CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION & GENERAL FRAMEWORK

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INTRODUCTION

The relationship between man and his work has always attracted the attention of philosophers, scientists, psychologists, managers and academicans in our society. The interest of psychologists in this area dates back to early 20th Century and is shown in the emergence and development of fields of industrial psychology and vocational guidance with growing awareness of the importance of the human side of enterprise.

In a developing country like India, the problem of understanding job attitudes of employees is of great significance. In those countries, capital, technical and technological resources are scarce and manpower is the only productive asset. Development envisages a high rate of production and optimum utilization of human and other resources. Under such circumstances, it is essential that a proper understanding of satisfaction and deprivation emanating from the job are obtained.

The way an individual carries out a given task depends on the nature of person he or she is and the manner he or she performs the work. Organizational Climate and many related terms such as environmental situations, conditions and circumstances are used to explain that a person or a group can behave in different ways, even when faced with similar tasks and problems. Having tried to account for
variations in behaviour by means of intrapersonal variables like attitudes and personality, theorists are increasingly looking for environment for part of the explanation. The industrial environment all over the world has been in continuous transition with shattering and accelerating changes. These changes are rapid, complex and multi-accelerating, affecting all aspects of our lives. “Never before so much changed, so fast and with such dramatic implications for the entire world. From the nuclear family to nuclear arm treaties, our way of life is transforming as we live it.” (Conner, 1993). The world is passing through a crisis of intellectual, moral and spiritual dimensions; a crisis of scale and urgency unprecedented in the recorded human history.” (Capra, 1982).

There are four dimensions of environmental changes effecting organizations – political, economic, technological and social. “Things and events are occurring faster than ever before.” (Pestonjee, 1992).

1 POLITICAL

“Of all human activities, politics is the one that has the most profound effects on the human society.” (Mewes, 1985). The changes in this area in recent past, have spelt catastrophe for a large population. The disintegration of the communist block has shattered the social fabric of the region and created destabilization, destruction and enormous human suffering. There are political uncertainties and crises in many parts of the world. It is in this environment that organizations will have to survive, operate and grow.
2 ECONOMIC

The changes in the economic environment have been dramatic. An important development in recent times has been the internationalization of business and the global competition. Internationalization is defined as the process of an individual firm's or a group's increasing involvement in international operations (Welch and Luostarinen, 1988). In such an environment, business organizations extend activities beyond the geographical boundaries for sourcing of inputs, conversion and marketing. This leads to competition at a global scale, which poses challenges to organizations to perform and excel. The great excellence movement of eighties (Peters and Waterman, 1982) came from concern for outperforming, as non-performance meant extinction. This probably led Nanus (1992) to rank competition as a major problem facing our planet, only after the threat of nuclear terrorism, worldwide famine and global warming. However, other thinkers like Connor consider competition as an opportunity to enhance human performance.

Another important development is the emergence of Japan as a global economic power, that has shifted economic balance of the world. Japan today sits on the largest cache of wealth ever assembled. It has the power to move markets anywhere in the world. Tokyo Stock Exchange has now surpassed New York to become world's largest on the basis of market capitalization. Osaka has pushed London to fourth place (Murphy, 1989). Along with Japan, emergence of new economies in Asia-Pacific Region,
like South Korea and Taiwan, has added new dimensions to this economic reality. The establishment of European Economic Community (EEC) is an attempt to retain the competitive position of membership countries in the new equation. While the United States has made efforts to renegotiate its position in the global economy (Vernon, 1989). Japan, understanding the threat of rivalry among competing economies, pleads economic realignment by developed countries had a significant influence on developing countries, and they responded by effecting structural changes in their respective economic policies to retain or gain a foothold in the world markets.

These changing complexities and confusion have substantial effect on the trade and business organizations. "The world is undergoing many major transmutations, some of which involve meaning of business, character and shape of organization that carry it out." (Kanter, et.al, 1991)

3 TECHNOLOGY

The rapid changes in technology influencing the organizations affect the quality of life, the content of business and the method of managing organizations. The trends of technological development consist of miniaturization, increased productivity, cost reduction, material substitution, time management, comfort, leisure, automation, standardization and pervasiveness of technology. (Petroda, 1993).

Among the major developments in technology that have taken place, Information Technology has had the most profound impact on
organizations. By availing the technologies, like internet and e-commerce, one can establish contact with the entire world within seconds, one can have conference anywhere with people anywhere and access information in any form within minutes. Information technology will allow cluster-type organizations to have the benefits of small scale and large scale simultaneously. Even large organizations will be able to adopt more flexible and dynamic structures. The distinction between centralized and decentralized control will blur and now work will be accomplished by teams formed to handle particular projects. "Sophisticated expert systems and knowledge bases will help capture decision making process, so decision making will be better understood. And the system, not the people will retain the corporate history, experience and expertise." (Applegate et al, 1988).

SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

The social dimensions of business has undergone a sea-change in recent years. The belief that the social responsibility of business is to increase its profit has changed dramatically and it is now accepted that the organization has to assume responsibility for environmental pollution, product safety and fairness in employment policies. There is an iron law of responsibility which states that in the long run, those who do not use power in a manner that society considers responsible, will tend to loose it. (Davis, 1978).
Changes in norms of social responsibility are critical for performance of organizations. For instance, at the Rio-de-janero Conference on Atmospheric Pollution in 1992, it was resolved that use of CFC by industry would be phased out by 1996 as it causes global warming. This will adversely affect the business of many companies world over, and, at the same time, will give impetus to development of a substitute.

The decision of phasing out PVC in packaging in Europe has affected many businesses and helped in accelerating search for alternative materials. Indian chemical industry in the past few years are compelled to adhere the pollution control norms and statutory regulations to protect the environment effectively. Similarly organizations cannot avoid responsibility for product safety. The government is taking effective steps to enforce consumer protection laws and many public institutions support and encourage it.

**LEADERSHIP**

“Industrial economy has gradually and steadily shifted from a ‘seller’s market’ to ‘buyer’s market.’ Competition has, therefore, become imperative in the case of most products and services. In order to combat this, organizations are perforce required to improve the quality of their products and services in view of the fact that they hardly any control over the external environment.” (Nayar, 1989).

Survival or growth of the organization depends on how effectively the tasks and activities of the organizations is carried out and the respon-
sibility primarily lies with the leadership. Only strong leadership will enable an organization to survive, let alone prosper, in such trying times. Without leadership, an organization is like a life-boat adrift in turbulent seas with no oars, no compass, no maps, and no hope. (Nanus, 1992).

The success of organizations will depend on capability of the leadership to understand the changes in the environment, draw out a vision of how the future will shape up and make adjustments internally to meet with the situation. The magnitude of change today can prompt a doom-and-gloom vision, or it can be seen as an opportunity for a fundamental shift in how we humans define ourselves, where we are going and how we will accomplish our goals. “It is essential that as many people as possible learn how to better assimilate major transitions. This challenge is best approached by focussing on those in leadership position.” (Conner, 1993).

How does leadership take up this challenge? Ideas of different thinkers generally converge into four leadership roles – direction setter, change agent, spokesman and coach. As a direction setter, the leader should be able to draw a course towards a destination that members of the organization to move in a turbulent environment. This course will take the shape of vision and will inspire the members to make the vision materialize. As a change agent, the leader catalizes changes in the internal environment, for example, changing the structure, mobilizing resources etc. to make the vision achievable in the foreseeable future. As a good change agent, a leader will anticipate changes in external environment
and relate them to the internal environment, create a sense of urgency and prioritize actions so that people in the organization proceed towards the direction in a team.

**INDIAN MANAGEMENT**

In a turbulent environment our task involves study of new conditions, anticipate inevitable changes in the years ahead, and devise a course of action appropriate to operate within new realities. “This emphasizes a new role of business, privatization and information based infrastructure in balancing global forces to our advantage.” (Shanbaug, 1991).

**ORGANIZATIONS OF THE FUTURE**

Management thinkers, taking into account complexities of the external environment, have written on organizations of the future and following are some of their views:

Peters (1988): The successful firm of the 1990’s and beyond will be flatter; populated by more autonomous units. We must radically reduce layers of management, get staffs out in the field, and encourage them to be business team members rather than narrow functional specialists.

Mintzberg (1989): We should question conglomeration wherever it appears. There is no evidence that anyone know how to manage effectively a diversity of business under one corporate umbrella except by the sheer power of personality. Let us get rid of multiple layers management-authority, increasingly detached and superficial – that serves only to sap the energy of involved committed people. Typical organizations 20 years
hence will have fewer than half the levels of its counterpart today and no more than a third of the managers. In its structure, the business will more likely resemble the hospital, the university, and the symphony orchestra. The typical business will be knowledge based composed largely of specialists who direct and discipline their own performance through organized feedback from colleagues, customers, and headquarters. It will be an information-based organization. The right organizational size will increasingly be whatever handles most effectively the information needed for task and function. Where the traditional organization was held together by command and control, the skeleton of the information-based organization would be the optimal information system. (Drucker, 1989).

EFFECTS OF INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE

“In a competitive economy, above all, the quality and the performance of the managers determine the success of a business; indeed they determine its survival. For, the quality and performance of its managers is the only effective advantage an enterprise in a competitive economy can have.” (Drucker, 1955). Over the years, this reality has remained unchanged – only the word manager has changed to people – meaning everyone responsible to the organization. It is, very important to understand, how the changing external environment and the leadership response thereto, influence the individual performance in organizations.

The leadership response takes the form of direction setting, being a change agent, a spokesman, a coach or a motivator. Leadership is
concerned with relationship with people he/she leads. The quality of relating depends on beliefs, philosophy, orientation and the capability and motivation of the leader. These are subtly expressed and generally perceived by people in the organization through the behaviour of leaders in various tasks like supervision, decision-making, conflict resolution, risk taking, rewarding, communication, etc. It is possible that in a hierarchical organization, the leadership style of top management is not percolated to lower levels and, therefore, people in different work situations may perceive leadership behaviour differently. This difference in perception about leadership behaviour leads to making judgments by people on leader's actions in goal setting, internal changes, negotiation, or even their motivational roles. Consequently, all changes that the leadership desires to make in response to external environment - like structures, systems, technology, norms, traditions - get colored by such perceptions.

The perception of people about the organizational variables arouses motives or incentives and generates expectations in the people. These lead to certain behaviour that elicit corresponding response from the leadership and generate continuous impact on the organizational structures, systems, culture, leadership behaviour and psychological needs of people, creating an environment that is described as organizational climate. "The question really amounts to asking what motivates people, and the answer is that people are motivated to satisfy their needs. It is as simple as that,"
and as complex as understanding that needs differ, so that "one-size-fits-all" does not work when it comes to motivating people." (Nayar, 2004).

“People in the organizations play certain roles. Role is a set of expectation from the position an individual holds in the organization from significant others, including the individual himself.” (Pareek, 1983).

These expectations can vary in many ways – they may be many or few, complex or simple, static or dynamic, clear or ambiguous, streamlined or conflicting. The perception of role occupants in regard to these roles in the context of other roles in the organization, or the gap between capability and aspiration may vary or be in conflict. These create demands, actual or perceived, on the individual who tends to meet with them. When the demands exceed the capability of the individual to cope with, and the individual expects substantial rewards or costs for meeting the demand and not realizing it, the imbalance is manifested as non-specific response of his body. This response is termed as stress (McGrath, 1976). The stress associated with the role of the individual is termed as role stress.

“Stress has serious debilitating effects on individual performance and leads to coronary artery diseases, psychosomatic illness, mental health problems, hypertension, peptic ulcer and many other ailments.” (Pestonjee, 1992).

It has been established that significant correlation exists between organizational climate variables and individual behaviour in the
organization like motivation, commitment, alienation, maladjustment etc. and effects like stress and job dissatisfaction. These have serious consequences in organizations and they adversely affect productivity, innovation, etc. on one side, and physical and mental health of individuals on the other. **Fig. 1** gives a schematic view of the effects of environment on the individual and the consequences. The dotted lines indicate the feedback loop. In this scheme, the organizational climate is an intervening variable. The most important causal variable is the external environment and leadership variables are moderators. This highlights the importance of leadership in the context of the organization and the society.

**SCOPE AND RELEVANCE OF THE PRESENT STUDY**

The main objective of the present study is to explore the factors that lead to sub-optimal utilization of human potentials in the organization. The present study focuses on the effects of Organizational climate and size on Job Satisfaction and Role stress.

The subjects for the study have been chosen to cover a specified category of employees, middle managers - in a cross-section of units in the engineering industry. Both the theme and also the subjects of the study have relevance to the present socio-economic context. From the above discussions on the environment in organizations and its impact on the individuals, it is concluded that there is a strong case in favour of
understanding the organizational climate and resultant behaviour of its members in order to help in designing and implementing suitable intervention strategies. The relevance of the study is established as follows:

- It seeks to measure the organizational climate in select units in the engineering industry – an important sector of Indian economy.
- It seeks to measure two major effects on the individuals, namely, Job Satisfaction and Role Stress among middle level managers in the industry.
- The study throws light on status of middle managers in the industry of the future, where organizations adopt flatter structures.
- The study explores how effectively the middle managers are utilized in Indian organizations.
The study is relevant in academic pursuits in the following manner:

- This study attempts to establish the correlation of Organizational Climate with Job Satisfaction and Role Stress.
- Both Job Satisfaction and Role Stress are being independently used to explain certain individual behaviour patterns. This study explores the relationship between the two concepts.
- This study examines whether the organizational climate moderates relationship between Job Satisfaction and Role Stress.
- Correlation studies on Organizational Climate, Job Satisfaction and Role Stress are not carried out in the engineering industry in a systematic manner. This study makes up for its absence.

**THE ENGINEERING INDUSTRY**

Though the term engineering is well defined, there is no clear definition of engineering industry. For the purpose of this study, the following working definition has been adopted:

"Engineering Industry is the industry involved in manufacturing of durable products, from metal or metal substitutes that go as inputs to other industries or as durable to the household sector."

The characteristics, of the engineering industry are as follows:

1. Large labour content – mostly skilled and experienced.
2. Low level of automation, generally.
3. Many variables involved in the manufacturing process.
4. Many complex and interconnected activities involved, making
5. planning and control difficult.
6. Confluence of various technologies to shape the final product.
7. Susceptible to changes in the economic environment.

Because of these features, the result of empirical studies in other industries does not become applicable to engineering industry.

Engineering Industry accounts for nearly one-third of the total industrial production in the country involving a wide range of products. Total investment, as per estimates in year 1990, is around Rs 38,000 crore and total employment is 2.42 million people. “The value of goods produced is Rs 57,000 crore. During the past three decades, the global export for engineering goods has expanded rapidly and the Government lays considerable stress of international trade and commerce. It is, therefore, necessary to give impetus to engineering exports as the centre of Indian export strategy.” (Desai, 1990).

**MANAGER IN THE MIDDLE**

A middle level manager is usually defined in terms of his position in the organizational hierarchy and his functions. His position is not senior enough to be bracketed with top management group, who take strategic decisions and set policies, nor he is a first level supervisor. His functions are to translate the strategies into action plans and schedules and to implement those plans as per general policy guidelines. With this broad definition of his functions, he is a specialist in a particular work area (e.g. an accountant, a designer or an engineer), manages a multiple of relation-
ships simultaneously working as a subordinate to his boss taking orders and making reports, a superior to his subordinates, giving orders and supporting them to perform and, to his peers as an equal seeking cooperation and support. Superiors are watchers, subordinates are players, and middle manager must be the boss. (Uyterhoeven, 1989).

The middle manager is responsible for producing the results. Quite often this responsibility is without adequate opportunity. It is his job to get resources for his function from top, and motivate subordinate workers and staff to get the desired results. In this process, he has to get involved in conflicts with different interest groups. Quite often, the picture of the middle manager emerges as someone squeezed by two forces – one coming from superiors on the top and other from the subordinates at the bottom.

Another conventional role of middle level managers is to gather, process and transmit information to the top so that, this can be used by the top management for decision-making. One very important role that many middle level managers perform and often escapes conventional wisdom is his innovative role. The designers, research workers, and planners are often in the middle level and contribute innovatively to the organization. Integrating these people in the main stream is often a challenge to the top management.

Mintzberg (1972) described a manager’s job in ten roles in three areas: inter-personal, informational, and decision-making. According to him, middle managers also perform similar roles, of course, with different
emphasis.

During Eighties, many management experts started emphasizing on innovative and entrepreneurship role of managers at all levels. In the changed complex business situation, they argued, this is the only way to excellence. (Peters and Waterman, 1982).

“Companies that encourage supportive, challenging work environment produce high levels of creativity amongst their employees.” (Nayar, 2005).

Canter (1982) argued that middle managers through political maneuvering in the organizations can be the vanguards of change and organizational innovation.

In several developed western countries, decentralization as measure to cope with changes in the environment was adopted in Sixties. This increased the need for middle mangers. In late Seventies and Eighties, the competitive situation being worse, globalization has been the strategy. With globalization, decentralization led to radical changes involving significant reduction in controls from the top by making self-reliant Strategic Business Units (SBUs). The organization in the smaller unit also underwent changes, e.g., structure of the organization became flatter, with limited number of levels. “Entirely new management structures displace middle level managers by self-managed teams of workers and supervisors. Computerization and telecommunication industries assume the role of information transmission between units and headquarters.
Middle managers are only about 5% of the workforce at 836 companies in America, they account for a 22% of the past year’s layoffs."(Dumaine, 1993). This means that the conventional role of middle managers has to change and they should become more innovative and entrepreneurial while the demand for middle managers will decline.

Nilkant and Ramanarayan (1990) have reported problems with the middle managers as perceived by top management and also middle managers’ perception of their work position in the hierarchy and problems. The top management of Indian organizations perceives middle managers to be lacking in willingness to take responsibility, team spirit, and in creative for innovative problem solving. They are risk aversive, and rigid in interpreting policies and procedures.

Middle managers perceive lack of adequate career opportunities, growth and promotion and lack of recognition. The appraisal and reward system and practices, according to them, are biased and not based on merit. There is lack of effort on the part of management for training and helping in acquiring better knowledge and skills. The participation of middle managers in decision-making and problem solving is absent. They perceive management style as instructional rather than participative. There is lack of sensitivity to the personal problems of middle managers when deciding on transfers or job rotation. There are anomalies and biases in top-level decision-making. The workload of middle managers is often quite high and there is little time for socializing.
There is apparent mistrust between the top management and the middle management to the detriment of their well-being as well as that of the organization as middle managers constitute a critical resource.

The organizations, which participated in this study, are hierarchical and affected by the socio-economic and political situation in the country.

**ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE**

Organizational Climate (OC) is one of the most important concepts to enter into the theory of organizations in the Century (Gution, 1973). OC can be described as an environment created through interactions between various organizational, personal and situational variables. The intensive research as well as debates on its conceptualization and assessment in the last four-and-a-half decades seems to have helped develop organizational climate as a mature concept in management. The concept has also proved useful in predicting and explaining a variety of job related behaviour, attitudes and performance on a number of dimensions (Icazka and Obiuk, 1968: Lawler et al. 1974). The importance of this concept is best indicated by the fact that more than a dozen major reviews on it has been published in leading journals across the world in the last four decades.

There are, however, considerable divergent views among researchers on definitions, dimensions and techniques of measurement of OC. A review of recent literature on the subject has been undertaken to highlight the salient features. The present study of Organizational Climate
defines it as "a set of cluster of expectancies and incentives which represent a property of the environment that is perceived directly or indirectly individuals in the environment." (Litwin CH and Stringer RA, 1968). According to them the effect of Organizational Climate on individual behaviour can be seen as definition of stimuli presented to the individual member, constraints placed upon the individual's freedom of choice, regarding behaviour, and the reward or punishment process.

The motivational analysis of Organizational Climate (MAO-C) questionnaire developed (Pareek U., 1975) was based on the climate questionnaire (Litwin CH and Stringer RA, 1968). It measures six motives – Achievement, Expert Influence, Extension, Control, Dependency and Affiliation in twelve dimensions, viz., Orientation, Inter-Personal Relationships, Supervision, Managing Problems, Managing Mistakes, Managing Conflicts, Communication, Decision Making, Trust, Managing Rewards, Risk Taking, and Innovation and Change. The features of the six categories of climate, based on motives are briefly given below:

1. **Achievement**: In this climate, general orientation is towards achieving excellence in all endeavors. Excellent work is rewarded, information is provided to those who need it for decisions making, people prefer to solve problems by themselves, take moderate risks and enthusiastic about changes.

2. **Extension**: This is indicative of high concern for the development of people. In this climate, people help one another, supervisors take
Differential Effects of Organizational Climate and Size on Job Satisfaction and Role Stress

3. responsibility for development of subordinates, they try to solve problems together and resolve conflicts mutually.

4. **EXPERT INFLUENCE**: In organizations under this category, expertise is respected. Groups are formed around experts and supervisors influence subordinates by virtue of their expertise. Mistakes are treated as learning experiences and specialists influence decisions.

5. **CONTROL**: In this type, consolidation of personal position and influence are the main areas of concern. Cliques are common; communication is selective, and used as a mechanism of control.

6. **DEPENDENCY**: In this type of dependency-dominated climate, stress is on following rules and procedures. Supervisors strongly prefer their subordinates to follow their instructions. Decisions are made at top levels and communicated downward and personal loyalty is expected and rewarded.

7. **AFFILIATION**: Affiliation dominance is characterized by people striving for friendliness, warmth, and affectionate relationships, where conflicts are avoided, trust is highly valued, ability to get along with others is rewarded and changes are discouraged.

It has been suggested by researchers that while Achievement Extension and Expert Influence are desirable climates for Organizational effectiveness, Control, Dependency and Affiliation climates have detrimental effects on organizations (Pareek U. 1975).
JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction represents the pleasurable positive attitudes that a person has for his job. Locke defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable positive state resulting from one's job and job experiences.

Numerous theoretical approaches and models have been proposed to explain the phenomenon of job satisfaction. These models and approaches are often treated as models of satisfaction and work motivation. At this juncture, therefore, it is necessary to distinguish between work motivation and job satisfaction.

Though job satisfaction and work motivation are closely related, they are not identical constructs. Work motivation is primarily concerned with describing why one person works harder and persists longer than another in order to attain his goal. On the other hand, job satisfaction refers to the satisfaction of a need of feeling of contentment related to the work experience. It is applicable only to the outcomes or rewards an individual obtains. It is a consequence of rewards of performance. Job satisfaction is basically hedonistic regarding the "past" whereas work motivation or job attraction is primarily hedonistic anticipation of the future. Making such a distinction often helps to explain why satisfied workers are not necessarily high producers. Workers with low work motivation may yet to be satisfied with their jobs, which do not require high performance, whereas highly motivated people make greater efforts even if they are less satisfied. Of course, such people run the risk of high
job turnover.

Theoretical models of job satisfaction and work motivation have often been dealt with. How satisfaction is related with or influenced by the constructs used in the conceptual framework of this investigation is briefly reviewed.

The extent to which people are satisfied with their jobs remains one of the most attractive topics of research in industrial and organizational psychology. Perhaps the reason for such extensive interest is the universal recognition of the twin objectives of organization – productivity and satisfaction; productivity for the organization and satisfaction for its employees (Sinha JBP, 1981). It was concluded: “importance of satisfaction in work can’t be minimized. Greater job satisfaction is likely to lead eventually to a more effective functioning of the individual and the organization as a whole. In fact, working life is to be evaluated not simply in terms of the amount of goods turned out, the productive efficiency and the profit it brings, but also in terms of the satisfaction participants derive from it.”

Voicing the same concern, Likert also concludes “job satisfaction and other satisfactions derived by the members of organizations” is included as one of the criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of the organizations. Mores too, stresses that an organization can be evaluated in terms of human satisfaction.

Though job satisfaction is not only the criterion for valuating
effectiveness, it was definitely more important to the executives who participated in this study. Their feelings, thoughts, and perceptions of situations have far-reaching consequences for the functioning of their organizations. The analysis of job satisfaction is worthwhile for its own sake, whether or not it directly leads to effective performance.

Realizing its importance in organizational dynamics and executive behavior, job satisfaction was included in this investigation as one of outcome variables. The selection of job satisfaction as an outcome variable was made as consistent relationship between various dimensions of organizational climate and job satisfaction and between the stress and job satisfaction has not yet been established.

Since job satisfaction is a multi-faceted phenomenon it is important to assimilate its various components to determine the levels of rewards and achievement as they are positively related with performance.

Very few scholars have studied job performance in relation to Indian conditions. Apte studied a sample of employees of a textile mill, ranging from the managing director to shop floor operatives. He found that productivity variations showed a good relationship with perceptual differences. Subjective participation, i.e., perceived level of participation in decision-making in the textile mill was reported to be significantly related to job effectiveness. In another study on textile workers Singh tried to relate nine dimensions of organizational climate with two-performance indicators [a) objectively measured productivity as available in
organizational records, and (b) superiors rated productivity. Analysis of his data revealed that none of the climate dimensions were related with the objective indicator of productivity, and superior’s rated productivity was positively related only to grievance handling procedures.

Leadership has also been studied in relation to group and organizational performance. Many theories on leadership advocate a positive relationship with a particular style and performance. Due to emergence of contingency theories, it is now suggested that there is no universally effective style of leadership. The effectiveness of a particular leadership style depends on many factors such as (a) the nature of the goal to be accomplished (b) the characteristics of the work environment and (c) the characteristics of the members of the task leadership style effective for subordinates with a high dependency, and so the nurturing task style of leadership often aids the effective performance of subordinates. However, he advises that the nurturing task leadership should be substituted by the participative style as the subordinates reach a level of growth at which they can handle situations independently.

**ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS AND JOB**

Job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction is often included in stress research as consequence of stress. A negative relationship between stress and satisfaction is frequently reported. But the findings are not unequivocal. In sample of managers Hammer and Tosi have found a positive correlation between role conflict and threat and anxiety, and an
insignificant relationship between satisfaction and conflict. Using a sample of research and development professionals Keller’s study reveals that role conflict is negatively related to satisfaction with work and with co-workers. Keller suggests that further study is required on the relationship of role conflict with particular affective reactions to job outcomes. Similarly, no consistent trend has yet emerged on the relationship of role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Some studies have reported a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction while others report an insignificant relationship between the two.

Indian researchers have also studied the relationship between organizational stress and job satisfaction. Harigopal and Ravi Kumar have observed (a) that role ambiguity is positively related with perceived deficiency in social and self-actualization needs though it is negatively related to job involvement and intrinsic motivation and (b) that there is a negative relationship between company satisfaction, and role ambiguity and role conflict. Singh, Gadwall and Mahan have reported that general role conflict is negatively related with job satisfaction and to satisfaction with working life. Srilatha and Harigopal have related role conflict and role ambiguity with many aspects of satisfaction. They have found that both the role ambiguity and conflict are negatively related only to satisfaction with pay, supervision, working conditions, colleagues, opportunities for promotion, and to job as a whole both in the public
sector and for the total sample. However, for the private sector personnel role ambiguity was negatively related to satisfaction with the supervision and to jobs as a whole. A similar trend was observed on the relationship between role conflict and satisfaction with working conditions, colleagues and opportunities for promotion in another study.

**PERSONAL FACTORS AND JOB SATISFACTION**

Personal variables examined in relation to job satisfaction have been many. Variables such as age, experience, education etc. were included in large number of studies. The trend emerging from studies conducted in the U.S.A. and U.K. suggests a positive relationship between age and job satisfaction and a negative relationship between education and job satisfaction.

Indian scholars also related age, education, and experience to job satisfaction. Agarwal observed that the first line managers who had more formal education, who were younger, and had less work experience had more favorable attitude towards management, supervision, subordinates, and human relation in the company. In another study job level, age, salary, and experience were found to be positively related to job involvement while education was negatively related with the same.

Pathak has reported that among public sector bank employees job satisfaction increased with age and education. However, positive relationship between education and job satisfaction was observed only among lower level employees.
The trend emerging from Indian studies also suggests age to be positively related to job satisfaction but the trend of relationship between education and job satisfaction is ambiguous due to contradictory findings.

Studies regarding the work ethic and job satisfaction show that the protestant work ethic is positively related with job satisfaction. Need for achievement is also found to be positively related to job satisfaction in sample blue-collar workers.

**ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS AND JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction has also been extensively studied in relation to the organizational climate and leadership dimensions.

Spector has reviewed the impact of autonomy and participation in a number of studies made from the meta analytic approach and has concluded the autonomy and participation are positively related to general satisfaction, and satisfaction with work, pay, supervision, co-workers, promotion and growth.

Several studies have examined the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate. Most of these have reported a significant relationship between the two. For example, Frirlander and Margulies have related perception of climate with three dimensions of job satisfaction in a simple rank and file workers. They found that each of the three satisfaction dimensions was associated with a climate with high in trust and low in hindrance. Pritchard and Karasick have related job
satisfaction with several dimensions of climate. They report cooperation, the social relations structure, level of reward, achievement, performance-reward, dependency, flexibility and innovation, and supportiveness as positively related with status polarization and centralization of decision making are negatively related with job satisfaction. Autonomy and satisfaction have not been found related.

Srivastava and Pratap have studied the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational climate among executives and supervisors. They have found a significant positive relationship between the overall climate and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was also found related to various individual dimensions of organizational climate such as leadership, communication, interaction, and influence in decision-making, goal setting and control.

Singh has studied job satisfaction in relation to nine dimensions of climate: (a) advancement opportunities, (b) grievance handling, (c) monetary benefits, (d) participation management, (e) objectivity and rationality, (f) recognition and appreciation, (g) safety and security (h) training and education, and (l) welfare facilities. In bipartite situations all the dimensions of climate were positively related to satisfaction. However, when subjected to multi-partite analysis only welfare facilities and safety and security emerged as significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has also been studied in relation to nurturing task leadership in a variety of settings, and most often a positive relationship
has been discerned between subordinates' satisfaction and their leaders' nurturance.

**STRESS AND MENTAL WORKLOAD: CONCEPTUAL SYNTHESIS**

In recent years, the problem of executive stress has received an inordinate amount of attention in the literature of management and management psychology. Despite this attention, executive stress continues to take its toll on human health, human life and human enterprise – by aborting careers, shortening lives, impairing mental and physical health, all resulting in diminishing effectiveness. Over 40 years ago, Hans Selye, the father of stress, wrote his first article on stress, which there have been over 20,000 scientific publications, but the meaning of stress is still partly elusive of the confusion engendered by incorrect adaptation.

When Selye first used the term 'stress' biologically, he inadvertently applied it to the reaction of the body. As he later admitted, he should have called the reaction strain so that it would agree with the use in Physics. Selye coined the term 'stressors' for the causative factors. But, today no one uses the distinction and both cause and effect are termed stress by different investigations. To add to the confusion, the terms “pressure” and “tension” have also been used synonymously for biological stress – a common definition of pressure being a burdensome, distressing, or weighty condition. Tension is defined as a mental, emotional or nervous strain. In other words, in Physics, tension is the external force, but in
Biology, it is the reaction of the body. Stress has been defined as a mentally or emotionally disruptive or disquieting influence – "distress". The dictionary definition of stress is similar to the one that people hold, i.e., stress is equal to distress. Yet, as emphasized, distress is only one type of stress. Furthermore, Cherry (1978) suggests that “stress can manifest itself in one or more ways in a number of linked open systems and strain one system can be transmitted to others, so that several become involved in the process of adaptation and defense.”

There are three kinds of stressors: (1) physical, (2) social, and (3) psychological. The makeup of the individual involves both heredity and environmental factors. Stress and stress response results from the interaction between the stressor and the individual, modified by the person’s state at that time. Therefore, to expect stress to be of only one type is to be unreasonable. There are three types of stress:

- Neustress:- (‘neu’- meaning neutral) where response is necessary for day-to-day adaptability of man to his environment;
- Distress:- (Prefix ‘dis’ implying bad or negative feelings). If stress response is unfavorable and potentially disease producing, it is labeled distress; and
- Eustress:- (Prefix ‘eu’ implying good or healthy feelings) where the stress response is favourable.
### Differential Effects of Organizational Climate and Size on Job Satisfaction and Role Stress

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic activity</th>
<th>Type of stress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective of activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exercise</td>
<td>eustress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking</td>
<td>neustress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeostasis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breathing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Frustration</td>
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<tr>
<td>Worry</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Guilt</td>
<td>distress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Paradigm for the study of stress in Organizations

One can view stress as composed of four stages which are connected by the linking process, and which provide substance for the study of stress.

There are six classes of stress:

1. task-based, 2. role-based, 3. intrinsic to behaviour, 4. arising from the physical environment, 5. arising from the social environment, and 6. within the person’s system.
Stressors can be classified into three major categories: (1) Physiological, (2) Psychological, and (3) environmental. While this classification is overly simplistic, it makes classification more methodical. Suffice it to say that any given incident of stress arises not from any single cause, but from a constellation of interacting causes.

**Physiological Causes**

These can be: (1) genetic and congenital factors, (2) life experience, (3) biological rhythms, (4) sleep, (5) posture, (6) diet, (7) fatigue, (8) muscular tension, (9) disease, and (10) disease of adaptation.

**Psychological Causes**

The basic model of psychological causes can be broken down into nine elements: perception, emotion, situation, experience, sensation, decisions, memory, motivation, and cognition and appraisal.

Since the system is open, it becomes apparent that almost any type of stimulus – internal or external – may serve directly or indirectly as a
psychological cause of stress under appropriate circumstances. At any
given occasion of input of a perceived event, both the physiological and
psychological condition of the self-system will have a direct and
controlling effect on the resulting response.

Therefore, one can say that any given event could have stressful
effects for one individual and benign or neutral effects for another, solely
because of individual differences in the continually flowing internal
reference signals.

**Environmental Causes**

The environmental causes of stress include all those objects or
events which participate or contribute to the stress response in the
individual, but which originate outside the individual: (1) ambient
environment, (2) physical events, (3) psychological sub-systems, (4)
physiological sub-systems, (5) social events and (6) biotic events.

There is also another categorization of the causes of stress, which
can be divided into primary and secondary causes.

**Primary Causes**

Any stimulus or combination of stimuli, which triggers the General
Adaptation Syndrome (G.A.S.) and can be either internal or external.

**Secondary Causes**

Those bodily states and activities which are, at once, the effects of
one, or more primary causes of stress and as a result of the feedback, the
Thus, given the range of individual differences (physiological and psychological), given the range of possible different reactions to use the same stimulus among different individuals, and given the range of different reactions to the same stimulus by the same individuals at different times, there appear to be reasonable grounds for accepting the proposition that every stimulus in the environment constitutes a potential cause of stress.

**Effects of Stress**

We are limited in the identification of causes and effects. In tracing any chain of events, we eventually reach a point beyond which we can only speculate about ultimate causes. Fig. 2 above shows that although the particular manifestation of stress depends on variable effects of the specific actions, an intermediate physiological subsystem in the self system and the relative responsiveness of the target organs themselves yield the same basic result, regardless of what particular stressor sets the G.A.S. in motion.

**Nature of Executive Stress**

Stress response is basically the same. Executive stress may be different from day-to-day stress, since the executives as a class may be exposed to certain type of stressors more than other individuals. Also, executives as a class may be peculiarly susceptible to certain adverse effects of the stress response.

Executives are seekers of power and without power, executives cease to function. They also have a propensity for risk-taking and they bear the responsibility for taking such risks, which involve the wealth and
welfare of many others. The responsibility for interpersonal relationship constitutes yet another major source of stress for executives. Even in their hierarchy, the higher they go on the professional ladder, the more isolation they experience at the top, which leads to stress.

**Costs of Executive Stress**

Costs of executive stress are a new concept and focuses generally on executives employed at large, bureaucratic, profit-making organizations in the business world. The effects of executive stress are not in themselves directly measurable in terms of cost. Each of them, however, results and it can be related to certain specific items of individual and organizational expense. These items constitute the secondary variables such as:

1. Work Loss: hours and days of absence from work;
2. Restricted activity; less work performed during regular business hours due to medical restrictions.
3. Medical and hospital expense; direct payments to medical practitioners, hospitals and others for health service.
4. Life-time earnings; which provide a basis for estimating losses due to premature death.
5. Insurance premium; payments to insurance companies for health insurance, life insurance, workmen compensation, etc.
6. Decreased productivity; decreased output of individuals and organizations.

These are not only the costs of executive stress. They are, however, the
MANAGING STRESS AND COPING

Sayle’s (1974) definition of stress as “non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it “is a widely accepted definition. Non-specific response refers to the adaptation required to resume normal bodily functioning. Such non-specific response, or stress, is triggered by stressors which are internal or external stimuli with the potential to set-off a physiological fight-flight response (Greenberg, 1990). Using Sayle’s idea, stressors can be classified as distresses (negative and causing damage) and espressos (positive and challenging to promote action).

Stress is widespread and an increasing problem taking a heavy human toll. It is estimated that 75 to 90 percent visits to doctors are stress related. Claims for payments for stress are about twice as high as those paid for normal physical injury, and there is very heavy cost of about 200 billion dollars annually (Byrum-Robinson, 1993). Stress also leads to drug addiction, alcoholism, violence, and child abuse.

Stressors are various kinds: organic, personality-related. Personal, familial, social, role-related occupational, and environmental. Some of these are listed here as examples.

**Organic**

- Nutritional or related factors.
- Genetic factors (metabolic, allergies, etc)
Physical fitness and level of resistance

Personality related

Locus of control (internal versus external)

Interpersonal trust (including optimism)

Personality type (e.g. Type-A)

Emotional maturity

**Personal**

Marriage

New Job

Transfer

Change of Occupation

Retirement

Illness

Familial

Relations among family members

Marital adjustment

Economic problems

Problem with main relations – parents, children, sibling, in-laws

Major familial catastrophes – death, accident, illness

Main familial events - marriage, divorce, admission of children

And young people in search of employment.

**Social**

Tensions, discrimination, group conflicts
Growing unemployment
Inflation
Scarcity and poverty
Group pressure

**Role – related**

Self-role distance
Inter-role distance
Role stagnation
Role isolation
Role ambiguity
Role expectation conflict
Role overload
Role erosion
Poor work conditions

**Discrimination**

Introduction of new technology
Merger and takeover
Occupational
Deadlines
Competition

**Environmental**

Air pollution
Noise pollution
Lack of space to walk around

Overcrowding

Stress produces several symptoms: both short-term and long-term. Short-term symptoms include physical symptoms such as headache and other aches, blood pressure and ulcers, emotional symptoms such as anger, impatience, callousness, or behavioural such as under or overeating, withdrawal etc. There may be long term symptoms related to social, occupational and health aspects. This may finally lead to burnout.

People cannot remain in a state of stress. Stress must get relieved. Various defense mechanisms are adopted by the physiological and biological systems to deal with stress. It is necessary to help people cope with stress effectively.

**Stress Management**

Different coping strategies have been suggested (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Pareek, 1993), and have been used to manage stress. Organizations are increasingly paying attention to stress management programs. Several organizational interventions have been used to manage stress (Byrum-Robinson, 1993).

- Corporate restructuring/job redesigning/job enrichment
- Compensation/reward systems
- Participative decision-making
- Team building/outdoor leadership course/executive retreats
- Management and supervisory training
Differential Effects of Organizational Climate and Size on Job Satisfaction and Role Stress

- Recruitment/Orientation and organizational socialization
- Job-fit
- Performance management/goal setting
- Career development
- Communication/organizational policies/survey feedback system
- Change of workloads and deadlines
- Change in work schedules/flexi-time/summer hours/sabbaticals
- Casual dress days
- Wellness programs
- Employee assistance/counseling programs
- Community involvement

Byrum-Robinson (1993) has suggested a cognitive-central stress management training program with ten “Ds” (steps):

- Define (introduction to the dynamics of stress process including causes, symptoms)
- Dig (help participants to analyze their own stress level and related phenomena by using relevant instruments, etc)
- Delineate “how-to’s”
- Decide (to do something)
- Detach (relaxation with various techniques)
- Declare (public commitment)
- Dispute (negative thoughts and messages)
STRESS AND COPING: SOME LESSONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The origin of the concept of stress predates antiquity. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, stress was equated with "force, pressure or strain" exerted on a material object or person, which resists these forces and attempts to maintain its original state (Hinkle, 1973).

The term stress has been used variously to refer to (1) stimulus (external force acting on organism), (2) response (changes on physiological functions), (3) interaction (interaction between an external force and the resistance opposed to it), and (4) more comprehensive combinations of the above factors (Pestonjee, 1987).

Growing evidence suggests that high levels of stress affect physical health, psychological well-being, and all aspects of human behaviour. Stress is considered a response to a situation, which demands that the individual adapt to a change physically or psychologically. (Chatterjee, 1992) Selye (1956) has described this reaction as three-stage "General Adaptation Syndrome". The three stages are (1) alarm reaction, (2) resistance, and (3) exhaustion.

**Alarm reaction:** When faced with any threat to safety or well being, the individual experiences an immediate alarm reaction. It is characterized by autonomous excitability and increase in heartbeat. There is confusion, disorientation, and distortion of realities, and the level of
Resistance is down.

**Resistance:** Maximum adaptation occurs during this stage. The bodily signs that are characteristic of the alarm reaction disappear. If stress persists, the organism deteriorates to the next stage known as exhaustion.

**Exhaustion:** At this stage, the adaptation energy is exhausted, signs of the alarm reaction reappear, and the resistance level begins to decline irreversibly. The organism collapses.

Pestonjee (1984) identified three important sectors of life in which stress may originate: (1) job and the organization (2) The social sector, and (3) the inter-psychic sector. The job and the organization sector refer to the totality of the work environment (task atmosphere, colleagues, compensation, policies, etc). The social sector refers to the social/cultural environment of one’s life. The intra-psychic sector encompasses those things, which are intimate, personal and specific to the individual like temperament, values, abilities, and health. In a balanced state, the magnitude of stress emanating from the three sectors of life is in consonance with the stress tolerance limit (STL) of the individual.

Organizational membership is a dominant source of stress. Pareek (1983a) pioneered work on role stress by identifying as many as ten different types of organizational role stress:

1. Inter-role distance (IRD)
Differential Effects of Organizational Climate and Size on Job Satisfaction and Role Stress

2. Role stagnation (RS)
3. Role expectation conflict (REC)
4. Role erosion (RE)
5. Role overload (RO)
6. Role isolation (RI)
7. Personal inadequacy (PI)
8. Self-role distance (SRD)
9. Role ambiguity (RA)
10. Resource inadequacy (Rin)

Sometimes the society in which the individual lives also creates stress. Every culture teaches people what to define as stressful, even such a profound experience as the death of an infant can have different meanings in different cultures and societies.

Nearly everyone experience some degree of tension and anxiety at one time or another. However, the difference lies in the way each person handles such feelings. Beyond the family and one’s life at work, all individuals are connected to a wider social and physical environment. All of us encounter such stresses that stem from wider environment: while they may be impersonal, beyond our control, yet they can invade our lives and create unrelieved stress.

**COPING WITH STRESS**

Individuals and organizations cannot remain in a continuous state of tension. The term "coping" is used to denote the way of dealing with stress, or the effort to master conditions of harm, threat, or challenges when a routine or automatic response is not readily available.
Psychologists have identified two different ways in which people cope with stress. One way is to suffer or deny the experienced stress. This is the passive approach. The other way is to face the realities of experienced stress and clarify the problems through negotiations with other members. This is the active approach.

There are basically two ways of managing stress

1) What an individual can do

2) What an organization can do

Again, at the individual level, one may say that there are two methods of coping with stress (1) drug therapy, and (2) non-drug method. In today’s world where one is always faced with tensions, it is not advisable to use drugs continuously to cope with stress-related ailments like headaches, backaches, etc. The non-drug method of coping is more advantageous and much safer. A few non-drug methods, which an individual can undertake to cope with stress, are:

**Exercise:** Physical exercise is necessary to keep the body healthy, both physically and mentally, and is the best antidote for stress. Emotional strength and self-confidence are major by-products of regular exercise. Exercise eases nervous tension and anxiety by providing an outlet for pent-up feelings of aggression and hostility. One of the best exercises is walking.

**Yoga:** Yoga means the union or fusion of *atma* and *paramatma*. It involves various *asanas* or body postures and breathing exercises. Among these,
shavasana or the corpse pose is the best. It brings not only mental calm and relief from stress but better health, more vigor and a more alert mind. **Acupuncture as a Relaxation Response:** Stress leads to psychosomatic disorders since emotional states are often expressed in bodily reactions. Common manifestations observed due to distress are depression, anxiety, cardiovascular accidents, insomnia, etc. Acupuncture does help in tranquilization and psychic elation and allows one to relax. Besides being a drugless, safe, simple, economical and yet effective therapy with hardly any side effects, acupuncture has demonstrated by its clinical success that it is effective in coping with stress.

**Zen:** Zen is regarded as meditative method with a history of 5000 years. It is a means to becoming spiritually awakened to the *sarvadharamah anatomanah*. Phenomenal things are in existence only conditionally, so they have no substance. By extricating oneself from the world of subject-object relativity. It is a method for regulating mind and body in order to achieve spiritual awakening.

Mahashikan, written by Tendai Chigi in the sixth century, mentions “Five regulations” which should be controlled in practising *zazen* (Zen Practice): regulation of eating, regulation of sleeping, regulation of body, regulation of respiration, and regulation of mind. The first two are regulations in daily life as a preparation for *zazen*, and regulation of body, regulation of respiration, and regulation of mind take a leading part in *zazen*. When *zazen* takes its form, these three interact with each other
and become one body (Yoshihanu Akishige. 1977).

**Vipassana**: Vipassana is one of India’s most ancient techniques of meditation. It was rediscovered 2,500 years ago by Buddha taught as a cure for universal ills. Vipassana is a *pali* word meaning insight, seeing things as they really are. It is not blind faith or philosophy, but it is a practical method that can be applied by anyone of average intelligence. Its goal is to purify the mind, to eliminate the tensions and negatives that make us miserable.

It is a practical way to examine the reality of one’s own body and mind, to uncover and solve whatever problems lie hidden there, to develop unused potential, and to channel this potential for one’s own good and for the good of others (Hart, 1991).

Besides the above mentioned strategies to overcome stress, there are certain safety valves (Veninga and Spradely, 1981), which serve at least two important functions: enable one to escape the direct pressure of work stress, and counteract the biochemical and psychological changes that occur when mobilized to deal with stress. A few safety valves are:

**Changing Gears**: It involves shifting ‘from’ work ‘to’ something else. In order to change gears, one has to try activities that capture one’s interest. The pursuit of any non-work project or hobby can reduce stress. Although there is no single best strategy for helping someone to recover from stress or job burnout, sometimes an effective beginning is to help the person regain control over leisure time.
If used well, leisure can help one to stay on an even mental keel. It is change in setting and pace from the highly competitive world of work and can become a form of relaxation that is indispensable to emotional stability.

If we can in our leisure establish a world apart from ourselves and get temporary relief from our tensions, anxieties and frustrations, the better are our chances of dealing with problems without coming apart at the seams (Pestonjee and Muncherji, 1980).

**Pamper Yourself:** Most of us know how to pamper other people when they experience a crisis. Sending flowers to a friend in the hospital is just one of many ways in which we pamper others. Such special attention helps people cope with stress. Pampering oneself can have the same effect. The key object here is to break the routine.

**Warm up Slowly:** One can often get control of tense, pressured workday if one changes the way it begins. It an individual’s day begins with a sudden rush of activity or a mad scramble on some crowded subway, it will add to the stress. The most important two-hour period in one’s day is prior to starting work. The little things one does in the morning prepare one for the tensions encountered during the day.

**Release Pressures on the job:** The people who burnouts are often the best workers. They are committed to their work and it is this commitment, which makes them more susceptible to work stress. One of the best ways of releasing the pressure on the job is to rearrange the schedule.
**Practice Relaxation Technique:** Stress response goes through four processes: mobilization, increase in energy consumption, muscular action involved in fight or flight response, and then a return to equilibrium. One can aid that process by learning to switch off the stress response and switch on the relaxation response. Thus, it can be seen that a certain amount of stress is essential for doing any task well, but each individual should know the stress tolerance limit, and not attempt to stretch it too far.

**The Whole-Person Perspective:** Tubesing (1982) is of the opinion that stress affects the whole person. Stress management approaches should cover all aspects of human experience. This concept challenges us to search all dimensions of life for potential coping resources. Individuals have a multitude of personal remedies at their disposal.

Tubesing and Tubesing (1982) have grouped the coping techniques for dealing with life stress into four major categories: personal management skills, relationship skills, and stamina skills. (See Table A.)

- According to Tubesing and Tudesing (1982), relaxation skills are important for the management of stress. In general, relaxation skills help one to develop the art of cruising in neutral. There are hundreds of ways to relax: yoga, breathing, self-hypnosis, meditation, prayer, music, massage, etc. Several relaxation techniques are mentioned by Curt:s and Detert, 1981: Davis et al., 1980: Mckay at al., 1981: Barrow and Prosen, 1981. Tubesing and Tubesing(1982) have given a summary of common
relaxation techniques.

**What we can Organization do to Alleviate Stress?**

According to Pestonjee, following are some of the proactive interventions organization can initiate to alleviate stress:

1) Undertake a stress audit.
2) Use scientific inputs
3) Check with the company doctor
4) Spread the message
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall strategy</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personal management:</strong> Self-regulation skills for organizing time and energy expenditure</td>
<td><strong>Valuing:</strong> Aligning energy investments with core values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Personal planning</strong> Setting goals and progressing steadily towards accomplishment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Commitment</strong> Saying 'yes' wholeheartedly</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Time management</strong> Setting priorities to spend time effectively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Pacing</strong> Regulating the tempo of life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Contact</strong> Forming satisfying friendships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Listening</strong> Tuning into others' feelings and meanings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Assertiveness</strong> Attending to self and boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Fight</strong> Standing firm to effect change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Flight</strong> Retreating from the pressure</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Nest building</strong> Beautifying the environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship</strong> Scene-changing skills for altering the environment and interaction with it</td>
<td><strong>Relabeling</strong> Seeing the promise in the problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Surrender</strong> Letting go and letting be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Faith</strong> Accepting limits and unknowable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Whisper</strong> Talking positively to self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Imagination</strong> Using creativity and humour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Stamina Exercise</strong> Strengthening and fine tuning the body</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Nourishment</strong> Eating for health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Gentleness</strong> Treating self with care and kindness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Relaxation</strong> Cruising in neutral and replenishing resources</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Tubesing and Tubesing, 1982
Stress Audit: For centuries, attention has been paid to the maintenance, creation and updating of technology, but today the significance of human resource has also been recognized for the productive and healthy functioning of an organization.

When an organization decides to have a scientific peep into mental-cum-physical health status of its backbone group (executives), we call it a stress audit. The data are collected by questionnaires, interviews etc., on the causal stress variables the stressors), mediating variables (the effect of personality, culture, etc.) and end result variable (the stress reaction).

Use scientific Inputs: Disperse information on how to face stressors in the organizations and outside. People desire benefits from knowing something about the fundamentals of stress response, diet, exercises and meditation.

Several public and private organizations depute their chief medical officers or consultants to attend stress management programs. They have acted as a valuable resource to fellow participants and to organizations.

Spread the Message: The importance of regular habits of work, leisure, proper diet, exercise and mental peace should be emphasized.

There are effective and ineffective coping strategies. Pareek (1993) has suggested certain approach and avoidance strategies.

Generally, effective coping strategies are approach strategies – to confront the problems of stress as a challenge and to increase the
capability of dealing with it. Ineffective strategies are escape, or avoidance strategies – to reduce the feeling of stress, e.g., by denying the reality of stress, or through use of alcohol, drugs, etc.

The effective management of stress involves directing stress for a productive purpose, preparing role occupants to understand the nature of stress, helping role occupants to understand their strengths and usual styles and equip them to develop approach strategies of coping with stress. Table B summarizes the functional and dysfunctional strategies for the ten organizational role stresses already discussed.

Pareek (1983b) has developed Role PICS (Projective Instrument for Measuring Coping Styles). Which involves a semi-projective technique, to obtain profits of coping styles adopted by a person while dealing with role stress situations. The instrument depicts 24 situations, three each for eight types of role stress (Pareek, 1982), in which one person narrates the role stress he is experiencing in that situation to another person, who is supposed to respond to the problem of the former. The various responses, thus, obtained on this instrument are scored in eight styles, which can broadly be grouped as approach and avoidance mode of coping.
Differential Effects of Organizational Climate and Size on Job Satisfaction and Role Stress

**TABLE B**

**COPING STRATEGIES FOR ROLE STRESS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ROLE STRESSES</th>
<th>DYSFUNCTIONAL STRATEGIES</th>
<th>FUNCTIONAL STRATEGIES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Self-Role Distance</td>
<td>Role Rejection, Self-Rejection</td>
<td>Role Integration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Inter-Role Distance</td>
<td>Role Partition, Role Elimination</td>
<td>Role Negotiation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Role Stagnation</td>
<td>Role Fixation</td>
<td>Role Transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Role Isolation</td>
<td>Role Boundness</td>
<td>Role Linkage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Role Ambiguity</td>
<td>Role Prescription</td>
<td>Role Clarification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Role Expectation Conflict</td>
<td>Role Taking</td>
<td>Role Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Role Overload</td>
<td>Role Reduction</td>
<td>Role Slimming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Role Erosion</td>
<td>Role Viability</td>
<td>Role Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Resource Inadequacy</td>
<td>Role Atrophy</td>
<td>/Enrichment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Personal Inadequacy</td>
<td>Role Shrinkage</td>
<td>Resource Generation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*SOURCE: Pareek, 1993*

Eight possible strategies to cope with stress, which Role PICS measures:

1. Impunitive: Statements indicating either the simple admission of stress or that stress is unavoidable and nothing can be done about it.

2. Intropunitive: Statements indicating self-blame or aggression towards one's self for causing stress.

3. Extrapunitive: Statements expressing aggression towards or putting blame on others for a particular stress situation.

4. Defensiveness: Statements expressing either denial of stress or rationalization of stress by giving reasons for it.

5. Imperceptive: Statements indicating that the respondent is optimistic and hopes that time would solve the problem and things would work out well in the future.
6. Intropersistive: Statements indicating that the role occupant himself should take action to deal with the stress.

7. Extrapersistive: Statements indicating that the person expects someone else would contribute to the solution of the problem or deal with stress.

8. Interpersistive: Statements indicating that a solution of the problem can be obtained by joint efforts in which the role occupant and others would be involved.

Of these eight dimensions, the first four imply avoidance-oriented behaviour. They are perceived as dysfunctional styles of coping with stress situations. The remaining four dimensions are approach-oriented and are regarded as functional.

Each individual needs a moderate amount of stress to be alert and capable of functioning. However, an excess of stress can become dysfunctional. The threshold of stress varies for each individual. To some degree, everyone has to learn to cope with discrepancies between what he or she wants and what he or she gets. Wilder and Plutchik (1982) have developed a model of coping styles based on the theory of emotions proposed by Plutchik (1962, 1980).

The scheme assumes that there are eight basic coping styles that are used in attempts to reduce stress:

- avoiding the stressor
- asking others for help
engaging in direct stress-reducing activities
blaming others or the system
engaging in indirect stress-reducing activities
collecting more information
acting the opposite of the way one feels, and
minimizing the importance of the stressful event.

The technical names for these coping styles are suppression, help-seeking, replacement, blame, substation, mapping, reversal, and minimization respectively. More than one coping style may be used in any stressful situation. None of these styles is inherently good or bad. How well the styles work depends on the situation, how they are used, and the degree to which they are used.