CHAPTER- II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

There is increasing evidence that job related stress can contribute to a variety of ailments, such as tension headaches, backaches, high blood pressure, cardiovascular disease and mental illness. It can also lead to alcoholism and drug abuse. There has been growing concern in organisations about managing dysfunctional consequences of stress. The concept of stress is widely studied, by psychologists, physicians, other health professionals and researchers now a day. Work stress is harmful to the concerned.

Many people experience unacceptable levels of stress. It can stem from events in their personal lives or at work. Although small amounts of stress can have positive effects by energizing people to achieve goals, excessively stress may seriously and negatively affect a person’s health and job performance.

2.2 Review

Hans Selye (1956) defined the stress as, non-specific responses of the body to any demand made upon it. He has given the three stages of stress in his writings on General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS). i.e. alarm, resistance and collapse. The alarm stage is body’s initial response to stressors. If the stress is prolonged, the stage of resistance emerges. The process of homeostasis comes in to play at this stage. There is sustained effort to adapt to the stressors during this stage. The body can’t go on coping with stress indefinitely. The third stage of collapse is a loss of resistance to the stressors, and exhaustion, collapse and even death can occur.
Walter Cannon (1914) had used the term stress in his work on homeostasis that stress is emotional status that had possible detrimental physical impact on the focal organism. In 1935 Cannon modified the use of the term stress to describe physical stimuli and used the term strain for organism's response to the stressors. Dunbar (1947) has described the term stress as the quality of stimulus. Wolff described it as the quality of stimulus and response.

Stressful stimuli include stimulus deficit, absence of expected stimulation, highly persistent stimulation, fatigue or boredom. Stimulus has been used to describe environmental situations as new, intense, rapidly changing, demanding, sudden or unexpected (Beehr, 1984; Beehr & Bhagat, 1985; Selye 1975). Lazarus (1966) considered such events as failure or the threat of failure or unpleasant agents in the environment.

The term stress has been used to refer response to stressors by Beehr (1984), Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau (1975) and Kahn and Quinn (1970). The stress is concerned with the specification of the particular response or response patterns which may be taken as avoidance that person is, or has been, under pressure from a 'disturbing' environment.

Cox (1978) has defined the transactional perspective of stress as, a perceptual phenomenon arising from a comparison between the demand on the person and his ability to cope. An imbalance in this mechanism, when coping is important gives rise to the experience of stress and to stress response.

Some researchers have tried to define the job stress in terms of interaction between worker and work environment. According to Ross and Altmair (1994) occupational stress is the result of interaction of work conditions with characteristics of the worker such that demands of the worker exceeds the ability of the worker to cope with them. This is also
termed as Person-Environment fit framework. Robert R. Holt described stress as a pointer to the dark side of work.

Beehr and Newman (1978) outlined the three categories of job stress symptoms viz.

- **Psychological Symptoms** – It includes job dissatisfaction, disliking for job, depression, anxiety, boredom, frustration, isolation and resentment. Due to these problems employee is unable to cope with job problems.

- **Physical Symptoms** – These includes cardiovascular diseases, gastrointestinal problems, allergies and skin diseases and headaches and respiratory diseases.

- **Behavioural Symptoms** - These are classified as employee related and organisation related symptoms. Avoidance of work, increased intake of alcohol or drugs, overeating and under-eating, aggression towards coworkers or family members and interpersonal problems in general are individual symptoms. Absenteeism, turnover, accident proneness and decreasing work efficiency are organisation-related symptoms.

The other researchers have focused on the causes on job stress rather than remedies of job stress. Large number of studies identified various causes and consequences of job stress. The research findings of job stress due to physical properties of the work environment are physical hazards, chronic dangers (Althouse and Horrell, 1977); pollution (Houss, 1972); extremes of heat, cold, humidity and pressure (Bierser and Associates, 1971); noise (Glass and Singer, 1972) and bad man – machine design (Swain and Guttmann, 1980).

The time variables which cause job stress are change in time zone or length of work day (McFarland, 1974); non standard working hours (shift work) (Rentos and Shephard, 1976); dead lines (Pearse, 1977); time pressure (Schmidt, 1978).
The social and organisational properties of work and its settings cause job stress are machine pacing (Murphy and Hurrell, 1980); organisational irrationality (Cummings and DeCotiis, 1973); loss of job (Cobb and Kasl, 1977); over promotion (Brook, 1973); transfer of job locus (Renshaw, 1976).

The role related sources of job stress are role ambiguity and role conflict (Kahn, 1973); role strain (MacKinnon, 1978); responsibility for things (Cobb, 1973); feedback and communication problems (Moch, Bartunek, and Brass, 1979); opportunity for advancement (French, 1973); in equality of pay (Caplan, 1975).

There are some causes of job stress, which are off the job. These are disturbed life pattern of miscellaneous stresses (Neves, 1969); stressful life events (Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend, 1974); demands of husband and children on working women (Waldron, 1978).

The consequences of job stress are grouped as strains and illness and mortality. The strains are classified as physiological, psychological and behavioural and social strains.

The consequences of physiological strains due to job stress are pulse rate and blood pressure, somatic complaints (Caplan, 1975); serum cholesterol, high-and low-density lipoproteins (Chandwick, 1980); disrupted sleep (Mott, 1976).

The consequences of psychological strains due to job stress are boredom, anxiety, depression, irritation (Caplan, 1975); tension, experienced conflict (Kahn, 1973).

The consequences of behavioural and social strains due to job stress are burnout (Daley, 1979); use of alcohol on the job, counter productive behaviours such as doing inferior work on purpose, damaging property and
equipment or product on purpose (Mangione and Quinn, 1975); disrupted performance of social role as citizen (Gardell, 1976).

Illness and mortality is the another consequence of job stress. The physiological illness (psycholomatic) includes heart disease (Glass, 1977); hypertension, peptic ulcer, diabetes militus (Cobb and Rose, 1973); Arthritis (Cobb, 1971); mortality rates (Collongan, 1977).

The psychological consequences of illness and mortality due to job stress are mental illness (Gavin, 1975); depression (Ilfeld, 1977); neurosis, character disorder (Ferguson, 1973).

The behavioural and social consequences of illness and mortality due to job stress are violence (Work in America, 1973); accidents and errors, with harm to self (Thesrell, 1974); suicide (Karcher, 1978).

Daniel C. Ganster and John Schaubroeck (1991) contended that burnout is a type of stress while Miyazaki A.D. (2000) treat it as having a number of components. However Lin Grensing – Popbal (1999) differentiate stress and burnout as, stress is normal and often quite healthy. However, when the ability to cope with stress begins to let us down, then we may be on the road to burnout. Christing Maslach (1999), a stress researcher concludes that, it is believed that burnout is not a problem of the people themselves but of the social environment in which people work. She believes that burnout creates a sense of isolation and a feeling of lost control, causing the burned-out employee to relate differently to others and to their work. Burnout is associated with the profession such as nursing, education and social work.

Growing evidence suggests that high levels of stress adversely affect physical health, psychological well being, and many aspects of task performance (Quick J.C.1992). A nationwide survey conducted by a large
life insurance company showed that nearly 46 percent of American workers believe their jobs are highly stressful. (Northwestern National LIC, 1999).

J.R. Schermerhon Jr., Hunt J.R. and Richard N. Oshorn have included, task demands, role ambiguities, role conflicts, ethical demands, interpersonal problems, career developments and physical setting are the common stressors.

DeFrank R.S. and Ivancevich J.M. (1998) have reported the level of job stress in a study of employees in the plastic manufacture, copy machine distributor, furniture manufacture and cable TV company where stress level is high the frequency of compensation is also high.

An extensive study published in Wall Street Journal (1997, April 15), regarding job stress in 250 different occupations. Using variety of standards, scientist rated the stress score for the following occupations. (High scores reflect greater levels of stress encountered.) Senior Executive – 108.6, Surgeon – 99.5, General Physician – 64.0, College Professor – 54.2, School Principal – 51.7, Accountant – 31.1

Oakland (1991) conducted a study of stress and coping mechanisms involving head teachers in British School. He identified way of thinking, as a powerful predictor of psychological health and physical symptoms. He calls it as absoluteness. The outcomes of an absolutist way of thinking are strong and negative emotions if and when an individual's standards are threatened. He suggested that these emotions are the result of main thought processes viz. Victimisation, a sense of justice, perfectionism and unwillingness to change beliefs and behaviours.

In a study conducted by Bogg and Cooper (1995), investigated the role of job satisfaction in dealing with stress. The results indicated that civil service executives had significantly worse health and well being, less positive work related attitudes and lower job satisfaction. They perceived more stress due
to factors intrinsic to their jobs. (Such as long work hours, worse payments etc.)

Srivastav A.K. and Sing A.P. (1981) identified the factors which cause occupational stress such as; role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, group pressures, low profitability, under participation, low status, responsibility for people, intrinsic impoverishment, strenuous working conditions, poor peer relations and powerlessness.

DeFrank and Ivancevich (1998) pointed out those specific physical health concerns that have been linked to stress. These includes the – (i) immune system problems, where there is lessened ability to right off illness and infection, (ii) cardiovascular system problems such as high blood pressure and heart disease, (iii) musculoskeletal system problems, such as diarrhea, headaches and back pain, (iv) gastrointestinal system problems such as diarrhea and constipation.

Peter Y. Chen and Paul E. Spector (1992) in an exploratory study found that stress had the strongest impact on aggressive actions, such as sabotage, interpersonal aggression, hostility and complaints.

McGrath J.E. (1976) and Beehr and Newman (1980), in a study found that psychological problems from stress are relevant to poor job performance, lower self-esteem, resentment of supervision inability to concentrate and make decisions, and job dissatisfaction.

Ivancevich and Matteson (1991) found in a study that problems for employee behaviour caused by alcohol drug abuse.

Kinicki, McKee and Wade (1995), evidenced through a research study that there is relationship between stress and absenteeism and turnover.

Orlando Behling and Arthur L. Darrow (1984), in a study pointed out that stress can reach a destructive state more quickly, when experienced by highly emotional people or by those with low self-esteem. People who
perceive a good fit between job requirements and personal skills seem to have a higher tolerance for stress than to those who feel less competent as a result of a person-job mismatch.

Mayer Friedman and Ray Roseman (1974) pointed out that basic aspects of personality are also important. The achievement orientation, impatience, and perfectionism of individuals with type A personalities, for example, often create stress for them in work setting; the others find relatively stress free.

Accident on Job is also a subject of research. Accidents and errors, with harm to self (Theurell, 1974) and accidents causing harm to others (Colquhoum, 1976) have been noted to be caused by job stress.

Stress is produced by several happening in life. Modern life is full of stress. It is general observation that job stress is dysfunctional and it harms individual. However, stress is not always undesirable and harmful. It has also positive side. This stress is called ‘eustress’. Some researchers have contended that some sorts of job stress have functional qualities and others have reported that partial degree of stress is desirable to motivate the individual and at which his effectiveness is maximized. Kets de Vries (1979) pointed out that individual need a moderate amount of stress to be alert and capable of functioning effectively.

Pestonjee and Singh (1987), also found in a study that job stress is positively related to job satisfaction of the managers of private sector organisations. Mathew (1986) has advocated that particular types of stresses are essential for being creative. Srivastav and Singh (1987) noted positive relationship between stress and responsibility for persons in a sample of banking and insurance supervisors.
Moderate job stress act in a constructive or energizing way. It can increase effort, stimulate creativity and encourage diligence in one’s work (Selye Hans, 1976).

2.3 Managing Job Stress –

The role of job stress in work setting is complex. Constructive stress may facilitate task performance and destructive stress can reduce performance. Various researchers have focused on individual and organisational approaches for stress management.

Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman and Phillips (1990) have designed three ways to reduce harmful effects of stress for the organisations. These are - (i) identify and then modify or eliminate work stressors, (ii) help employees to modify their perception and understanding of work stress and (iii) help employees cope more effectively with the consequences of stress. Stress management programmes often includes – improvements in the physical work environment, job redesign, change in workload and deadlines, structural reorganization, change in work schedule, goal setting programme, employee participation and communication, role clarity and role analysis.

The Association for Fitness in Business estimates that 12,000 companies today offer stress coping programmes ranging from counseling services, lunch time stress management seminars and wellness publications to elaborate company run fitness centers where employees can sweat out the tension (Laurie Hays, 1987).

Macan (1994) concluded that an understanding and utilization of basic time management principles can help individuals better cope with tensions created by job demands.

Hynes (1985) have given the principles for time management. These are - (i) making daily list of activities to be completed, (ii) prioritize the activity
by urgency and importance, (iii) schedule the activity as per the priority, (iv) know the daily cycle and handling the most demanding part of your job during the high part of your cycle when you are most alert and productive.

The physicians have long been recommended noncompetitive physical exercise such as aerobics, walking, jogging, swimming and riding bicycles. These exercise increase heart capacity, lower at rest heart rate, provide a mental diversion from work pressure (Kiely & Hodgson, 1990).

Through relaxation technique individual can reduce tension it includes meditation, hypnosis and biofeedback. With these techniques individual may feel detached from stress full environment and feel physically relaxed (Forbes & Pekala 1973). A common relaxation response to stress for a set period of time (e.g. 20 minutes) if individual can use during a workday he may cope with job stress (Carpi 1996).

Robert Lussier (1993) focused that individual responsibility to enhance and maintain wellness trough a disciplined approach to physical and mental health. It requires attention to the things such as, smoking, weight, diet, alcohol use and physical fitness. Personal wellness is a lifestyle that reflects a true and comprehensive commitment to health. Stress as a potential to affect health, personal wellness makes a great deal of sense as preventive stress management strategy.

The researcher D. Etzion (1984), demonstrated that social support moderates the stress-burnout relationship. Expanded social support network, can be a means for tension reduction.

The findings of K.G.Lim (1996), a social psychology researcher, over the years that people need and will benefit from social support to moderate the job stress.

Deliberately managing the antecedents and the consequences of their own behaviour, people can achieve self-control over stress. Besides,
managing their own limits to reduce stress. They can avoid people or situations that they know will put them under stress. The number of clinical psychologists has entered the stress field with cognitive therapy techniques. Techniques such as Ellis’s Relational Emotive Model and Cognitive Behaviour Modification have been used as individual strategy for reducing job stress.

Professional help can be required if individual’s stress level is beyond the point where he/she can cope alone. Stress management techniques, such as biofeedback, hypnosis, behaviour therapies and insight orientation approaches are among the possibilities (Olson and Roberts 1981). Stress management therapy has three main outcomes; reducing physical tension (perhaps through hypnosis), cognitive restructuring of stress situations and learning effective skill for coping with stress (Olson and Roberts 1981).

Yoga and meditations are the systems of Indian philosophy and practice. These techniques have been in use in India since ancient times as the techniques of relief from stress and for improvement in physical and psychological health. Yoga attempts to bring within its perspective all three sides of human life, i.e. body mind and soul. Yoga teaches us ways of establishing harmony among various sides of life (Patel, 1993).

Organisational Stress coping strategies are designed to eliminate or control organisational level stressors in order to prevent or reduce job stress for individual employees.

Matteson and Ivancevich (1987), noted three stages through which employee passes i.e. getting in, breaking in, and setting in. In first stage he faces new environment and demands, in second stage role, procedures and relationships and in third stage conflicting demands. These stages may create stress for which socialization and orientation of new employee is needed.
Hewlett Packard realised that they are putting pressure on employees in competitive battles and are giving considerable effort to distress the organisation. Hewlett Packard requires employees to have personal / leisure goals (i.g. weight loss, exercise, take time for family) as well as job goals. If employees fall short of their personal / leisure goals, supervisors are held responsible (Joanne Cole, 1999).

Personal wellness programme is fruitful in managing the job stress. The programme has three types as, (i) raising awareness and provide the information about stress, (ii) have ongoing effort to modify the lifestyle (i.e. exercise programmes for employees) and (iii) creation of environment to maintain healthy lifestyle. AT & T obtained dramatic health benefits in terms of reduced blood pressure and cholesterol level. The programme resulted in elimination of workplace accidents, reduced tardiness and absenteeism by 60 percent. At Johnson & Johnson wellness programme reduced the hospital costs and also reduced absenteeism by 18 percent. (Jeffery, 1996)

Pestonjee (1992) have suggested stress audit. It refers to the attempt an organisation makes to study, explore and control the various types of stress, which the executive experiences.

Employee Assistance Programme (EAPs) has also become a very valuable organisational response to help employees cope with stress. Copper and White (1995) have given core issues of EAPs such as decorated job performance, consultative assistance, constructive conformation, individual and micro linkages, corporate culture, improved job performance etc. Organisations can focus on issue and an attempt to create stress-free or reduced stress environments. EAP’s are currently implemented in over half of U.S. Organisations with fifty or more employees and have been found to
consistently reduce absenteeism, health care costs and disciplinary action (Gary L. Wirt, 1998).

A study conducted by Kjaerheim (1997), examining heavy drinking as stress symptom in a restaurant business showed the result that drinking was not a major stressor but the relaxation problems, household type, age group and occupation were the major indicators of stress.

2.4 Job Attitude

Attitudes are an important component of human behaviour. The present study is concerned with Job related attitudes. Attitudes focus on specific people or object.

Attitudes were viewed as a single, unified concept for many years, but its is now widely recognised as a more complex cluster of attitudes towards different aspects of a job, arising from a person’s expectations of work and his/her actual experiences.

A extensive research by Smith(1969) suggested that there are five dimensions to the attitude, all of which reflect affective responses to particular aspects of a job. These dimensions are – the work itself, pay promotion, supervision and co-workers. Most of the research in Organisational Behaviour has been concerned with three attitudes. Job i.e. satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment (Brooke Jr., Russell and Prince, 1988).

The recent research of Judge, Bano and Loke (2000) found that job characteristics and job complexity mediate the relationship between personality and job satisfaction. Wages and salaries are recognised to the a significant but cognitively complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction (Carraher, Buckley 1996 and Judge 1993). Promotional opportunities to have varying effect on job satisfaction. A positive work
environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and broaden their skill base for many became more important than promotion opportunities. A metaanalysis of the study (Miller and Monge, 1986) concluded that participation does not have a positive effect on job satisfaction. A participative climate created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on workers' satisfaction than does in a specific decision. Co-operative coworkers or team members are modest source of job satisfaction to individual employees. Working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction influences absenteeism and can also affect turnover or decisions by people to terminate employment: satisfied workers are less likely to leave, while dissatisfied workers are more likely to leave when they can (Charles N Weaver, 1980).

Organisational commitment is another aspect of job attitudes. Job satisfaction is primarily concerned with job while commitment shows the relationship between the individual and the organisation. The stronger such a relationship is, the higher the organisational commitment will be. Organisational commitment is a critical aspect of job attitude. (ADL Association, 1998, p.6).

Carson and Carson, Roe, Birkenmeier and Philips (1999) feels that organisational commitment is a dead issue because of new environment (downsizing, telecommuting, mergers and acquisitions, and globalization) and should be replaced by career commitment.

Attitudes have these components viz. emotional, informational and behavioural. Karen Pugliesi (1999) observed that like traditional physical and mental labour, emotional labour can take its toll interns of exhaustion and stress.

The dispositions of positive affectivity (feelings) (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) have been found to be important antecedents to attitude
about one’s job. George (1990) explained that NA reflects a personality disposition to experience negative emotional states; those with high NA tend to feel nervous, tense, anxious, worried, upset and distressed. These people are more likely to have negative attitude towards themselves, others and the worlds around them. Burke, Brief and George (1993) found that NAs may experience more stress.

Those with high PA have an overall sense of well-being, to see themselves as pleasurable and effectively engaged, and to experience positive attitudes. PAs do tend to perform better (Staw and Barsade, 1993). PAs are less absent from work (George, 1989); and are more satisfied (Shaw, Duffy, Jenkins Jr. and Gupta, 1999). Then negative attitude towards work is equal to burnout and it is a symptom of job stress.

2.5 Job Involvement

Job involvement refers to the degree to which a person is willing to work hard and apply effort beyond normal job expectations. Aggrwal(1980) found that highly involved employees were regular in work, punctual, if they are absent from work they give prior notice, completing work in time, not bothered by extra workload, technically sound, knowing job well and constantly thinking of bringing about improvements in their work.

According to Blak and Boal (1987) job involvement measures the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his job and considers his perceived performance level important to self-worth.

Blau G.J.(1986) found in a research study that high level of job involvement are related with fewer absences and lower resignation rates.

Lodhal and Kejner (1965) have a pioneering work in relation to the concept of job involvement and measurement of job involvement. It is the
research result of Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) that job involvement and job satisfaction has a positive relationship.

A research study conducted by Tosi and Tosi (1974) on higher level managers found that there is negative correlation between role ambiguity and role conflict and measures of job involvement.

Beehr, Walsh and Taber (1976) in a study of role stress on individual and organizationally valued stress; it is found that role overload was positively correlated with job involvement. The role stressors put adverse effects on job involvement.

Madhu and Hargopal (1980) examined the relationship of stress from role conflict and role ambiguity with job involvement. The result showed negative relationship.

Srivastava and Sinha (1983) conducted a study to examine the effect of ego strength and job involvement on the experience of role stress, it is found that job involvement negatively correlated with role overload and role ambiguity but not with role conflict.

Abel-Halim and Ahmed (1982) examined the moderating effect of social support on the relation of role stress with intrinsic job satisfaction and job involvement. The study resulted indicating negative relationship between role stress and job involvement.

Srivastava (1990) undertaken an extensive study to examine relationship between occupational stress and job involvement of the employees working in public and private sector organisations. The result of study indicated that occupational stress negatively correlated with job involvement of public sector employees and no significant correlation could found between occupational stress and job involvement.

The earlier research focus on stress was related to the stress on various dimensions and occupations. Then its relation with other variables
such as absenteeism, working environment, time variables, machine pacing, monotony, job attitude, human relations, working environment, role related variables, job complexity, relation to supervisor, job involvement, inequality of pay, person environment fit and of the job stress variables.

The next chapter is related to the methodology.
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