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An Investigation on the Mediating Role of Coping Strategies on Locus of Control - Wellbeing Relationship

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The relationship among coping strategies, locus of control, and workplace wellbeing is examined. The model hypothesizes that coping strategies mediate the relationship between locus of control and work place well being. To test the model, data was collected from 154 software professionals using separate tools to assess coping strategies, locus of control and work place wellbeing. Model fit for the collected data was examined using structural equation modeling technique with the help of AMOS. Results support the view that coping strategies mediate the relationship between locus of control and work place wellbeing. While the path between locus of control and wellbeing is significant, the path between coping distraction and wellbeing is not significant.
Keywords: coping, locus of control, workplace wellbeing, structural equations modeling, mediation.

En este trabajo se examinó la relación entre las estrategias de afrontamiento, el locus de control, y el bienestar en el ámbito laboral. El modelo predice que las estrategias de afrontamiento median en la relación entre el locus de control y el bienestar en el ámbito laboral. Para probar el modelo, se recogieron datos de 154 profesionales del software; se usaron herramientas diferentes para evaluar estas tres variables. El modelo de ajuste para los datos recogidos se calculó a partir del modelo de ecuaciones estructurales (*análisis de rutas*) con la ayuda de AMOS. Los resultados apoyan la idea de que las estrategias de afrontamiento median en la relación entre locus de control y bienestar laboral. Se observó una relación significativa entre locus de control y bienestar pero no entre bajo afrontamiento y bienestar..
Palabras clave: afrontamiento, locus de control, bienestar en el ámbito laboral, modelo de ecuaciones estructurales, mediación.

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The workplace is a significant part of an individual's life as an average adult spends as much as a quarter or perhaps a third of his waking life in work (Fast, Frederick, Zukewich, & Franke, 2001). Since a major portion of a person's time is spent on the job, an employee's perceptions and attitudes about his or her job have various consequences for the individual (Locke, 1983; Sigelman & Shaffer, 1995). Locke (1983) suggested that a person's perceptions of work can affect his attitude towards life, family, and also towards himself. It can affect his mental health, physical health and possibly how long he lives. It may be related (indirectly) to adjustment, and plays a causal role in absenteeism and turnover (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998). Some studies have reported that as much as a fifth to a quarter of the variation in adult life satisfaction can be accounted for by satisfaction with work (Campbell, Philip, Converse, & Willard, 1976). The nature of work, such as its routinization, supervision, and complexity, has been linked casually to an individual's sense of control and depression (Kohn & Schooler, 1982).

Surveys of recent and upcoming generations of employees clearly show a majority of employees desire greater meaning and personal development from their work place (Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1999; Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Investigation of the happy–productive worker clearly links emotional well-being with work performance. Employees who report experiencing a greater balance of positive emotional symptoms over negative emotional symptoms received higher performance ratings from supervisors than employees who report feeling more negative than positive symptoms of emotion (Wright & Douglas, 1997; Wright & Staw 1999; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000).

In sum, work is a pervasive and influential part of the individuals, and the community's well-being. It affects the quality of an individual's life and his or her mental health, and thereby can affect the productivity of an individual. The emotional well-being of employees and their satisfaction with their work and workplace affect loyalty and commitment, turnover rates, and performance ratings. The well-being of employees is therefore in the best interests of employers as they spend substantial resources in hiring, training and developing, and also in motivating the employees.

Wellbeing could be defined in many ways. One such definition given by Levy and Guttman (1975) specifies the psychological response in terms of the self's satisfaction with a situation in a variety of life domains. The variety of life domains includes family, work, religion etc. For the present study this concept was analyzed from the domain of work. Thereby, hereafter it is referred to work place wellbeing. The wellbeing items belong to the universe of the attitude items (Levy & Sabbagh, 2008). Authors like Andrews and Mckennel (1980) suggest that perceived or subjective wellbeing are also measures of attitudes. In this study a similar approach is used in understanding wellbeing with relation to the work and the work context.

Psychological theories of subjective well being can be distinguished based on whether they emphasize the bottom–up (external / situational) or top-down (internal traits and processes) effects on life satisfaction (Diener, 1984). In the top-down approach life satisfaction is determined largely by personality traits, which is the focus of this study. Diener, Oishi, and Lucas (2003) have found that individual differences in life satisfaction have a moderate to strong genetic component. Studies by Costa and McCrae (1980, 1992) have shown that life satisfaction is associated with personality dimensions like extraversion, neuroticism, and conscientiousness. In another study, Emmons and Diener (1985) have found that extraversion, neuroticism, emotionality, sociability and locus of control are related to all the three areas of subjective well being like positive affect, negative affect and global life satisfaction. In particular they observed that people with higher levels of external locus of control reported higher levels of negative affect and lower levels of positive affect in their lives. People who reported internal locus of control also reported higher levels of positive affect in their life. Zika and Chamberlin (1987), Bostic and Ptacek (2001) have also reported similar results.

Locus of control is largely influenced by the individual's perception. Hojat et al. (2003) have stated that it is not the event per se, but the perception of the event that influences the outcomes. Personality has been identified to be a consistent and stable predictor of what an individual will do or perceive (Wrosch & Scheier, 2003).

Schroder and Rotter (1954) believed that if a link is seen between behaviors and reinforcers then a person's behavior is affected by the reinforcers. If there is no link seen, then a person reacts less predictably to reinforcers (and learning is not as likely to occur). The term Rotter (1954) coined for these beliefs about whether a behavior will meet with a rewarding outcome was Locus of Control. "Internal" (high General Expectancy) locus of control people believe that through their behavior they can control the likelihood of receiving reinforcers. "External" (low General Expectancy") locus of control people don't see as much link between their behavior and the likelihood of being rewarded. Rotter (1966) saw locus of control as being very general whereas subsequent research suggests that it may be specific to different domains (e.g., academic, health, work, etc). Work locus of control is one such domain specific locus of control. Work locus of control is defined as the belief that rewards and outcomes relating to employment (e.g., salary, promotions) are controlled by an individual's own actions (Internal) or by other forces (External) outside of the individuals influence (Spector, 1988).

External locus of control people have been demonstrated to attribute any problems they encounter to external causes and internal locus of control people have been demonstrated

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to attribute any problems they encounter to internal causes meaning that they anticipate the best outcomes from their own abilities. This attitude dictates a belief that an individual can exert control over the stressors by giving meaning to it and interpreting it. The meaning may be 'something can be done to make the stressor more positive', or 'simply accepting that it is out of their control', therefore dealing effectively with the consequences lies on the individual (Scheier et al., 2006). Locus of control therefore provides many psychological benefits, such as psychological respite and acting as a buffering system against enduring stress (Krause & Stryker, 1984). Personality also dictates an individual's feelings which eventually result in actions. Hence in a way, the personality also influences the individual's coping style.

Individual differences in coping have gained interest over the past few decades, owing to a growing curiosity as to why some individuals fare better than others during a period of stress. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) systematic approach identified two major functions of coping: Problem-focused coping (PFC) and Emotion-focused coping (EFC), providing a clearer framework from which the relationship between personality and coping could be understood. Problem-solving strategies are efforts to do something active to alleviate stressful circumstances, whereas emotion-focused coping strategies involve efforts to regulate the emotional consequences of stressful or potentially stressful events. Gianakos (1998) on the other hand, classifies coping behavior in another way that includes control-related coping and escape-related coping. How individual efforts to manage distressing problems and emotions affect the physical and psychological outcomes of stress have been the focus of several researches over the past two decades (Coyne & Downey, 1991; Somerfield & McCrae, 2000).

The interaction between personality and situation is vital in the adoption of an effective coping method and its resulting influence on wellbeing. As might be expected, certain personality traits predispose some individuals to be prone to stress, thus affecting their psychological wellbeing. A study by Petrosky and Birkimer (1991) has showed that direct coping was predicted strongly by the combination of increased age, perceptions of the controllability of situations, and internal locus of control. Meng, He, Yu, and Qi (2009) while investigating the relationship between work locus of control and occupational stress have found that work locus of control is related to coping strategies and also act as a predictive factor of work satisfaction.

The stability of the individual influences how they perceive their current situation (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Unstable individuals perceive themselves to be unsupported, and are therefore more anxious about their circumstances, leading to an overall reduction in their wellbeing (Halamandaris & Power, 1999). By focusing on the positive aspects of the event, an individual may look for a more favorable outcome, resulting in an increased confidence to deal with stressful events and thereby enhancing their psychological wellbeing. Workplace Wellbeing is defined as the sense of wellbeing that employees gain from their work. It is conceptualized as core affect plus the satisfaction of intrinsic and/or extrinsic work values. The two work values intrinsic and extrinsic motivation determines the desire for the employee to work in the organization. Hence the work place well being also has an impact over the psychological well being of an individual.

The transactional theory of stress and coping (Lazarus, 2000, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) postulates that personal beliefs, such as locus of control, are subordinate to coping strategies. Hence, locus of control should be linked with emotional well-being via coping strategies. According to the theory, situation appraisal is an antecedent of the coping strategies. The situational appraisal of an individual is dependent on the personality of an individual and in particular the locus of control. Emotional well-being is viewed as an outcome of stress and coping in the transactional framework. Daniels and Guppy (1994) have studied the effects of social support, job control, participative decision making practices, and locus of control upon the relationship between occupational stress and psychological well-being. The results indicated complex interactions between stressors, locus of control, and social support or job autonomy in predicting psychological well-being, controlling for initial measures of well-being. These interactions also revealed that an internal locus of control, and social support/job autonomy buffer the effects of stressors upon well-being.

As far as the Indian software companies are concerned, most information technology (IT) companies try to take the maximum out of an employee. Hence occupational role stress is the major stress Indian IT professionals suffer (Battacharya & Basu, 2007). Even though the official working hours are 8-9 hours per day, it is usually much more because of unrealistic deadlines set by managers. Additionally, many individuals work on weekends to meet those deadlines. Also software engineers sit in their cubicles for hours without break, which not only affects their physical health but also their mental health. Talwar, Kapoor, Puri, Bansal, and Singh (2009) have found that majority of the professionals suffered from health problems and more specifically from visual and musculoskeletal problems. Computer related morbidity has become an important occupational health problem and of great concern (Sharma, Khera, & Khandekar, 2006). In a study on computer professionals, Kesavachandran, Rastogi, Das, and Khan (2006) have also observed that Indian employees in IT-enabled services experience burnout stress syndrome (BOSS). A study by Rajeswari and Anantharaman (2005) has found that IT professionals have long work hours with different time zones, and too many tasks to be completed within the deadline. Moreover, it has to be done with perfection as per client needs which all lead to occupational stress and work exhaustion.

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Research indicates that people use many types of strategies to combat most stressful events (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Rand, 1986). The predominance of one type of strategy over another is determined, in part, by personal style (e.g., some people cope more actively than others) and also by the type of stressful event. An additional distinction that is often made in the coping literature is between active and avoidant coping strategies. Active coping strategies are either behavioral or psychological responses designed to change the nature of the stressor itself or how one thinks about it, whereas avoidant coping strategies lead people into activities (such as alcohol use) or mental states (such as withdrawal) that keep them from directly addressing stressful events.

Theorists are of the view that active coping strategies, whether behavioral or emotional, are thought to be better ways to deal with stressful events. Avoidant coping strategies are looked as a psychological risk factor or marker for adverse responses to stressful life events (Holahan & Rudolf, 1987). Parkes (1984) investigated locus of control and coping processes in relation to specific stressful episodes reported by female student nurses. Examination of the interactions showed that the patterns of coping reported by internals were potentially more adaptive in relation to types of appraisal than those of externals.

In this study the coping strategies are categorized as Self statements, distraction and catastrophizing. Self statement is about how an individual cope with the stress by telling positive statements to self. In the present study internal locus of control is hypothesized to have a positive relationship with coping self statement strategy, which in turn might have a positive relationship with well being. Distraction strategy is about using imagination to lessen the stress one feels, it is hypothesized to have a positive relationship with internal locus of control and well being. Catastrophizing strategy is about imagining bad things associated with stress, it is hypothesized to have a positive relationship with external locus of control and a positive relationship with wellbeing. Several researchers have studied the relationship between locus of control, coping strategies, and well being independently. However, the influence of these three variables taken together is yet to be studied. This study precisely fills this gap. A model is proposed and tested herein. The premise is that the direct effect between locus of control and wellbeing is significant.

The proposed model is given in Figure 1.

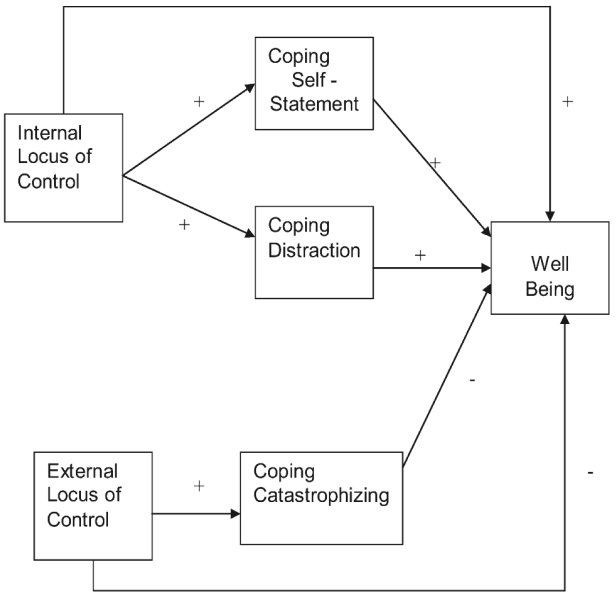

Figure 1. Hypothesized Model.

Methods

Participants

A sample of 200 software engineers from randomly selected organizations in the Indian Information Technology (IT) sector was recruited for the study. Garver and Mentzer (1999) have suggested that a sample size of 200 is required to provide sufficient statistical power for data analysis. The participants were administered the instrument and given enough time to respond to it. Out of the 200 responses collected, 46 responses had missing items and could not be considered for analysis. Hence, only 154 responses were taken for analysis finally. Almost 60% of the respondents were male and 40% were female. 58% of the respondents are in the age group of 21 to 25 years of age, 36% of respondents fall in the age group of 26 to 30 years of age, and only 7% of respondents fall in the age group of 31 to 35 years of age.

Materials and Procedure

Work locus of control was measured by the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) designed by Spector (1988) which is a 16 item instrument designed to assess locus of control beliefs in the workplace. It is a domain specific locus of control scale that correlates about 0.50 to 0.55 with general locus of control. The format is summated rating with six response choices: disagree very much, disagree moderately, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree moderately, agree very much, and scored from 1 to 6, respectively. The mean scores range between 1 and 6. The scale is scored so that externals receive high scores. Internal consistency (coefficient α) generally ranges from 0.80 to 0.85 in the English language version. The scale was modified and the modified version has reported an internal consistency with coefficient alpha 0.88 (Gupchup & Wolfgang, 1997). Test-retest reliability for a year was reported as 0.57 by Bond and Bunce (2003) and 0.60 by Moyle (1995). Daniels and Guppy (1992) have reported a

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Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

SI.No	Variable	*N*	Minimum	Maximum	*M*	*SD*
1	Internal Locus of Control	154	2.25	5.63	4.44	0.84
2	External Locus of Control	154	1.00	5.75	3.47	0.89
3	Distraction Coping Strategy	154	1.00	4.25	2.67	0.65
4	Catastrophizing Coping Strategy	154	1.10	3.80	2.29	0.73
5	Coping Self Statements Coping Strategy	154	1.50	4.30	2.87	0.64
6	Workplace Well-Being	154	1.75	4.25	3.33	0.52

two factor structure of the scale in both accountants and university staff.

Workplace wellbeing is measured by the Workplace Wellbeing Index (WWBI) designed by Page (2005) as a parallel and complementary construct to Subjective Wellbeing Index. WWBI is based on intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation. Extrinsic motivation refers to the desire to work due to external factors such as pay. Intrinsic motivation refers to a desire to work for the psychological rewards associated with the work itself such as achievement and responsibility. The WWBI scale measures satisfaction with the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervision and co-workers and these work values have been derived from Elizur's (1984) research. The Work place wellbeing scale has two parts. Part 1 is about the satisfaction in the work as a whole. The second part is about the various domains of workplace wellbeing.

The Cronbach alphas of the extrinsic and intrinsic subscales were 0.92 and 0.89 respectively. These two subscales were strongly and positively correlated (r = .69) and thus could also be combined to form a composite construct, termed WWB with α = .93 (Page, 2005).

Cognitive Coping Strategies Inventory - Revised (CCSIR) designed by Thorn, Ward and Clements (2003) is a 32 item instrument designed to assess the coping strategies. The format is a 5 point scale, 1 = Never True, 2 =,Some of the Time True, 3 = One Half of the Time True, 4 = Most of the Time True, 5 = All of the Time True. Total score is the sum of all items, and ranges from 32 to 160. The scale comprises of three factors namely Distraction, Catastrophizing and Coping Self-Statements. This inventory has been adapted and used in this study.

The cognitive coping strategies inventory (CCSIR) is designed to assess coping strategies used during painful situations. This instrument is usually used with clinical population. The instrument was adapted to measure the coping strategies adopted during work stress, hence in questions 1, 4, 9, 14, 19, 23, 25, 28, 29 the word 'pain' has been replaced by the word 'stress'.

All the three instruments were administered in English. The internal reliability of the tools used as measured by the alpha values are all above 0.8 (alpha value for WLCS is 0.84, WWBI is 0.82, CCSIR is 0.84) indicating high internal reliability.

Results

The descriptive statistics of the variables considered for the study is given in Table I. The mean score of internal and external locus of control was 4.44 and 3.47.

The mean scores for the three coping strategies distraction, catastrophizing, and self statements were 2.67, 2.29, and 2.86 respectively. The mean score for well being was 3.33.

The mean value of internal locus of control is higher than the mean of external locus of control. This implies that the software professionals in general have high internal locus of control. There is no significant difference in the mean scores for the different coping strategies. The mean score of work place wellbeing lies between 3 and 4 signifying that the work place wellbeing of software professionals is closer to the positive side.

Model Fit

Statistical package AMOS was used to perform structural equation modeling to test the hypothesized model. The relationship between coping styles and the locus of control and the relationship between the coping style and the wellbeing was also tested. SEM is particularly valuable in inferential data analysis and hypothesis testing where the pattern of inter-relationships among the study constructs are specified a priori and grounded in established theory (Hoe, 2008). It has the flexibility to model relationships among multiple predictor and criterion variables, and statistically tests a priori theoretical assumptions against empirical data through confirmatory factor analysis (Chin, 1998). In most cases, the method is applied to test 'causal' relationships among variables. To estimate the model, maximum likelihood estimation is used.

Muthen and Kaplan (1985) have suggested that if the variables have skewness and kurtosis from +1 to -1, then estimating parameters with maximum likelihood is acceptable. In this study the skewness and kurtosis is tested for all the three parts of the instrument and given in table 2.

As the skewness and kurtosis of all the three parts of the instrument falls within the acceptable range of -1 to +1, maximum likelihood estimation could be used for further analysis.

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Table 2
Skewness and Kurtosis

SI.No	Instrument	Skewness Range	Kurtosis Range
1	WLCS	-0.97 to 0.66	-0.94 to 0.75
2	WWBI	-0.30 to 0.74	-0.79 to 0.43
3	CCSIR	-0.74 to 0.23	-0.62 to 0.71

Table 3
Indicators of Model Fitness (Maximum Likelihood Estimation)

CFI	GFI	RMSEA	NFI	TLI	Ψ^2	*df*
0.94	0.98	0.03	0.91	0.89	18.35	8

Note. CFI – Comparative Fit Index, GFI – Goodness of Fit Index, RMSEA – Root mean Square Error of Approximation, NFI – Normed fit Index, TLI – Tucker Lewis Index, df – degrees of freedom.

Though there are many indicators of model fit, as recommended by scholars like Bentler and Wu (2002), Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), more than one indicator has been used in the study to check the fit of the proposed model. As suggested by Garver and Mentzer (1999), Joreskog and Sorbom (1989), Bentler (1990), Browne and Cudek (1993) Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) is calculated. The fit indexes are shown in Table 3.

The TLI for the proposed model is approximately 0.90 and CFI is 0.94. As both these values are greater than or equal to 0.90 the model has a good fit (Garver & Mentzer, 1999; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The RMSEA value is 0.03. A value less than 0.05 is considered a good fit, the RMSEA value in this study shows that the fit is good (Hoe, 2008). RMSEA is extremely informative in model evaluation as it measures the discrepancy between the observed and estimated covariance matrices per degree of freedom (Steiger, 1990). The empirical model with the fit indices is shown in Figure 2.

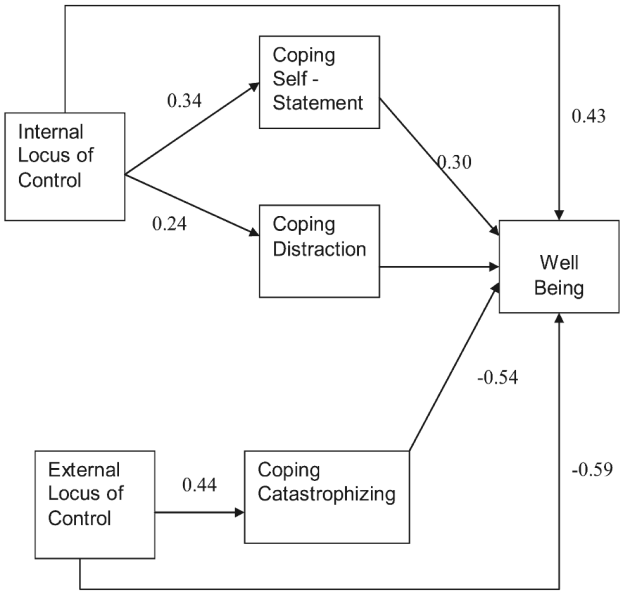

Figure 2. Empirical Model with Standardized Coefficients.

One of the most common methods of evaluating a model fit is Chi-Square method. It is used to assess actual and predicted matrices. Hair et al., (1998) suggest that non significance of Chi-Square means that there is no significant difference between the actual and predicted matrices. As this is sensitive to sample size (Bentler 1990), another way of using Chi-Square statistic for testing the model fit is by using the Chi-Square value (Ψ^2) and the degrees of freedom. The ratio of Ψ^2 to the degrees of freedom (*df*) for the model is hence measured (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1993). Though there is no clearly established criteria for minimally accepted value for this ratio, Kline (1998) has suggested that Ψ^2 / *df* should be 3 or less for a good model fit. The Chi-Square value for the proposed model is 18.35 with 8 degrees of freedom, hence the ratio is 2.29 which is less than 3, hence the proposed model has a good fit and the path between the variables can be analyzed further.

According to Chin (1998), standardized paths should be at least 0.20 and ideally above 0.30 in order to be considered meaningful for discussion. In the proposed model of the study almost all the values (0.21 to 0.54) fall in the acceptable range and hence the hypothesized model is accepted with all the proposed paths. In the hypothesized model both positive as well as negative relationship exists as the path coefficients have positive as well as negative values.

Although the fit indices are satisfactory, the path from coping distraction to wellbeing is not significant. All other paths in the model are significant. An acceptable fit might have been reported for the model because of the extremely high path coefficients in some paths although the other path coefficients are negligible (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2005). Ganster and Fusilier (1989) have concluded that locus of control is an important element in wellbeing. This study has also shown the importance of locus of control in predicting wellbeing. Even though coping mediates the relationship between locus of control and wellbeing, the paths between locus of control and wellbeing are more significant (path coefficients are 0.43 and -0.59, $p < .05$). Daniels and Guppy (1997) have reported the reciprocal nature of stress on the relationship between locus of control and psychological wellbeing in their study. This study also reports similar results.

Internal locus of control has accounted for only 22% of variance in coping self statement and coping distraction.

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External locus of control has accounted for only 42% of variance in coping catastrophizing. On the whole the variables locus of control and coping accounted for 84% of variance in wellbeing.

Discussion

When people are confronted with stress they face two challenges: meeting the requirements of the stress situation and protecting the self from psychological disorganization (Lazarus, 1966, 2000). When they feel competent to handle the stress, they may opt for problem-focused coping; when they doubt their own competencies; emotion-focused coping may prevail. Those who use problem-focused coping are likely to approach stress as a problem to be solved; they move from merely thinking and worrying about their difficulties to actively take steps to deal with them, thereby reducing stress.

The results show that the relationship between locus of control and wellbeing is mediated by coping strategies which is in accordance with the transactional theory by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). Self statement coping strategy is associated with minimization of the stimulus which includes positive statements like telling oneself that this scenario will not last, internal locus of control is positively related to the coping strategy of self statements. Self statement strategy uses the style of accepting the stressful situation and convincing oneself that it can be dealt effectively. Hence the self statement strategy is similar to the acceptance strategy or problem focused coping strategy as proposed by Lazarus (1966).

Furukawa, Sarason, and Sarason (1993) describe coping as an important variable, playing a significant role in psychological and physical health. Vaillant (2000) found that mental health can be predicted through a person's self-rated use of defense styles in crisis situations. The development of a successful coping behavior is likely to reduce stress and enable a person to solve self problems, while maintaining psychological balance and health (Silber et al., 1961). In this study also it has been proved that the negative coping strategy like catastrophizing has resulted in negative wellbeing. Catastrophizing is a way of immature handling of stress; hence it affects the wellbeing of an individual negatively.

Primary and secondary control engagement coping responses are associated with fewer depressive symptoms, whereas disengagement coping and involuntary engagement responses are associated with more depressive symptoms. Wadsworth et al. (2004) have found that there is a difference in mental health based on coping styles of each individual respondent and in particular people with mature coping styles had comparatively good mental health and those who commonly used immature coping styles had poor mental health. The wellbeing of an individual includes the mental health of the person also; the study results support the earlier findings of McMurray, Richard, Archimede, Michael, and Wright (1986). Their results show that persons indicating internal control reported more coping strategies (Acceptance, Fighting spirit) related to increased well-being, whereas persons indicating external control reported a coping strategy related to poorer well-being. Coping strategies have also reported to have relationship with work place wellbeing (Fortes-Ferreira, Peiro, Gonzalez-Morales, & Martin, 2006), which is of the same view as this study.

The mediated model reported a good fit. Both the direct and the meditational paths are significant. However, the former path is stronger. This indicates a greater role of locus of control in the model.

Internal locus of control is about attempting to manipulate the environment and take control of events in life. As internals feel that they are responsible for the life happenings, they feel emotionally healthy. Wellbeing is affected by the way how one approaches life (Cantor & Sanderson, 1999). As internals have clarity of life events and exert control over the life events, they are satisfied with the life happenings. Hence their wellbeing increases. Externals feel that they are powerless in controlling their life events and it is only the luck or fate that plays a role in deciding their life events. Hence externals accept the life events passively. This passiveness and the feeling of helplessness to reduce the stress associated with life events could affect the wellbeing negatively.

The implications of the study for the managers in an organization are very high. The organization can help the employees in developing effective coping strategy as employees face stressful events in the work scenario frequently. As the betterment of the wellbeing is related to the coping style adopted by an individual, more efficient coping techniques can be developed in the employees. Since Work place wellbeing might be superior as indicator of welfare at work, the employer has a great concern in developing the work place wellbeing.

The major limitation of the study is its reliance on the self ratings which are subjected to bias. Future studies may use other ratings to control bias. The study can be extended by taking different coping styles separately and examining their relationship with the work place wellbeing. The study can also be extended by looking at external locus of control from two separate aspects like external luck and external others.

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