

CHAPTER: 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

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Personality dimensions are automatic, instinctive reactions. They are not positive or negative, but the way they play out particular environment can have positive or negative influence on the person as whole. If individuals traits are good fit to the environment, individual will be happy and productive. If individuals are not a good fit they will be stressed out and might suffer from mental health problems. Personality traits represent different ways of looking at individual's psychological nature.

During the 1980s personality enjoyed a resurgence of interest among researchers in the organizational domain after a decade or two of relative neglect. Recent research and theory can be found relating personality to many different organizational variables, including job stressors (e.g. workload, role conflict or lack of autonomy) and job strains (e.g. job dissatisfaction, work anxiety and somatic symptoms) (e.g. Brief, Burke, George, Robinson & Webster, 1988; Spector, 1992; Watson, Pennebaker & Folger, 1986).

The major limitation to most of the personality research in the job stress domain is its almost exclusive reliance on cross-sectional designs. Relations of several personality variables with specific incumbent reported stressors and strains have been established, but a multitude of possible explanations and causal mechanisms for these relations have not been adequately addressed. Of particular concern is that cross-sectional designs cannot rule out the possibility that job experience might affect personality. In addition, the administration of all measures at the same time fails to control for possible correlation inflation due to priming and consistency biases (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Both of these shortcomings were addressed in the current study by the use of a longitudinal design where personality was assessed approximately one year before

the job stressors and strains. The potential effect of job conditions on personality was controlled by measuring personality in a young sample of students before they began their jobs. Priming and consistency effects were minimized by the one-year time span between the assessment of job stressors and strains and the assessment of personality.

There are three particular personality variables that stand out in the literature both theoretically and empirically as being potentially relevant in the job stress process. Each of these three has been shown in cross-sectional studies to relate to several of the stressor and strain variables studied here. Negative affectivity, locus of control and Type A personality all have been suggested as playing an important role in the job stress domain.

2.1 Negative Affectivity and Mental Health problem (Depression)

Work characteristics and self-reported mental health outcomes are not entirely the result of confounding by a factor such as personality. Negative affectivity accounts for some of the variance in the association between work characteristics and mental health (Brief et al, 1988). Adjustment of work characteristics by negative affectivity and hostility in the Whitehall II Study has little effect on the risk of psychological distress associated with decision authority, increased the effects of job demands in women, but not men, and reduced the effects of low skill discretion on the risk of psychological distress (Stansfeld et al, 1999). A replication of these findings is reported by Paterniti *et al* (2002, this issue), who have demonstrated that personality measures such as hostility and attributes such as low self-esteem do not seem to explain the association between work characteristics and depressive symptoms in the massive French GAZEL Study, a longitudinal French occupational study, ongoing since 1989.

This is further evidence that the psychosocial environment at work is important and these associations are not merely a form of response bias. However, one puzzle remains: most studies

that have not relied on self-reports of work but have used assessments of the work environment, external to the person reporting psychological distress, have not found associations between work and mental health. Although this would tend to support the response bias argument, it is possible that the subjective perceptions of work are a necessary mediating step between the work environment and psychological distress.

Nevertheless, there probably is some association between personality and type of work. Certain occupations suit particular personalities and such people might choose to work in these occupations or be selected preferentially for such jobs (Kohn & Schooler, 1982). In relation to this, certain aspects of personality could render a person more vulnerable, or more resilient, to the psychosocial work environment. Paterniti *et al* (2002, this issue) report that men with higher levels of hostility benefit more from high levels of decision latitude, where the high hostility could represent a need to be in control. They also found that men with low self-esteem did worse with low levels of support at work and this might indicate a group who would benefit from more support.

In the literature reviews, role of ambiguity is reported to be related to mental health problems (Beehr and Newman, 1978; Brief et al, 1981; cooper and marshall, 1976 Matteson and Ivancevich, 1980; Kaol, 1973). Empirically Kahn et al (1964) indicated the higher levels of ambiguity were related to higher degree of job related tension. French and Caplan (1970) reported ambiguity to be associated with increased threats to one's well-being. Margouis, Kroes and Quinn (1974) found ambiguity linked to increase depression.

Inequitable treatment with regard to promotions has also been found to be related to mental health problem. Kaol (1973), for example, reported unfair promotional promotion opportunities to be related to increased mental health problems. Authur and Gonderson (1965)

found promotion to be significantly related to psychiatric illness. Further, Brook (1973) found that under or over promotion led psychosomatic complaints and to mental illness.

Nonparticipation in the decision making was found by Margolis et al (1974) to be the most consistent and significant predictor of depression and other mental illness indicators. Neff (1968) summarized the importance of participation by suggesting that, to a large degree, mental health at work is function of participation.

Research has linked group support and cohesiveness negatively to mental health problems. Hause and Wells (1978) found employees in maximally supported group able to mitigate mental health problems. Caplan, Cabb, French, Van Horrison, and Pinneav (1975) found a significant positive correlation between support from group members and prevention of depression. Cooper and Marshall (1976) indicated in their literature review a positive relationship group cohesiveness and lack of mental health problems.

Mental health dysfunction such as alcoholism, problem drinking, drug consumption, depression, hypertension, accident proneness anxiety and lack of self esteem are thought to be direct result of job stress (Ivancevich and Matterson, 1980). Furthermore they suggest that far more individuals suffer mental discomfort from job stress than physical discomfort.

2.2 Negative affectivity and Burnout

Negative affectivity (NA) is defined as the tendency for an individual to experience a variety of negative emotions across time and situations. The trait is said to be reflected in various measures of negative emotions, which have been shown in many studies to be highly inter correlated (Watson & Clark, 1984). Watson et al. (1986) discussed the role of NA in the work stress domain. They theorized that high NA individuals would experience negative affect at

work, which would be reflected in poor job attitudes (dissatisfaction), high levels of perceived job stressors and high levels of perceived job strains.

Relations of NA with stressors and strains have been reported in cross-sectional studies. Chen & Spector (1991), for example, reported that two NA measures significantly correlated with job stressors (role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, situational constraints and interpersonal conflict) and job strains (e.g. job dissatisfaction, frustration and somatic symptoms). Brief et al. (1988) reported significant correlations of NA with job satisfaction and depression.

Somewhat stronger evidence for the importance of NA comes from a longitudinal study by Staw, Bell & Clausen (1986) which demonstrated that affective dispositions assessed during adolescence could predict job satisfaction over a span of decades. The longitudinal nature of this study, with disposition measured before the job was taken allows us to rule out that job experience may have affected the personality. Staw et al. speculated that individuals may differ in their tendencies to experience negative or positive affect across situations, and this tendency affects their perceptions of job conditions and their affective reactions. Brief et al. (1988) discussed how NA might be a methodological nuisance, distorting people's reports of job stressors and strains.

Watson et al (1986) discussed the role of negative affectivity in the work stress domain. They theorized that high NA individuals would experience negative affect at work, which would be reflected in poor job attitudes, high level of perceived job stressors and high level of perceived job strains.

Relations of NA with stressor and strains have been reported in descriptive studies. Chen and Spector (1991), for example, reported the two NA measures to be significantly correlated

with job stressors (role ambiguity, role conflict, workload, situational constraints and interpersonal conflict) and job strains (Job dissatisfaction, frustration and somatic symptoms). Brief et al (1988) reported significant correlation of NA with job satisfaction and depression. Staw et al (1986) speculated that individual may be differ in their tendencies to experience negative or positive affect across situation, and this tendency affects their perception of job condition and their affective reactions.

Bhagat et al (1985) indexed total life stress including that experienced in the work and personal domains. They used to measure of job satisfaction as dependent variable and observed negative relationship between the indices of negative job stress and job satisfaction. Watson and Clark (1984) illustrated that high negative affectivity individuals significantly overestimate the size of failure related stimuli and interpret ambiguous stimuli more negatively.

They also demonstrate a relatively high level of cross situational distress. For example review of findings indicate that high negative affectivity subject report more discomfort in relaxed baseline setting as well as in situation that involve psychological or physical stressors. In recent update of their review of literature relevant to the NA construct. Clark and Watson (1991) further clarified the nature of NA and its pervasive effects of subjective experience and evaluation. More specifically, Clark and Watson suggest that NA entails a generalized negative cognitive set because it involves propensity to view world and oneself through a negative lens; this pervasive negative orientation is more important than the particular field of statement.

A number of other investigation in health, organizational and personality psychology, using alternative methodologies, have shown that the mood dispositional dimension of NA influences relation between self-reports of stressors and strain (Costa & McCrae 1980; Payne 1988).

Schroeder and Casto (1984) hypothesized that observed relationship between self reports of illness are contaminated by several factors, including NA. Watson and Pennebaker (1989), on the basis of analysis of data from six samples, found that self reports measures of stress and health both contain significant NA component. Payne (1988) studied psychological well being of 75 unemployed men on three occasions over two year period. On the third occasion of the study, NA was measured; the result strongly supported the hypothesis that the large correlation among all negatively toned scales (e.g. perceived problems and strain) were the result NA.

2.3 Personality dimension and mental health

Goodwin and Friedman (2006) found that personality traits were associated with mental health. The researchers revealed that a higher level in conscientiousness would significantly decrease the probability of mental disorders as well as extraversion and agreeableness. Nonetheless, a higher level in neuroticism was found to significantly contribute to mental disorders. In this study, the respondents were young adults in United States.

Haslam, Whelan and Bastian (2009) found that personality traits i.e. neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness were significantly associated with subjective wellbeing. Besides that, the researchers indicated that all the traits were positively correlated with subjective well-being except for one trait i.e. neuroticism. The respondents in the study consisted psychology undergraduates, of whom 132 were women and 46 men. The average age of the respondents was 22 years old.

2.4 Positive Affectivity and Mental health

Positive affectivity (PA), which can be assessed by trait measure of well being and extroversion, reflects general levels of energy and enthusiasm. High trait PA individual lead (Costa and McCrae, 1980a; Tellegan 1985; Watson and Clark, 1984) although it has emerged as

major factor in mood research, PA has been relatively less studied as personality dimension than NA.

High positive affectivity is composed of terms reflecting enthusiasm, energy, mental alertness and determination. Both state and trait PA measures are unrelated to self reported health problems (Beiser 1974; Bradburn, 1969; Harding, 1982; Watson & Pennebaker, in press).

The psychological literature on affective influences on cognition has amply demonstrated the power of relatively minor positive mood manipulations to influence a variety of cognitive reactions such as memory (Blaney, 1986; Isen, 1987), judgment (e.g., Clark, Milberg, & Erber, 1988; Isen, 1984, 1987; Mayer & Volanath, 1985), and decision-making style (for reviews, Fiedler, 1988; Isen, 1987, 1993). The affective variables that constitute the potential object of this literature cover a wide range of positive and negative preferences, evaluations, moods, and emotions. Because positive emotions (conceptualized as both moods and traits) have been the object of a considerably richer strain of investigation than negative emotions (Fiske & Taylor, 1991), in this study we chose to study accuracy in social network perception in the context of positive affectivity. Watson and his colleagues (Watson, 1988; Watson & Clark, 1997; Watson & Tellegen, 1985) have typically characterized Positive Affectivity as "one's level of pleasurable engagement with the environment" (Watson, 1988). People with high Positive Affectivity are happy, enthusiastic, have a cheerful disposition,

The concepts of positive affectivity and negative affectivity have now been introduced into the study of organizations. Positive affectivity is an individual's disposition to be happy across time and situations (Watson, Pennebaker & Folger, 1987); negative affectivity is an individual's disposition to experience discomfort across time and situations (Watson & Clark,

1984). Unlike the situational variables (autonomy, routinization and work group cohesion), positive affectivity and negative affectivity are personality variables. Proponents of these concepts (Bradburn, 1969; Byrant & Veroff, 1982; Diener & Emmons, 1984; Watson & Clark, 1984; Watson et al., 1987; Watson & Tellegen, 1985) have argued that positive and negative affectivity are related but distinct.

Recent empirical evidence suggests that positive affectivity and negative affectivity might explain variations in employees' job satisfaction. For example, Staw and his colleagues (Staw, Bell & Clausen, 1986; Staw & Ross, 1985) have shown that variations in job satisfaction can be explained by an individual's dispositional affectivity. These authors showed that employees who are predisposed to be happy (positive affectivity) are more likely to have higher job satisfaction than those who are predisposed to experience discomfort (negative affectivity). Recently, Brief, Burke, Atieh, Robinson & Webster (1988) validated the finding presented by Staw and his colleagues and argued that negative affectivity should be controlled in the studies of job attitudes.

Although those who argue that positive affectivity and negative affectivity are determinants of job satisfaction believe that the three concepts are different, they have provided no empirical data supporting this claim. Staw and his colleagues, for example, failed to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to demonstrate that these concepts are different. They just assume that the concepts are different. While data have been provided by Watson & Tellegen (1985) to demonstrate the distinction between positive and negative affectivity, they have not empirically assessed the discriminate validity of the three concepts. Watson and his colleagues have mostly ignored job satisfaction in their research.

2.5 Locus of Control and Job satisfaction

Locus of control evolved from Julian Rotter's (1954) social learning theory of personality. It is related to learned behavior and the reinforcement of such behavior (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control refers to the extent of the belief of a person in terms of whether or not the individual believes that actions taken can affect outcomes. If someone feels that (s)he is in control of what happens, then (s)he has an internal locus of control. Generally stated, persons with a strong belief in internal control are more confident and assertive, are active searchers for information that will help them to achieve their own objectives, and are attracted to situations that offer opportunities of achievement (Bush, 1988). In contrast, if someone feels that fate, luck, or chance affects what happens to him or her then (s)he has an external locus of control. Externally controlled persons see that reinforcement does not come from their own behaviors but from events that are beyond their reach.

They see themselves as pawns, possible victims of circumstances beyond their control, and feel that success and failure in a job depends on outside forces (Bush, 1988). Conversely, someone with an internal locus of control will likely have a greater confidence level concerning outcomes.

Many studies have been conducted regarding locus of control (Dailey, 1980; Kasperson, 1982; Knoop, 1981). Dailey's (1980) study of 281 scientists addressed the relationship between locus of control and task variability, task difficulty, and job performance. He found that persons with an internal locus of control were more satisfied, motivated and had a high level of participation within their jobs. Kasperson (1982) completed a study of hospital employees, which revealed a high positive correlation between negative attitudes and external locus of control. This resulted in a low satisfaction level with the job. Those with positive attitudes are generally more satisfied with outcomes because of the amount of control they have to make things happen.

Knoop (1981) discovered a relationship between persons with an internal locus of control and how they looked at their jobs in terms of skill variety, task uniqueness and consequence, self-sufficiency, and feedback from the job. Persons with an internal locus of control felt that they were given more opportunities to engage in positive work outcomes. Overall, they felt more involved and felt that they had the power to make decisions.

An individual's locus of control can have far-reaching impact on work and life. Someone with an internal locus of control would see challenges as opportunities for learning and professional growth. In contrast, someone with an external locus of control would ignore these challenges due to their sense that learning will not have an impact on him/her. Findings of a study by Judge et al. (1998) determined that locus of control is highly correlated with self-efficacy. They define self-efficacy as one's estimate of one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to exercise general control over events in one's life.

A study conducted by Cummins (1989) examined the relationship between social support and locus of control in determining job satisfaction levels and stress. He surveyed a total of ninety-six students from classes in business administration at a university in the southwestern United States. Those with an internal locus of control developed ways to shield stress while those with an external locus of control relied on supervisory support to reduce stress. Individuals with an internal locus of control were shown to be more satisfied with their jobs regardless of stress levels while those with an external locus of control tended to be less satisfied with their jobs due to stress.

Locus of control is a personality variable that concerns people's generalized expectancies that they can or cannot control reinforcements in their lives. People who hold expectancies that

they control reinforcements are considered to be internals, and people who hold expectancies that outside forces or luck controls reinforcements are considered to be externals. (Brien 1984)

The concept of locus of control is concerned with the assignment of responsibility since internally caused outcome may be under external control and an externally caused outcome may under internal control. Rotter (1966) defined locus of control as generalized concept. He developed this concept to large extent and he also developed the Internal Locus of control scale. Further, he explained that this variable is not only important to understand the assignment of responsibility, but also in understanding the nature of learning process in different kinds of learning situation. He demonstrated that consistent individual difference exist among individuals in the degree to which they are likely to attribute personal reward in the same situation that rewards reinforcement and outcome in life are control either by ones own action (Internality) or by other forces (externality). There is causal relationship between individual's behavior and rewards. When reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some actions of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action and his own but not being entirely contingent upon his actions then it perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, etc. this interpretation is labeled as "External Locus of control". If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own action it is a belief in "Internal Locus of Control".

Robbin (1986) defines it as "the degree to which people believe that they are masters of their fate." Hammer and Orgen (1978) examined locus of control in the organizational setting. They pointed out that many of the behavior patterns that go along with internal locus of control like search for information, achievement orientation, trust etc. would positively be related to the effectiveness of organizational learns how to influence people's locus of control, the organizational studies have been dominated by the use of Rotter's internal locus of control.

Paterson (1985) pointed out existing studies have not shown a very strong relationship between locus of control and different variables in organizational setting. This may be because of the extreme general nature of Rotter's scale and he suggested the development of new scale specifically for the work context focusing on a single organizational variable. Peteron found a negative correlation between Rotter's scale and job satisfaction but a significant correlation between specific measures and job satisfaction. Phares (1976) pointed out that relation between general internal locus of control and work related variable have been modest and this scale is a rough of measure and that researcher should develop domain specific measures. According to Dutweir (1984), the concept of locus of control evolved to explain a valued a reinforcement of specific situation, hence Rotte's scale is rough measure. Kestenabun (1976) also emphasized the need to develop a specific locus of control assessment tool when he found a high significant correlation between Rotter's scale and social desirability. O'Brein (1983) indicated that strength of association between locus of control and work variables is weak. Spector (1988) developed work Locus of Control scale specifically for the organization.

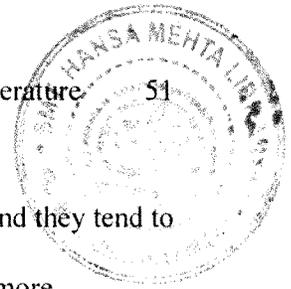
2.6 Locus of Control and Burnout

The importance of perceived control in general stress area has received considerable attention (Glass & Carver, 1980, Kobasa, 1982). Perceived control has been studied in the organizational domain as well. Spector's (1986) Meta analysis reported significant correlation between perceived control and both job stressors and job strains (Job satisfaction, symptoms and emotional distress). From theoretical perspective, one expects that individual with an external locus of control important aspects of their environments, will find the work more threatening and stressful (Payne, 1988; Robinson and Skarie, 1986)

A natural disaster served as setting to study the relationship between locus of control and perceived job stress and burnout. The subjects in the study were 90 small business owners in a community devastated by a hurricane. Results showed to internal entrepreneurs perceived significantly less stress and burnout than externals. A surprising conclusion reached was that the amount of stress perceived by entrepreneur was more closely related to his or her belief of locus of control than to amounts of insurance coverage in the business, the percentage of assets destroyed, or the number of business days lost, attributed to hurricane. Results from the very few cross cultural studies (Parsons & Schneider, 1974, Meginnies et al 1974) have indicated western cultures are fairly homogeneous as far as beliefs in personal control is concerned.

Research has shown that a person's internal-external locus of control impacts his/her performance (Dailey, 1980; Brownell, 1981 ; Kasperson, 1982). Additionally, locus of control may relate to the amount of stress a person experiences as a result of whether (s)he has internal or external locus of control tendencies (Cummins, 1989). Individuals with internal locus of control seem to better adapt to varying situations in a more functional way than do people who have an external locus of control (Judge, Locke, Durham, and Klugar, 1998).

According to Spector (1982), internals look within themselves to determine a course of action, while externals focus on outside influences such as company policies, or supervisors for direction. He additionally asserted that an internal would be best suited for tasks involving independent actions and the creation of plans while an external would be better suited for tasks which involve following company procedures or policies. Spector (1982) further hypothesized that locus of control is related to a variety of variables regarding internals and externals on different sets of criteria. He mentioned that internals are committed more to their respective organizations and are more satisfied with their jobs than those with an external locus of control.



Those with an internal locus of control are also likely to stay in their jobs longer, and they tend to perform better. Researchers have also argued that expectancies of an outcome are more important than the sense of personal control (Carver and Scheier, 1981; Carver and Scheier, 1994). Asserted was that people factor in the impact of external circumstances and their sense of personal control in determining the expectancy of an outcome. However, studies had also been conducted revealing contradicting results that investigate the relationship between locus of control and job performance. Broedling (1975) and Majumder, McDonald and Greever (1977) found that internals have higher levels of performance than externals while Johnson, Luthans and Hennessey (1984) did not report a relationship between locus of control and performance.

The locus of control concept has been effectively and enthusiastically applied to occupational behavior. It is one area in which an individual difference variable has been extensively and systematically examine with relation to work motivation, this is not surprising given to the locus of control is similar to numerous expectancy theories in occupational psychology. Lawler (1971) found that among managers, internals are more likely to feel performance leads to outcome expectancy; while Broedling (1975) found a predicted significant relationship between locus of control and well known expectancy model constructs of Valance X instrumentality, and superiors rating of effort and performance similarly- Szilingiji and Sims (1975) found internals perceive stronger performance to reward and effort to- performance. Expectancies than externals across various occupational levels, Earlier studies are review in the next section.

The importance of perceived control in the general stress area has received considerable attention (e.g. Glass & Carver, 1980; Kobasa, 1982). Perceived control has been studied in the organizational domain as well. Spector's (1986) meta-analysis reported significant correlations

between perceived control and both job stressors (role conflict and role ambiguity) and job strains (job satisfaction, symptoms and emotional distress). From a theoretical perspective, one would expect that individuals with an external locus of control, who do not believe that they control important aspects of their environments, will find the work environment to be more threatening and stressful (Payne, 1988; Robinson & Skarie, 1986). Empirical support can be found for this proposition in that locus of control has been shown to correlate with job stressors and strains (e.g. Hendrix, 1989, Newton & Keenan, 1990; Robinson & Skarie, 1986; Spector, 1982, 1988).

2.7 Locus of control And Mental Health

The expectation that one has the ability to control the outcomes of one's life is referred to as locus of control, a construct introduced by Rotter (1966). Individuals with internal locus of control believe that any reinforcements they receive are brought about by their own behavior and attributes. Those with external locus of control think that powerful other people, fate, or luck controls the awards they receive. They are convinced that they are powerless with respect to outside forces. Internal or external locus of control has a significant influence on one's behavior. Internal locus of control individuals believe that they can control events around them and that they are capable of influencing outcomes. External locus of control people thinks that they cannot control present or future events and see little value in trying to improve their situation. Generally, those with an internal locus control are known to have lower anxiety and higher self esteem, and greater mental and physical health. They believe in their own skills, take responsibility for their own actions, and are capable of resisting attempts to influence them. Indeed, locus of control is an important concept that is known to play an important role in many spheres of human activity, including performance and behavior in organizations (Biondo &

MacDonald, 1971; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thorenson, 2002; Lefcourt, 1982; Schultz & Schultz, 2005; Strickland, 1989).

Studies indicate that people with internal locus of control generally are more mature, self-reliant and responsible; According to Spector and Connell (1994) individuals with internal locus of control have lower job stress. And work anxiety. In study conducted by Kyriacou (1989) it was found that occupational stress for schoolteacher as indicated by self report measures was positively associated with teachers generalized belief in external locus of control over reinforcement.

Kenneth and White (1985) studied the relationship between mechanistic structural characteristics and perceived job stress among health care personnel in general hospital. Locus of control was hypothesized to act as moderator in the relationship. Result indicated that job specificity was positively related to job stress among internals and negatively related to stress among externals. The other structural factors hierarchy of authority, job condition, lack of participation in decision making, are not found to interact significantly with internal external control to affect stress.

Anderson (1999) study of small business owner after severe flood supported the framework that internals will experience less anxiety. In this study he found that internals experienced less stress and engaged themselves in more task oriented behaviors in an effort to recover from the setback than did externals.

A majority of studies indicate that externality is often correlated with personality traits that are associated with poor personal and social adjustment. Seligman (1995) proposed that externality is often correlated with helplessness and depression. 75 students from suny Cortland participated in one such experiment where half of the group members were identified as

externals were less accepting of themselves, saw a great difference between their real and ideal selves and also saw their ideal selves as holding greater control over their destinies.

2.8 Personality dimension and work adjustment

Hershenson theorizes that work adjustment consists of two elements, the person and the person's environment. The person consists of three subsystems that include work personality, work competencies, and appropriately crystallized work goals. Work personality develops during the preschool years and is mostly influenced by the family. It consists of one's self-concept as a worker, system of motivation for work, and work-related needs and values. Work competencies develop during the school years and are influenced by successes and failures in the school setting. Work competencies consist of work habits, physical and mental skills, and work related interpersonal skills (Szymanski & Hershenson, 1998). Work habits include promptness, neatness, and reliability, while work related interpersonal skills include responding appropriately to supervision and getting along with co-workers (Hershenson, 1996). Appropriate crystallized work goals develop prior to leaving school and are influenced by one's peer or reference group. (Hershenson, 1996). Work goals should be clear, realistic, and consistent with the person's work personality and work competencies (Hershenson, 1996). Work personality, work competencies, and work goals interact with each other and result in work adjustment. Each subsystem affects the development of the two other subsystems (Szymanski & Hershenson, 1998).

Some researches have been conducted about the temporal process of adjustment to a new environment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2004; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Lysgaard, 1955; Torbiörn, 1982). Several scholars suggest a U-curve pattern of adjustment (cf. Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2004; Davis, 1971; Lysgaard, 1955; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Torbiörn, 1982), first reported by Lysgaard (1955), which describes the level of adjustment changing over

time (Church, 1982). Most all of the above mentioned authors use the widespread fundamental description of the 'U-curve theory'. The description generally involves four stages. The initial stage is referred to as the honeymoon stage. In this stage, the individual is fascinated by the new environment, is optimistic, excited, and behaves in accordance to his/her frame of reference (Torbiörn, 1982). "The frame of reference includes all those values, attitudes, opinions, ideas, and knowledge which the individual has accumulated as a result of his experiences" (Torbiörn, 1982, p. 57/58), Oberg (1960) reported that the approximate length of this phase ranges "from a few days or weeks to six months". The duration depends on how soon the individuals are involved in close relationships with host nationals (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). The next stage, labeled as culture shock or crisis, is characterized by "negative emotional reactions experienced by sojourners as a result of the loss of familiar, culture-specific cues" (Ward & Searle, 1991, p. 209). The individual feels confused, frustrated, and inadequate due to not understanding the values and normative expectation of the host culture which results in expression of negative attitudes toward the host country and the search for contact with fellows (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Oberg, 1960).

There have been very limited studies on the influence of proactive personality on work adjustment, particularly those of the academic setting. However, Cohen, Morgan, DiLillo and Flores (2003) have taken the initiatives to look into the challenges faced by new academics and found that among the challenges are related to the issues of competencies and socialization within academic setting. Based on their findings, Cohen, Morgan, DiLillo dan Flores (2003) have come up with several suggestions including those which are related to proactive attitude and behaviors of new academics. Among them are the need for new academics to employ positive minds during their learning and adjustment process, to plan strategically for their research

activities, to smartly manage and schedule their time in order to balance between teaching and research, and last but not the least, to ensure harmonious socialization with others (superiors, subordinates, colleagues, students and other organizational members) in the organization.

The vitality of strategic planning and being future-focused towards ensuring one's career success have earlier been identified by Seibert, Kraimer and Crant (2001). Individuals who plan their work affairs well usually adjust better to a new job or work environment because they are more careful and responsible. Such trait is seen to be very important to ease the career transition process of any new employees because individuals with such trait are prone to scrutinize, compare between situations and adopt strategic coping strategies that are suitable with their new jobs. Detailed observations practiced by such individuals keep them at par with required job demands, skills and expected performance. Thus it usually helps to ease their job transition. By being committed and having good management skills, these individuals are most of the time, valued 'goldfish' for top managements of their organizations.

Another proactive trait predicted to be helpful in assuring smooth work adjustment or transition process is the initiative to make meaningful changes. Individuals with such trait are very imaginative; possess high level of curiosity, cultured, open-minded and intelligent. Individuals with high level of openness to experience are usually very alert and love to explore new experiences. They demonstrate creative and flexible thinking (Digman, 1990). Such individuals are opposite to those who are usually narrow in mind and interest (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Therefore, this personality is always linked with individuals' abilities to adapt them during transition, make decisions, solve problems and other organizational change situations (Lepine, Colquitt & Erez, 2000). Those with proactive dispositions are also characterized by cooperation, trustworthiness, compliance and sociability. Such individuals are usually good in

socializing with others, soft-hearted, likeable, trusting and easy to cooperate with. They are totally opposite of those who are cold and prone to conflicts (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Hence, these individuals are expected to exhibit excellent performance in tasks and industries which deals a lot with human relations and services (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Additionally, research points out that poor adjustment often leads to personal dissatisfaction as well as to insufficient performance during the assignment (Kaye & Taylor, 1997; Selmer, 2002; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; van Vianen, de Pater, Kristof-Brown, & Johnson, 2004). Further, imaginable results are the damage of relationships to clients, suppliers, or the host countries' government which possibly result in damage of the companies' reputation or the loss of market shares (Aycañ, 1997a; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). The multidimensionality of adjustment becomes clear when thinking of the results of mal adaptation: dissatisfaction with the assignment as well as low performance. While dissatisfaction with the social environment is an indicator for poor general adjustment, inadequate performance is an indicator for poor work adjustment (Aycañ, 1997; Dalton & Wilson, 2000). Both facets of adjustment will be explained later. Performance is the criterion of highest interest for organizations (Austin & Villanova, 1992),

A study was undertaken to examine further the effects of perceived work control on employee work adjustment. On the basis of the stress antidote model, it was proposed that high levels of prediction, understanding, and control of work-related events would have direct, indirect, and interactive effects on levels of employee adjustment. These hypotheses were tested in a short-term longitudinal study of 137 employees of a large retail organization. The stress antidote measures appeared to be indirectly related to employee work adjustment, via their effects on perceptions of work stress. There was weak evidence for the proposal that prediction,

understanding, and control would buffer the negative effects of work stress. Additional analyses indicated that the observed effects of prediction, understanding, and control were independent of employees' generalized control beliefs. However, there was no support for the proposal that the effects of the stress antidote measures would be dependent on employees' generalized control beliefs.

Samuel Aryee and Raymond J. Stone study replicated and extended research on expatriate work adjustment by examining the antecedents of work adjustment and its outcomes in terms of psychological well-being. . Data were obtained from a nationally heterogeneous sample (N = 184) of expatriate employees in Hong Kong using a structured questionnaire. Results of regression analysis revealed role conflict to be significantly negatively related to work adjustment, while role discretion, co-worker support and work-method ambiguity (clarity) were significantly positively related to work adjustment. Of the three hypothesized outcomes, work adjustment was significantly positively related only to job satisfaction but not to quality of life and marital adjustment.

Ever since Kornhauser's (1965) seminal research on the effect of work experience on the mental health of factory workers, the impact of work and work environment characteristics on the psychological well-being of employees has witnessed a great deal of research interest (Caplan et al., 1975; Karasek, 1979). The objective of this study is to examine the effect of work and organizational characteristics on the work adjustment of the employees and the effect of work adjustment, in turn, on three psychological indicators of well-being – job satisfaction, marital adjustment and quality of life. While adjustment has been conceptualized and demonstrated as a multidimensional construct (Black and Gregersen, 1991), Black et al. (1991) noted that global antecedents are strongly related to global facets and specific antecedents are

most strongly related to specific facets. For example, Black (1988) reported that job variables are related to work adjustment but not to other facets of adjustment. For this reason, the focus in this study is on work adjustment rather than general adjustment.

There have been very limited studies on the influence of proactive personality on work adjustment, particularly those of the academic setting. However, Cohen, Morgan, DiLillo and Flores (2003) have taken the initiatives to look into the challenges faced by new academics and found that among the challenges are related to the issues of competencies and socialization within academic setting. Based on their findings, Cohen, Morgan, DiLillo dan Flores (2003) have come up with several suggestions including those which are related to proactive attitude and behaviors of new academics. Among them are the need for new academics to employ positive minds during their learning and adjustment process, to plan strategically for their research activities, to smartly manage and schedule their time in order to balance between teaching and research, and last but not the least, to ensure harmonious socialization with others (superiors, subordinates, colleagues, students and other organizational members) in the organization.

The vitality of strategic planning and being future-focused towards ensuring one's career success have earlier been identified by Seibert, Kraimer and Crant (2001). Individuals who plan their work affairs well usually adjust better to a new job or work environment because they are more careful and responsible. Such trait is seen to be very important to ease the career transition process of any new employees because individuals with such trait are prone to scrutinize, compare between situations and adopt strategic coping strategies that are suitable with their new jobs. Detailed observations practiced by such individuals keep them at par with required job demands, skills and expected performance. Thus it usually helps to ease their job transition. By

being committed and having good management skills, these individuals are most of the time, valued 'goldfish' for top managements of their organizations.

Conclusion of the Review of literature

Currently it's appear to be two highly promising avenue of research into the relationship between individual differences in personality and mental health of the individual Recent research has focus on the main effects of personality on health that is not moderated through the concept of stress and burnout. The idea is not new; for instance, psychosomatic theories have often identified neurotic traits like anxiety, anger, and depression with the development, although some have argued that this may simply as function of symptom reporting.

The present study covers the different aspects of personality Dimensions functions relation to burnout, mental health problem and work adjustment in IT industry employee. The study is important in the global environment to find out the strategic trend of human behavior in software industry such as the problem faced by individual who is having personality dimensions like external locus of control or negative affectivity.

The personality theorist has failed to take occupational behavior seriously as correlate individual differences. A cursory glance at the many textbooks while textbook on occupational psychology/ organizational behavior may even have better chapter labeled personality, it is frequently dealt with in a cursory and tangential manner. Any personality theorist would be amazed at datedness and ignorance that occupational/ organizational researchers have of this area.

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software industry such as the problem faced by individual who is having personality dimensions like external locus of control or negative affectivity.

The compelling related reason for studying the role of these variables in the organizations is because they can produce individual strain, which is detrimental for organizational growth and individual health. It's likely to reduce the productivity and growth of the organization and lead to deterioration in the physical and mental health of the employees.