CHAPTER I

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The prevailing competitive environment in the organisation leads to develop emotional or physical problem, which results in stress. The difficulties may be temporary or enduring and they may be caused by factors at work or out of the work place.

The 'stress' area has received the attention of various disciplines such as psychology, medical sciences, physiology and management science. Such researchers not only able to find the cause and consequences of stress but also able to suggest preventive measures in the management of stress. Nearly ten thousand people die each year from heart attack (Karoshi) or stroke triggered by over work in Japan (Stephen Robbins, 2004). Researchers were also concern about individual's reaction about sever stress.

The modern life is full of stress. As organisations became more complex, the potential for the amount of stress increases. Urbanisation, industrialization and the increase in scale of operations are causing increasing stresses. These are the inevitable consequences of socio-economic complexity. People feel stressed, as they can no longer have complete control over what happens in their life.

The modern organisations presently recognised that people face various types of stress in their daily work and personal life. Stress is an inherent part of life; it cannot be totally eliminated. There is no escape from stress in modern life. People working in every place, develop emotional or physical problems, which results in stress. The reason for it may be temporary or enduring; reasons may vary from place to place and person to
person. Stress is an all too common part of life today, something few individuals can avoid it. In Western countries number of studies have been undertaken to know the incidence of stress and studies have proved that it affects psychosomatic on worker, it costs more for business, it disturbs domestic lives of employees.

### 1.2 Historical Development

In ancient Greece, Hippocrates often considered the “father of medicine” clearly recognised the existence of a healing power of nature, made up of inherent bodily mechanisms for restoring health after exposure to pathogens. But early investigations where handicapped by the failure to distinguish between distress, always unpleasant, and the general concept of stress, which also encompasses experiences of intense joy and the pleasure of self-expression.

The 19th century French psychologist Bernard (1879) enormously advanced the subject by pointing out that the internal environment of the leaving organism must remain fairly constant despite changes in the internal and external environment: “It is the fixity of the milieu interieur which is the condition of free and independent life.” Bernard’s more enduring legacy was the stimulation of the later investigators to carry forward his pioneering studies on the particular adaptive changes by which the steady state is maintained.

The German physiologists Pfuger (1877) crystallized the relationship between active adaptation and the steady state when he noted that, “the cause of every need of a living being is also the cause of the satisfaction of that need.

In 20th century, the great American physiologist Cannon (1939) suggested the name “homeostasis”, from the Greek homoios, meaning
similar, and a stasis, meaning position, for 'the coordinated physiologic processes which maintain most of the steady states in the organism.' Cannon's classic studies established the existence of many highly specific mechanisms for protection against hunger, thirst, hemorrhage or agents tending to disturb normal body temperature, blood $P_{\text{H}}$, or plasma levels of sugar, protein, fat, and calcium. Cannon emphasized the stimulation of the sympathetic nervous system, with the resulting hormonal discharge from the adrenal glands, which occurs during emergencies such as pain or rage. In term this automatic process includes the cardiovascular changes that prepare the body for fight or flight.

1.3 The Concept of Stress

The life of people in modern world is with stress and anxiety, in spite of technological and scientific advancement. Many people experience high or moderate degree of stress in their daily life. A feeling of frustration, dissatisfaction, psychosomatic and psychological disorders in the life of individuals reflects in high stress. Even psycho-social stress has been also increasing due to change in physical and socio-cultural environment in the society and modern life style of the people. Life has became mechanical, demands of new lifestyle have been increased, time constrain, deadlines in work, uncertainty of future have weakened social support as a result the life of majority of people have became highly stressful in modern society.

The term stress has been derived from the Latin word 'Stringere' which mean to draw tight. The term was used to refer to hardship, strain, adversely or affliction. Several terms have been used synonymously with stress. Four terms are used in literature: stress, strain, conflict and pressure. The word 'strain' has been used to denote the effect of on the individual. 'Pressure' has been used in the same sense. The word 'conflict' usually
denotes incompatibility between two variables; goals, means, ideas etc. The term 'stress' has been used to denote a stimulus (or cause) response (physiological, behavioral or cognitive changes) to such cause (Pareek Udai, 2004).

Stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he/she desires and for which outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important (Schuler R.S., 1980).

Stress is not necessarily bad in and of itself. Although stress is typically discussed in a negative context, it has also positive value. It’s an opportunity when it offers potential gain. Many professionals see the pressures of heavy workloads and deadlines as positive challenges that enhance the quality of their work and the satisfaction they get from their job (Stephen Robbins, 2004).

Stress is also associated with constraints and demands. The former prevents one from doing what he/she desires. The latter refers to the loss of something desired.

The stress caused by good things or the positive impact of stress is called ‘eustress’. This term was coined by the pioneers of stress research from the Greek ‘eu’ which means ‘good’ (Fred Luthans, 2002). Eustress often accompanied growth and positive changes in a person’s life. Eustress refers to the healthy, positive, constructive outcome of the stressful event and the stress response. The managers identified examples of good stress as challenges that come with increased job responsibility, time pressure and high-quality assignments.
1.4 Meaning of Stress

The concise Oxford Dictionary defines stress in different ways. The first definition offered is that of a constraining or impelling force. The second definition treats stress as an effect or demand or energy. The third definition talks of a force exerted on the body.

Random House dictionary (1993) define the terms stress –

i) the physical pressure or other force exerted on thing by another,

ii) Physiology – a specific response by the body to stimulus, as fear or pain that disturbs or interferes with the normal physiological equilibrium of an organisation.

iii) physical, mental or emotional strain or tension; worry over his job, - anxiety, burden, pressure, worry.

As early as in the fourteenth century the term stress was used to denote hardship, straits, adversity or affliction (Lumsden, 1981). In the late seventeenth century, Hooke (Hinkle, 1973; 1977) used the word stress in the context of the physical sciences, although this usage was made systematic till the end of early nineteenth century. Western scientific thought on the concept of stress is concerned, humankind owes a lot to physics. Long before behavioral scientists, physicists had been using the term ‘stress’ to denote the effect of overload on machines. This overload finally causes to breakdown. The analogy between the man and material may be extended if overload, overburden cause ill effect on material what about individuals. W.B.Cannon studied the effects of stress on human being and animals in terms of the well-known ‘fight or flight syndrome’. Under duress, human being tend to choose between two alternatives; the firsts is to make all attempts to resist the environmental pressures and through that process emerge victorious. The second is to avoid the pressure through the use of a variety of defense mechanisms. This is the way to reduce the pressure.
W.B. Cannon first elaborated on the psychological basis of stress. He observed that individuals experiencing extreme heat or cold, lack of oxygen or excitement tended to show increased levels of adrenaline secretion. He described such people as being under stress (Rita Agarawal, 2001).

Ramchandra Rao (1983) has highlighted the origin of stress in ancient Indian thought. He pointed out Sanskrit words 'Klesa' and 'Dukha' from 'Sankhya' and 'Yoga' systems. Klesa is not a mental process but is a set of 'hindering load' on mental process. Thus the concept of Klesa system views Dukha to signify the stress that the individual experiences in the course of his interaction with the world around him. Ramchandra Rao concluded that the conceptual model of appraisal of the self (Asmita), the object (Raga), and the threat (Dwesha). He has referred three types of stress which 'Samkhya' speaks of 'Adhyatmic' (personal), 'Adhibhootik' (situational) and 'Adhidaivic' (environmental) (Shrivastav A. K., 1999).

The Penguin Medical Encyclopedia has describes the term stress as "any influence, which disturbs the natural equilibrium of the body and includes within its reference, physical injury, exposure, deprivation, all kinds of disease and emotional disturbance (Wingate, P., 1972).

The definition denotes stress as a constraining force of individual who is attempting to cope with this force and consequently feels fatigued or distressed.

Hans Selye defined the term stress in his popular writings on 'General Adaptation Syndrome' (GAS). He defined stress as non-specific (that is, common) result of any demand upon the body, be the effect mental or somatic (Saley Hans, 1993).

The definition is based on objective indicators such as bodily and chemical changes that appear after any demand, has brought the subject in to the domain of science.
Selye's opinion that organism makes a universal pattern to response to all types of internal or external demands made on the body. The General Adaptation Syndrome has three stages, i.e. alarm, resistance and collapse. The alarm stage is the body's initial response to stressor, e.g. increase in heart rate and blood pressure, and release of glucose to provide energy for action. If the stress is prolonged, the stage of resistance emerges. The process of homeostasis comes into play at this stage. The Body tries to equilibrate. There is continuing effort to adapt to the stressor during this stage. The body cannot go on coping with stress indefinitely. The third stage of collapse is characterised by a loss of resistance to the stressor and exhaustion, collapse and even death can occur.

Ivancevich and Matteson defines stress simply as, 'the interaction of individual with the environment.' Again they gave detailed working definition of stress as, 'an adaptive response mediated by individual differences and/or physiological processes, that is a consequence of any external (environmental) action, situation or event that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands on a person.' (Ivancavich and Matteson, 1994).

There are numerous definitions and many debates about the meaning of job stress (Beehr T.A., 1980).

Beehr and Newman (1978) defines job stress as, 'a conditions arising from the interaction of people and their jobs characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning'

Considering both the definitions, stress is defined as an adoptive response to an external situation that result in physical, psychological and/or behavioral deviations for organisational participants.

Lazarus and his colleagues' view about stress as, it is individual's perceptual phenomenon rooted in psychological process. Therefore Lazarus
and Lunier (1978), Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined stress as, stress is said to occur in the face of demands that tax or exceeds the resources of system or, to put it in slightly different way, demands to which there are no readily available adaptive responses.

This definition emphasis cognitive appraisals and coping responses. A stressful transaction begins with a primary cognitive appraisal that a situation requires and effective response to avoid or reduce physical or psychological threat and secondary appraisal that no completely effective response is immediately available. The event is not stressful itself but it becomes source of stress only when the focal person apprises it as to be a threat from him and exceed his capability to deal with it.

Stress is an adaptive response to a situation that is perceived as challenging or threatening to person’s well-being (Quick and Quick, 1984).

To conclude, a stress may be referred to as a deviant psychophysiological state of the individuals resulted from a situation cognitively appraised as excessive demanding or threatening, and requiring the focal person to make some adaptive efforts to cope with it (Shrivastav, 1999).

1.5 Job Stress / Occupational Stress

Job stress and occupational stress are the two terms used interchangeably by the academicians. Because of its psychological and physical consequences, stress has been defined in many ways. Laughlin (1984) has defined it as the degree of tension, anxiety and/or pressure experienced by a person. This is a general concept of stress. Due to its complex nature it is also important to define a specific type of stress. Organisational behaviour has long had an interest in occupational stress (job stress).
Stress at work resulting from increasing complexities of work and its divergent demand, has become an important characteristic of the modern organizations. The researcher in the area of organizational psychology and management use the term ‘job stress’ to denote employees' mental state aroused by a job situation and divergent demands.

Caplan, Cobb and French (1975) have defined occupational stress as, “any characteristics of job environment which poses a threat to the individual.”

Copper and Marshall (1976) defined occupational stress that it is meant negative environmental factors or stressors associated with a particular job.

Cox, T. (1987) has defined the occupational stress as, “a person’s recognition of their inability to cope with the demands relating to the work.”

This definition relates to the concept of self-efficacy introduced into the psychology literature by Bandura (1977), that concerns a person’s belief in his or her ability to accomplish a task.

Allen, Hitt and Greer (1982) have defined occupational stress as “disruption in individual’s psychological or physiological homeostasis that force them to deviate from normal functioning in interaction with their jobs and work environment.

1.6 Person – Environment Fit and Job Stress

Misfit between employee and his work and its environment results in stress, psychological and health strains (Allen, Hitt and Greer, 1982). The model of Person-Environment (P-E) Fit by French, Rodgers and Cobb (1974) based on the assumptions that people vary in their needs, expectations and abilities just as jobs vary in their requirements, demands
and incentives. When there is poor fit between the characteristics of employee and his job, the model (P-E Fit) predicts that employee’s well being will be affected. In this model P-E Fit is bilateral (employee and job) and not unilateral. Both should satisfy each other’s demands or expectations. Poor or insufficient supply from either side would cause stress. A good P-E Fit occurs when the supplies in the environment (i.e. money, support from superiors and colleagues, opportunities to satisfy needs for affiliation, power and achievement) are sufficient to satisfy the motives of the employee. P-E Fit represents the interaction of the person and the environment rather than and outcome which each cause.

Ross and Altmair (1994), have also defined occupational stress in the P-E Fit framework. According to them, occupational stress is the result of interaction of work conditions with characteristics of the worker such that a demand of the work exceeds the ability of the worker to cope with them.

The figure 1.1 shows the nature of occupational stress clearly in the framework given by Ivancevich and Matteson.
Fig. 1.1 Occupational Stress Framework

**JOB STRESSORS**
- **ORGANISATIONAL**
  - Intrinsic Job factors
    - Organisational Structure and control
    - Reward System
    - Human Resource system
    - Leadership

- **EXTRA ORGANISATIONAL**
  - Family Relations
  - Economic Problems
  - Legal Problems

**STRESS**
- **COGNITIVE APPRAISAL**
  - As measured by:
    - Visual observation
    - Self Report
    - Bio chemical changes
    - Performance

**OUTCOME**
- Physiological
- Psychological
- Behavioral

**CONSEQUENCES**
- **HEALTH FAMILY**
  - Job Behaviour
    - Absenteeism
    - Turnover
    - Low Productivity
    - Low Quality
    - Burnout

**COPING**
- Cognitive and Affective
- Biological and Demographic

1.7 Approaches to the Study of Job/Occupational Stress

The concept of stress is debatable because of the researcher in various disciplines have defined it differently. The concept has its importance in various disciplines. Beehr and Frang (1987) have outlined the following four approaches of the study of occupational stress.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr.No</th>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Typical</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
<th>Target of Primary treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Physical Strain</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Clinical or Counseling</td>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>Psychological strain</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Engineering Psychology</td>
<td>Physical</td>
<td>Job Performance</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Organisational Psychology</td>
<td>Psychological</td>
<td>Psychological strain</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hanse Selye and Cannon (1976) have focused physical causes and consequences of job stress. This is the medical approach. Psychological approach concentrates on psychological causes and consequences. The clinical or counseling psychology on job stress focuses on physical characteristics of the work, work place and job performance. This approach has a implication for the physical design of the work and workplace treatment.

1.8 Extreme Products of Stress

Stress can be for temporary or long-term period and either mild or sever. The effect of stress on employee depends upon how long it causes and how employee handles it effectively. Following are the extreme products of stress.
Burnout:

According to the model developed by Hans Selye (General Adaptive Syndrome – GAS), the human body cannot instantly rebuild its ability to cope with stress once it is depleted (Newstorm and Keith Davis, 1998). As a result employee became physically and psychologically weakened from trying to combat it. This condition is called BURNOUT. Burnout is a situation in which employees are emotionally exhausted, became detached from their clients and their work, and feel unable to accomplish their goals.

Burnout is a chronic and highly debilitating form of stress induced by a prolonged, maladaptive coping style (Rollinson, Broadfields and Others, 1998).

Burnout occurs at an individual level. It is a psychological experience involving feelings, attitudes, motives and expectations. It is a negative individual experience (Paine, 1998).

When workers became burned out, they are more likely to complain, to attribute their errors to others, and to be highly irritable. Burnout leads to increased absenteeism and decreased quality and quantity of job performance.

Trauma:

A severe product of stress is called TRAUMA. The trauma occurs following a major threat to one’s security. The event could be a natural disaster, an organisational crises, dramatic abuse by the employer or personal job loss. Workplace trauma is the disintegration of employees’ self-concept and beliefs in their capabilities. It can arise from harassment at work, wrongful termination, or an employee’s perceived incapacity to meet evolving performance expectations. Attitudinal clues to workplace trauma include severe moodiness, concentration difficulties, alienation, in addition
to the more distinctive behaviour of hardness, absenteeism and accident – proneness. Work-place violence is also a tardy source of trauma (Newstorm and Keith Davis, 1998).

1.9 Sources of Job Stress

Job stress (or any other type of stress) can be understood if the sources of stress are explored indetail. Stress can be a result of combination of factors in our lives. In the literature factors which cause stress are referred to as stressors and he outcomes of stress as strain. Almost any job condition can cause stress, depending on an employee’s reaction to it. Stressors, the sources of occupational stress include any environmental, condition that place a physical or emotional demand on the person. There are numerous stressors in organisational settings and other life activities. Job related stress influences work attitudes and behaviour. Wood, Wallace and others (2004) have given the sources and potential consequences of job stress in three categories.

The sources of job stress are as under:

➢ Work Factors and Stress: – These include task demands, role dynamics, interpersonal relations and career progress.

➢ Non work factors and Stress: life Stressors – Another source of stress for people at work is the stress caused by the factors in their non-work lives. Such things as family events (birth and/or death in family) economic difficulties, personal affairs (e.g. divorce etc.) can add to the job stress. It is often difficult to separate one’s work and non-work lives completely, so stress of this sort can affect the way people feel and behave on the job as well as away from it.

➢ Individual Factors and Stress: Needs, capabilities and personality are the individual factors, which cause as a source of job related stress. These
are properties of individual that influence how they can perceive and respond to stress emanating from work and non-work sources. Stress can reach a destructive state more quickly, for example, when experienced by highly emotional people or by those with low self-esteem. Further, people who perceive a good fit between job requirements and personal skills have a higher tolerance for stress than do those who feel less competent as a result of a person-job misfit (Behling and Darraw, 1984).

The potential consequences of job stress for individual are behavioural, psychological, medical and physiological. The potential consequences for organisation are decreased performance, morale and motivation and increased turnover and increased absenteeism.

Gail Dutton (1998) has given the work related stress arises from many sources such as -

* the degree of control or experienced over the work.
* demands on employees
* lack of support from co-workers or managers
* poor working conditions
* a feeling of powerlessness in bringing problems to the attention of management.
* responsibility without commensurate authority
* inadequate recognition
* unrealistic task demands
* role ambiguities
* role conflicts
* interpersonal conflicts
* career developments
* physical aspects of the work environment.
Basic aspects of personality also become a source of more job stress to some peoples than others in a similar situation. The achievement orientation, impatience and perfectionism of individuals with type A personalities for example create stress in work circumstances for these individuals - circumstances that others might find relatively stress free. Type A personalities, in this sense, bring stress on themselves. A person with type A personality is more prone to display stress – related behaviours like the following:

- always moving, walking and eating rapidly
- feeling impatient with the pace of thing
- hurrying other, and being annoyed by waiting
- trying to do several things at once
- feeling guilty when relaxing
- being uncomfortable with leisure but worrying about not having time to enjoy life.

There are some interesting findings regarding relative advantages and disadvantages of type ‘A’ personalities. Type A orientation is beneficial for early and mid career. When it comes to success at top, the implications may change and these personalities could loose their beneficial impact (Friedman and Roseman, 1974).

Type B personalities have different behavioural pattern than type A personalities. Type B people may be just as ambitious to achieve a challenging tasks, but they generally approach life more casually and systematically than type A people. They tend to work steadily, take relaxed approach to life, and be even-tempered. Type B people are less likely than type A people to experience distress and its physiological symptoms such as heart disease) when exposed to a stressors (Kushir and Melamed, 1991).
The profile of type A personality is that they are always moving, walks rapidly, eats rapidly, talks rapidly, impatient, does two things at once, cannot cope with leisure time, obsessed with numbers, measures success by quantity, aggressive, competitive and constantly feels under time pressure.

The profile of type B personality is that they are not concern about time, patient, does not brag, plays of fun and not to win, relaxes without guilt, have no pressuring deadlines, mild mannered and never in hurry (Luthans, 2001).

Type A employees experience considerable stress. Type B personalities are very laid back, they are patient and take a very relaxed, low-key approach to life and their job.

The potential stressors in person's life can be divided into three groups (Beehr and Newman, 1978).

- Environmental stressors, which include technical, social, political and economic changes.
- Organisational stressors, comprising organisational characteristics and conditions, job demands and role characteristics.
- Individual stressors, which consists of personal characteristics strengths and weaknesses, personal situations and events and coping efficiency.

McGrath J.E. (1976) has suggested the following sources of job stress.

i. Task based stress (difficulty, ambiguity, load etc.)

ii. Role based stress (conflict, ambiguity, load etc.)

iii. Stress intrinsic to behaviour setting (e.g. effect of crowding etc.)

iv. Stress arising from physical environment itself (e.g. extreme hot/cold, hostile forces etc.)

v. Stress arising from social environment in sense of interpersonal relations (e.g. interpersonal disagreement, privacy, isolation etc.)
vi. Stress within the personal system, which the focal person brings with him to the situation (e.g. anxiety, perceptual style, motivation, experience, etc.)

Srivastava and Singh (1981) identified the sources of job stress such as: role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, group pressure, low profitability, under participation, low status, responsibility for people, intrinsic impoverishment, strenuous work condition, poor peer relations and powerlessness.

The status, age, experience, sex, health and socio-cultural background of an employees have also been found to influence the experience of job stress. The stress researcher have reported that variety of social support (such as emotional, tangible, informational and esteem supports) as a dominant mediators of the job stress. Complex and difficult job characteristics, stress related qualities of physical work conditions, ever-changing technology, performance, feedback and inadequate reward system, unhealthy interpersonal relations at work, can cause job stress. Organisational structure and climate not suitable to the employees can cause job stress. Organisational changes which insecure the jobs of employees may increase the feeling of insecurity and results in job stress of the employees (Pareek Uday, 1981).

1.10 Stress and Performance

It is the impression that stress always acts as a negative influence on our lives. There are two faces of stress one is constructive or eustress and the other is destructive (Wood, Wallace and Others, 2004). Fig. 1.1 shows that low to moderate levels of stress act in a constructive or energizing way. Moderate stress can increase effort, stimulate creativity and encourage
diligence in one's work. One of the most difficult tasks here is to find the optimum stress points.

**Fig. 1.2**  **Stress and Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constructive Stress</th>
<th>Destructive Stress</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Performance</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zone of constructive stress (i.e.) performance gains due to enhanced effort, creativity and diligence.

Zone of destructive stress (i.e. performance losses due to absenteeism, turnover, withdrawal, errors and accidents.


Destructive stress or distress is dysfunctional for the individual and/or the organisation. Performance can suffer as people experience illness brought on by intense stress and/or react to high stress through absenteeism, turnover, errors, accidents, dissatisfaction, and reduced performance or even unethical behaviour.
1.11 Consequence of Job Stress

Severe stress diminishes the individual's resistance, resulting in adverse consequences for both the employee and the organisation. Stress feelings inevitable in many jobs. But to cope with stressful situation and reaction thereof is different. Taking into account individual differences, if some one feels it challenging and it may produce anxiety to another. When pressure beings to built it can cause adverse strain on employee's emotions, thought processes and physical conditions. When stress becomes excessive employees develop various symptoms. As far as job stress is concern, there are two main outcomes: those affect individual and organisation. In order to approach stress proactively it is important to identify its symptoms, because this sometimes allows the outcomes to be predicted. Cooper (1986) have given symptoms of job stress and their outcomes. The Symptoms are classified into two groups as under:

➤ Individual Symptoms – These are, increased diastolic blood pressure, increased cholesterol level, heart problems, smoking and drinking, depression, job dissatisfaction and reduced aspiration.

Heart problems have a outcome of coronary heart disease while depression have a outcome of mental ill health.

➤ Organisational Symptoms – These are, high absenteeism, high employee turnover, difficulties with industrial relations and poor work quality.

The high absenteeism results in prolonged strike. High turnover results in frequent and sever accidents while difficulties with industrial relations result in poor performance.

Fontana and Beehr have suggested the symptoms of job stress which are divided as under –
Physiological outcomes - aches, pains, sleeping difficulties and cardiovascular diseases are all associated with occupational (job) stress.

Psychological outcomes - anxiety, depression, dissatisfaction and burnout.

Cognitive outcomes - decreased concentration and attention span, increased distractibility, deteriorating short- and long-term memory, unpredictable response speed, increased delusions and thought disorders.

Behavioural outcomes - turnover, absenteeism and low performance

Behavioural outcomes are easy to observe, but there are difficulties in the observation and identification of psychological physiological symptoms. Heart disease and poor mental health are observable if the situation becomes acute. Otherwise, people continue to perform under stress until they ‘burnout’.

One difficulty with burnout lies in its ability to be measured. Burnout results in emotional exhaustion, reduced personal accomplishment, loss of energy, negative attitudes towards work, life and other people, irritability, loss of will and many other outcomes, but only some of those symptoms can be observed and detected. While others are nearly invisible (Rollinson, Broadfield and Edward, 1998).

Robert R. Holt (1981) has listed the effects or products of job stress. He classified it as strains and illness.
A) STRAINS:

i) Psychological Effects:
The psychological effects of strains are job dissatisfaction, boredom, anxiety, depression and irritation, low occupational and self esteem, alienation from organisation, tension, experienced conflict, fatigue, low satisfaction with life, sexual maladjustment.

ii) Behavioural and Social Effects
The behavioural and social effects of strains are strikes, early retirement, burnout, high rate of smoking and caffeine intake, use of drugs or alcohol on the job, absenteeism, disputed performance of social roles, interference with friendship and socialising, accidents and errors, distortion in interpersonal relations.

B) ILLNESS

i) Somatic – Physiological Effects:
The somatic effects of illness are heart disease, hyper tension, cerebral accident, peptic ulcer, arthritis, dermatitis, other skin afflictions, diabetes.

ii) Psychological
The psychological effects of illness are mental illness, depressions, neurotic symptoms, mass psychogenic illness, suicide, and emotional outburst.

Job stress affects the health of an individual. Stress is a potential source of anxiety and frustration, each of which, in term, is capable of breaking down of body’s physiological and psychological wellbeing over time. The relationship between stressor and stress may be affected by an
individual's personality, culture or non-work environment (Shrivastav, 1999). In addition, professional women experience unique stressors: discrimination, stereotyping, conflicting demands of work and family and feeling of isolation (Nelson and Quick).

1.12 Positive Consequence of Job Stress

Many people experience unacceptable levels of stress. It can stem from events in their personal lives or at work. Small amount of stress can have positive effect by energizing people to achieve goal. Stress is not necessarily bad in and of itself. It has also positive value. Positive stress is called 'eustress'. Moderate stress can increase effort, stimulate creativity and encourage diligence in one's work.

Some researchers are of the opinion that without stress modern organisations would loose the name of action. It is argued that stress creates as well as promotes employee's inclination towards job and to enhance his capacity to work.

Hinkle L.E. (1973) has written that, 'to be alive is to be under stress'. According to some researchers moderate stress have some functional qualities and it motivates individual for effective maximisation.

1.13 Management of Job Stress

The role of stress in the work setting is complex. The constructive stress may facilitate individual task performance but destructive stress can reduce performance and even impair a person's health. Stress management refers any program that reduces stress by helping people to understand the stress response, recognise stressors, and use coping techniques to minimise the negative impact of stress (Brehm, 1999).
To manage job stress there are three options – to prevent or control it, escape from it, or learn to adapt to it (handle its symptoms). Various stress researchers and practitioners have differently classified the stress management interventions. Some have classified on the basis of stage and others have classified them on the basis of orientation, or location of the intention programmes, i.e. individual and work setting. Following is the Stress Management Approach:

➢ **Reducing or eliminating stressors** –

Organisations can seek to improve managerial communication skills, empower employees through participation, redesign jobs to be more fulfilling, or implement organisation development programmes. These steps are aimed at reducing or eliminating stressors for employees.

➢ **Escaping from stress** –

Some employees can escape stress by requesting job transfers sabbatical leaves, finding alternative employment, taking early retirement, or acquiring assertiveness skills that allow them to confront the stressors.

➢ **Coping with Stress** –

These include social support, relaxation efforts, biofeedback and personal wellness programmes are the approaches for coping with stress.

i. **Social Support** –

Social support is the network of helpful activities, interactions, and relationships that provides an employee with the satisfaction of important needs. There are four types of support in a total network- i) instrumental (task assistance) ii) informational (guidance) iii) evaluative (feedback) and iv) emotional (empathy and care).
ii) **Relaxation** –

Employees can turn to various means of mental relaxation to adjust the stresses in their lives. Patterned after the practice of mediation, the relaxation response involves quiet, concentrated inner thought in order to rest the body physically and emotionally. It helps the people to remove temporarily from stressful world and reduce their symptoms of stress.

The relaxation efforts involves-

- a comfortable position in a relatively quiet location
- closed eyes and deep, comfortable breathing
- repetition of a peaceful word, or focus in a pleasant mental image
- avoidance of distracting thoughts and negative events.
- soothing background music.

To practice a simple relaxation response is like taking a time-out at work. It requires only a few minutes and can be especially fruitful just before or after a tense encounter.

iii) **Biofeedback** –

It is a coping method to manage stress. Biofeedback, by which people under medical guidance learn from instrument feedback to influence symptoms of stress, such as increased heart rate or severe headaches. Earlier, it was thought that people could not control their involuntary nervous system, which, intern, controls internal processes such as heart beat, oxygen, consumption, stomach acid flow, and brain waves. Now there is evidence that people can exercise some control over these internal processes; this biofeedback may be helpful in reducing undesirable effects of stress.
iv) **Sabbaticals** –

This is escaping way from stress. Some employers, recognizing that, it is essential for employees to escape, have created programmes allowing sabbatical levels to encourage stress relief and personal education. Some sabbaticals provide unpaid, some part paid and some full paid leaves while employees are away. Most employees return emotionally refreshed, feel rewarded and often bring back new perspectives gained from readings and workshops.

v) **Personal Wellness** –

Personal Wellness is a term used to describe the pursuit of one’s physical and mental potential through a personal health promotion programme (Robert Lussier, 1993). Personal wellness is based on research in behavioural medicine. It consists of individual’s responsibility to enhance and maintain wellness through a disciplined approach to physical and mental health. It requires attention to the things such as smoking, weight, diet, and alcohol use and physical fitness. The essence of personal wellness is a lifestyle that reflects a true and comprehensive commitment to health. Stress has the potential to affect health, personal wellness makes a great deal of sense as a preventive stress management strategy (Newstorm and Keith Davis, 1998).

Following is the model for stress management where in model focuses on individual methods and organisational methods to deal with job stress (Hellriegel, Slocum and Woodman, 2001).

**Individual Methods**

Stress management by individuals includes activities and behaviours designed to –
- eliminate or control the sources of stress.
- make individual more resistant to cope with stress.

Figure 1.3 shows how personal goals and values coupled with practical stress management skills, can help individuals cope with stressors and reduce negative stress reactions.

**Fig. 1.3 Individual Strategy for Stress Management**

![Image of a stress management flowchart]

Suggestions for individual stress management includes the following -
- plan ahead and practice good time management,
- have a exercise, balanced diet, adequate rest and care yourself,
- develop a sound philosophy and maintain a positive attitude,
- concentrate on balancing your work and personal life,
- learn a relaxation technique.

Organisational Methods

Organisations is designed to reduce the harmful effects of stress in three ways:
- identify and modify work stressors,
- help employees modify their perception and understanding of work stress,
- help employees effectively cope with the consequences of stress,

Stress management programmes aimed at modifying job stressors often include –
- improvement in the physical work environment,
- job redesign,
- change in workloads and deadlines,
- structural reorganization,
- change in work schedules, flexible hours of work, sabbaticals,
- greater level of employee participation,
- workshops dealing with role clarity and role analysis.

Fig. 1.4 shows that targets of organisational stress management programme.
Programmes of stress management targeted at perceptions and experiences of stress and outcomes of stress includes team building, career counseling and employee assistance programmes; (EAP), workshop on time management, workshop on job burnout, training in relaxation techniques, wellness programs.

1.14 Job Attitude

Attitudes are complexes of beliefs and feelings that people have specific ideas, situations about other people. Attitudes are important because they are the mechanism through which most people express their feelings. Attitudes are usually viewed as a stable disposition to behave towards an object in certain ways (Charles E. Kimble, 1990).

Work related attitudes often play an important role in shaping behaviour in organisations. It is important to know about attitude because it enhances the understanding of "people side" of several organisational processes such as co-operation and conflict.

Factors contributing to feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's work, as well as the impact of such reactions on several aspects of organisational behaviour are a type of work related attitude-job satisfaction. Attitudes relating to entire organisation rather than on one's own work or job; these are often described by the term organisational commitment, and exert powerful effects upon both individuals and organisations themselves. These are special type of work related attitudes known as prejudice. This involves negative views about other organisational members (Robert Baron, 1986).

Attitudes are relatively lasting clusters of feelings, beliefs and behaviour tendencies directed towards specific persons, ideas, objects or groups (Baron and Byrne, 1984).

Individual holds an attitude towards some aspects of the external world, it simply mean that individual has positive or negative feelings toward the attitude object, holds certain beliefs about it, and tends to behave in specific ways toward it. Work related attitudes, too, fit under this definition. These attitudes involve lasting feelings, beliefs and behaviour tendencies toward various aspects of work, work settings or people in them.
Attitudes are important to understand the behaviour of individuals in organisational settings, attitudes shape overt actions. Generally individual acts in ways that are consistent with their attitudes. If employee like his supervisors, he may put out more effort for him than others. Thus understanding other's attitudes is often a useful first step to understanding many aspects of their behaviour at work. Understanding employees' attitudes, effective managers often wish to change them. i.e. to replace negative feelings and beliefs with more positive ones.

Employee attitudes are one of the most important ways in which they can differ. If we make an adverse judgement about someone that it is often expressed in terms of the person’s attitudes, for instance that he has a bad attitude, or an attitude problem. We all have attitudes and they are probably our most easily available way of expressing our experience of the world. However, in organisations their significance lies in the assumption that they have an influence on behaviour.

We all have attitudes of some sort and, since our actions towards objects and people are influenced by how positively or negatively we feel about them, attitudes affect our behaviour.

Employee attitude is an important variable in human behaviour. Employee attitudes towards their jobs are important to management because of their influence on behaviour, attitudinal influences on perception, job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment.

To avoid confusion, before discussing attitudes it is important to explain the following terms.
Values-
There are differences between values and attitudes. Attitudes essentially represent predisposition to respond. Values focus on the judgement of what ought to be.

Value is generally used in two different ways: as a characteristic of an object or as an attribute possessed by an individual and thought desirable. The focus here is on the latter. A value is defined as, "a concept of the desirable and internalised criterion or standards are relatively few and determine or guide an individual's evaluations of the many objects encountered in everyday life" (Donald White and David Bednar, 1986). Values are tinged with moral flavor, involving an individual's judgement of what right, good or desirable.

Value tells us what a person wants to be true. Strictly speaking they are not concerned with objects that are desired, but whether objects are considered desirable. They have strongly judgmental element and this sets a standard that guides the conduct of the value holder and acts as a benchmark to evaluate the conduct of others. e.g. honesty, frankness, morality, security, hedonism, patriotism and environmental protection are all values (Rollinson, Broadfield and Edwards, 1998).

Intention:

Intentions have often been viewed as the "conative component of attitude", and it has usually been assumed that this conative component is related to the attitude's affective component.

Intention is a person's location on a subjective probability dimension involving relation between himself and some action. A behavioural intention, therefore, refers to a person's subjective probability that he will perform some behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).
Prejudices:

An attitude may involve a prejudice, in which we prejudice an issue without giving unbiased consideration to all the evidence. One can prejudice in favour or against a person and / or something (Mann, N.L.).

Prejudices are attitudes. Half humorously, prejudices are the attitudes of others that we do not share. Prejudices are, therefore often called ‘wrong’ or ‘bad’. Prejudices have an important impact on all of us and on our interpersonal relations. Everyone is in favour of reducing prejudices but not everyone is willing to admit that the attitude held is prejudicial one (Blum and Naylor, 1968).

1.15 Attitude

The term ‘attitude’ was used with reference to a person’s posture. To describe someone as adopting ‘a threatening attitude’ or ‘defiant attitude’ was to his physical mien. True, the word can still be used in this manner; but nowadays ‘attitude’ increasingly connotes the psychological rather than the immediately physical orientation of a person, his mental state rather than his body stance (Niel Warren and Marie Jahoda, 1973).

The term ‘attitude’ is derived from the Latin word ‘aptus’, it has on the one hand the significance of ‘fitness’ or ‘adaptedness’ connoting as does its by-form aptitude, a subjective or mental state of preparation for action.

According to Thomas and Znaniecki (1918), the study of attitude is par excellence the field of social psychology. Attitudes are individual mental processes, which determine both the actual and potential responses of each person in the social world. Since an attitude is always directed towards some object it may be defined as a ‘state of mind of the individual toward a value’. Values are social in nature, that is to say they are objects of common regard on the part of socialised men.
Attitude means the specific mental disposition toward an incoming (or arising) experience, whereby that experience is modified; or, a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity (Warren, Dictionary of Psychology, 1934).

Attitude: 1. Manner, disposition, feeling, position etc. with regard to a person or thing; tendency or orientation, especially of mind: a negative attitude; group attitudes.

2. Position or posture of the body appropriate to or expressive of an action, emotion, etc.: a threatening attitude; a relaxed attitude (Random House Dictionary, 1993).

An attitude is a mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object (Dobra, 1933).

An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport, 1935).

The term 'attitude' both in colloquial as well as in scientific usage refers to the dispositions of men to view things in certain ways and to act accordingly. Attitudes are complexes as of ideas and sentiments. In reality some of the elements, which are contained in attitudes, are also those which are contained in motives; but, analytically, attitudes and motives are different. When an observer imputes a motive to someone, he asserts the existence of a conscious or unconscious goal to be realised even when its realisation fails; when on imputes an attitude one refers only to that dispositional state of a person which is regularly directed towards particular categories of persons or objects, regardless of the particular goals which he may peruse. In many situations, particularly structured social situations the
same sets of motives and attitudes are regularly mobilised together (Cohen, 1966).

The word attitude describes 'a persistent tendency to feel and behave in a particular way toward some object' (Reitz, 1977). This definition has two aspects. One is attitude persists or endure. That is, in the absence of forces to change the individual’s attitude towards a certain object that will remain the same. Another is a person’s attitude is directed towards some object, about which he has feelings and beliefs.

1.16 Attitude and Behaviour

The attitude has direct relation with human behaviour. The stronger the attitude the greater their impact (Petkova, Ajzen and Driver, 1995). The greater the vested interest in the object or issue to which it refers has important consequences for the person. It indicates that such vested interest, the stronger the impact of the attitude on behaviour (Crano, 1995, Crano and Prislin, 1995).

There are several basic mechanisms through, which attitudes shape behaviour. The first of these mechanisms operates in situations in which individuals’ give careful deliberate thought to their attitudes and its implication for their behaviour. The insight in to the nature of this process is provided by the theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991). The theory suggest that the decision to engage in particular behaviour is the result of rational process i.e. goal oriented and that follows logical sequence. Behavioural options are considered, consequences are evaluated, and a decision is taken to act or not to act. The decision is then reflected in behaviour. The theory determines two factors. The first one is people’s positive or negative evaluation of performing the behaviour and the
second is the people’s perceptions of whether other will approve or disapprove of this behaviour.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) is the extension of the theory of reasoned action. The theory of planned behaviour adds the third factor that, people’s appraisals of their ability to perform the behaviour, i.e. perceived behavioural control.

Fig. 1.5 Model of the Reasoned Action and Planned Behaviour

The theory suggests that several factors (attitudes toward a given behaviour, subjective norms, concerning that behaviour and perceived ability to perform it) determine behavioural intentions concerning the behaviour. Such intentions, in turn, are a strong determinant of whether the behaviour is actually performed.
1.17 Components of Attitude

According to the psychologists, attitudes have the following components:

Affective:

These components include a person's emotional feelings about an object, his like or dislike. This component can vary from weak to strong in its intensity.

Cognitive:

These components are made up of the beliefs and information a person has about the object. Regardless of whether his information or beliefs are accurate or inaccurate, these cognitions are part of his attitude.

Behavioural:

The behavioural component consists of a person's tendencies to behave toward the object in certain ways.

Only behaviour component can be directly observed. One can't see the persons' feelings or beliefs. These two components can only be inferred (Luthans, 1998).

1.18 Sources of Attitudes

Attitudes are learned and not inherited. The person acquires attitude in the course of his experiences, and he maintains them when they are reinforced. Acquisition can occur in different ways.

1. Direct experience with object:

Attitude can develop from a personally rewarding or punishing experience with an object.
2. **Association:**

Attitudes towards one object may develop from associating that object with another object about which attitudes have been previously formed.

3. **Learning from others:**

Attitudes may develop from what the person is told by others about the object.

4. **Neighborhood:**

Neighborhood also contributes to attitude formation, cultural facilities, religious grouping, ethnic differences etc. hold the attitude regarding the neighbors (Blum and Naylor, 1968).

5. **Economic status and occupations:**

Economic and occupational position also contributes to attitude formation. They determine in part our attitude towards unions and management and our belief that certain laws are good or bad.

6. **Mass Communication:**

All means of mass communication feed their audiences, readers with large information. This form a good or bad attitude regarding politics, religion, crime, divorce, sex etc (Reitz, 1977).

Attitudes, which are acquired through personal experience, tend to be more resistant to change than those learned from association or from others. However, attitudes acquired in ways other than personal experience can likewise be very stable and resistant if they are part of mutually reinforcing cluster of attitudes and values (Kartz, 1960).
1.19 Functions of Attitude

Daniel Kartz (1960) focused that a person develops attitude for following different functions for an individual.

The knowledge Function:

An attitude can help a person to organise and make sense of his knowledge, experience and beliefs. It can provide definiteness and stability to what he perceives by serving as a standard or frame of reference.

The Instrumental Function:

An attitude may develop because either the attitude or the object of the attitude is instrumental in helping the individual to obtain rewards or avoid punishments. In some cases the attitude is a means to an end.

The Value-Expressive Function:

Attitudes may give positive expression to a person’s central values or to his self-image. One whose central value is the freedom of the individual may express very positive attitudes towards decentralisation of authority in the organisation, flexible work schedules and relaxation of dress standards.

The Ego-Defensive Function:

Attitude may serve to protect one’s ego from unpleasant or threatening knowledge about oneself or one’s environment.

1.20 Features of Attitude

The following are the features of attitude:

- Attitudes refer to feeling and beliefs of individual or groups.
- Feeling and Beliefs are directed towards other people, objects or ideas.
- Attitude tends to result in behavior or action.
- Attitudes can fall anywhere from very favourable to very unfavourable.
Attitude endure
* All people, irrespective of their status or intelligence hold attitudes.

1.21 Attitude Change

Attitudes of employees can be usually changed for the same reason they are formed but change is different, as there are barriers to it.

**Barriers to change:**

There is obstacle to attitude change. Human beings prefer their attitudes about people and things to be in line (i.e. balanced, consistent) with their behaviours towards each other and objects. When attitudes or behaviours are not consistent, people usually seek to reduce the inconsistencies by changing their attitudes or behaviours. Leon Festinger (1957) has developed a theory in support of attitude consistency, called Cognitive Dissonance Theory. Festinger's theory states that dissonance makes an individual feel uncomfortable. This feeling makes the individual try to reduce dissonance.

Prior commitment is the another barrier to attitude change. When people feels a commitment to a particular course of action; he is not willing to change.

Insufficient information is the third barrier to attitude change. The manager may not like a subordinate's negative attitude, but the later may be quite pleased with his behaviour. Unless the manager can show the individual why a negative attitude, detrimental to career progress or other personal objective, the subordinate may continue to have a negative attitude (Luthans, 1998).
Ways of Attitude changing:

Following are the important ways due to which attitudes are changed.

Providing New Information:

New information will help to change the attitude. If workers have negative attitude towards their management that they give less salary what employee expects. When management putforth the clear picture of financial matters and incapability to pay as employee expectation and when employees came to know the true situation the attitude of employee may change to positive.

Use of Fear:

Fear can change attitude. However the change depends on the degree of fear. e.g. Low level of fear, people often ignore it. Use of warning warren attention to some extent. Use of moderate level of fear people become aware of the situation and will change their attitudes. However, if high degrees of fear arousal are used, people often reject the message, because it is too threatening and thus not believable. On the contrary, high degree of fear may prove counter productive. On being threatened too far, people tend to become stubborn in their attitudes and may refuse to change.

Influence of Friends or Peers:

Change of attitude can come about through persuasion of friends or peers. Peers with high credibility shall exercise significant influence on change. The same is not true with peers who have low credibility.

The co-opting Approach:

Co-opting is the another way of changing attitude Taking people who are dissatisfied with a situation and getting them involved in improving things.
Others:

Research has shown that an individual is more likely to change a privately held attitude that one he has stated publicly. It is therefore, necessary that a situation is avoided where individual makes his attitude public prior to the change attempt.

Type of attitude change

Attitude change may be congruent and incongruent. Congruent change in attitude involves a movement in the same direction but with reduced intensity of feelings e.g. a negative or positive attitude of a manager towards his subordinate will persist, but the degree of like or dislike is reduced.

Incongruent change involves change of direction itself from positive (or negative) attitude towards a person to negative (or positive) attitude towards the same person. This change is observable in behavioural terms such as change in retail store purchase, change in the spouse, and resigning from the organisation or joining one (Blum and Naylor, 1968).

1.22 Attitude Measurement

Attitudes describe person's feelings toward another person, a group or a situation. Attitudes can be expressed by many ways – with different words, different tonal inflection and different degrees of intensity. Attitude can not be captured in single concept. So it has various components such as information, influence situation and object.

Psychologists have developed many scales, constructed much life personality questionnaires, for measuring a great number of attitudes. Each consists of a group of statements related to a particular attitude. Some scales ask the person to respond by indicating whether he agrees or disagrees with each statement. Then, because the statements have previously been calibrated, a certain
number of points can be assigned to each and a score can be calculated. Other scales ask the person to specify the degree of his agreement with the statement (Morgan and King, 1975).

Scales and norms have been developed for measuring attitudes toward family, education, religion, sex, health, politics (Shaw and Wright, 1967). The scales are used in psychological research to correlate attitude with other personality variables, or to study factors in attitude change.

During the late 1920s and early 1930s a number of attitudes scaling methods were developed, which are still in common use today. Recently a few additional methods have been developed. Bogardus (1925) proposed a scale of social distance. Thurstone (1928) attempted to develop a method, which indicate rather precisely the difference between respondent’s attitude. Rensis Likert (1932) proposed a attitude scale of summative ratings.

A number of other attitudes scaling methods e.g. Guttman (1944), Osgood (1965) have been proposed. However, no method other than the ‘big five’ appear at all frequently in attitude and opinion research literature. The Likert’s scale to be most highly correlated with the various attitude measures (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1974, and Tittle and Hill, 1967).

1.23 Employee Attitude and Organisational Behaviour
(The Nature of Employee Attitude)

Attitudes are the feelings and beliefs that largely determine how employees will perceive their environment, commit themselves to intended action and ultimately behave. Attitude form a mental set that affects how we view something else. Managers of organisational behaviour are vitally interested in the nature of the attitudes of their employees toward their jobs, towards their careers, towards the organisation itself (Newsstorm and Davis, 1998).
Employees are important to management because of their influence on behaviour, attitudinal influences on perception, job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment.

Attitudinal Influences on Behaviour:

Attitudes affect employee behaviour. However a direct relationship between attitudes and action is not agreeable to some. Since attitude is only one of many factors that influences behaviour, it is said that attitude does not lead to any specific action (Ajzen and Fishnein, 1977) e.g., the manager may treat the minority workers fairly on the job but not invite them to his daughter’s or son’s marriage.

Although the influence of attitudes on behaviour is not clearly (identifiable) perceptible, two theories, viz. Cognitive Dissonance and Self Fulfilling Prophecy helps us to understand the direction of attitudinal influences.

Cognitive dissonance refers to the feeling of inconsistency in feelings, belief and behaviour. This feeling of inconsistency makes people feel uncomfortable. They get motivated to rectify the situation by modifying the behaviours that cause the dissonance.

The self-fulfilling prophecy is the process by which we try to convert our attitudes, beliefs and expectations into reality. If we predict that something is going on happen, we will try very hard to make it happen. e.g. if we feel that we are competent, we will undertake challenging tasks.

Consequently, we gain experience and skills that make us more competent, so that we accomplish even more. However, if we have a negative attitude towards ourselves, we will not provide ourselves with the chance to become competent (Chung and Megginson, 1981).
Attitudinal Influence on Perception:

Perceptual outcomes are derived from past experiences and perceptions, but they also influence the way we perceive stimuli such saying as "Beauty is altogether in the eye of the beauty holder" and "one person's trash is another person's treasure" emphasize the importance of attitudes in perceiving the world around us. If our attitudes are positive, things will look brighter to us than if they are negative.

Job satisfaction:

The term job satisfaction refers to an individual's general attitude towards his job. A person with high job satisfaction holds a positive attitude towards his job, while a person who is dissatisfied with his job holds negative attitude about his job. When people speak of employee attitudes more often than not they mean job satisfaction. In fact the two terms are used interchangeably.

Job Involvement:

The term job involvement refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his job and considers his perceived performance level important to his self-work. A person with a high degree of involvement will identify with his job and will care about the kind of work he does on his job. Besides, such involvement in the job result in reduced absenteeism. Attitude is an important variable in developing job involvement.

Organisational Commitment:

Organisational commitment means one's involvement with his employing organisation. Organisational commitment results in a stable work force. Attitude is an important variable in determining organisational commitment (Rusbult, 1988).
1.24 Effects of Employee Attitude:

Attitudes are moderately good predictors of behaviour. They provide clues to an employee’s behavioural intentions to act in a certain way. Positive job attitude predicts constructive behaviours; negative job attitudes help to predict undesirable behaviours. When employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, they lack job involvement and are low in their commitment to the organisation, a wide verity of consequences may follow. This result is especially likely if the feelings are both strong and persistent. Dissatisfied employees may engage in psychological withdrawal (e.g. day dreaming on the job), physical withdrawal (e.g. unauthorised absence, early departures, extend breaks or work slowdowns), or even overt acts of aggression and retaliation for presumed wrongs. On the other hand satisfied employees may provide acts of customer service beyond the call of duty, have sparkling work records, and actively pursue excellence in all areas of their jobs (Rusbult, 1988). A large number of studies on employee attitude reported on satisfied and dissatisfied employee and result is reported in the area of performance, turnover, absence and tardiness, theft and violence and other behaviours. These are all-important outcomes that organisations are important concerned about controlling.

Employee Performance:

The satisfaction-performance relationship is more complex than the simple path of "satisfaction leads to performance". High performance contributes to high job satisfaction. Better performance leads to higher economical, sociological and psychological rewards. If these rewards are adequate employee feel satisfied, if it is inadequate for the level of performance, dissatisfaction tends to arise.
Alternatively, a different scenario emerges if performance is low. Employees might not receive the rewards they were hoping for, and dissatisfaction can result. Under these circumstances, the employee might exhibit one or more negative behaviour (turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, and theft violence and poor organisational citizenship).

**Turnover:**

Employee turnover is the proportion of employees leaving an organisation during a given time period (usually one year). The satisfied employees think of less job quitting, on the other hand low satisfied have higher rates of turnover. Employee turnover increases direct and indirect costs to the organisation (Douglas Phillips, 1990).

**Absences and Tardiness:**

Employees who have negative attitude interns low performance and low job satisfaction and it tend to be absent more often. The connection is not always sharp, for a couple of reasons. Employees may exhibit their negative attitude and dissatisfaction with job conditions through tardiness. A tardy employee is one who comes to work but arrives beyond the designated starting time. Tardiness is a type of short period absenteeism ranging from few minutes to several hours for each event, and it is another way in which employees physically withdraw from active involvement in the organisation.

**Theft:**

The employees who are exploited, overworked or frustrated by the impersonal treatment from their management develop negative attitude towards the management. These employees steal products, forge cheque, and commit fraud or the unauthorised removal of company resources. All these acts represent theft (Samuel Greegard, 1973).
Violence:

Extreme consequences of employee dissatisfaction and negative attitude are exhibited through violence, or various forms verbal or physical aggression at work. Work stress can be both a cause of violence and the aftermath of it. Managers must increasingly be on the look out for signs that employee dissatisfaction might turn into verbal or physical harm at work, and they must take appropriate preventive action (Newstorm and Davis, 1998).

Other Effects:

Many employees hold positive attitudes towards their jobs (work) and organisations, that results in well being of the organisation. Employees sometimes demonstrate organisational citizenship behaviours, which are discretionary actions that promote the organization’s success (Dennis Organ, 1994).

Organisational citizenship is often marked by its spontaneity, its voluntary nature, its constructive impact on results, its unexpected helpfulness to others and the fact that it is optional.

Specific employee attitudes relating to job satisfaction and organisational commitment are of major interest to the field of organisational behaviour and the practice of human resources management (Robert Tett and John Meyer, 1993). Whereas the discussion of attitudes so far has direct implications, the discussion of job satisfaction focuses on employees' attitudes towards their job and the discussion of organisational commitment focuses on their attitudes toward the overall organisation (Luthans, 1998).
1.25 Work-Related Attitudes

There are many work-related attitudes that could be of interest to an organisation. Some are highly specific, for example attitudes towards a technology. However, there is usually more interest in generalised attitude patterns. The one that has been explored is job satisfaction and the other is employee commitment.

Job Satisfaction:

Locke defined job satisfaction as, "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience (Locke, 1956). Job satisfaction is result of employee’s perception of how well their job provides those things that are viewed as important. It is generally recognised in the organisational behaviour field that job satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude (Mitchell and Larson Jr., 1987). For many years job satisfaction was viewed as a single, unified concept, but it is now widely recognised as a more complex cluster of attitudes towards different aspects of a job, arising from a parson’s expectations of work and his or her actual experiences (Smith, Kendall and Hullin, 1969). People differ widely in what they expect this is likely to be a highly individualised attitude cluster. Nevertheless, extensive research by Smith (1969) suggests that there are five major dimensions to the job attitude, all of which reflect affective responses to particular aspects of a job. These are:-

The work itself:

The extent to which the job provides the individual interesting tasks, opportunities for learning, and the chance to accept responsibility.
Pay:
The amount of financial remuneration that is received and the degree to which this is viewed equitable vis-a-vis that of others in the organisation.

Promotion Opportunities:
The chance for advancement in the organisation.

Supervision:
The abilities of the supervisor to provide technical assistance and behavioural support.

Coworkers:
The degree to which fellow workers are technically proficient and socially supportive.

The study is limited with the job attitude and job involvement, the focus is given on the same instead of organisational commitment.

1.26 Job Involvement

Employee attitudes are important to monitor, understand, and manage. They develop as the consequences of the feelings of equity or inequity in the reward system. Job satisfactions, job involvement and organisational commitment are the three important employee attitudes. Job attitude is a feeling, thoughts and intentions to act.

Job involvement is relatively new concept. This concept is important because it link with productivity, employee needs and quality of work life.

The term job involvement refers to the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his job and considers his perceived performance level important to his self worth. A person who is involved
deeply in his job he care about his work. This type of job involvement reduces absenteeism and results high performance.

Gary Blau and Kimberly Boal (1987) defines job involvement as, “Job involvement is the degree to which employees immerge themselves in their jobs, invest time and energy in them, and view work as a central part of their overall lives.”

In the early stage, job involvement was considered as one of the components of job satisfaction. It is separate and independent construct established by number of researchers. Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) examined the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. The result of investigation indicated positive relationship between the two. Lawler and Hall (1970) and Cumming and Begelow (1976) also reported positive correlation between job involvement and job satisfaction.

Job involvement plays an important role in the modern age of employment crisis, disappointment, dissatisfaction and stress. However, job involvement is widely studied aspect of organisational psychology. It is necessary to understand the human relations in industry because they explain why one man works harder than other, why one group of worker restricts its output and another works energetically, why one group goes on strikes and the others does not. How to enhance job involvement in work organisation is a vital problem for researchers. Machines, tools, and material is similar for every employee still level of job involvement differ due to individual differences.

Holding meaningful jobs and performing them well are important inputs to the self-image of employees, which helps to explain traumatic effects of job loss on their esteem needs. Job involved employees are likely to believe in the work ethic, to exhibit high growth needs, and to enjoy participation in decision making. It results, they seldom will be tardy or
absent, they are willing to work long hours, and they will attempt to be high performers (Newstorm and Davis, 1998).

Organisational psychologists have defined the concept of job involvement as a potentially distinct job attitude.

Lodahl and Kenjner (1965) have also defined job involvement as, the degree to which a person's work performance affected his self-esteem. “They considered job involvement as the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance to his work in his total self-image.”

According to Lodhal & Kejner (1966) – “Job involvement is the internalisation of values about the goodness of work or the importance of works in the worth of the person, and perhaps it thus measures ease with which the person can be further socialised by an organisation”

Lawler and Hall (1970) have defined job involvement as, referring to psychological identification with one's work, “as well as” the degree to which the job situation is central to person and his identity.

Patchen (1970) defined, the involved person is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work, identification with one's occupation, which supposedly measured how important one's occupational role is to one's self-image.

Kanungo, Mishra and Dayal (1975) defines as magnitude of job involvement represents the degree to which the total job situation is thought of as being central to one's life or self concept.

Saleh and Hosek (1976) suggested different interpretations of the concept of job involvement.

A person is involved –

♦ when work to him is a central life interest,

♦ when he actively participates in his job,
♦ when he perceives performance as a consistent with his self concept,
♦ when he perceives performance as central to his self esteem.

They also observe job involvement as the degree to which the person identifies with the job, actively participates in it, and considers his performance important to his self worth.

Robinowitz and Hall (1977), reviewed the researches on job involvement and concluded that –

- job involvement is related to three classes of working variable: personal characteristics, situational characteristics and outcomes. No one class of variables shows clearly stronger relationship to job involvement than any other,
- job involvement is quite stable,
- much of the variance in job involvement remains unexplained,
- the data are more consistent with the ‘importance of work’; definition of job involvement than with the ‘extent to which performance affects self-esteem’ definition,
- job involvement seems to be a ‘feed-back variable’ both a cause and effect of job behaviour,
- personal and situational variables have independent effects on involvement; and
- Situational variable seems to have more effect on the attitude of low job involved persons than on highly job involved persons (Robinowitz, 1975).

To conclude the above definitions- the job involved person as one for whom work is very important part of life, and as one who is affected by
much responsibilities of his whole job situation: the work, his co-workers and the organisation. The non involved worker does his living off the job. Work is not an important part of his psychological life. His interests are elsewhere, and the core of his self image, the essential part of his identity is not greatly affected by the kind of work he does or how he does it (Singh, 1984).

It is important to note the Guion’s (1958) observation that the job involved worker is not necessarily happy with his job; in fact very angry people may be just as involved in their jobs as very happy one.

When job stress experienced by an employee, it is a product of interaction between environmental (job) and personal (employee) characteristics, employees’ job attitudes and job involvement are very likely to interact with their occupational stress (Srivastav, 1999).

1.27 The Model of Present Study

The basic assumption of present study is that job stress has influence on job attitude and affects the job involvement of an employee. Job stress is related with individual as well as organisation. Job stress affects the employee attitude. As the employee attitude changes the behaviour of employee changes. The changed behaviour of an employee due to job stress compels the employee not to involve in the job. It naturally hinders the job performance. Therefore, excessive job stress affects negatively on job attitude. Attitudes shape the employee behaviour, negative attitude results in low job involvement and brings down the job performance. Some amount of stress in turns employee to perform job systematically.
Statement of the Problem

In view of the dearth of researches on job stress, job attitude and job involvement separately. It was decided to carry out the present research titled, ‘A Study of Job Stress Between Different Occupations and Its Relation With Job Attitude and Job Involvement’. The model for present study is shown with the help of figure 1.6.

Fig. 1.6   Present Study Model: The Job Stress, Job Attitude and Job Involvement

The more the job stress negatives the job attitude and lowers the involvement in job. On the contrary where the job stress is low, job attitude may be positive and involvement in job may be high. The present study focuses on job stress between different occupations and its relation with job attitude and job involvement.

1.28 Summery

A stress is an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological and behavioural deviations to individuals. The stress caused by good things is called eustress. Misfit between person – environment and his work and its environment results in stress.
The sources of job stress are the degree of control over work, demands on employee, poor supervision, non cooperation by workers, feeling of powerlessness, responsibility without commensurate authority, inadequate recognition, unrealistic task demands, role ambiguity, role conflict, career development, unprofitability and physical aspects of work environment. The basic aspects of personality also become a source of job stress to some peoples than others in a similar situation.

The consequences of job stress are physiological, psychological and behavioural. The stress management approach includes reducing stressors through communication, participation, redesigning of job. To escape from job stress through transfer, sabbatical leaves, early retirement, alternative employment. To cope with stress through social support, relaxation technique, biofeedback and personal wellness programme.

The attitudes are the feelings, beliefs and behaviour tendencies directed towards specific job, person, ideas, objects or groups. Attitudes have affective, cognitive and behavioural components. The ways of attitude change are to provide new information, use of fear, influence of friends or peers, and the coping approach. Attitudes are measured through scales. Attitudes are good predictors of behaviour. Attitudes have effects such as employee performance, turnover, absence and tardiness, theft, violence, job satisfaction.

Job involvement is the degree to which, employees immerse themselves in their jobs, invest time and energy in them, and view work as a central part of their overall lives. When job stress experienced by an employee it is a product of interaction between job and employee characteristics. Employees’ job attitude and job involvement are very likely to interact with their job stress.

The next chapter is related to review of related literature.
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