13. Technical Teachers Training Institute, Madras.
15. Ethiraj College for Women, Madras.
16. Meenakshi College for Women, Madras.

IV. Madurai Kamaraj University
1. Lady Doak College, Madurai.
2. Madura College, Madurai.
3. The American College, Madurai.
4. Arul Anandar College, Karumathur.
5. G.T.N.Arts College, Dindigul.
6. Thiagarajar College, Madurai.
7. Vivekananda College, Thiruvedagam.
10. Thiagarajar College of Engineering, Madurai.
11. Sri Meenakshi Government College (Women), Madurai.

V. Manonmaniam Sundaranar University
1. St.Xavier’s College, Palayamkottai.
2. S.P. College for Women, Courtallam.

CHAPTER–III
CONCEPTS AND REVIEWS

Stress in work organisation has emerged as a focal theme of research in India and abroad. Nevertheless, during more than two decades, after the pioneering research work
of Khan et al. (1964)\textsuperscript{10}, not much headway could be made in discovering the potent sources of organisational stress other than the role conflict and the role ambiguity-its two embryonic dimensions. It was MC Grath (1976)\textsuperscript{11} who pointed out that role conflict and role ambiguity were only two aspects of the multi-dimensional phenomenon of stress. In the present study, the concepts involved in stress are discussed.

\textbf{Stress}

Stress is an adoptive response. It is the body’s reaction to an event that is seen as emotionally disturbing, disquieting, or threatening. The stress has been defined as both dependent and independent variables. In stress as the independent variable or response-based model of stress, the stress depends upon various stressor agents whereas in the stress an the independent variable or stimulus-based model of stress, the stress creates strain and health problems.\textsuperscript{12}

\textbf{Sources of Stress}

Stress can emanate from a variety of sources. Pestonjee (1992)\textsuperscript{13} has identified three important sectors of life from which stress may originate.

---

i) Job and Organisation: These refer to the totality of the work environment, such as job description, work culture, inter-personal relationships and compensation offered.

ii) Social Sector: Denotes the socio-cultural milieu of a person. It may include religion, caste, language, attitudes and beliefs of others, the political and legal environment, and so on.

iii) Intrapsychic sector: This encompasses those aspects which are intimate and personal such as an individual’s values, abilities, temperament, personality, needs, expectations and health.

i) Customary anticipated life events (any major change in life) such as marriage, divorce, beginning/ending of school, children leaving home and retirement.

ii) Unexpected life events (any major life event which occurs suddenly), for example, unexpected bereavement, sudden loss of job, major accident, becoming aware of a terminal illness.

iii) Progressive, accumulating situational events (any continuously recurring problems in life’s activities) like daily hassles, job and family stress, school stress and competition.

iv) Personality aspects (any personal traits that create social problems), such as poor communication, low self-esteem, insecurity, lack of confidence, poor decision-making and fear of failure.

v) Value-dependent traits (circumstances generating thought-feeling conflict), for instance, revolutions, broken homes, moral dilemmas such as cheat or fail, and peer pressure vs personal conscience.

Cartwright and Cooper (1997)\textsuperscript{15} identified six major sources of work stress.

These are:

i) Factors intrinsic to the job: These are related to poor working conditions, shift work, long hours, travel, risk and danger, poor technology, work underload and overload.

ii) Role in the organisation: When a person’s role in the organisation is clearly defined, stress can be kept to a minimum. Pareek (1993) has provided a fairly comprehensive list of stresses commonly encountered with reference to one’s role in the organisation.

iii) Relationships at work: Selye (1983) pointed out that good relationships between members of a group is a key factor in individual and organisational health. There are three critical interpersonal relationships at work: relationships with one’s boss, those with one’s subordinates, and those with one’s colleagues.

iv) Career development factor: Includes the degree of job security, fear of job loss, obsolescence of one’s skills and capabilities and retirement. For many workers, peer progression is of over riding importance. Performance appraisals can be an extremely stressful experience.

v) Organisational structure and climate: Non-participation at work and a general lack of control in the organisation are related to a variety of stress related symptoms.

vi) Non-work pressures: Include pressures on the home front due to job stress. The dual career family model may be source of stress for women as well as men.

comprises the amount of time they are able to devote to their jobs, the degree of mobility they have, the acceptance of transfer change, if the wife is also working.

**Job Stress**

An important part of one’s life that causes a great deal of stress is one’s job or work. Work related stress is of growing concern because it has significant economic implications for the organisation. According to Dua (1994), the commonly seen stressors include:

1. Intrinsic job factors such as poor working conditions, work overload and monotony.
2. Role in organisations, for example, role conflict and role ambiguity.
3. Career development, for instance, lack of promotional opportunities, policies and job insecurity.
4. Poor relationship at work.
5. Organisational culture.

Over and above these, there are extra-organisational stressors that interact with on-the-job factors. These are family problems, personal problems and social problems.

Pestonjee (1992) identified three sources of stress: a) job and organisation, b) the social sector, and c) the intrapsychic sector. The total amount of stress emanating from these three sectors will depend on the stress tolerance limit of the person. The Dynamics of job stress is presented below: (Cartwright and Cooper 1997).

Sources of Job Stress

Marshall and Cooper (1981) identified the sources of stress at work as shown below:

I. Intrinsic to job
   i) Too much work, qualitative/quantitative
   ii) Too little work
   iii) Time pressures/deadlines
   iv) Poor physical working conditions
   v) Too many decisions

II. Role in Organisation
   i) Role ambiguity
   ii) Role conflict
   iii) Too little responsibility
   iv) No participation in decision-making
   v) Responsibility for people
   vi) Responsibility for things
   vii) Lack of managerial support
viii) Increasing standards of acceptable performance
ix) Organisational boundaries (internal and external)

III. Relation within Organisation
i) Poor relations with boss
ii) Poor relations with colleagues and subordinates
iii) Difficulties in delegating responsibility
iv) Personality conflicts

IV. Career Development
i) Over promotion
ii) Under promotion
iii) Lack of job security
iv) Fear of redundancy/retirement
v) Fear of obsolescence
vi) Thwarted ambition
vii) Sense of being trapped

V. Organisational Structure and Climate
i) Restrictions on behaviour
ii) Lack of effective consultation and communication
iii) Uncertainty about what is happening
iv) No sense of belonging
v) Loss of identity
vi) Office polities

VI. Organisation Interface with Outside
i) Divided loyalties
ii) Conflicts with family demands

VII. Intrinsic to individual
i) Personality
ii) Inability to cope with change
iii) Declining abilities
iv) Lack of insight into own motivation and stress
v) Ill-equipped to deal with interpersonal problems
vi) Fear of moving out of area of expertise

The researcher can be grouped into three categories, one giving the stimulus oriented, the other response oriented and the third transaction oriented. Definition of stress depending upon their suitability, persuasion and field of study. Hall and Mansfield (1971)\textsuperscript{17} and Khan \textit{et al.} (1964)\textsuperscript{18} belong to the first category who regard stress as an external force operating on an individual, was perceived as a threat.

Rajeswari Besonitz \textit{et al.} (1955)\textsuperscript{19}, Parkar and Decotiis, (1983)\textsuperscript{20} and Rajeswari (1992)\textsuperscript{21} believe in the response-oriented approach. They feel that stress should be conceived as an organism’s response to internal and external processes that go beyond the limits of its physical, psycho-physiological and integrative capacities. Among the supporters of interaction or transaction-oriented concept are Beehr and Newman (1978)\textsuperscript{22},

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Lazarus (1971)\textsuperscript{23} and Schular (1984)\textsuperscript{24}, Stress, they feel, involves an interaction of the person and environment.

\textbf{Social Support and Job Stress}

Social support has been one of the most widely studied social phenomena in past 20 years; it has also been one of the most difficult to pin down conceptually and operationally (Gottlieb,\textsuperscript{25} 1985, Shumaker and Brownwell,\textsuperscript{26} 1984). The different sources of social support range from special relationships to support from family and friends to success of support in work place (i.e. supervisors and co-workers).

\textbf{Work Place Sources of Support}

The role of supportive communication in organisations has been primarily considered when examining job stressors (Ray & Mioller, 1991).\textsuperscript{27} Both supervisors and co-workers are in optional positions to provide support because of their understanding of

\begin{thebibliography}{99}
\end{thebibliography}
the stresses inherent in the work place. It is possible that supervisors and co-workers could relieve job stress by sharing information and resources, offering suggestions, and helping realize that they are not alone.

**Home Sources of Support**

A myriad of research has found that support from family and friends can have positive effect on a wide range of physical and psychological outcomes (Allrecht and Adelman, 1987). However, the beneficial effects of home sources of support may also be the cause of stress. (Lehmann and Worng 1984), Because there has been no research specially addressing the impact of home source of support on this type of stress, the positive effect of social support should not be assumed.

**Consequences of Stress**

The effects of stress is considered in terms of costs to the individual, the work environment and society. The effects on individual include cardiovascular and respiratory disorders, metabolism malfunction, cancer, mental illness and psychosomatic disease. This is followed by a discussion of the behavioural response to stress, including smoking, alcohol consumption and accident involvement. And finally, organisational costs including absenteeism, poor industrial relations and labour turnover are considered. The interactive nature of the symptoms of stress is shown below.

**Organisational Role Stress**

Any organisation may be perceived as a system of roles. These roles are different from positions or offices in the organisation. According to Katz and Kahn (1996)\(^{29}\), office is a relational or power-related concept, while role is an obligation concept. Office is concerned with the hierarchical positions and privileges, whereas role refers to the obligations attached to that office. Thus office defines the power of the holder. Role determines the obligations of the person holding that office. Pareek (1994) has defined

---

role as a set of functions, which an individual performs in response to the expectations of others and his own expectations about the role. There are two role systems: role space and role set. Both have a built-in potential for conflict. Such a conflict is called as role stress.

1. Role space conflict: It refers to conflicts between the self, a person’s role and other roles occupied by him. Role stress may take various forms namely self-role distance, role stagnation and inter-role distance.

2. Role set conflict: While role space conflicts arise from the incompatibility between the self and the roles played by the person, role set conflicts denote in-compatibilities amongst the varying expectations that ‘significant others’ have from the role encumbent. Among the important role set conflicts are the role ambiguity, role expectation conflict, role overload, role erosion, role inadequacy, personal inadequacy and role isolation.

Udai Pareek’s (1983) contribution to the organisational role research lies in identifying as many as ten different types of Organisational Role Stress (ORS). They are:

1. Inter-role distance Stress – Conflict between Organisational and Non-organisational roles.
2. Role Stagnation Stress – Feeling of being struck up in the same role.
3. Role expectation stress – Conflicting demands originating from colleagues.
4. Role erosion stress – Role has become less important or some body else gets the credit.

5. Role overload stress – Too much work or doing things of considerable importance.

6. Role Isolation stress – Absence of strong linkages of one’s role with other roles.

7. Personal inadequacy stress – Absence of adequate skills, competence and training format the demands of one’s role.


10. Resource Inadequacy stress – Human or material resources allocated are inadequate to meet the demands of the role.
REVIEWS

Karuna Sharma and Mahajan (2003) found that the age, salary and work experience influenced the various types of role stress among the clerical cadre employees of nationalised banks. It was also evident that both more and less experienced women suffered by more stress than their counterparts. More experienced men experienced more stress on Role Stagnation and Resource Inadequacy whereas women felt more stress on Inter-role distance, Role erosion and role isolation.

Vander Pompe and Hepus (1993) revealed that there was no significant difference among male and female managers regarding the stress. Both work and life support were negatively correlated with work stress and only work support was negatively correlated with work stress, which was strongly related to reducing work stress and was positively related to each measure of strain.

Usha Sree, et al. (1995) reported significant effect of gender role difference alone on job stress. Masculine and androgynous subjects were undergoing more stress than others.

Amudha Devi and Velayudham (2003)\textsuperscript{34} pointed out that the Government and private staff had an equal amount of job satisfaction. The work autonomy, occupational status and work schedule were perceived as ingredients of job satisfaction with their autonomy, status and the type of work schedule concerned.

Uma Bhowon and J.Ah-Kion (2004)\textsuperscript{35} revealed that perception of inequity, role overload and inadequacy of role authority were the key aspects of stress confronting employees. Dimensionwise analysis indicated that different ingredients of work stress encountered employees with varying vigour and gravity. The study also indicated that employees’ perception of organisation structure and processes determined stress experience of inequality. The organisational climate was also identified as a contingency variable for stress.

Panchanathan (1997)\textsuperscript{36} found the relationship between the creative personality and occupational stress among the problem solving executives, who were classified into Generator, Conceptualizer, Optimizer and Implementer. The negative relationship between the occupational stress and creative personality was also identified among four groups of problem-solvers.

\begin{enumerate}
\end{enumerate}
Ashish Roy (1997)\textsuperscript{37} found that junior scientists faced more role stress in role stagnation and role erosion whereas the senior scientists faced role overload. A significant relationship was identified in Inter-role distance among the boss and colleagues, in role expectation conflict among boss and wife; in role erosion among boss and subordinates, in role isolation among parents and subordinates, in personal inadequacy among boss and parents; and in self-role distance among boss and subordinates.

Deosthalee (2000)\textsuperscript{38} concluded that the type of organisation in which female executives worked had no impact on the stress experienced by them. In an organisation the stress experienced by female executives was significant, as higher the position lesser the stress experienced by them.

Srivastava (2004)\textsuperscript{39} concluded that private and public sector workers significantly differed in terms of overall welfare activities. The public sector provided better welfare facilities to their workers in comparison to the private sector. Public sector workers had more favourable attitude towards management regarding all aspects compared to private sector workers.

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Anne Marie and Zhen (2004) felt that the nature of relationship between organisational commitment and performance were similar in the case of role performance, altruism and conscientiousness. There was a stronger positive relationship between commitment and each of the performance measures for low collectivism group whereas the high collectivism group had a weaker relationship.

Singh and Singh (2004) found that the stress had been found associated positively and significantly with poor organisational structure and climate; poor interpersonal relations; work inhibitors; lack of resources; inconsiderate superior and role ambiguity. But stress had not been found associated significantly with work load, unmet financial needs, job in security, rigid roles and monotonous job.

Cummins (1990) suggested role conflict and ambiguity, work overload, under utilisation of skills, resource inadequacy and lack of participation as the main categories of work stressors.

Lim and Hian (1999) conducted a study to identify key factors at the work place which generate stress among information personnel in Singapore. Lack of career...

development, work overload, risk-taking and decision-making, and employee morale and organisational culture were identified as broad categories of stressors.

Nirmala (2002)\textsuperscript{44} found that there was significantly a negative relationship between job performance and occupational stress of cashier-cum-clerks. Four dimensions of occupational stress namely role overload, role conflict, powerlessness and intrinsic impoverishment were significantly but negatively related to job performance of cashier-cum-clerks.

Mihir Kumar Shome (2003)\textsuperscript{45} concluded that the male and female groups did not show any significant difference regarding their perception of work environment. The male employees were involved and committed to their jobs; preferred better relations with their colleagues, engaged in good planning, were always busy at their work and preferred variety, change and new approaches for betterment. The female employees were concerned and committed to their jobs, had a cordial relation with their colleagues and they felt that the authorities encouraged them to be self-sufficient and make their own decision.


Gani and Shah (1999) stated that most of the bank employees experienced medium to high levels of stress. The dimension-wise analysis revealed that different ingredients of work stress encountered employees with varying vigour and gravity. There was ample evidence that the stress sensation was dependent upon the type of ownership of organisation. The technological and operational changes in the industry were not so stressful whereas the inter-group and superior-subordinate relationship at work was not so distasteful and the employees were not much disturbed on account of conflicting orders and expectations.

Sharma and Sharma (1997) found that the organisational characteristics were relatively more important predictors of job satisfaction than task characteristics. Together these two sets of situational factors explained 29.17 per cent of the variance in job satisfaction, while no significant amount of variance in job satisfaction was explained by the personal related factors.

Chakrapani (1996) revealed that the most important variables significantly correlating with several of the stress-indicator-response measures, were family support, ego strength, health and radicalism. Both family support and religion were involved here as institutional factors in altering the stressor character of unemployment.

Ray and Miller (1994)\(^{49}\) examined the impact of demographic variables namely job type, job tenure, work shift and nature work on the perception of home work stress. None of these variables had a significant impact on the perception of home/work stress. The important factors revealing the work stress identified by the analysis were home/work stress, support from supervisors, co-workers, administration, family-size, emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization.

Harigopal and Ravikumar (1979)\(^{50}\) suggested that a manager’s satisfaction with company was influenced by his job attitudes and role perceptions at the middle and lower management levels. The job attitude and role stress variables together accounted for 44 per cent of the variance of company satisfaction. The role ambiguity was significantly but negatively associated with the company’s satisfaction.

Ravikumar (1985)\(^{51}\) identified seven major sources of executive stress namely job, relation within organisation, organisational structure and climate, organisational interface with external world, career development, individual manager and determinants of stress.

Asha Balagangadharan and Afneeda, (2004)\(^{52}\) concluded that patient groups and the normal group did not differ in their level of stress tolerance. With regard to the

\footnotesize


personality characteristics, the rheumatoid arthritic patients exhibited more of inertia compared to osteoarthritic or normal groups. The personality characteristics of inertia and activation were positively related to the perceived stress of patients.

Timothy Judge and Remus Ilies (2004)\textsuperscript{53} showed that mood did spill over outside the work environment in that the affective states experienced at work influenced mood, measured later in the day, at home. The results indicated that psychological mechanisms through individual’s mood and job satisfaction were inter-connected across work and off-work spheres and across time, and of the ways in which stable dispositions influenced these mechanisms.

Ritu Lehal (2001)\textsuperscript{54} found that the responsibility, reward initiative and risk, warmth and the like were important sub factors of organisational climate. Faculty communication system, improper and delayed grievance handling and decision making were responsible if an executive perceived that the climate was unfavourable to him.


Mathur and Mehta (1996)\textsuperscript{55} showed the considerable significance of job involvement of managers in organisations with organisational effectiveness. A significant positive correlation was identified among job satisfaction, achievement climate with the job involvement, whereas a significant negative correlation was identified between control climate and job involvement.

Kumar and Kulkarni (1996)\textsuperscript{56} provided a framework for appraising the performance of the teachers working in the institutions of technical education. It included four aspects namely teaching, research, extension and other activities. These aspects were given different weightage for different categories of teachers, namely lectures, readers and professors.

Panchanathan, \textit{et al.} (1998)\textsuperscript{57} found that an individual’s quality decision-making skills were associated with their level of achievement motivation. Individuals with relatively high level of skills are more often found to make quality decisions and individuals with low skills are found to make defective decisions. An orientation towards the vocational and skill achievements was found to significantly influence the vigilant/quality decision-making skills.


Yitzhak Fried (1993)\textsuperscript{58} mentioned that the work stress studies had largely failed to recognize the potential positive effects of union representatives as a source of social support that could help in reducing the adverse effect of stress at work. Work stress studies had also ignored the importance of the individual relations to climate in determining the success of organisational programmes to reduce employees level of work stress.

Arie Shirom and Ada Mayer (1993)\textsuperscript{59} found that the stress variables among the teachers were disciplining students, Home-work conflict, physical conditions, extra-curricular duties, parent-teacher conflict, teacher-principal conflict and overload.

Nandaram and Bert (1993)\textsuperscript{60} revealed that the union members did report experiencing a variety of role stressors as a consequence of their union activities and that these stressors were associated with emotional exhaustion. Problems that were found to be most strongly associated with the feeling of uselessness and the wish to quit were qualitative overload.

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Pestonjee and Azeem (2001)\textsuperscript{61} stated that the university teachers had a lower level of stress and burnout. They had a low feeling of emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and high feeling of personal accomplishment, which reflected a low burnout in them. A significant difference among professors, readers and lecturers was identified in their level of role stress and turnover. Lecturers were found to be the most stressed group probably because they were less experienced with higher workload, problem of clarity and other factors.

Syed Zafar and Jeyakumaran (2004)\textsuperscript{62} identified the important causes of stress as the changing managing styles, the growing requirement to manage people, career prospects, organisational structure, climate at work and home interface, conflict between being a specialist or a generalist, conflict between being an individual and a team player, inadequate support and recognition from ones’ boss; poor work equipment and premises; excessive organisational change and fear of losing one’s job.

Geeta Seshu (2003)\textsuperscript{63} found that the youngsters working at call centers were increasingly seeking help for work-related stress, irregular sleeping hours, unhealthy food habits and chronic fatigue.

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Vasumathi, et al. (2003)\textsuperscript{64} found that small entrepreneurs were affected by stress caused by achievement and affiliated need-related stressors. Power-need related stressors were not significant to affect them. Secondly, entrepreneurs adopted silent, less-expensive, tradition-bound stress reduction strategies, in preference to other type of stress coping styles.


Panchaksari, et al. (2001)\textsuperscript{66} revealed that the personal and socio-psychological variables considered for the study did not have any significant association with job involvement and job satisfaction. But the job performance was significantly associated with age, qualification and experience, while salary, rural background, training and countries visited did not influence job performance.

Kelloway et al. (1993)\textsuperscript{67} expressed the identification of job satisfaction as an outcome of industrial relation stress. The effect of negative industrial relation stress on

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
job satisfaction was fully mediated by negative mood, positive industrial relations stress which had both direct and indirect effects on job satisfaction. The negative industrial relations stress had a substantial effect on negative mood, and the positive industrial relations stress had a much smaller impact on positive mood.

Omar Bin Sayeed (2002)\textsuperscript{68} revealed that there were serious problems with the study that had failed to distinguish between Human Resource Development facilitators and resultant practices. In fact, due to this reason the HRD facilitators and practices lost their relative independence as two separate domains of HRD. The linkages between the practices/facilitators together and the profit maximization of the company were not confirmed as otherwise noted by many other researchers in this field.

Mahesh Prabha and Rodrigues (2003)\textsuperscript{69} found that the employees in the organisation indicated a high level of satisfaction in the dimension of safety and security whereas, training and development were rated poorly. Scope for advancement and participative management were the other poorly perceived dimensions of organisational climate. Even though, there was no significant difference between non-executives and executives in most of the dimensions of organisational climate, the non-executives had a relatively negative attitude to the organisational climate in their organisation.

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
Mala Sinha (2001) found a significant difference among males and females regarding their employment related attitudes. All females and males belonging to lower classes displayed low motivational state, by having unfocused job aspirations, external control, and a less supportive family. The present study also showed that fathers were better support givers to males than females. Men belonging to socio-economically disadvantaged class displayed deficits in motivational state just as the women in the study did.

Heaney et al. (1993) revealed that those employees who were involved in the stress project reported more frequent participation in decision-making, were more likely to perceive management and supervisors as soliciting and adopting employee ideas, and were less depressed than those employees who did not highly involve in the participation action in stress project.

Kumar and Patnaik (2002) showed that the HRD climate had a positive and substantial relationship with all the components of attitude towards work namely job properties, organisational policies and practices, power and control, relationship with others and other facets of work situation. The HRD climate had not contributed towards


improvement of role efficacy of its teachers. There was a positive relationship of HRD climate with all the components of job satisfaction namely pay satisfaction, security satisfaction, social satisfaction, supervisory satisfaction and growth satisfaction.

Rodrigues (2004)\textsuperscript{73} stated that faculty members had rated highly the dimensions namely interpersonal relationship and training and development. Poor rating dimension of participative management indicated a lack of involvement of the teaching faculty in the decision making process at different levels namely setting syllabi, curriculum design, developmental plans, supervision, counselling and mentoring.

Madhavan (1996)\textsuperscript{74} identified the profile of teacher competency. These were develop/revise curriculum, utilize infrastructural resources, deliver instruction, use learner-centered delivery methods, evaluate student performance, participate in profession development, use motivational strategies, manage class room, counsel students, administer department, organise co-curricular activities, analyse teacher performance, evaluate institution and programme, promote institutional growth, organise industrial linkages and maintain good relations with community.

---


Jayawardane (1995)\textsuperscript{75} suggested that individuals who attached greater importance to work values, prestige, participation, relationship with superiors, independence, variety, achievement, and a lower value on economic returns would get highly involved when the organisation provided a meaningful job. This involvement led to greater commitment in turn resulting in an increase of productivity.

Minter (2003)\textsuperscript{76} found that work-related stress affected 40 million employees in the European Union, 28 per cent of the workforce. European union officials estimated the annual bill for job stress was $20 billion. Some 50 to 60 per cent of absenteeism had been tied to work related stress.

Varhol (2000)\textsuperscript{77} mentioned the relationship between organisational factors and stress, suggesting that different aspects of organisational design could significantly influence perceptions of job stress. Stress and accompanying depression in the workplace was now the second most disabling illness inflicting workers after heart disease.

Mukta Singhvi and Kamlesh Singh (2004)\textsuperscript{78} found that inside density had a significant effect on mental stress but outside density did not. The reason for this could be the fact that people seemed to be less affected by the area and people living outside

\begin{itemize}
\item Minter (2003), Easing the Stress: Will employees heed the doctor’s advice and stop pushing employees so hard, occupational hazards.
\end{itemize}
their residences. They were affected by the number of persons present inside their immediate homes.

Hossain (1997)\textsuperscript{79} concluded that the occupational stress was one of the important predictors of job performance. Stress could be either helpful or harmful to job performance, depending upon its degree. Anxiety, irritation, depression and annoyance in combination with unpleasant emotional experience of work were considered as occupational stress.

Magid Igbaria and Tor Guimaraes (1999)\textsuperscript{80} showed that role ambiguity was negatively correlated with age and organisational tenure and positively correlated with education. Role conflict was negatively correlated with organisational tenure. Overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervision were positively correlated with age and organisational tenure. Satisfaction with work and co-workers was positively related to age, and satisfaction with promotion was positively related to organisational tenure.

Naval Karrir and Amulya Khurana (1999)\textsuperscript{81} identified the significant differences in quality of work life of managers in all three sectors namely public, private and co-operative with respect to small size organisations. Managers from small size

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
organisations in public sector experienced the best quality of work life. There was significant difference in managers from large size organisations with respect to quality of work life followed by private and co-operative sector organisations.

Raja Muthirulandi (2003) stated that the vision of autonomy in colleges comprised academic innovation, academic excellence, evaluation-internalisation, innovative teaching and methodologies, accountability and participatory decision making.

Lakshmanan (2003) listed out the pre-requisities for a “modern teach” in an information society. These were socially responsible teacher, teacher of high values and morality, teacher managing identity crises, learner-centred teacher, accountable teacher, teacher for professionalism, teacher for global vision and speed, teacher with content managerial skills, teacher with knowledge in management qualities and teacher with leadership qualities.

Sudarshan (2003) found the shift of pedagogy in business schools. It was identified as a shift from Guru-Shishya model and teacher-student model to knowledge-supplier; knowledge-customer model (KS-KC). Under the KS-KC model, the onus slowly shifted to teachers to deliver knowledge to knowledge customers who had paid for it like other services.

Xavier Alphonse (2003) revealed that the autonomous system, though a breakthrough in higher education, had not adequately responded to the changing needs. It is felt that higher education today should go beyond autonomy if it should meet the challenges before it. The changes should be radical and structural rather than superficial. Some of the desirable changes needed were: flexibility in administration, inbuilt system of updating curriculum, need-based and job-oriented courses, innovative teaching-learning methods and learner friendly system.

Srinivasan and Jawahar (2003) concluded that there was an adverse relationship between work stress and psychosomatic systems. It established the need for stress monitoring and alleviating efforts by organisations. The extensive main effect evidenced for empowerment pointed to the efficacy of the construct as a supplementary predictor in stress research. The results supporting empowerment as a moderator of the work-stress-psychosomatic symptoms relationship suggested that organisations could adopt empowering strategies such as delegation of authority, participation in decision-making, natural-task leadership and mentoring for positive results.

Adelina Broadbridge et al. (2003)\textsuperscript{87} found that the stress arising from the work of home domain could have a variety of outcomes in the work place, and similarly could impact in many ways on relationships and activities at home. The main job satisfactions mentioned by all the groups were the companionship of their work colleagues. Customers were regarded as both a source of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Lack of formal or informal appreciation or recognition by management efforts by staff to manage increased workloads were also major source of dissatisfaction. Female staff who were within a relationship still retained the major responsibility for housework and child care duties.

Bandopadhyal (2002)\textsuperscript{88} found that all psychic components of personality variables except guilt proneness had a detrimental effect on job satisfaction. Staff nurses working hard and effectively within a favourable but disciplined organisational culture, having good human relations at work, future prospects, security, rewards and recognition had relatively more on job satisfaction.

Amod Kumar Singh et al. (2003)\textsuperscript{89} concluded that superiors experienced higher amount of role stress and perception of role efficacy than managers. The managers and supervisors were significantly different on their experiences of role stresses, but no such

\begin{itemize}
\end{itemize}
significant difference was found in the perception of role efficacy. An inverse
relationship existed between role stress and role efficacy.

Prabhat Kumar Mishre and Gopa Bhardwaj (2003)\textsuperscript{90} found the most important
factors inducing stress among the Air Traffic controllers were inter-role distance and
resource inadequacy. The role stress was inversely related to total monthly income.
Significant differences were also seen among three income groups on inter-role distance,
role stagnation, role erosion, personal inadequacy, self-role distance, role ambiguity and
total role stress.

Palamatham (1993)\textsuperscript{91} revealed that the involvement of the teachers at the thinking,
planning and decision-making levels for bringing about autonomy was rather low. At the
level of implementation their participation had been very high. About 50 per cent of the
teachers in autonomous colleges were involved in some kind of professional
improvement programmes, such as writing research papers and books and participation in
conducting of refresher courses.

Sudha Rao (1995)\textsuperscript{92} stated that without autonomy, academic excellence was a
farce and without accountability, autonomy was impossible. It was for the UGC,

\textsuperscript{81}Prabhat Kumar Mishra and Gopa Bhardwaj, (2003), “Evaluation of role stress in
Indian air traffic controllers”, \textit{Indian Journal of Industrial Relations}, 11(4), June,
pp.318-331.

Colleges with special focus on Innovation and Change”, \textit{New Frontiers Education},
30(3), July-September, p.41.

and Social Change}, 9 (1), April-June, pp.8-9.
universities, State Governments and the colleges to evolve a mechanism of ensuring accountability at all levels to promote autonomy and inturn academic excellence in colleges.

Bajaj (1995)\textsuperscript{93} noted that the teachers were more important in the new scheme of autonomous colleges than anything else and attitudinal changes were called for at all levels for this. It had to be realized that unless teachers were ready for this in their perceptions, this system with wherever it had come to be adopted, would receive only half-hearted support and after a few years would be another educational failure at the tertiary level. The teachers should be properly supported and encouraged by the universities, Governments, managements and above all the UGC.

Francis Soundararaj (1996)\textsuperscript{94} found that the ethical commitment to maintain quality and standards was not exemplary in many autonomous colleges. The unwillingness to go an extra mile in making necessary preparations for offerings, administering and assessing a new course of study; seeking short-cuts to avoid honest work, partiality victimization and misuse of freedom and privilege; and falsification as well as window dressing were among the significant ethical lapses prevalent in some autonomous colleges.

Emmanuel Raj (1990)\textsuperscript{95} analysed the functional efficiency of autonomous colleges at nine dimensions. The autonomous colleges attached to Madurai Kamaraj University were found to be functionally strong in material resources management while in faculty excellence, the colleges were found to be functionally weak. But the common strengths were found to be greater than their common weaknesses.

CHAPTER–IV
PROFILES OF THE RESPONDENTS AND THEIR SOCIAL SUPPORT

Modern civilization has made the life of man more complex, full of hazards of his own creation. It is an era of stress. Frustration, conflict, tension and anxiety have become the regular features. Arriving both at work and at home, these conditions have a detrimental effect on the behaviour of people which ultimately result in industrial inefficiency and sickness. The performance, outcome or productivity is a consequence of a set of some employee attributes such as aptitude, ability, training, experience and psychological make-up. The variables such as intrinsic to job, role in organisation, relations with organisation, career development, organizational structure and climate, organisation’s interface with outside, which are intrinsic to individual. The job factors namely work load, job security, uncertainty, lack of autonomy, underload, job challenges, relationship and want of authority may lead to job stress. The above said variables determining the job stress completely rest on the employee’s perception. That perception is based on one’s profile and hence it is imperative to study the profiles of teachers working in various autonomous colleges affiliated to Madurai Kamaraj University.

The profiles of the respondents are studied in terms of sex, age, educational, qualification, martial status, designation, working in departments, nature of placement, basis of salary fixation, 