Also such researchers as Bhogle (1971); Dayal and Sharma (1971); Moddie (1971); Srivastava and Dave (1978); Pestonjee & Singh (1982); and Sharma and Sharma (1983), have studied the effects of psychological stressors (viz.) role conflict and role ambiguity, role efficacy and total organizational / occupational role stress on anxiety (general & job) and job satisfaction among teachers, managers, supervisors, officers in private and public sectors etc.

Job stress in work areas is becoming an increasingly important concern in both academic research and organizational practices. Yet there is still a great deal not known about stress in organizations (Zaleznik, Kets & Howard, 1977; Beehr & Newman, 1978; House 1974; Cooper & Marshall, 1976).
2.2. Theoretical Models of Job-Related Stress:

McGrath (1987), reported that as early as 1970 researchers were urged to approach the investigation of stress using theoretical models that would reflect the sequence of events in stress transactions as well as their inter-relationships. These theoretical frameworks provide not only a platform upon which research can be built but also a stimulus to research and theory building as we differentiate and elaborate the relevant constructs (Leventhal, 1997).

2.2.1 The Work Stress Model (Tetrick and LaRocco, 1987):

Characterizes the interactional framework, that postulates that the perceived presence of certain work conditions may be associated with a number of stress responses. This model predicts that various organizational characteristics, situational factors, and individual differences can influence (moderate) this stimulus-response relationship. Generally, the model has resulted in three types of research applications (Dewe, 1991). These including (a) identifying, describing and categorizing different stimuli; (b) demonstrating a relationship between the different categories of stimuli and responses; and (c) exploring the nature of that relationship by investigating the moderating effects of different organizational job-specific, and individual-difference variables. Reviewers (e.g. Cummings and Cooper, 1979; Edwards and Cooper, 1988; Eulberq, Weekley, & Bhagat, 1988; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992) have identified a number of specific models that they believe have played an important role in developing the theoretical context for investigating work stress. These include:

2.2.2 Stress Cycle Model (McGrath, 1976):

McGrath (1976), proposed a sequence of events where the demands of an encounter and its outcome(s) are linked through
three processes: appraisal, decision making, and performance. The first of these (appraisal) concerns how the encounter is interpreted, the second (decision making) involves the selection of a response, and the third (performance) involves how well the encounter is managed. McGrath also referred to an "outcomes process", which he described as the feedback mechanism through which the encounter is re-appraised. In this model, "imbalance" or "misfit" occurs as a result of the individual's appraisal of events and when the consequences of not meeting the demands are perceived as being significant.

2.2.3 The P-E Fit Approach/Model of Stress" (French, Caplan & Van Harrison, 1982)

This model has been most widely discussed in the literature (Edwards, 1991; Edwards & Cooper, 1988; Eulberg et al, 1988). In short, this model proposes that strain occurs when the relationship between the person and the environment is out of equilibrium. That is, a lack of fit between the characteristics of the person (e.g. abilities, values) and the environment (e.g. demands, supplies) can lead to unmet individual needs or unmet job demands. These unmet needs or demands can in turn result in strain. The main point is that subjective P-E misfit—that is how individual perceive the encounter and increases the likelihood that strain will occur. Implicit in the notion of misfit is the individual's ability to manage an encounter, and elements like values, supplies, demands, and abilities, all of which help to determine the perceived misfit, could be described as representing aspects of a transactional process (Edwards & Cooper, 1988).

2.2.4 The Job Demands-Control Model: (Karesek, 1979):

In this model, strain occurs when high job demands (or pressure) are combined with low decision latitude (a perceived
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inability to influence tasks and procedures at work. The concept of control has been recognized as an important facet of the stress process. However, debate over how control should be operationalised and questions about how the interaction should be measured have meant that attempts to replicate Karasek's findings have generated mixed results (Fox, Dwyer & Ganster, 1993).

2.2.5 The General Systems Model of Stress: (Cox & McKey, 1981):

In their general systems model of stress, they described strain as the psychological state that occurs when there is a personally significant imbalance or lack of fit between an individual's perceptions of environmental demands and his or her ability to cope with those demands. According to these theorists, imbalance occurs via a five stage sequence that includes the source of the demand, the perception of that demand in relation to coping resources, the recognition of changes in well-being, the evaluation of coping activities, and finally, the feedback or re-appraisal of the event. Cox (1993) suggested, useful to "think of stress as embedded in on-going process which involves individuals interacting with their environment, making appraisals of that interaction and attempting to cope with, and some times failing to cope with, the problems that arise".

2.2.6 Cybernetic Model for Stress: (Cummings & Cooper, 1979):

The usefulness of this model lies in the fact that it focuses on the stress cycle--"the sequential events that represent the continuous interaction between person and environment". The basic premise of this model is that behaviour is directed toward reducing deviations from a specific goal state and that it involves (a) the detection of strain through the presence of a perceived mismatch between the person's actual and preferred states; (b) the
selection of an adjustment process; (c) the implementation of the adjustment process—that is, coping behaviours and (d) the effect of those coping behaviour on the stressful encounter.

Another advantage of the cybernetic framework is that, like some of the other models, it draws attention to the temporal nature of stressful encounters and hence the need to consider the impact of time on P-E transactions.

2.3 Job-Related Sources of Strain:

Almost all people at some time in their lives experience stress that relates to their occupations. Often these stressful situations are minor and brief and have little impact on the person. But for many people, the stress is intense and continues for long periods of time. One core element of the model of stress coping is awareness of the events, issues, and objects (including people) that may function as stressors (sources of strain) for individuals. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have argued that strain occurs when environmental demands or constraints are perceived by a person to exceed his/her resources or capacities. Determinants of strain can generally be grouped into three major categories:

(i) Job-specific sources
(ii) Organizational sources
(iii) Individual sources

Among these sources, "organizational or environmental sources" are most important stressors in work-settings. Under the rubric of "environmental" sources of strain, Cart-Wright and Cooper (1997) have further differentiated six primary job-related stressors:

(i) Factors intrinsic to the job itself
(ii) Roles in the organization
(iii) Relationships at work, such as those with supervisors, colleagues and subordinates
(iv) Career development

(v) Organizational factors, including the structure and climatic of the organization as well as its culture and political environment.

(vi) The home-work interface.

(i) Intrinsic Job Characteristics:

These stressors are associated with the performance of specific tasks that make up an individual’s job, sometimes referred to as task content factors (Kahn & Byosiere, 1990), as well as work environment and work scheduling factors. They include variables such as the level of job complexity, the variety of tasks performed, the amount of discretion and control that individuals have over the pace and timing of their work, and the physical environment in which the work is performed.

Early investigations of blue-collar workers aimed to identify the links between physical conditions and productivity (Munsterberg, 1913; Roethlisberger & Dickson; 1939) and the importance of relationships between environmental factors and health. The significance of “subjective reactivity” to the physical environment also evolved from the Hawthorne Studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939).

Kornhauser (1965), observed that factors related to poor mental ability included unpleasant working conditions and the requirements to operate at a fast pace, expend considerable physical effort for long periods, excessive work at inconvenient hours and the physical demands of work surrounding and the distress caused by noise, vibrations and extremes of temperature.
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(a) **Noise:**

Poor working conditions (including excessive temperature or noise) can have a serious detrimental impact on worker physical health and psychological well being (Cooper, 1987). Jones (1983), suggested that the importance of sound to individual health and well-being cannot be overstated. Although, certain kinds of sound (for instance, language and music) enrich people’s lives and underpin culture and society, unwanted sound is referred to as “noise”. However, noise operates less as a stressor in situations where it is excessive but expected, than in those circumstances where it is unpredictable or unexpected. Further, a change in noise levels can be potentially more stressful than absolute noise levels (Jewell, 1998).

(b) **Vibration and Temperature:**

Along with noise, vibration and temperature are acknowledged as major environmental sources of strain, producing elevated catecholamine levels and alterations to psychological and neurological functioning (Selye 1976). Health hazards include nausea, loss of balance, and fatigue. Vibration from rotary or impacting machines is particularly problematic in industries Kelly & Cooper (1981), and Sutherland & Cooper (1986), further reported that vibrations that transfer from physical objects to the body may adversely affect performance; hands and feet are particularly vulnerable, but the annoyance factor is also a major psychological consideration.

Temperature is another characteristic of the physical environment that may have a significant impact on workers. Physiological responses to thermal conditions vary greatly between workers and even within the same individual from one occasion to the next (Ramsey; 1983). Extreme temperatures (hot or cold) can induce physiological responses that might have undesirable effects.
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on both work performance and individual health and well-being (Jewell, 1998). Performance of perceptual and motor tasks deteriorates in very high temperatures.

(c) Work Load:

The amount of work that has to be performed is another significant stressor for many workers. Both overload and underload can generate psychological (and physical) strain.

It is also important to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative overload/underload. Quantitative work load refers to the sheer amount of work required and the time frame in which work must be completed. Having to work under time pressure to meet deadlines is a major source of quantitative overload (Narayanan, Menon & Spector, 1999), and has related to high levels of strain, anxiety, and depression, as well as to job performance (Cooper & Roden, 1985; Kushmir and Melamed, 1991; Westman & Eden 1992). Quantitative underload has also been identified as a stressor, with boredom and lack of challenge from monotonous, routine work predicting anxiety, and job dissatisfaction (Kelly & Cooper, 1981).

Work overload and underload may also result from an irregular flow of work that is not under the control of the worker. Certain workers, such as air traffic controllers, firefighters, pilots, doctors, police, must deal with long periods of inactivity and the need to spring onto action when a crisis occurs. This is potentially hazardous if the employee fails to respond appropriately in an emergency (Davidson & Veno, 1980).

“Qualitative overload” and “underload” can also be potent sources of psychological strain and are associated with workers affective reactions of their jobs. Qualitative overload occurs when individuals believe they do not have the skills or capacities to
satisfactorily perform job tasks, and it has been linked to low levels of self-esteem. An example of this would be a worker who is promoted to a supervisory capacity on the grounds of superior work performance but who has no past experience of supervision of others or work delegation. This situation may be exacerbated by the person's having to assume responsibility for the performance outputs of other workers.

Qualitative underload may be as damaging as overload. In this the individual is not given the opportunity to use acquired skills or to develop full potential ability e.g. Hall (1976), demonstrated that graduate recruits are likely to suffer qualitative underload. They often enter employment with high expectations that are not realized. This manifests itself in reported job dissatisfaction, poor motivation, and high labour turnover (Hall, 1976).

(d) Work Hours:

The sheer number of hours that a person works can produce strain. Sparkes, Cooper, Fried & Shirom (1997), obtained small but statistically significant correlations between hours of work and overall health, as well as both physiological and psychological health symptoms. Sparkes, et al (1997) noted, that individuals working more than 48 hours a week -being stressed out (Folkard 1996; seymour and Buscherhof, 1991).

“Shift work” also produces strain (Folkard, 1996), primarily because of disturbances in circadian rhythms (the ‘body clock’) and disruptions to family and social life. In many cases, these effects have been associated with a decline in physical health, satisfaction and overall subjective well being (Folkard, 1996; Seymour and Buscherhof, 1991). However, problems with shift work are not
uniform across all shift work schedules, nor do all individuals experience the same kinds of problems or to the same extent. The fixed shifts are less harmful to employers than rotating shifts, especially backward rotating (Jamal and Baba, 1992). Toterdell, Spelten, Smith, Barton and Folkard (1995), found that night shift work can cause additional problems for workers because they need to adjust to two different routines. They also suggest that more attention needs to be given to the timing and duration of rest days, particularly for night-shift workers.

(e) **New Technology:**

In a rapidly changing occupational environment, skill may quickly become obsolete. However, the need to constantly become familiar with new equipment and systems may pose a threat to some individuals. Unless adequate training and preparation are provided, potentially stressful situations may develop when new technology is introduced into the workplace and the individual feels unable to cope with the innovations. Korunka, Weiss, Huemer and Karetta (1995) observed, for instance, that the introduction of new technologies is related to changes in employee job satisfaction and physical health.

(f) **Exposure to Risk and Hazards:**

Various occupational groups have been identified as high risk in terms of physical danger for example, police officers, mine workers, soldiers, prison personnel, firefighters and workers on oil and gas exploration and production installations (Cart-Wright and Cooper, 1997; Davidson and Veno, 1980; Elliot, 1985; Fisher and Cooper, 1990; Kalimo, 1980). These workers may be in a constant state of arousal, ready to react immediately. The resulting adrenaline rush, muscle tension and respiration changes may be a threat to long-term health.
(ii) **Organizational Roles:**

Roles encompass the behaviors and demands that are associated with the job an individual performs. The importance of role-related strain was first underlined by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn and Snoek (1964), whose early investigations in this area have provided a platform and framework for most subsequent research on role strain. According to Kahn et al. (1964), dysfunction in roles can occur in two primary ways: roles ambiguity (lack of clarity about the role) and role conflict (competing or conflicting job demands). These two role stressors have been the most frequently investigated sources of job-related strain.

**a) Role Ambiguity:**

As defined by Kahn, et al (1964), role ambiguity refers to unpredictability of the consequences of one's role performance. Further conceptualizations have extended the definition to include a lack of information needed to perform the role, and the typical measure of this construct assess both unpredictability of consequences and information deficiency regarding expected role behaviours (Pearce, 1981). Numerous studies have demonstrated a consistent link between substantial role ambiguity in the job and high levels of psychological strain (O'Driscoll and Beehr, 1994; Schaubroeck, Cotton and Jennings, 1989).

**b) Role Conflict:**

Role conflict, which reflects incompatible demands on the person (either within a single role or between multiple roles occupied by the individual), can induce negative emotional reactions due to perceived inability to be effective on the job (Schaubroeck et al, 1989). The detrimental effect of role conflict has been observed on both self-reported strain (O' Driscoll and Beehr, 1994) and physiological...
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indicators of strain (Kahn and Byosiere, 1990). Typically, however, the association between role conflict and psychological strain is not as strong as that between ambiguity and strain (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). Quick and Quick (1984) differentiated four kinds of role conflict:

(i) **Intrasender role conflict**: for example, when a supervisor or manager communicates expectations that are mutually incompatible.

(ii) **Intersender role conflict**: when two or more people (e.g. supervisors, managers, colleagues, clients) communicate expectations that are incompatible.

(iii) **Person-role conflict**: when an individual perceives a conflict between his / her expectations and values and those of the organization or key people in the work environment.

(iv) **Inter-role conflict**: when a person occupies two or more roles that may have conflicting expectations or requirements.

Although each of these forms of conflict has negative consequences, the nature of their effects, as well as mechanisms for alleviating them, differ markedly.

(c) **Role Overload**:

A third variable is overload, which refers to the number of different roles. Not only role overload lead to excessive demands on an individual’s time, but it also may create uncertainty about his /her ability to perform these roles adequately. Along with role ambiguity and conflict, overload has been found to be a major correlate for job-related strain (Cooper, 1987). Narayanan et al
found that work overload was mentioned more frequently by respondents as a source of strain than either role ambiguity or role conflict.

The negative effects of these role variables on employee physical and psychological well-being is that they create uncertainty, which in itself is psychologically uncomfortable and if persistent and at high levels, it can result in emotional disturbance in the individual. Beehr and colleagues (Beehr, 1987; Beehr and Bhagat, 1985), adapted the expectancy theory of motivation to explain the diverse forms of uncertainty that may arise from role stressors. Role ambiguity, conflict and overload may be linked with reduced effort-to-performance expectancy ($E\rightarrow P$). They create uncertainty among employees that their efforts will lead to satisfactory job performance interfering with performance-to-outcome expectancy ($P\rightarrow O$) because employees are unsure of the link between rewards and successful job performance.

O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) found that these forms of uncertainty were significantly related to workers affective experiences, including dissatisfaction and psychological strain.

Interestingly, O'Driscoll and Beehr found only a direct relationship between role conflict and strain, rather than one mediated by job satisfaction, as was the case for ambiguity and $E\rightarrow P$ and $P\rightarrow O$ uncertainty.

**Work Relationships:**

Both the quality of interpersonal relationships and lack of social support (from others in the workplace) have been examined as potential sources of job-related strain. It is clear that negative interpersonal relations and the absence of support from colleagues
and supervisors can be a major stressor for many workers (Motowidlo, Pakward and menning 1986; Narayanan et al 1999). Conversely, having social support from within the organization can directly alleviate psychological strain (Beehr and McGrath 1992).

McLean (1979), suggested that social support in the form of group cohesion, interpersonal trust and liking for a supervisor is associated with decreased levels of perceived job strain and better health. On the other hand, inconsiderate or non supportive behaviour from a supervisor appears to contribute significantly to feelings of job pressure (Buck, 1972; McLean, 1979). Further close supervision and rigid performance monitoring can also be stressful (O’Driscoll and Beehr 1994). For instance, O’Driscoll and Beehr (2000), found that the extent to which subordinates had a need for clarity moderated the relationship between role stressors and psychological strain. It is evident that some individuals can tolerate uncertainties in the work environment more readily than do others and that their need for close guidance and supervision may therefore be lower.

(iv) Career Development:

There is a growing body of evidence that a perceived lack of promotion opportunities and lack of progress in one’s career represent primary sources of job dissatisfaction (Rabinowitz, Falkenbach, Travers, Valentine and Weener, 1983) and hence may function as major stressors for many people. There is also substantial evidence (Burke & Mckeen, 1994) that, despite changes in societal attitudes concerning equal employment opportunities, women and minority groups still encounter organizational barriers to their career development, which inevitably leads to higher levels of psychological strain for these groups of employees.
(a) **Job Insecurity:**

One aspect of many people's careers in the current, and future, employment context is the prospect or threat of job loss due to redundancy. For individual workers, redundancy not only affects current and future income but also challenges the person's general self-esteem, which is closely linked with job status and overall well-being (Burke and Cooper, 2000). In addition to its potential socio-emotional affects on individuals, the threat of job loss has been linked to several serious health problems, including ulcer colitis, and alopecia (Cobb and Kasl, 1977), as well as increased muscular complaints (Smith, Cohen, Stammer-John and Happ, 1981). Brockner, Konovsky, Cooper-Schneider, Folger, Martin, Bies (1994), have investigated the impact of redundancy (or the threat of redundancy) on three categories of people: victim (those who are displaced from the job), survivors (those who retain their job), and “Lame ducks” (those who are next in line for retrenchment).

(b) **Promotion and Career Advancement:**

Even in situations where individuals may believe that their job is secure, issues related to advancement in one's career or promotion within the organization are frequently cited as major sources of dissatisfaction and psychological strain (Jewell, 1998). Typically, strain is caused by a lack of advancement (or under promotion), but in some cases the reverse may apply: individuals feel promoted beyond their capabilities. This may occur, for example, when a person is promoted to the role of supervisor from the “shop floor” or is given new responsibilities for which he/she has received inadequate preparation or training. Both under and over promotion can have serious detrimental effects on individual well-being and satisfaction levels.
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Formulation of career development proposed in 1970's (Osipow, 1973) suggested that career development occurred in stages, one of these being the plateau stage, when individuals experience a leveling off in their career and skill development and their career reaches a point of maintenance. Socio-economic factors within society in the 1990's along with changing values and interests, have resulted in careers that do not necessarily progress in stages (Hall, 1994), and indeed, some employees may never experience a plateauing effect because (either voluntarily or involuntarily through redundancy) these individuals change careers before they reach a plateau. Hall and Moss (1998) have referred to this as the protean career. Nevertheless, even for individuals who remain in the same job or career, it is clear that if continued the majority prefer development and that any plateau effect is likely to have negative consequences in terms of dissatisfaction and psychological strain.

(v) Organizational Factors:

Psychological strain that may be attributed to organizational factors is often due to the culture and management style adopted within an organization (Cooper & Cart-Wright, 1994). There are, of course, multiple organizational factors that impinge upon organizational members and may generate feelings of strain.

Hierarchical, bureaucratic organizational structures may permit little participation by employees in decisions affecting their work. Inadequate communication, can also contribute to employee strain. Guzley (1992) and O'Driscoll & Evans (1988), have indicated that the content and the nature of communication processes within organizations contribute to employee reactions to their job and the organization as a whole. Where communications focus on negative attributions about other personnel, cynicism regarding leadership
and management of the organization, and there are attempts by employees to further their own interests at the expense of others then feelings of mistrust and lack of support are generated which in turn lead to increased strain (O'Driscoll & Cooper, 1996).

Lack of participation in the decision-making process, lack of effective consultation and communication, office politics, and no sense of belonging have all been identified as potential organizational stressors. Karasek (1979), original prospective study demonstrated that lack of decision latitude and freedom to choose one's work schedule were significant predictors of the risk for coronary heart disease. Similarly lack of consultation and feelings of being unable to make changes in one's job are commonly reported stressors among blue-collar workers (Kelly and Cooper 1981).

A large range of organizational factors have the potential to induce strain in employees lack of participation (in decision making), inappropriate levels of formalization of work procedures, lack of adequate communication within the organization, and organizational politics are all potential sources of strain.

(vi) The Home-Work Interface:

Managing the interface between one's job and various roles and responsibilities off the home is another potential source of strain (O'Driscoll, 1996). Changes in family structures, increased participation by women in the workforce, and technological changes (such as usage of portable computers and cellular phones) that enable job tasks to be performed in a variety of locations have blurred the boundaries between the job and life off the job for many workers and have created the potential for conflict to occur between job and off-job roles (Hill, Miller, Weiner and Colihan, 1998). This inter-role conflict has consistently been linked with
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psychological strain (Frone, Rusell and Cooper, 1992; O'Driscoll, Ilgen and Hildreth, 1992) and is especially prevalent among women, employed parents, and dual-career couples (Aryee and Luk, 1996; Brayfield, 1995; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1994, Williams and Alliger, 1994).

There are three fundamental forms of potential conflict between individual's job (or careers) and their family lives, given by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985):

(i) Time-based conflict
(ii) Behaviour-based conflict
(iii) Strain-based conflict

**Time-Based Conflict:**

One prominent form of conflict arises because people have finite resources in terms of time and energy and demands from different roles tax those resources. Gutek, Searle and Klepa (1991), have labeled this the "rational view" because it presumes that the extent of inter-role conflict is directly proportional to the amount of time (or energy) expended in each domain. It has also been referred to as "utilitarian" approach (Lobel, 1991), because it focuses upon the rewards and costs of investing time and energy in specific roles. The utilitarian model depicts life as a struggle between competing roles that have differential reward-to-cost ratios. From this perspective, conflict between roles is inevitable. The more time and energy required to perform specific roles successfully, the greater the extent of inter-role conflicts.

**Behaviour-Based Conflict:**

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) highlighted the second form of conflict, referred to as "behaviour-based conflict". As competing for one's time and physical energy, the attitudes, values, and behaviours
required in one role may be in compatible with those needed in another. For example, in the work context an employee may be expected to be aggressive, ambitious, hard driving, and task oriented. Successful job performance (and the rewards associated with such performance) may be contingent upon demonstration of these characteristics, while supportive, accommodating, and relationship oriented, demonstrations may be considered essential to the development of a positive family life. Clearly, these opposing behaviour expectations may create tension within individuals as they make the transaction from one environment to another.

**Strain-Based Conflict:**

The third form of potential conflict between roles is strain-based conflict that is induced by emotional interference from one domain to the other. In particular, job conditions (such as work overload, poor interpersonal relations, job insecurity, lack of opportunity to exercise control and self-direction) can produce negative emotional consequences (reduce self-esteem, feelings of uncertainty, loss of a sense competence) that impinge upon interactions within the family. These negative emotional reactions within the work environment can lead to expressions of irritability towards family members or withdrawal from family interaction to recuperate (Burley, 1995; Menaghan 1991).

Hence, on the basis of above description it is clear that home-work interface is significant source of strain.

**2.4 Concept of Burnout:**

Staff members in human services and educational institutions are often required to spend considerable time in intense involvement with other people. Frequently, the staff-client interaction is centered
around the client's current problem (psychological, social or physical) and is therefore charged with feelings of anger, embarrassment, fear or despair. Because solutions for client’s problems are not always obvious and easily obtained, the situation becomes more ambiguous and frustrating. For the person who works continuously with people under such circumstances, the chronic stress, can be emotionally draining and can lead to "burnout" (Maslach and Jackson, 1986).

Over the past decades, the phenomenon of job burnout has been investigated in a variety of service occupations and settings. The construct has been linked to job stress and is thought to represent a unique response to frequent and intense client / staff interaction (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Maslach, 1982).

The term “burnout” was first coined and applied to human beings by Freudenberger (1974) to denote a state of physical and emotional depletion resulting from conditions of work. He tailored his original concept for human service profession. Since its “discovery” in the early 1970s burnout has been recognised as a serious threat particularly for human service professionals (Schaufeli, Maslach and Marek, 1993). The severe consequences of burnout for individuals and their organisations leads one to believe that this issue now warrants separate consideration from other forms of job related strain (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Hobfoll and Shirom, 1993; Maslach, 1993).

Definition:

One difficulty in studying burnout is the wide variety of definitions. Cordes and Dougherty (1993) summarized various conceptualization of the term including:-

- to fail, wear out, become exhausted;
- a loss of commitment for work;
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- a loss of creativity;
- an estrangement from client, co-workers, jobs and agency;
- a response to the chronic stress of making it to the top; and finally;
- a syndrome of inappropriate attitudes toward clients and toward self, often associated with uncomfortable physical and emotional symptoms. These definitions have common threads, but they also carry some differing connotations.

Burke and Richardson (1993) have provided a variable summary for four distinct definitions:

(A) Freudenberger and Richardson (1980), who describes burnout in terms of chronic fatigue, depression and frustration, typically engendered by commitment to understandings that did not realize the person's ambitions and expected rewards. Depression should be differentiated from burnout particularly it is a psychological condition that should be regarded as a potential outcome of burnout rather than as a part of the burnout syndrome itself.

(B) The second definition of burnout presented by Burke and Richardson (1993) is that of Cherniss (1980), who described it as a process of disengagement in response to job-related stressors.

(C) A third definition of burnout is that proposed by Pines and her colleagues (Pines and Aronson, 1988, Pine, Aronson and Kafrey, 1981), who describe it as "a state of physical, emotional and mental exhaustion caused by long term involvement in situations that are emotionally demanding." (Pines and Aronson, 1988).
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In the late 1970’s and early 1980’s systematic investigations of burnout led to a greater communality in definition. At that time Maslach (1982) and Maslach and Jackson (1981) conceptualized burnout as having three core components: Emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and lack of personal accomplishment. This three component conceptualization is the most widely accepted mode of burnout (O’Driscoll & Cooper, 1996). A key aspect of the burnout syndrome is increased feelings of emotional exhaustion; as emotional resources are depleted, workers feel they are no longer able to give of themselves at a psychological level.

Another aspect of burnout syndrome is the development of depersonalization that is, negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about one’s clients. The callous or even dehumanized perception of others can lead staff members to view their clients as somehow deserving of their troubles (Ryan, 1971).

A third aspect of the burnout syndrome, reduced personal accomplishment, refers to a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly with regard to one’s work with clients. Workers may feel unhappy about themselves and dissatisfied with their accomplishments on the job (Maslach and Jackson, 1986).

Burnout often starts as a feeling of fatigue, (mental or emotional) which lasts, leaving a person increasingly angry, hostile and depressed. Employees suffering from burnout become less energetic and less interested in their jobs. They tend to find fault with all aspects of their work environment, including co-workers and react negatively on the suggestions of others. The quality of their work deteriorates but not necessarily the quantity (Bellanfiore, 2001).
2.5 The Development of Burnout:

Along with the variety of definitions, several theories of the development of burnout build upon the three-dimensional model of burnout proposed by Maslach and her colleagues. Four major development models of burnout.

(a) Cherniss's Model of Burnout:

One of the earliest theories about how burnout develops was advanced in 1980 by Cherniss. His process model is illustrated in Figure 2.1 (adapted from Burke and Richardsen, 1993).

Fig. 2.1: Cherniss’s Process Model of Burnout.

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Cherniss suggested that aspects of the work environment and characteristics of the individual can both function as sources of strain, for example, by creating doubts in the person's mind about his or her competence, bureaucratic interference with task completion or goal achievement, and lack of collegial coworker relationships. Individuals endeavor to cope with these stressors in a variety of ways, which may entail negative changes, including reducing work goals, taking less responsibility for work outcomes, becoming less idealistic in one's approach to the job, and becoming detached from clients or the job itself. Cherniss's definition of the burnout phenomenon has been supported by number of studies.

(b) Golembiewski's Phase Model:

Golembiewski and his associates constructed a phase model of burnout that illustrates various stages in the development of this form of stress among individuals. This phase model is depicted in Table 2.1 which shows eight phases of burnout. A person may be categorized as high or low on each of the three dimensions of burnout and can then be assigned to one of the eight levels. Phase-I represents a low level of burnout in which the depersonalization and emotional exhaustion are barely present and the individual has a high sense of personal accomplishment on the job. Phases-II and III reflect first the appearance of depersonalization, then a reduction in feelings of personal accomplishment on the job. Phase-IV includes both these symptoms of burnout. Emotional exhaustion, on the other hand, does not appear until Phase-V but is present in all phases thereafter. The progression of burnout is strongly associated with development of emotional exhaustion. In essence, the phase model assumes that burnout becomes more virulent as the individual progresses through depersonalization to reduced personal accomplishment to emotional exhaustion and that individuals in
more advanced phases will experience more serious consequences than those in earlier phases (Golembiewski, Scherb and Boudreau, 1993).

Table 2.1

Golembiewski Phase Model of Burnout

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Depersonalization</th>
<th>Personal Accomplishment reversed</th>
<th>Emotional Exhaustion</th>
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<td>VIII</td>
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(c) Leiter and Maslach's Model of Burnout Development:

An alternative to Golembiewski conceptualization of burnout development is the perspective initially proposed by Leiter and Maslach (1988) and later modified by Leiter (1991, 1993). Leiter and Maslach argued, as did, Golembiewski, that emotional exhaustion is the critical component in the burnout process. However in contrast to Golembiewski, these authors contended that emotional exhaustion develops first in that process rather than as the final stage of burnout.
The original Leiter and Maslach (1988) model is displayed in Figure 2.2. They proposed that the stressors from jobs that have high interpersonal contact with clients or other individuals with significant problems lead to emotional exhaustion on the part of the human service worker. This emotional exhaustion then induces depersonalization as workers attempt to cope or deal with their feelings of exhaustion.

**Stressful Interpersonal Contact**

(With clients, coworkers, or supervisors)

Role Stressors $\rightarrow$ Emotional Exhaustion $\rightarrow$ Depersonalization $\rightarrow$ Reduced Personal Accomplishment

**Fig. 2.2** Leiter and Maslach's (1988) Model of Burnout process.

**Source:** From "Burnout as a Development Process: Consideration of Model" (pp. 241, 245), by M. Leiter, in professional burnout: Recent Developments in Theory and Research, by W. Schaufeli, C. Maslach, and T. Marek, (Eds.) 1993, Washington, DC: Taylor & Francis. Copyright 1993 by Taylor & Francis reprinted with permission.

Depersonalization is essentially a coping response that is called upon when other forms of coping (e.g. changing the demands from the job) have not succeeded in alleviating the amount of strain experienced. However, as depersonalization occurs, the individual begins to lose a sense of accomplishment on the job. Because of the very act of depersonalizing clients undermines his or her professional values and goals put another way, depersonalization mediates the relationship between emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment.
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(d) **Conservation of Resources Theory:**

Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; (Hobfoll & Shirom, 1993) have constructed a general perspective on stress that has particular relevance to burnout in work organizations. Their conservation of resources (CoR) theory postulates that individuals have access to four major categories of resources: objects (e.g., a house, a car), conditions (e.g., a steady job), personal characteristics (e.g., self-esteem), and various forms of energy (e.g., money, favor owed by other persons).

The basic tenet of CoR theory is that stress occurs when individuals are threatened with a loss of resources, actually lose those resources, or fail to regain resources after they have been invested. Hence, events such as the loss of one's job, impaired health, and breakdown in a personal relationship are serious forms of resource loss.

In essence, CoR theory proposes that burnout can occur when valued resources are lost, are inadequate to meet the demands confronted by the person, or do not generate expected returns on investment (Lee & Ashforth, 1996), producing a downward spiral in energy loss for the individual.

### 2.6 Symptoms of Job Burnout:

Burnout generally involves a reluctance to go to work, dissatisfaction with one's performance, growing fatigue and less response in social situations. Problems at home seem to become as serious as problems at work. This painful and debilitating malady soon convinces the sufferer that he or she has less worth, less skill and less intelligence than ever before. As the burden of distress becomes more intense, simple things such as loud noises, squabbles among children, or request by a boss causes inappropriate or overly
heightened emotional reactions. Feeling of weakness and inadequacy creates a strain within work and family relationships. Introspection becomes draining and self-destructive. The worker thinks, "I must be going crazy," as other begin to ask, "What's wrong?"

Job burnout, like all distress maladies, is progressively destructive. Spaniol and Caputo (1979), have viewed the symptoms in a progression equated to varying degrees of traumatic burn injury:

**First Degree:**

The signs and symptoms of burnout are occasional and short-lived. By providing distractions such as rest, relaxation, exercise, hobbies, or "time out," one can successfully return to a normal level of job satisfaction.

**Second Degree:**

Symptoms become more regular, last longer, and are more difficult to overcome. Normal attempts to rest and relax do not appear to be effective. After a night of sleep, the sufferer wakes up tired. Even after a weekend the victim is still tense and not ready to take on a full day's work without feeling tired. By the end of the week, the worker is exhausted and needs to dip deeply into his or her reserves to gain any new energy. A cynical attitude develops and is usually directed toward supervisors, supervisees and recipients of services or products. Mood changes are noticeable concern over effectiveness becomes a central and disturbing issue.

**Third Degree:**

At this level symptoms are continuous. Often, physical and psychological problems develop that are not quickly relieved with conventional medical or psychiatric attention self doubt about one's competence becomes pervasive. Depression and negative feelings
toward the self are rampant. With limited insight on the part of the sufferer regarding their causes. Social withdrawal from work and personal relationships becomes apparent. Serious consideration is given to finding another job or simply quitting the profession altogether. Family problems can intensify and lead to marital separations.

According to Calamiclas (1979), burnout symptoms become evident when employees begin to live only for weekends, vacations, and eventually retirement. Saying such as “Thank God it’s Friday” become symbolically commonplace in the early stages of burnout. Calamiclas (1979) identified the burnout symptoms. Some of them are described:

A. Physical Symptoms:

   Fatigue/Exhaustion:

   When burnout becomes a serious factor exhaustion occurs on a regular basis. Sleep disturbances especially insomnia, can be consequences as well as a cause of fatigue. Fatigue leads to real physical ailments as ulcers, migraine, headache or lower back pain.

   Tensesness of Muscles and Physical Ailments:

   In early stages of burnout neckache, lower back pain and tightness within the whole body are common complaints. Migraines, headaches, stomach problems, colitis, high blood pressure, or administrative tremor” (a shaking of the hand, voice or body) can result. Simply put the body is placed in a slow destructive sequence of organ burnout. Coronary heart disease represents serious cost at human and financial terms.

Accident Proneness:

Work units under high stress can be identified simply on the basis of accidents and health problems.
Physical Distance:
Due to job pressures, individuals begin to become more physically distant from others (less touching decreased eye contact).

High Blood Pressure:
Over the past years there has been an average increase in the diastolic blood pressure of the population, indicating perhaps an increased level of tension.

Use of Drugs:
Drugs and alcohol may provide transient relief from tension by depressing central nervous system temporarily. Attempting continued stress itself by increased amounts of alcohol or drugs present a real danger to those undergoing increased job pressure.

B. Intellectual Symptoms:

Impairment of Decision-Making Skills:
Decision either becomes unemotional and non-meaningful or so difficult to make that fear overwhelms each new decisions. An "I can't Win" attitudes begins to engulf the employee. Taking responsibility for even small decisions becomes difficult.

Deficiency in Processing Information:
A major characteristic of overload is the inability to focus on a single task without becoming distracted by other issues. An alertness diminishes, it is followed by a typical survival response, fight or flight. Frequently the flight response becomes evident in the form of obliviousness to fellow employees, a dazed appearance, or a look of pre-occupation. Fight responses such as easily provoked anger or unreasonable resentment can also be observed during overload conditions.
**Time Distress:**

As a job becomes more aversive, distress reaction may be the anxious anticipation of an opportunity to leave work at the earliest possible moment. The opposite reaction becoming overwhelmed with work and ignoring the time-is equally symptomatic of distress. When either occurs, the worker may miss deadlines by procrastination or work overload.

A Cycle Begins: reduced concentration and alertness contribute to time-related problems, while time becomes a major block to job completion.

**Obsessive Thinking About Work:**

An unrelenting flow of thought about work, which occurs not only on the job but continues at home during evenings and weekends, is usually symptomatic of over involvement. When an employee begins to find it difficult to relax because of a stream of thoughts and concerns about work, it is a danger signal of impending burnout.

**C. Social Symptoms:**

**Marriage to the Job:**

Burnout may soon occur when an employee begins to merge his or her personal life and work life. Spending many extra hours at work, taking home a large volume of work, becoming over involved with job related clubs or organizations, volunteering to take an extra task, inviting fellow employees to share their projects or problems in off hours, working through lunch, attending weekend work related conferences, are all examples of a marriage to a job. Such over involvement can eventually induce distress, the marriage of work and home eventually evolves into a situation most people find oppressive.
Social Withdrawal:

Information overload, emotional distress or physical debilitation may cause a person to flee from the barrage of stimulation. There is a compulsion to avoid contact in order to hide depression, anxiety or a sense of failure. The individual sometimes feels he or she is being rejected. Eventually, social isolation obviates any possible relief that might be offered by peers. At this point, second-or third-degree burnout is inevitable.

Complaints/Cynicism:

Distress can lead to the employees indulging in complaints and cynicism as means to release frustration. Attitude of lashing out at fellow workers, criticizing the work environment, and being cynical in social relationships are symptomatic of impending burnout. The use of offensive remarks is highly indicative of second or third degree burnout.

Decreased Effectiveness:

Workers efficiency can be substantially affected by low morale and job dissatisfaction. When a worker becomes this affected, dead lines are often apt to be missed, absenteeism increases, and drug or alcohol problems develop and job output decreases in quantity and quality.

Malicious Humor:

Laughing with others can be healthy release of tension. However, laughing at others is a demeaning way, may be a symptom of burnout. The chronic lack of humor and the ubiquitous presence of malicious humor are both evidence of burnout.
Relationship at Home:

If stress cannot be resolved at work, it is often more convenient to release it at home. A typical sequence finds a boss placing pressure upon a junior who in turn intimidates a fellow worker or his junior. The junior then extends the anger to his spouse, children, dog. When stress becomes overwhelming, it is not unusual for the ensuing frustration to be displaced upon someone innocent of involvement. A family member is frequently the target; it is easier to get angry at a spouse or child than at a boss or fellow worker. High stress occupations have historically been plagued with high rates of divorce, suicide, and family problems (Police, air traffic controllers and psychiatrists have a substantially higher incidence of these problems than the general public).

Aversive Associations and Social Isolation:

When an employees burnout reaches third degree level, certain job necessities become nearly intolerable. Avoidance behaviour such as telephobia are common. The fear of talking to or meeting with others may become obsessive. Such phobic response can lead to social withdrawal and eventually to complete isolation.

D. Psycho-Emotional Symptoms:

Denial or Blame:

A common response to major crisis or traumatic event is the denial of its existence. Frequently the immediate response to unpleasant news is disbelief. Defensive behaviour and blame are close relatives to denial. People faced with evidence of poor performance usually deny the fact, rationalize or blame others. By denying or rationalizing responsibility protects the individual from pain of further insult.

It has been found that professionals under stress have a tendency to blame clients for their problems. As pressure mounts, it
is tempting for the police to project blame onto clients/recipient
s ("underprivileged, uneducated") or their family members ("not
interested, disorganized, unwilling to cooperate"). As burnout
proceeds, initial defenses give way to the projection of blame. When
blaming others provides little relief, self-condemnation may result.

**Anger and Depression:**

As job pressure becomes intense, feeling of anger or
melancholy can turn into full blown episodes of depression. Anger
often precedes depression, depression as "anger turned inward." Both anger and depression can become destructive. Anger turned
outward is usually directed at those close to you (spouse, children,
friends at work), alienating them and creating a vicious circle of guilt
and greater stress. Anger turned inward in the form of depression
also alienates others and accelerates a similar destructive cycle.

**Paranoia:**

When a worker begins to question his or her own competence
trust of others likewise becomes problematic. Paranoid behaviour
results in poor worker relationship and leads to even greater distress
in employees.

**Dehumanization:**

For police, as well as for other helping professionals more
attention and research have been focused on the dehumanizing
effects of job burnout than on any other single factor.

Detachment is a natural response to over involvement. In order
to cope with the continuous stress that results from helping others,
professionals frequently reduce strain by successfully becoming
detached. What frequently happens under distress conditions is
almost total detachment from the client that can severely
dehumanize the relationship.
Maslach (1977) has divided the dehumanized detachment techniques into the following areas.

(a) **Semantics of Detachment:**
Terms are used to describe people more as objects and as less than human Derogatory labels (Punks, animals or pigs), abstract or generalized terms.

(b) **Intellectualization:**
A similar language technique reduces the situation to more intellectual and less personal terms. Abstract rather than human qualities are assigned to problem individuals.

(c) **Situational Compartmentalization:**
Many people prefer not to discuss their work. Many agencies have rules that client should not be seen socialized with, or discussed. Consequently, little talk about the job or social contact with clients is made.

(d) **Psychological Withdrawal:**
In order to stay objective and unemotional many police personnel suffering from burnout avoid even the most remote intimate interaction by keeping physical distance (avoiding eye contact, standing far away) talking in generalities and spending least possible amount of time with clients. Expending time on paper work on socializing only with fellow staff members also aids in psychological withdrawal.

(e) **Self Depreciation:**
Some individuals who experience work performance failure at first feel less confident, then helpless, and finally hopeless. A pervasive sense of incompetence and self blame begins to enter private thoughts, first intermittently and then regularly.
(f) **Rigid Attitudes and Stubborn Resistance to Change:**

When an individual is burned out, he/she becomes rigid and inflexible about procedures. Suggestions or new ideas will never work because "it costs too much," "we tried it once," or you'll never convince the board." These myopic perceptions keep conditions constant and conventional. The old approach is perceived to be safe because it means less work less stress.

Hence, occupational distress causes varying degrees of job burnout. There are many occupations where occupational distress is high viz. police and air traffic controllers, teachers, and doctors. But, because of lot of complexities in the police profession like odd and stressful conditions and hours of job, i.e. emergency, night duties, interactions with criminals and public, pressure of supervisors and politicians etc., make it highly frustrating as well as challenging.

### 2.7 Causes of Burnout:

The effects of burnout vary because of individual differences. All human beings are different physically, mentally, hereditarily, experientially, and educationally. Consequently their resistance to stress varies. Each individual has a tolerance level that is finite.

Burnout is caused by the individual's inability to deal effectively with stress. There are some causes of burnout, which are responsible for the concentration in work.

#### 2.7.1 Organizational/Environmental Causes are:

(i) Lack of occupational feedback and communication.
(ii) Work overload/underload.
(iii) Contact overload.
(iv) Role conflict/ambiguity.
(v) Individual factors.
(vi) Training deficiencies.
Lack of Occupational Feedback and Communication:

Occupational feedback is defined as the flow of job-relevant information from one employee to another. At the work place it is natural to expect guidance and feedback from supervisors and fellow workers. Even negative feedback provides recognition of one's existence within the organization. Regular feedback, like the sun, provides light in order to guide the worker toward the type of performance that is satisfying to the self as well as to recipients of the service. Also, like the rays of the sun, feedback must be nourishing or individuals will not grow and become optimally productive. In addition to the worker's need to receive feedback is the supervisor's need for the time and ability to provide it. If a superior is overwhelmed with work and large numbers of people to supervise, he/she will never have the opportunity to provide guidance. Lack of clear, consistent information can result in distress. If evaluations only happen once or twice a year without regular periodic feedback, the possibility of stress increases, and the longer the employee works in a vacuum. The withholding of information from the worker creates dislike and distrust, as well as a lack of confidence in superiors and the organizations.

Communication:

The workplace is frequently a social system in itself, characterized by the nature of its interpersonal relationships. A work environment can provide an opportunity for social support and friendship beyond the sphere of work. But the lack of communication and contact can induce social withdrawal. Individuals who express job dissatisfaction indicate that they are not able to communicate openly with supervisors, fellow employees and their clients. Argyris (1971), he found that poor interpersonal relationship could cause significant distress among workers. Lack of trust, lack of
cooperation, lack support are all considered significant causes of job burnout.

**Work Overload or Underload:**

Researchers have found high levels of stress among individuals who have had excessive workloads. Long or unpredictable hours, too many responsibilities, work at a too rapid pace, too many phone calls, dealing directly with difficult clients without sufficient relief, dealing with constant crises, and supervising too many people or having broad multifaceted job descriptions are characteristics of work overload in police, teachers, doctors and managers profession.

Work overload or underload can be divided on to three categories.

1. **Psychological:**
   Frustration caused by the worker’s inability to cope with job ambiguity or interactions with people at work.

2. **Physical:**
   Distress caused by too much or too little physical exercise on the job; work conditions such as crowded offices, monotonous jobs, or fluctuation from crisis to boredom (police, firemen, doctors).

3. **Social:**
   Social pressure placed upon workers (peer pressure, community, fellow workers, or social expectations).

The most common complaint among police professionals is work overload. Particularly those who reported greater work overload were found to have higher levels of job-related tension. Obviously, if a worker is bombarded by the frustration and demands of supervisor and recipients of services rendered (psychological), works in a small, dark, cold office (Physical), or is ostracized by fellow workers (social), the chances of burnout increases significantly.
French and Caplan (1973), have differentiated work overload in terms of quantitative and qualitative characteristics. Quantitative overload refers to having "just too much to do" while qualitative overload refers to "very difficult work." Their research indicates that in combination, quantitative and qualitative work overload produce nine different stress symptoms: psychological and physical strain, job dissatisfaction, job tension, lower self-esteem. Psychological threat, embarrassment, high cholesterol levels, increased heart rate, and more smoking.

**Contact Overload:**

Contact overload results from the necessity for frequent encounters with other people in order to carry out job functions. Some occupations (low enforcement, teaching, counseling) require many encounters that are unpleasant and therefore distressful. These workers frequently professional-spend a large proportion of their work time interacting with people.

Emotional pressure of working closely with difficult and needy people is a continual stressor. Helping professionals wear away gradually under the never-ending onslaught of distress. As the number of supervisors, the amount of distress increases geometrically rather than linearly. In helping professions as caseloads become high, burnout increases.

**Role Conflict/Ambiguity:**

Role conflict and role ambiguity may occur independently of one another, they both refer to the uncertainty about what one is expected to be at work. Role conflict deals with the expectations of people involved with work, while role ambiguity deals with the nature and degree of those expectations. Both produce distress and lower
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job satisfaction; McGrath (1970) found that the result of role conflict include low job confidence in the organization, morale problems, and high degree of tension. The most frequent response role conflict is withdrawal and no resolution of problem. Role conflict to be the stress variable is most highly correlated with irritation, a measure of psychological stress. It was the only stressor to correlate significantly with somatic complaints.

There was a highly significant relationship between role conflict and abnormal electrocardiograph readings for white-collar workers. As workers move from blue collar to white collar jobs (clerical, managerial or professional) there is a increased occupational stress caused by role conflict.

However, role ambiguity may be defined as a lack of clarity about the job, that is discrepancy between information available to the employee and that which is required for successful job performance.

2.7.2 Non-Organizational Causes:

Individual Factors:

Obviously everyone entering the world of work does not arrive with the same intellectual, physical, psychological and socioeconomic background. The problems and other individual factors do affect tolerance and reaction to stress. The interaction between private life (family, finances) and work life is a topic upon which research data is lacking. The mutual interaction and accumulation of both personal and occupational stressors can certainly contribute of job burnout. A worker burned by the death of a parent, an impending divorce or concern about difficulties at work is a strong candidate for job burnout.
Training Deficits:

Several different areas of job training are necessary to prevent occupational distress. The most obvious areas is adequate initial preparation. Training and competencies are necessary to bolster confidence, as well as to allow the worker to get through each day without unnecessary dependence upon others or upon reference materials. On-the-job training is also necessary as technology advances. New professionals are most susceptible to some form of distress. There seem to be two major training deficits that affect new public professionals. First, with the possible exception of mental health workers, public professionals do not study the helping process. A professional’s role involves working with individuals or groups in a helping relationship. A second aspect of role performance that is often neglected is how to negotiate one’s way through bureaucracy. New professionals are often ill prepared in understanding the helping process and maneuvering with the public organisation. Until skill is mastered in these areas, distress can be severe.

Secondly, training in communication skills is necessary in order to facilitate the ability of the employee to relate successfully with supervisors, fellow workers and recipients of services or products. More frequently, jobs are lost because of poor communication than because of any other factor.

2.8 Concept of Anger:

In the psychological and psychiatric literature, anger, hostility and aggression generally refer to different though related phenomena but these terms are often used interchangeably (Berkowitz, 1962; BUSS, 1961). On the basis of a careful examination of the research literature on anger, hostility and aggression, Spielberger, Jacobs,
Russell and Crane (1983) proposed the definition of anger, hostility and aggression. "The concept of anger usually refers to an emotional state that consists of feelings that vary in intensity from mild irritation or annoyance to fury and rage. It is an acute emotional reaction elicited by any of a number of stimulating situations including threat, restraint, verbal attack, disappointment characterized by strong responses in the autonomic nervous system." Buss (1961) described hostility as an attitude involving implicit evaluative verbal response, Plutchik (1980) viewed hostility as a mixture of anger and disgust, associating it with indignation, contempt and resentment.

In a theoretical examination of the concept, Saul (1976) defined hostility as "a motivating force-conscious or unconscious impulse, tendency, intent, or reaction-aimed at injuring or destroying some object... hostility is usually accompanied by the feeling or emotion of anger. In this view hostility has an element of all destructiveness." While anger and hostility refer to feelings and attitudes, the concept of aggression generally implies destructive or punitive behaviour directed towards other persons or objects. Whereas "Hostile aggression" refers to behaviour motivated by anger, "Instrumental aggression" refers to aggressive behaviour directed towards removing or circumventing an obstacle that stands between aggressor and the goal, where such behaviour is not motivated by angry feelings. Aggression should be seen as a "situation-specific" motivator, not as a "homeostatic" one (Lagerspetz, 1984). This reflects that aggression predicts different manifestations of weak self-control under certain conditions and if these conditions are altered, the relationship no longer holds.
2.9 Determinants of Aggression:

(a) Genetic Determinants:

According to Darwin (1965) all the individuals of the same species are not cast in the very same mould. McClean (1969) concluded that individual differences in aggressiveness within a number of species are influenced by genetic factors. Researchers are yet to explore the mechanisms through which the genes may influence behaviour.

(b) Environmental Determinants:

Aggression has long been known to be provoked by social and physical environmental factors. Berkowitz (1974), has shown that frustration is one of the many factors that give rise to aggression. His experiments have led to the revision of frustration aggression hypothesis propounded by Dollard and Miller (1950) which held that frustration always led to aggression and aggression was always caused by frustration. Laboratory experiments on man have repeatedly shown that physical and verbal provocations elicit aggressive behaviour (Green, 1968).

2.10 Theories of Aggression:

Instinct Theory of Aggression:

According to this theory aggression is a basic constituent of human mind. Sigmund Freud is the main architect of this theory and subsequently he was followed by another proponent of the view, Konrad Lorenz, an Austrian researcher in animal behaviour. Freud's (1922) proposition, based on speculative and clinical basis, states that all human behaviour arise out of a complex interaction between the basic instincts : an object seeking one, the eros, striving for higher unity and pleasure, and the other, the self-destructive quality of mind, the "death instinct" which can be directed towards the
outside world and became a "destructive instinct" the generator of aggression. Eros or the life instinct aims to preserve the organism and the species thereby to bring about greater unities. The destructive instinct (Death instinct or Thanatos) is at work in creatures and strives to bring about a ruin and reduce life to its original state of inanimate object.

According to Lorenz (1966) innate fighting instinct is the source of aggressive energy and this energy is regularly generated at a fixed rate and accumulated only to be discharged as aggressive behaviour in response to aggressive stimuli.

**Drive Theory of Aggression:**

This theory proposes that aggressive energy arises mainly from an externally elicited drive to inflict harm on others (Berkowitz, 1968). Dollard et al. (1950) propounded that frustration is the essential condition for aggression. When a goal directed behaviour is blocked, frustration appears and this in turn arouses a drive-the aggressive drive, whose goal is to act aggressively. The great significance of this theory is that aggressiveness can be controlled by identifying and removing external conditions which elicit aggressive drives.

**Social Learning Theory:**

This theory puts forward that aggression is a social form of behaviour (aggressive response) acquired through experiences in life. In other words the aggressive behaviour is learned, and learned through social reward system (Bandura, 1973; Baron, 1977).

Apparently it may appear very optimistic since a response or behaviour which is learned can be unlearned also. But in fact to alter a behaviour is rather a difficult task.
2.11 Nature of Anger Expression:

Since the writings of the stoic philosophers of the classical period, anger has been understood to be strongly determined by personal interpretation of events.

Anger is a negatively toned emotion, subjectively experienced as an aroused state of antagonism toward something or someone, perceived to be the source of an aversive event. It is triggered or provoked situationally by events that are perceived to constitute deliberate harm doing by an instigator toward oneself or toward those to whom one is endeared. Provocations usually take the form of insults, unfair treatments, or intended thwarting. Anger is prototypically experienced as a justified response to some “Wrong” that has been done.

According to Lazarus (1961), the reaction of anger suggests that the person is threatened or frustrated in some way. The anger refers to an impulse to attack the real or imagined threatening agent. It consists of an affect (or feeling) known as “anger”, the motor expression of the impulse is to attack (e.g. the clenched fist, tensed muscles, aggressive posture, etc.) and the stirred-up physiological changes associated with the emotion of the anger.

The more threatened or frustrated the person is, the more intense is the anger; presumably. If there are no bases for inhibition of the expression of anger, then the anger will probably occur in association with attack behaviour against whom so ever the person takes to be the threatening agent. Lazarus (1961), is of the view that when action tendency of attack is aroused as a means of coping with the threat, the person can often anticipate harmful consequences of this action, there may be social constraints against such behaviour.
and hence danger in attack. These social constraints and internal values concerning anger often result in the inhibition of the expression of anger, even through the impulse to attack is aroused and the emotion of anger is experienced.

Many authors describe anger as a primary emotion arising when an organism is blocked in the attainment of a goal or in the fulfillment of need (Izard, 1977). In higher organisms, anger is most likely to occur in the context of meaningful relationships and to have communicational significance (Rothenberg, 1971).

In the study by NOVACO (1977), anger is view as an emotional response to provocation i.e., determined by three modalities of person variables: cognitive, somatic, affective and behavioural. At the cognitive level anger is a function of appraisals attributions, expectations and self-statements that occur in the context of provocation. In the somatic-affective modality, anger is primed and exacerbated by tension, agitation and ill-humour. Behaviourally, both withdrawal and antagonism contribute to anger, the former by leaving the instigation unchanged. The latter by escalating the provocation sequence and by providing cues from which the person infers anger. Although anger clearly has diverse functions, many of which are adaptive (NOVACO, 1975), chronic anger and proneness to provocation can become a serious impairment.

Danesh (1977), is of view that anger is an innate "defensive mechanism" as an individual is continuously exposed to threats (objective/subjective) in life. This mechanism consists of three stages. the first component is the alert signal that informs the individual of the presence or the possibility of threat; the second is a condition of anxiety that mobilises one's needed defensive energy; and the third stage involves a desire to attack and there by eliminate the source of threat.
Ohbuchi and Ogura (1984), showed that anger is often directed towards persons the subject knows well and is instigated mainly by frustration or an affront to one’s honour perceived as unfair. The results of another study (Rothenberg, 1971) indicates that the frequency of motives for anger increased with age. On the basis of his study Feshback (1984), proposes that the process of catharsis should be restricted to the expressions and reduction of aggressive affect or anger and that catharsis through direct or vicarious affective expression is more likely to be demonstrated with inhibited or blocked affective states than with persistent or unresolved affective states.

Martin (1986), in his study “anger as an inner transformation,” contents that within the archetypal complex of anger are two psychological experiences. One is rage, an instinctive reactions that happens automatically and unconsciously, typically in response to perceived threat. The other is anger, a conscious feeling that includes a sense of judgement, choice and differentiation i.e. the inward turning movement. The Greek Gods, Ares and Haphaestus represent two major poles of this archetype continuum.

Spielberger, Jacobs, Russel and Crane (1983) have defined anger as a personality trait (T-anger) in terms of individual difference among people in the disposition to perceive a wide range of situation as annoying or frustrating, and in the tendency to respond to such situations. With more frequent elevations in state anger. Thus anger has been conceptualized as having two major components – trait anger (T-anger) and state-anger (s-anger).

Individuals high in trait anger experience state anger more often and with greater intensity than individuals low in T-anger. They are expected to perceive a wider range of situations as anger
provoking than individuals low in T-anger. State anger (s-anger) has been defined as an emotional state condition marked by subjective feelings that vary in intensity from mild irritation or annoyance to intense fury and rage. State anger is generally accompanied by muscular tension and arousal of the autonomic nervous system.

It is further assumed that s-anger can vary in intensity and fluctuate over time as a function of the amount of frustration or annoyance. That is to say over time, the intensity of state anger varies as a function of perceived injustice, attack or unfair treatment by other, and frustration resulting from barriers to goal-directed behaviour (Spielberger 1988). Classifying the concept of “anger expression” Averill (1982) and Tavris (1982) have classified individuals as “anger in” if they hold in or suppress their feelings of anger and when they express anger towards other persons or environment than they were classified as “anger out.”

Spielberger (1988) conceptualized anger expression as having three major components. The first component involves the expression of anger toward other people or objects in the environment (anger-out). The second component of anger expression is anger directed inward (anger-in), individual differences in the extent to which a person attempts to control the expression of anger, (anger-control) constitutes the third component of anger expression.

In research on anger expression (Averill, 1982: Funkenstein, King & Drolettle, 1954; Tavris, 1982) state that individuals are typically classified as “anger in” if they tend to suppress their anger or direct it inward toward the ego or self. The psychoanalytic concept of anger turned inward toward the ego or self (Alexander, 1939) implies as more complex process. This process results in feeling of guilt and depression (Alexander & French, 1948). But the thoughts
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and memories relating to the anger-provoking situation, and even the feelings of anger themselves, may be repressed and thus not directly experienced. The individuals may be further classified as "anger out" if they express anger toward other persons or objects in the environment. Anger directed outward may be expressed in physical acts such as assaulting other individuals, destroying objects, and slamming doors, or in the form of criticism, insult, verbal threats or the extreme use of profanity. Moreover, both physical and verbal manifestations of anger may be expressed directly towards the source of provocation or frustration or indirectly toward individuals or objects closely associated with the source and thus symbolic of, the provoking agent "anger out" generally involves both the experience of state anger and manifestation of aggressive behaviour.

The emotion of anger must be sharply distinguished from aggression which is a behaviour intended to cause psychological or physical harm to someone or to a surrogate target. Aggressive behaviour may be verbal or physical, direct or indirect. Anger is a significant activator of aggression and has a naturally influenced relationship with it, but anger is neither necessary nor sufficient for aggression to occur. Anger is inherently a disposition to respond aggressively, but aggression is not an automatic consequence of anger. Although, the experience of anger creates a readiness to respond with aggression, that disposition may be otherwise directed, suppressed, or reconstituted.

Anger is an emotional complement of the organismic preparation for attack, which so entails the orchestration for attack, which also entails the orchestration, of signals of attack, readiness so as toward off opponents or to coerce compliance. The arousal of anger is marked by physiological activation in cardiovascular,
endocrine, and limbic systems, as well as other autonomic and central nervous system areas, and by tension in the skeletal musculature. Autonomic arousal has been identified as a concomitant of anger. Systematic study of this area began with Cannon (1929), who described, the adrenaline - mediated "fight/flight" response involving blood pressure (B.P.) and the heart rate (H.R.) increases, skeletal muscle vasodilatation, visceral vasoconstriction, and bio-chemical changes associated with energy mobilization. Since the time of cannon, the physiological parameters of anger (and fear) have been investigated in a handful of influential studies.

Schwartz, Weinberger, and Singer (1981), used emotive imagery to investigate the cardiovascular correlates of various emotions, including anger. Their results replicated the earlier studies: Anger produced a marked diastolic BP increase, with indirect evidence for high peripheral resistance along with activated baro-receptor firing.

2.12 Concept of Coping:

When an individual and an organisation experience stress, they adopt some ways of dealing. Individuals and organization can not remain in a continuous state of tension. Even if a deliberate and conscious strategy is not taken to deal with the stress, some strategy is adopted. This strategy to deal with stress is known as coping. The term coping has been used to denote the way of dealing with stress or effort to "master" conditions of harm, threat or challenge when a routine or automatic response is not readily available (Lazarus, 1974).
Definitions:
Various definitions of coping have been proposed, including coping as a psychoanalytic process; as a personal trait, style or disposition; as a description of situationally specific strategies; and as a process. Coping has been defined in terms of a relatively stable trait or some enduring behaviour or characteristic of the person (Stone, Greenberg, Kennedy, Moore and Newman, 1991). Several definitions of coping exist (Lazarus, 1986; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Since people engage in coping in an effort to neutralize or reduce stress, coping activities are geared toward decreasing the person’s appraisal of concern for discrepancy. Thus, coping is the process by which people try to manage the perceived discrepancy between the demands and resources they appraise in a stressful situation.

The word “manage” indicates the coping efforts can be quite varied and do not necessarily lead to a solution of a problem. Although coping is an effort for correcting or mastering the problem, it may also help people to alter their perception of a discrepancy, and enable them to tolerate or accept the harm or threat or escape or avoid the situation (Lazarus and Folkman; 1984b; Moos and Schafer, 1986).

Individuals cope with stress through their cognitive and behavioural transaction with the environment. Suppose a patient is overweight and smokes cigarettes, and his physician asked him to lose weight and stop smoking because several factors place him at very high risk for developing heart disease, the threat is that he may become disabled or die. Although the situation is stressful, but he doesn’t think that he can change his behaviour. Different people will find different means to cope with this kind of situation. Some people
cope by seeking information about ways to improve their ability to change. Other people would simply find another doctor who is not so directive. Others would attribute their health to fate or the will of God, and leave the problem “in His hands.” People use many different methods to try to manage the appraise discrepancy between the demands of the situation and their resources.

Transaction implies a dynamic interaction between the person and the environment, where by the individual imposes a particular appraisal on the environment, while the environment is also influential in shaping that appraisal (Dewe and Guest, 1990). It also highlights the fact that an effort initiated in relation to a particular encounter will effect subsequent appraisals of the demand and hence further coping efforts.

Using a transactional perspective, one can define coping as “cognitive and behavioural efforts to master, reduce or tolerate the internal or external demands that are created by the stressful transaction” (Folkman, 1984, p. 843). Coping efforts can be conceptually distinguished from the results (success or failure) of these efforts. The three key features of this definition are (a) the emphasis it places on the process in contrast to the more interactional (cause-effect) nature of traditional approaches (Cox, 1987; Edwards, 1988), (b) the positioning of coping in the relationship between the person and the environment (Folkman, 1982), and (c) the link it provides with other components of the stress process central to this way, coping is offered as a conceptually distinct variable, capable of assessing independently of stressors and resultant strains (Folkman, 1982).
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As a result of ongoing transactions with the environment, individuals are confronted with demands that impinge on their cognitive processes and activate a requirement to cope or adapt. The unit of analysis that captures the transactional nature of stress is appraisal, of which there are two kinds (Lazarus, 1991). The first is primary appraisal—where individuals give meaning and significance to the situation and evaluate what is at stake for them and whether the situation (or events within it) pose a potential or actual threat to their well-being. Secondary appraisal, refers to the perceived availability of coping resources for dealing with a stressful encounter. At this stage, coping options are evaluated in terms of available social, personal, economic, and organizational resources and the level of control that individuals perceive they have over the situation.

Coping behaviour are initiated as a consequence of primary and secondary appraisal. These processes are interdependent, influencing each other and shaping the nature of any encounter (Folkman, 1984). Identifying them as the processes that link the individual to the environment shifts the focus toward developing and understanding of what people actually think and do in a stressful encounter (Holdroyd and Lazarus, 1992).

2.13 Functions of Coping:

Coping has two major functions, the regulations of emotions or distress (emotion focused coping), and the management of the problem—that is causing the distress (problem focused coping). These two functions of coping have been recognized by numerous investigators (e.g. Kahn, et al. 1964, Mechanic, 1962).

Emotion-focused coping for example can be used to alter the meaning of a situation and thereby enhance the individuals sense of control over his or her distress (Averill, 1973).
Problem focused coping and emotion focused coping differ in the facts of a stressful encounter they are used to gain control over. Problem focused coping is aimed at reducing the demands of the stressful situation or expanding the resources to deal with it. Everyday life provides many examples of problem focused coping, including quitting a stressful job, negotiating an extension for paying some bills, devising a new schedule for studying (and sticking to it), choosing a different career to pursue, seeking medical or psychological treatment, and learning a new skill. Problem-focused coping is used when people believe their resources or the demands of the situation are changeable (Lazarus and Folkman 1984b). The problem-focused strategies, which are qualitatively different from emotion focused strategies, can be directed at the environment as well as at one self. Theoretically the effectiveness of problem-focused efforts depends largely on the success of emotion-focused efforts. Otherwise high-tented emotions will interfere with the cognitive activity necessary for problem-focused coping (e.g. Easterbrook; 1959, Kahn et al 1964).

In literature, generally two different styles of coping with stress are distinguished the “avoider” as opposed to the “coper”. The avoider solves his/her stress problems simply by denying them, while the coper seeks out stress situations in order to learn how to cope with them. People use not just approach/avoidence behaviour or defensive processes to cope with the complex demands and constraints of a given stressful encounter, but a wide range of cognitive and behavioural strategies that have both problem solving/emotion regulating function (e.g. Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Scheffler, Delongis and Gruen, 1986; Vitaliano, Russo, Carr, Maiurno and Becker 1985; Folkman and Lazarus 1985, 1988).
2.14 Coping with Work Stress:

There are three types of studies on turning attention to work settings as follows:

(1) Those attempting to identify and categorise the coping activities people actually used in work settings.

(2) Those which additionally evaluate the degree to which coping reduces the association between stressors, strains or distress, and

(3) Studies of perspective strategies focused on helping workers manage or control the experience of stress and maintain good health (i.e. stress management).

Burke (1971) and Burke and Belcourt (1974), identified and categorized behaviours used by managerial workers to cope with work tensions. The latter study found that 65 percent of all reported coping behaviours could be grouped into five categories: talking to others, working harder and longer, changing to a non-work or leisure activity, adopting a problem-solving approach, and physically withdrawing from the stressful situation.

Pearlin and Schooler (1978), identified 17 coping responses through scheduled interviews with 2300 house-holds representative of urban Chicago Illinois. Coping responses reported to be used were grouped into three categories.

1. Responses that changed the source of stress
2. Responses that changed the meaning or perception of the stressors or
3. Responses that controlled or managed the feelings of discomfort produced by stressors, further suggest that coping in occupational settings .... may be best accomplished through worker collectivities because individual workers alone cannot alter the social structure of work.
The effects of adaptive and maladaptive coping responses on felt distress and job satisfaction among managers were observed by Parasuraman and Cleek (1984). Both adaptive and maladaptive coping were inversely associated with organizational tenure. The authors conclude that a more significant reduction in felt stress and job dissatisfaction would result if workers learned to avoid maladaptive behaviour in coping with work stressors.

Howard, Rechnitzer and Cunningham (1975) created the following rank ordered list of the most effective coping behaviours:

1. Change to an engrossing, non work activity,
2. Build better resistance through regular sleep and good health habits
3. Compartmentalize work and non work life
4. Talk with coworkers and
5. Engage in physical exercise.

Dewe, Guest and Williams (1979) concluded that if workers do not (or cannot) attribute feelings of distress to specific stressors, they would employ emotion-focused coping strategies.

Hence, the occupational stressors that are impervious towards the source of stress at work may actually increase symptoms of stress. The length of time in an organization (or experience with stressors assessed crudely by age) is not associated with the use of more (or less) efficient coping behaviour. The resistance of occupation to individual coping may result from the impersonal nature of work stress and lack of individual control over the way work is organized, and the efficient strategies for reducing the experience of work stress are preventive, health promotion type. These activities are those which increase the distance between the worker and the problem.
2.15 Coping Strategies:

Under coping strategies there are many stress management interventions, which help individuals to reduce his stress. These interventions occur in three sections:

1. Primary intervention
2. Secondary intervention
3. Tertiary intervention

**Primary Interventions** are based on the assumption that they are most effective or at least reduce the sources of strains (i.e. stressors) in the work environment. Hence alleviating the pressures placed upon individual employees. This type of intervention is the most proactive and preventive approach to stress management and has been reported as generally being effective when implemented systematically and as a result of a careful assessment of specific stressors (Burke, 1993; Ivancevich and Mattenson 1987; Murphy, 1988). The focus of the primary interventions is on modifying or adapting to the physical or social political environment to meet the needs of workers.

**Secondary Intervention** focus on stress management training to alleviate the impact that environmental stressors exert on workers, rather than making changes to work conditions or the organizational environment. Secondary interventions represent the most common form of intervention used by organizations to deal with problems of stress management (Dewe 1994). They are targeted at individual rather than organizational changes and they aim primarily to increase individual's awareness of their levels of strain and to enhance their personal coping strategies e.g. techniques employed under this include meditation, relaxation training, biofeedback, cognitive restructuring, time management and conflict resolution strategies.
Secondary interventions essentially reflect "damage limitation," often addressing the outcomes rather than the sources of strain that may be inherent in an organization's structure, culture, or climate. e.g., the aim of training workers to cope more effectively means that often stress management training is not designed to eliminate or modify stressors in the workplace (Ganster, 1995). The effectiveness of such training depends upon whether any change in individual coping strategies will be adequate to reduce the amount of strain the individual actually experiences, either short or long term. When stressors are systemic or structural (such as continuing excessive workload), individual coping behaviours may be insufficient, and job redesign or role restructuring may be required to alleviate the strain experienced and to prevent the development of burnout.

**Tertiary Intervention:**

This level of stress management intervention is concerned with the rehabilitation of individuals who have suffered ill health or reduced well being as a result of strain in the workplace. Interventions at this level are based on a "treatment" rather than a preventative philosophy and are best illustrated by employee assistance programs (EAPs), which typically encompass some form of counseling to help employees deal with workplace stressors.

The financial benefits (to the organization) of EAPs have been scrutinized; there is still little agreement on how best to evaluate this type of intervention (Dewe, 1994; Murphy, 1984). EAP schemes are frequently gathered by the consultants or managed care companies that are responsible for the implementation of the program; hence these data may not be impartial (Smith and Mahoney, 1989). Finally, these interventions are more effective for reducing the individual stress or strain. But besides these interventions there are some more other stress management interventions.
(i) Cognitive Interventions:

Constructive Self-Talk:

This technique is a cognitive therapy, which deals with the individual's negative thoughts. Quick and Quick (1984) describe a technique which they call ‘constructive self talk’ and report that it helped individuals to cognitively reappraise stressful situations. In a given situation an individual may have a ‘typical mental monologue’ or ‘negative self-talk’, which is not constructive and does not help the person to deal with the problem. The counselor or trainer first encourages the client to recognize the negative self talk. Once it is identified, it is written down, sentence by sentence. Then opposite each sentence a constructive self-talk alternative is developed. However, with much practice, the client will eventually be able to under take this exercise by himself/herself without the need to resort to writing the thoughts down.

Constructive self talk is not just positive thinking, but a form of guided self-dialogue (Meichenbaum, 1985). It encourages the client to become more active in her own problem solving and enhances cognitive self control.

Cognitive Focusing:

Cognitive focusing is adapted from an intervention developed by a person-centered therapist (Gendlin 1981). The technique is used to help clients to identify the underlying cause of their personal unhappiness (McMullin, 1986) and, in addition, it can have a desensitizing effect. The counselor asks the client to make himself comfortable, and then to relax. The client is then asked to passively observe any spontaneous thoughts, images and feelings. If and when a specific feelings arises that the client becomes absorbed with, he /she is then asked if she / he can discover something new from the
emotions, images and sensations. By using this technique, the client's irrational or core beliefs may shift and subsequently lessen her / his emotional disturbance. Cognitive focusing sometimes allows new ideas and issues to surface, which are then discussed in counseling.

(ii) **Behavioural Intervention:**

**Time Management:**

Clients who are suffering from occupational stress may lack time management skills. They may appear to have many demands made upon them and feel overwhelmed, but after careful analysis they may be letting others interfere with their work schedule (Palmer, 1990). This may be related to non-assertive behaviour:

Time management technique is a self-management technique. This technique enable individual / client that how to use or spend his / her time. There are only 24 hrs. in a client's day just the same as everybody else. So how do they end up frustrated, angry, behind in their work and dead on their feet? If the individual always runs short of time may be it is because he does not know how to use 24 hrs. If they are using their time wisely is a problem they probably do not have a very good idea of where it all goes. For this problem time management helps the individual to manage his time according to weekly schedule, by using monthly calendar. At the beginning of each quarter, spend an hour with calendar to enter all important dates.

**Environmental Change:**

This intervention is probably the one most applied by clients without input from their counselors and involves clients making a change in their environment e.g, if the housing conditions of clients
where they live are bad, their general life conditions may be improved by moving to another area. Another common example is changing employment if the person believes he cannot tolerate certain work colleagues. Unfortunately, this change may help the individual to avoid facing up to people and using skills such as assertion. Only by his behavioural changes, he can change his environmental conditions. That's why this intervention is a behavioural intervention.

(iii) Sensory Intervention:

Transcendental Meditation:

This technique involves the trainer giving the mediator a secret sound or mantra. This is chosen by the trainer to suit the individual. The mediator is supposed to repeat the mantra in his mind, over and over again while seated in a comfortable position. This technique helps to control distracting thoughts. The mediator takes a passive attitude and if thoughts return he goes back to the mantra. Meditator repeats this exercise twice a day for 10 to 20 minutes per session.

Meditation is not a form of sleep; it seems to cause a drop in oxygen consumption, decreased carbon dioxide domination, reduces breathing rate and alters the output of alpha-waves. There is also a decrease in blood locate, a substance that can lead to anxiety attacks if injected into clients suffering from an anxiety disorder (Benson, 1976). Meditation also appears to aid the reduction of blood pressure.

Benson westernized meditation and replaced the mantra with the number 'one'. In other words this is also called a relaxation response technique which found to be just as effective as meditation;
it also produces the same physiologic results regardless of the mental device used. This technique is a modified version of meditation.

(iv) Stress Management:

It is important to know how our body and psyche function and which situation triggers our stress response. This understanding can be used to raise and lower our level of personal power. Although one may not like the difficult situations, though one can handle them. Such feelings enable us to rise to the occasion and to handle difficulties skillfully rather than avoid problem situation. Stress is a fever of burnout. One must bring the fever down to health. But reducing stress will not eliminate the underlying cause of burnout which is the feeling of powerlessness.

(i) How Burnout is Stressful:

(a) Loss of Control-Threat:

One of the most serious threats we can encounter is uncontrollability. Striving to control the world around us is a survival drive. When a person feels a loss of control he/she feels threatened and this triggers the ‘fight-flight’ response.

(b) Fight-Flight:

When confronted with threat, a body mobilizes to either fight the threat or flee from it. Muscles tense, blood rushes, breathing quickens. But when one neither fights nor flees but remains in the powerless situation, the result is chronic stress.

(c) Chronic Stress:

It is this unrelenting chronic stress that causes many of the symptoms of burnout, such as exhaustion, health problems, irritability, intellectual impairment and emotional outburst. This is why stress must be treated. In controlling stress, the first step is to
identify the situation that give rise to stress in a person and then gather information on how one responds to them. Thus, keeping in view one’s response habits, one can develop a plan for change.

(ii) Stress Reduction Technique:

There are several ways for a person to reduce his / her level of stress. They include learning how to breath, recognizing tension, exercises to systematically relax muscles, and using our imagination.

(a) Breathing Correctly:

It seems crazy to explain the correct way to breath because we tend to think it is something we do naturally. Yet, many people breath shallowly and too much air remains in their lungs.

(b) Slow Deep Breathing Automatically Relaxes:

Even a few minutes of deep breathing will produce a noticeable change in tension level. Deep breathing can be used any time and at any place. Several deep breaths just before a difficult task is calming and increases feeling of control.

(c) How to Breath:

During inhalation the diaphragm contracts and descends. This increases the lungs capacity. During exhalation the diaphragm relaxes and move upward, forcing air out. In other words, when we breathe in, our abdomen should go out. When we breath out the abdomen should go in.

(d) Identifying Tension Level:

Learning to relax in difficult situations increases personal power: We can keep tension within the optimal range during crises and have all our resources to draw upon. We can be confident that we can stay cool while allowing our body to rest and repair as we prepare for optimal functioning.
(e) **Identifying Tension Level from Moment to Moment is the First Step:**

Most people do not accurately read their tension levels and are not aware of how inaccurate they can be. When one first becomes tense, it feels uncomfortable but the discomfort fades away rapidly, making it easy to misread tension level and miss a vital warning signal.

(f) **Systematically Relaxing Muscles:**

Starting with our head and face and slowly moving down our body, tense and relax our muscles in the same way as we did with our first. We can hold the tension for seven to ten seconds.

(g) **Breathing:**

Deep breathing helps to relax us. Breathe in during the tensing phase and out during the relaxation phase. Breathe deeply in and out before moving to next muscle.

(h) **Talk to Yourself:**

Just before we release the tension and exhale, we tell our self to “Relax”. Eventually, we will learn to release tension in a particular muscle group by focusing our attention on it and telling our self to relax. This ‘Relax Command’ is known as auto-suggestion in psychology.

(i) **Relaxation Exercise:**

With eyes closed, tense and relax each muscle, one at a time. Study the sensation of tension in muscle. Think, “Relax” and then release the tension from the muscle, relaxing it as much as we can. Study the sensation of relaxation. Compare the sensations of relaxation and tension. We can do these exercises in a quiet, private place and notice when we finish how good it feels to be totally relaxed.
(j) Imagine a Pleasant Scene:

Tension can be lowered quite rapidly by taking a few deep breaths and imagining a pleasant scene. A pleasant scene can be anything positive, a real situation, such as lying in a hammock in our backyard, or a pretend scene, such as riding on a billowy white cloud. There need be no limits. The only requirement is that imagining it relaxes us.

(k) Thought Stopping:

Thought stopping, a procedure suggested by Bain (1928) and popularized by Wolpe (1958), is a simple but effective way to disrupt unwanted thoughts. Consider a client who is continually bothered by thought related to an unpleasant past event. The thoughts come to his mind with same regularity, he has little control over the thoughts, and the thoughts trigger, undesired reactions such as unpleasant emotions. Treatment would involve the client being instructed to close his eyes and think the thoughts and when the negative thoughts become unbearable say stop loudly to yourself.

Training your Mind:

By translating your habitual negative thoughts into powerful ones. When we catch our-self thinking a negative thought, yell "stop"! to stop the negative thought. Then, immediately switch our thinking to the powerful thought. Training the mind in difficult, so remember to reward oneself generously for one’s successes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Think the helpless thought:</th>
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<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Then Yell; stop:</td>
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<td>Step 3</td>
<td>Switch to a powerful thought:</td>
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<td>Step 4</td>
<td>Watch your thoughts:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>Keep Practicing:</td>
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</table>
(l) **Mood Management:**

We may sometimes feel out of control in the face of our emotions. If so, we may be a victim of runaway thinking and not knowing how to curb our thoughts. We respond to every red flag waved before us. Personal power comes in knowing how to empty our mind of negative chatter so that we can focus productively on the moment and the task at hand.

Thinking powerless thoughts (envision ourself as losing) make us feel powerless: depressed, anxious, frustrated, angry. These feelings perpetuate job burnout and stress.

On the other hand having powerful thoughts (envision ourself as winning), will make us feel powerful; hopeful; enthusiastic, confident, energized. These feelings help to prevent job burnout and stress.

(i) **One Feels What One Thinks:**

(a) **Notice How you Feel:**

Survey our body and emotions: using a scale from 1 to 10 (very negative to very positive) rate how we feel right now.

(b) **Make your Mind Blank:**

A blank mind contains no thoughts, no images, no colours, nothing at all. Keep your mind blank for 60 seconds. It is impossible for most people to make their minds blank without intensive mental training. Mind is constantly filled with thoughts and images.

(c) **Recall Unpleasant and Pleasant Situation:**

One after the other, for sixty seconds project yourself back into that scene. Make it as vivid as possible. Notice how your body feels and how you respond. Rate your mood again using the same 1 to 10 scale.
My mood rating ......
Physical sensation I experience ......
What I experienced during ......
The actual situation ......

(d) What Happened:

Did your mood state drop after recalling the unpleasant situation. What happened to your body? Did you feel tension? Did your heart race? How did your body react in the actual situation? Was it similar? How did you feel after recalling the pleasant time.

(e) Develop “I can do” Attitude:

Attitude is a style of thinking people with “no-can-do” attitude think negatively and feel powerless. They, continually tell themselves that they can not. People who think positively focus on what they can do. They have an “I can do” attitude consequently they feel powerful. They feel optimistic. They rise to challenges. “No-can-do” attitude makes us feel bad. It can even damage our health. “I-can-do” attitude fuels motivation and helps in preventing job burnout.

Rid yourself of negative thinking. Translate each helpless thought into a powerful one. Powerful thoughts make us feel potent and help to influence the situation in a better way, powerful thinking is looking at the glass as half full rather than as half empty.

Developing personal power is not a one time endeavour. Rather it is a life long process of learning how to handle difficult situations (Potter, 1987).

Personal Power:

Personal power enables one to feel in command by making a plan for action and using goals and objectives to carry out one’s plan, one becomes a winner because one refuels oneself with a sense of accomplishment and other “WINS,” independent of one’s boss or organization (Potter, 1987).
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Paths to Personal Power:

The antidote to stress and burnout is personal power or a feeling of I-can-do i.e. a person can have to control his / her work. The various paths to personal power described by Potter 1987 are as follows:

1. **Self Management**:

   Effective self management requires good amount of knowledge and skill about the job. Inability to manage oneself effectively during crises may lead to stress. However, proper self management in crises increase personal power by enabling us to create situations in which one can give oneself the "win" one needs to sustain high motivation. Managing oneself is not a matter of will power rather it is an array of simple but effective techniques such as using fun to reward dull work, patting oneself on the back, indulging oneself contingently and breaking big jobs down into manageable steps. The tools to help one to improve self management includes setting goals and setting objectives.

   (i) **How to Set Goals**:

   Goals are tools for helping in making decisions. Each day one can encounter choices or forks in the road. When we have a goal, it is easier to make choices and to know which path to take. Thus, a goal acts as a beacon to point the way. Without the goals, one can go around and around, never getting where one wants to go.

   Principles to keep in mind as we establish our goals:

   (i) Be positive-state what we want to do.

   (ii) Set a deadline-one needs a target to shoot for and deadline provides such a target, and

   (iii) Be specific-the more specific is the goal, the easier it is to measure one's progress.
Goal statement should answer the following questions:

- Who?
- Will do what?
- When?
- Where?
- To what extent?
- Under what conditions?
- To what degree?
- How Much?
- How Long?
- How hard etc.

(ii) Setting Objectives:

Objectives are tools for making the steps needed to achieve one’s goal. An objective is a precise statement of what one plans to do during each step. Objectives can be thought of as mini-goals. We should break our goals into a series of smaller steps necessary to accomplish it. Arrange the steps in a logical sequence. Follow the goal setting guidelines be positive and set a deadline.

(a) Set Yourself upto Win:

Small steps should be only as big that can be achieved with relative ease. If it is something difficult, then shorten the time frame of the objective. Objectives should be such that can be met, as objectives help to get one started and create momentum by breaking the inertia. Winners attitude is developed by breaking in inertia of a bad habit.

(b) Stretch:

Although objectives should be small steps, they should be big enough to make one stretch one’s ability.
(c) **Make getting there Fun:**

People often equate self-management or self discipline with austerity- the withholding of pleasure, or punishment, such an approach is a mistake and will undermine one's success. Grease the skids of change with fun. Enjoyment of the task lessens the toil of doing it.

(d) **Rewards of Accomplishment:**

Giving self acknowledgement for what a person does well, provides the motivational "WINS" necessary to climb the small steps. Poor self managers tend to focus on their failures and criticize what they did wrong. Self criticism tends to set up a vicious cycle of "working to avoid", work in order to rapid guilt and anxious feelings. Acknowledgement can be expressed in a variety of ways such as by giving oneself things one wants, doing things one enjoys or by giving oneself praise for things one has done well.