Chapter – II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The focus of the study being role efficacy of polytechnic teachers would warrant that an objective review of the literature in this field and the relevant correlates/determinants be undertaken. This is significant because it will provide the theoretical as well as research foundation to this investigation.

In the present study of role efficacy of polytechnic teachers, personality has been viewed from two angles: i.e., one; the Straightforward Eysenckian Model and the other Personality Stress Model of Gossarth-Maticek & Eysenck.

The teacher at all times is the pivot of educational system, and the personality of teacher is the greatest single influence in educational process (Sehgal & Kaur, 2000). Polytechnic teachers manage variety of learning experiences in institutions for developing professional knowledge, skills, values and attitudes in students. They act as a role model for students, who emulate work/site mannerism and attitude from him in addition to job competencies. Thus, the teacher’s personality has great influence in developing right type of technicians for the country and society.

The rise of the behavioural sciences particularly of Psychology and the awareness to update and modernize management and
administrative sciences has brought the study of personality to the fore (Pareek, 1969). Modern social and behavioural sciences in general and psychology in particular aims at utilizing and controlling human personality to the full development and progress of the individual and society (Mohan, 1985).

Personality of polytechnic teachers has to be understood for assigning them responsibilities to get best out of them. We have clear evidence that personality measures, predict a range of significant outcomes – including academic performance, vocational choice, job performance, and income level etc. And we can predict significant life outcomes over period as long as 20 to 30 years (Hogen, 1998).

**Meaning of the Term Personality**

The word “personality” is derived from the Latin world “persona” which means “mask”. Psychologists have tendered to use the word in a technical sense, to mean those internal stable factor that make people systematically and predictably different from one another. It is the totality of one’s behaviour. It includes every thing about the person, his physical, emotional, social, mental and spiritual make-up. Some of the important definitions of personality are:

Personality is a dynamic organisation, inside the persons, of Psychophysical system that create the person’s characteristic patterns
of behaviour thoughts and feelings (Allport, 1961). Personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation (Cattell, 1965). Personality is a stable set of tendencies and characteristics that determine those commonalities and differences in people's psychological behaviour (thoughts, feelings, actions) that have continued in time and that may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment (Maddi 1989).

Madhu (1996) in encyclopedic dictionary of Psychology and Education defines personality a psychological term that refers to the predictable and unique indicators of the ways an individual might respond to the environment.

One of the most popular theories of personality has been formulated by Eysenck

EYSENCK'S THEORY OF PERSONALITY

His model is one of the formidable attempts in presenting a complete and explanatory theory. He (1968) defines personality as a "more or less stable and enduring organization of a person's character, temperament, intellect and physique, which determines his unique adjustment to the environment."
Eysenck on the basis of research and factor analysis (1947, 1960, 1963, 1967, 1969, 1970, 1980) put forth a behaviour dimensional system of personality. He proposed three main independent dimensions of personality viz. Extraversion/Introversion (E/I), Neuroticism/Stability (N) and Psychoticism (P). He also proposed a psychobiological model to parallel these three dimensions (Eysenck's, 1967, 1981 and Eysenck's and Eysenck's (1985). The model is a hierarchical one which conceptualizes that each of the three broad dimensions sub-divide at a lower level into narrow and more specific traits. These three super factors have been sufficiently often replicated to suggest stable & permanent dimensions of personality structures (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1976; Eysenck and Zuckerman, 1978) and second order factor analyses of narrow traits such as cattell's (Cattell et.al., 1970) revealed superfactors, three of which showed a strong resemblance to Eysenckian Personality dimensions of Extraversion, Neuroticism and Psychoticism.

Eysenck and Eysenck (1985) reported that each of these personality dimensions, E.P.N. include certain sub-traits. These could be categorized as follows:

- The sub-traits of extraversion were: sociable, lively, active, assertive, sensation seeking, carefree, dominant and venturesome.
- The sub-traits of Introversion refers to: thoughtful, passive, quite and
unsociable. According to Eysenck, Introversion refers to persistence, rigidity, subjectivity, shyness and irritability. Introverts have high levels of excitation and lower levels of inhibition, thus requiring little stimulation from their environments. As such, introverts avoid stimulation. Eysenck has found that introverts are more vigilant and more conditional (Eysenck, 1961) than extroverts.

- The sub traits of Neuroticism were: anxious, depressed, guilty, low self-esteem, tense, irrational, shy, moody and emotional. Neuroticism in contrast to emotional stability is very similar to anxiety. These persons are liable to neurotic breakdown under stress.

- The sub-traits of Psychoticism were: aggressive, cold, egocentric, impersonal, impulsive, antisocial, unempathic, creative, tough minded refers to a person who does not fit anywhere.

The above three dimensions of personality are conceived of as being independent.

Eysenck further revised the questionnaire and added a lie scale (social desirability) which was first incorporated in Eysenck’s personality inventory (EPI) to measure a tendency on the part of the subjects to ‘fake good responses’. Now it measures an independent stable personality factor which denotes some degree of ‘social naivete’
(Eysenck and Eysenck 1975). Recently, Perera and Eysenck (1984) further reported that Lie (social desirability) scale has been recognized as a personality dimension of some intrinsic interest apart from faking.

Utilizing both the child and adult versions of Eysenck personality questionnaire, Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) have shown that super traits of Extroversion, neuroticism and Psychoticism and replicable across - sex, age and cultures (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1982, 1983; Barrett and Eysenck, 1985; Eysenck and Long, 1986; Mohan et al., 1987, Mohan, 2000).

**ROLE EFFICACY AND EYSENCK’S PERSONALITY**

There are very few studies available in literature on the personality of teachers and its relationship with the role efficacy it is generally found that persons having high role efficacy will be more effective in their work. Thus effectiveness of teacher will indirectly give idea of role efficacy for determining its relationship with Eysenckian dimensions of personality.

Birkinshaw (1935) concluded that extroverted persons were the most successful teachers. Birkinshaw (1935) found that emotional stability was essential for a successful teacher. Schmid (1950) found that introversion was linked with low teaching ability.
Similarly Lamke (1951) using Cattell's 16 PF found good teachers to be more talkative, cheerful, placid, content, open and quicker than average. Adaval (1952) found outgoing, intelligent, emotionally more stable, conscientious, venturesome, shrewd, placid, controlled and released teachers as successful. Singer (1954) using MMPI found a positive correlation between social introversion and overall teaching effectiveness.

Mann (1959) found that the people with high intelligence who are well adjusted personally and tend towards extroversion are, more likely than others, to become leaders; also, to be popular in the group, and to contribute positively to the group activity.

Warburton et al. (1961) suggested that good teachers were more common among the introverts. Taylor (1962) found good primary and secondary school teachers as cheerful, good tempered, patient, understanding, kind sympathetic and having a sense of humour. Solomon (1965) indicated a relationship between extravert qualities and success in the training course.

Veldman et al. (1965) concluded that effective teachers are more friendly, exercise strict control, have more positive attitude towards self and usual willingness to accept traditional authority patterns.
Eysenck (1967) using Eysenck Personality Inventory found means for general management group at E=11.13. N=7.04 in contrast to those of normal population 12.07 and 9.06 respectively. This too, indicating that the management group is introverted and emotionally stable. Muthayya (1969, 1970, 2000) studies executive personality in administrative set-ups connected with development administration. These officers were found to be introverted and emotionally stable as per comparative norms.

Kaul (1972) conducted a factorial study of certain personality variables of popular teachers in secondary schools. Some of the results of study were:

(i) the popular teachers distinguished themselves as more outgoing, intelligent, emotionally more stable, sober, conscientious, venturesome, tough minded, shrewd, placid, controlled and released,

(ii) the popular teachers had a favourable attitude towards teaching in schools.

Chhaya (1974) found that effective teachers have significantly better personality adjustment and more favourable attitude towards teaching than ineffective teachers. Effective teachers were more extroverted than introverted teachers and the later were more
authoritarian than the former. Gupta (1975) identified that highly effective teachers were more intelligent and have more ego strength assertion. Adventure tender minded, high self-control and more warm hearted in comparison to low effective teachers. Sharma and Rai (1976) reported that subjects who were high on alienation score were high on Neuroticism and psychoticism but lower on extroversion than their counterparts.

Dwivedi (1978) found Neuroticism and Extraversion were associated negatively and positively respectively with job satisfaction. Further he found, the trait of emotional stability, calmness significantly, contributed to the success of the managers. Bhagoliwal (1982) explored personality characteristic with teaching effectiveness. According to him more effective teachers had a well integrated ego system which enabled them to behave in a socially approved manner, whereas the less effective teachers had more uncontrolled impulses.

Sen (1982) revealed positive and significant correlation between role efficacy and internality and significant negative correlation between role efficacy and externality of all kinds (relating to others, relating to chance and the total). Thus, the persons with high role efficacy have a higher belief in influencing the outcome relevant to them, a vice versa.

These findings have been confirmed by Surti (1983) for working women in various vocational categories. In her sample the negative
The correlation between role efficacy and externality (relating to others) was much higher. The detailed analysis of Sen and Surti studies, as reported in Pareek (1987) states that persons with high role efficacy seem to rely on their strengths to cope with problems, they are active and interact with people and the environment, and persist in solving problems mostly by themselves, and sometimes taking help of other peoples. They show positive approach behaviour, and feel satisfied with life and with their jobs and roles in their organisations. Such a profile is that of effective manager.

Mohan and Jahangiri (1985) in a study of educational administration reported that the effectiveness of educational manager was not found to be the function of high or low score of ‘N’ or ‘E’, age, sex or the patterns of ownership. He also found managers in the private sector to score lower on Neuroticism as compared to managers of government sector, whereas the later scored higher on Extraversion as compared to private sector managers. Comparing the perceptions of different groups of executives in their study, they emphasized variables like effectiveness, control, brilliance, human consideration, owing up the responsibilities and tactfulness to be important characteristic of executives. The sketch appeared to be of an efficiently bold man with positive value system and dynamism to direct people toward carefully planned targets.
Wangoo (1986) in a study of Indian teachers found that psychoticism adjustment, democratic leadership behaviour and emotional stability emerged as the most important personality characteristics related with teacher effectiveness. He concluded that teachers who had an outgoing attitude, and who were less aggressive, more trusting, open, forthcoming, relaxed and group-dependent were highly successful.

Mohan and Rattan (1987) found that by and large, the Indian executives belonging to the three central services i.e. IAS, IPS and IRS, clustered around an image of effectiveness, introversion, stability, social-desirability and they were committed to high achievement. Mohan and Tiwana (1987) found creative writers to be introverted, high on Neuroticism and Psychoticism and more alienated. They also had higher Lie (social desirability) Scores. Kaur (1993) in a study of Teacher Effectiveness in relation to personality and other factors found that emphatic, positive and warm teachers and teachers on low psychoticism emerged as most effective teachers. Vaidya (1995) characterized effective teacher as those who love their job and their student, and exhibit a deep sense of satisfaction when they teach.

revealed that effective teachers were found more extravert in comparison to ineffective teachers. By contrary to this Singer (1954), Goodwin et al (1978) concluded that reserved (introvert) teachers were found to be better motivator of students than the outing (extrovert) teachers. Sen (1982) and Surti (1983) in their studies found negative correlation between role efficacy and externality of all kinds.

Thus, the above review clearly shown that very few studies have been conducted to determine the personality of polytechnic teachers and its relationship with their role efficacy. Therefore, the present study will focus on the personality in relation to role efficacy of the teachers.

PERSONALITY STRESS QUESTIONNAIRE (PSQ) BEHAVIOUR

Teachers, due to varied expectations of students, management and society, experience varied type of stresses in their role. These stresses affect their health and are reflected in form of diseases like Heart Problem, Cancer & Diabetes etc. It affects their role efficacy, performance and effectiveness in the work. Teachers of varied Personality type react in different ways to the role stresses and show behaviour corresponding to a specific disease/health status. It is possible to reduce the possibility of these diseases by adopting appropriate interventions or coping strategies.
According to Grossarth-Maticek et al., (1986; & 1988) stressful situation affects the behaviour of individuals leading to varied diseases and can be modified by therapeutic interventions. Schmitz; (1992) found that persons being prone to certain kind of illness showed different type of reactions to interpersonal stress.

H.J. Eysenck and R. Grossarth-Maticek, through perspective studies, demonstrated that personality can be considered as a risk factor in cancer and coronary heart disease. It was also found that persons being prone to certain kind of illness showed different type of reaction to interpersonal stress.

Schmitz (1992) reported the research in the above field. In these studies it has been demonstrated that personality is related to various psychosomatic complaints, and disease, as well as to stress and coping (e.g. Baltrusch, Stangell and Waltz 1988; Booth - Kewley and Friedman, 1987; Eysenck 1984, 1985, 1988b, 1990, 1991; Eysenck and Eysenck 1985; Friedman and Booth -Kewley, 1987; Grossarth - Maticek, Eysenck, Vetter and Frentzel - Beyme, 1986 and Rosenman and Chesney, 1980; Taylor, 1984; Thomae, 1988 and Witkin, 1965). The studies by Eysenck and Grossarth - Maticek (Eysenck 1987 a, 1987 b, 1988 a, 1988 b; Grossarth - Maticek et al., 1986) demonstrated that different "behavioral types" are related to cancer, coronary heart diseases and endogenous depression.
Gossarth-Maticek and Eysenck 1990: have elaborated six behaviour types i.e. Type I, Type II, Type III, Type IV, Type IV & Type VI. Table: 1 gives a general idea of nature of these 6 behaviour types:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type I</td>
<td>Conformist dependency on a withdrawing object - disposition: prone to cancer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type II</td>
<td>Conformist dependency on a disturbing object - disposition prone to cardiovascular disease.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type III</td>
<td>Non-conformist dependency on an object which is both withdrawing and disturbing - disposition prone to chronic anxiety.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type IV</td>
<td>Appropriate autonomy; a permanent self regulation, which brings independence in the satisfaction of needs - disposition to being healthy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type V</td>
<td>Rational anti-emotional tendencies - disposition: prone to endogenous depression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type VI</td>
<td>Anti-social tendencies - disposition prone to criminal behaviour, drug addiction.</td>
</tr>
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A type I person tries permanently and intensively to approach highly valued targets (person, object, situation) which are unfortunately inaccessible for him or her. Persons belonging to this type are highly dependent on others, rigid, show depressive tendencies, are inhibited in showing and communicating their feelings. This type is considered as cancer prone.

A type II person tries fruitlessly to escape or emancipate himself from a person or an object which is emotionally very important for him.
or her. His or her behaviour is also very rigid and often depressive. Like type I, type II has difficulties in showing his or her feelings, particularly feeling of anger and annoyance. Coronary heart disease are considered to be related to type II.

A type III person behaviour seems to be related to partial depressive tendencies and anxiety. Eysenck supposes that this type may be related to hysterical behaviour by virtue of alterations of moods involved. They alternate between feeling of hopelessness and anger.

Type IV behaviour is characterized by autonomy. This type is ‘healthy type’. These individuals see links between their own autonomy and happiness.

Type V shows rational and anti-emotional tendencies. It is predicted that this type would be prone to endogenous depression. This linked to rheumatoid arthritis and cancer.

Type VI behaviour is characterized by anti-social and possibly psychopathic behaviour. Persons belonging to this behaviour type are prone to drug addiction.

These types of behaviour are reactions to stressful situations and as research shows (Grossarth Maticek et al., 1986 &1988, Eysenck, 1991) that these are partially influenced by the individuals life
experiences and consequently, can be modified by therapeutic interventions. In their latest studies Eysenck and colleagues (1991) and Grossarth-Maticek et.al., 1997) have postulated the existence of a disease-prone personality.

In a longitudinal study of several thousand, relatively, elderly persons in Yugoslavia, Grossarth-Maticek and Eysenck (1990) using questionnaire, interview and observation, found more than 45 percent of death among the type II respondents due to heart disease. Types III and IV were classified as healthy. Similar results were later obtained using a German sample. These data suggest that cancer can be linked primarily with a personality disposition described as suppressing emotion and as being helpless and depressed. Heart disease, by contrast, was associated with an over-aroused and aggressive disposition. These general principles have been replicated by other researchers.

Heiz & Templeton (1990) reviewed six approaches providing evidence for a role of Psychosocial factors in the precipitation and course of diabetes mellitus. The approaches focus on anecdotal case reports, personality factors, epidemiological studies, twin studies, artificially induced stress, Psychosocial interventions and basic science investigations. Most evidence points to a place for Psychological factors
in diabetic control. The role of psychosocial factors in disease onset remains controversial.

Grawe & Breutzen (1990) reported work of Eysenck (1988) of establishing correlation between a cancer prone personality type, characterised by an inability to express emotions and inability to cope with stress and role of psychologists in prevention of cancer & heart disease.

Quander-Blaznik (1991) administered measures of the first four type to 113 individuals who had been referred to a lung hospital. It was found that the best predictor of lung cancer was being classified as type I that is, as someone who suppresses emotion. Smoking and older age were also found to as potent indicators of lung cancer.

**Personality and Disease**

Stress does not affect everybody in a similar manner, certain type of people are more prone to stress than others.

Friedman and Rosenman (1974) have done extensive research to establish a linkage between the nature of personality and probability of developing coronary artery diseases. They have found type A personality more prone to heart ailments. The typical characteristics of such a personality are aggressiveness, ambition, impatience,
restlessness, competitiveness, hard work, on time for appointments and work completion, absence of leisure, perfectionism, high drive for achievement etc. Type B personality is less likely to suffer from heart problems. Characteristics of this personality are circumspection, thoughtfulness, patience, appreciation for beauty and nature, less competitiveness, easy going manners, leisureliness, less preoccupation with achievement, no drive for strict adherence to time limits.

According to Eysenck, (1985) six behaviour types like other class of social behaviour are also influenced by basic personality dimensions such as Neuroticism(N), Extraversion(E) and Psychoticism(P). Little research has been done to classify these relationships. Schmitz (1987) found significant relationships between N, E and Lie scale (L) on the one hand, and the first four behaviour types on the other. But P which should also be involved was not assessed at that time, not were types V and VI.

Wistow et al (1990) examined links between physicians’ health ratings of their patients and those patients score on EPQ. The main findings from the study are:

- Psychoticism found to be positively linked to cardiovascular symptoms;
- Neuroticism found to be positively linked to stress symptoms and negatively related to cancer;
- Extraversion showed no significant relationship.
There are very few research studies done to find our relationship between behaviour and personality types. Those available do not give definite results. This study tries to find out the type of “behaviour type” of Polytechnic teachers relating to disease and find out its relationship with type of prevailing personality of teachers.

Schmitz (1992) used questionnaire developed by Grossarth-Maticek and Eysenck (1990) to measure 6 different reaction types to a sample of persons who were suffering from different kinds of psychosomatic complaints and who were attending relaxation training programmes. They reported relationship between the 6 behaviour types and some fundamental personality dimensions (Eysenck, 1967, Eysenck and Eysenck, 1985).

In this sample Neuroticism was found to be positively correlated with type I and II but with types II and IV also, although less marked. Extraversion is negatively correlated with type I and II. Both types may be characterized as dysthymics (neurotic introverts) but they seem to be distinguished from each other in that type II shows some correlation with Psychoticism whereas type I does not, type IV characterized by Eysenck as healthy shows an opposite pattern. Type VI which should have an affinity to Psychopathic behaviour correlates positively with Neuroticism, Extraversion, Psychoticism, just as we would expect (Eysenck and Gudjonsson, 1989).
Grawe, Rolfw (1990) cancer prone personality are characterized by inability to express emotions and inability to cope with stress. Amelang (1996) recently questioned the methodology employed in the original Yugoslav and German studies, concluding that the typology used is no more accurate in predicting illness than are other established factors such as depression and neuroticism. It was also found in a Dutch study on over 200 men that, contrary to predictions, 30 percent of respondents were classified as more than one type, and almost 40 percent obtained a score that placed them below the highest quartile of any of the six types (Ranchor et al., 1993). Dhamija and Bhattacharya (1996) found that type II (Coronary Heart Disease) patients in comparison to type IV (Healthy persons) in the age range of 40 to 55 years, scores significantly higher on anxiety, neuroticism and extraversion. Mohan & Sehgal (1998, 1999) found personality factors viz., neuroticism, hostility and stress to be related to type II (Coronary Heart Disease) behaviour.

The above review reveals that health and sickness are significantly associated with personality.

There are few studies relating Role Efficacy with Personality Stress Questionnaire (PSQ) six behaviours. The review of literature give direction that Role Efficacy is positively related with Healthy orientation.
MOTIVATION IN ROLE AND ROLE EFFICACY

Motivation is the basic spring of human behaviour. More so when one is trying to understand and measure it with reference to a special group like polytechnic teachers. It can be surmised that the role efficacy of the polytechnic teachers would be intricately related to three major aspects i.e. (i) the inherent drive in the personality (ii) the motivation which vary the role of the teacher creates and finally (iii) the desired motivational climate and the quality of working life.

Generally, motivation is considered to be the key factor in enhancing human efficiency and efficacy in any organization. However, the present study is analyzing the role efficacy of the polytechnic teachers by using two instruments developed by Pareek. One measures motivation of the individual in role and the other measures the motivation inherent in the organization itself.

The teacher is the heart and soul of an institution and more so of a technical institution where relationship between the teacher and the taught is more determined and geared to a particular objective. Accordingly, much attention has to be paid to building the faculty of the institution and its continuous development and growth to meet the challenge to achieve the objectives for which the institution has been established.
Principal, Head of Department and Teacher act as manager of institution, department and class because they manage physical, human and financial resources for achieving objectives. While assigning work to individuals their personal difference should be taken care. Knowledge of motivational patterns/motives helps managers understand the work attitudes of each employee. They can then deal with employees differently according to the strongest motivational pattern in each. For example, an achievement motivated employee can be assigned a job, accompanied by an explanation of its challenge. A competence motivated employee could be assigned a similar job with emphasis on its requirements for high quality work. In this way, the manager can communicate with each employee according to the particular person’s need. So, it becomes essential for a manager to know about motive pattern of his employees so as to increase their performance and satisfaction.

Organisation comprises of various persons who are assigned different roles. Each role has different components and design. It comprises of various types of psychological needs of achievement, power or influence, control, affiliation, extension to different extent. Thus, the organisation roles can be distinguished from one another according to special requirements of varied psychological needs. (Pareek (1987), proposed that motivation motivating organizational
roles depends on understanding, measuring and controlling the role attributes that can enhance individual contribution to organizational growth and effectiveness. He also maintained that several role process can be examined within managerial portfolios that tend to affect his operating effectiveness in organization. By a process of redefining managerial roles conditions can be created for managerial and non managerial positions to make not only their own roles but also help making others roles that are linked to their position and position in vertical arrangement effective Graen (1976).

It is essential to keep polytechnic teachers motivated and satisfied by assigning them role of specific psychological needs, which matches with their motivation/motives characteristic. It will motivate them to play their role effectively and enhance effectiveness of polytechnics. It is therefore essential to know motivational aspects of role in organisation of polytechnic.

CONCEPT OF MOTIVATION/MOTIVE

The term 'motivation' was originally derived from the Latin world 'movere' which means 'to move' that is moving the organisations effectively to reach goals. Various others have described the term differently.
Motivation is a set of energetic forces, originating both within and outside the individual, that initiate behaviour and determine its form, direction, intensity and duration (Pinder, 1984). Motivation is a general term to describe the process of starting, directing and maintaining physical and psychological activities. It is a broad concept that embraces such internal mechanism as (a) preference for one activity over another, (b) enthusiasm and vigour of a person’s responses, and (c) persistence of organized pattern of action toward relevant goals (Zimbardo, 1985).

Motivation refers to those forces operating within an individual which impel him to act or not to act in a certain way (Rao & Narayana, 1991). According to Ramanamma (1991) motivation is the process of increasing organizational conditions which will impel employees to strive hard to attain company goal.

Some people perform the same type of job most efficiently than others, some find it more rewarding and interesting than others, and some enjoy it more than others. At any given point of time, people vary in the extent to which they are willing to direct their energies to the attainment of goals due to difference in motivation. Human beings are the factors of production which can give more productivity with less output and vice-versa. Where there is a strong motivation, output
increases and when there is negative motivation, performance level is low.

One of the key elements in human resource management is motivation. It is concerned with 'why' of human behaviour (Rao and Narayana, 1991).

**MOTIVATION / TYPICAL MOTIVES**

Each person tends to develop certain motivational patterns as a product of the cultural environment in which that person lives. These patterns are the attitude that affect the way people view their jobs and approach their lives. McClelland (1982) studies reveal that people's motivational patterns reflect the culture environment in which they grow up their family, school and books.

Murray's work (1938) on human needs and motives inspired further studies, among them McClelland's work on achievement, affiliation and power (McClelland, Atkinson and Lowell, 1953). However, power proved to be a complex motive (McClelland, 1975), containing several elements the need to control others; the need to make an impact on others (influence); and the need to do something for others (extension). McGregor (1966) further identified the motive of dependence. A person's behaviour in a work setting is acknowledged to be the result of several motives.
Pareek (1986) identified what he believes to be the six primary needs or motivators relevant to understanding the behaviour of people in organizations.

1. **Achievement**
   Characterized by concern for excellence, competition with the standard of excellence set by others or oneself, the setting of challenging goals by oneself, awareness of the hurdles in the way of achieving these goals and persistence in trying alternative paths to one's goals.

2. **Affiliation**
   Characterized by a concern for establishing and maintaining close, personal relationships, a value on friendship and a tendency to express one's emotions.

3. **Influence**
   Characterized by concern for making an impact on others, a desire to make people do what one thinks is right and urge to change matters and develop people.

4. **Control**
   Characterized by a concern for orderliness, a desire to be and stay informed and an urge to monitor and take corrective action.

5. **Extension**
   Characterized by concern for others, interest in superordinate
goals and an urge to be relevant and useful to larger groups, including society.

6. Dependence

Characterized by a desire for the help of others one's self development, checking with significant others (those who are more knowledgeable or have higher status-experts, close associates). Submitting ideas or proposals for approval, having an urge to maintain an 'approval' relationship.

The relative intensity of affiliation, power and achievement motives vary among individuals. It also tends to vary between different occupations.

Managers appear to be higher in achievement motivation than in affiliation motivation. For persons with high need-affiliation social relationships take precedence over task accomplishment. A person who has a high n-power concentrates on seeking and exercising power/authority. This person is concerned with influencing others and winning arguments. People with n-achievement prefer challenge of working at a problem, and accept personal responsibilities for success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to chance or the actions of others. McClelland saw the achievement need as the most critical for an organizations economic growth and success. The need to achieve
is linked to entrepreneurial spirit and the development of available resources. Basically the theory of motivation of McClelland started with need achievement and went on to add need power, need affiliation and other needs like extension, dependency and control as a result of research and application of motivation in role.

**MOTIVATING PEOPLE AT WORK - THEORY**

The traditional approach of managing employees is based on the assumption that people work under pressure put by the managers, work to have higher payment, and can become effective if they are given the knowledge and skills needed for the job. With increasing complexity of organizations and the society, these assumptions were questioned. It became clear that internal pressure (motivation) was more important than external pressure; that people look for more than money in their work; and that people developed more through what they "experienced" their organization and their jobs than through formal training. Job, along with organization, assumed more importance (Pareek, 1987).

Herzberg's theory, which is called the two factor theory of motivation, led to a practical programme of using a job as the major medium of developing people and changing some organizational practices. The practical aspect of intervening in the organization was called job 'enrichment'.

49
Since Herzberg's work on job enrichment, a great deal of interest was aroused about interventions with jobs and work. The relationship of man to work is the basic element of social life. The terms 'humanization of work', 'industrial democracy', 'quality of working life', participative work are interchangeably used for the same concept. The core of those concepts in the value of treating the worker as a human being, improvement of work environment and emphasizing his development in work decisions.

Recently emphasis has been given to the development of roles and making them effective in the organization. Role can be defined as the position one occupies in a social system, as defined by the functions he/she performs in response to the expectations of the significant members of the social system, and his/her own expectations from that position or office.

The concept of role widens the meaning of work, and the relationship of the worker with other significant persons in the system. The concept of job is more perspective in nature; the concept of role includes more discretionary parts of work. A job assumes relationship of the workers with his superior, whereas the role emphasize his relationship with all those who have expectation. The design of role and development of role is being used often for improving effectiveness of individuals and organization.
According to Pareek (1993) performance of a person working in an organization is also dependent on the design of the role, in addition to his technical competence, his managerial skill and experience, that he performs there. If the role provide opportunity to satisfy his specific motivational requirement than his performance will be effective. According to Pareek five psychological needs provided in a role are used for this purpose, these are mentioned below:

(i) **Achievement**: The need to excel, to take up challenge, to do unique things.

(ii) **Power or Influence**: The need to make impact on people and events.

(iii) **Control**: The need to direct and control people.

(iv) **Affiliation**: The need to establish close personal relations.

(v) **Extension**: The need to relate to others, help them serve a large cause. Pareek (1993) developed a tool entitled MAO-R Motivational Analysis of Organizations (Role) MAO-R for measuring the psychological needs provided in a role in this study MAO-R is used for finding type of psychological need present in polytechnic teachers role.

The extent to which an individual's psychological needs are satisfied in a given role leads to role satisfaction.
The difference in perception of an individual about the existing opportunity provided in role for satisfaction of five psychological needs and the desired level, gives idea about the extent to which psychological needs are satisfied (Pareek, 1993) or the gap between those. It is possible to reduce the gap on all five needs in the role by analyzing it and taking action.

MOTIVATION IN ROLE, EFFECTIVENESS AND ROLE EFFICACY

Barr (1961) in Wisconsin study of measurement and prediction of teacher effectiveness reported that performance, as in teaching, is seen to be a function of several valuables:

(a) One’s potential: Teacher’s knowledge, intelligence developmental level, etc.

(b) One’s cognition of the situation: Teacher’s perception, based upon knowledge, expectancy, the situation itself.

(c) One’s motivation: Teacher’s drives, emotional status.

Barr (1961) reported some considerations in studying motivation of teachers. When studying the motivation of teachers as related to teaching efficiency, several elements must be considered. These may be grouped under two main headings:

(a) the needs or drives; expectancies or perceptions; and consequences for teachers, as they affect the way teacher acts.

(b) the needs or drives; expectancies or perceptions, and consequences for pupils, fellow staff, parents, administrators, and community of the way the teacher acts.
Dayal (1976) and Sinha (1983) reported that in India executives value strong personalized relations. According to Pareek et al. (1981) to be effective as a manager some need for achievement, a high need for influence, high need for extension and low need for dependency, control and affiliation are required.

Venkataraman and Valecha (1981) are of the opinion that motivation is very closely linked with job performance, productivity and organizational effectiveness. Individual performance is directly related to how much he is motivated. Sen (1982) in his study of 500 managers found a positive correlation between role efficacy and job satisfaction index. Stahl (1983) in a study hypothesized that high managerial motivation consists of both need for Achievement and need for power and that low managerial motivation consists of both low need for achievement and need for power.

Surti (1983) also confirmed this relationship. Role satisfaction was measured by a discrepancy measure between perceived and desired levels of satisfaction on five needs (achievement, influence, extension, control and affiliation). The coefficient of correlation on four (all except affiliation) were significant, indicating that employers with high role efficacy were highly satisfied with their jobs and roles (or vice versa). Pareek (1987) stated that role redefining can enhance individual contribution to organizational growth and effectiveness.
Mohan and Rattan (1987b) opined that the need for achievement is a striving to increase or keep as high as possible, one's own capabilities in all activities in which a standard of excellence is thought to apply in executives.

Bhagia (1988) reported that the teaching divorced from motivation becomes a routine, mechanical, dull, and drab exercise. Observation as well as a number of studies related to problems of teachers, teacher motivation, teacher morale, teacher adjustment etc. show a considerable lack of motivation in Indian teachers. It is heartening to note that the National Policy on Education (1986) recognizes the importance of this phenomenon and, therefore proclaimed The government and community should endeavour to create conditions which will help and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines. Teachers should have the freedom to innovate to devise appropriate methods of communication and activities relevant to the needs and capabilities of and concerns of the community.

Chatterji et al. (1988) reported that managerial motivation was definitely related with managerial effectiveness.

Dalal and Sethi (1988) found that high need for achievement sub-scale showed a tendency to attribute success to their own efforts while attributing failure to both lack of effort and task difficulty.
Ramaumma (1991) described effective manager as one who is high in power motivation, low in affiliation motivation and high in inhibition. Tayal (1992) found no significant relation between executive stress and need for achievement in a total sample of 200 middle level executives. Pareek (1993) reported an interesting aspect of MAO-R. While the three needs (achievement, power and extension) make a positive contribution to managerial effectiveness, the needs for personal control and affiliation have been found to be negatively related to effectiveness. According to Pareek (1997) achievement, expert power and extension motives promote effective performance. On the other hand, control dependency, and affiliation reduce chances of effectiveness.

A diagnostic study of motives needs of 157 rail engine drivers was taken. Result indicated affiliation and dependence to be dominant needs, influence power & extension second and control and achievement third order needs of the entire group of drivers (Pandey, 1997).

Managerial motivation has long been established as an important predictor of managerial effectiveness and success. In particular, organizational research on McClelland's need theory and Miner's role motivation theory has shown that the need for power and the motivation to perform managerial role predict the hierarchical level
of managers both cross-sectionally and longitudinally (McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; Miner 1993). Those who possess stronger managerial motives were rated as more effective and rose faster and higher in the managerial hierarchy in large and bureaucratic organizations.

Chen et al. (1997) found that overall managerial motivation of Chinese women in state owned enterprise is same as Chinese men. In addition, overall managerial motivation was positively related to the hierarchical job level of the various component motives, the desire to exercise power and to stand out from the group were the significant predictors.

There are very few studies relating role motives like need for achievement, need for power, need for affiliation etc. of polytechnic teacher and their role efficacy or effectiveness.

In most of the studies reviewed it was found that needs of achievement, power, extension "existing in a role" makes a positive contribution to managerial effectiveness. The needs for personal control and affiliation in role have been found to be negatively related to effectiveness. In the present study it was hypothesized that role efficacy will be positively related with need for achievement, need for power, need for affiliation and need for extension present in the role played by teachers.
MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE

The success of any organisation depends to a great extent on the level of motivation of its employees at various levels. The motivation, in turn, largely depends upon the perception of employees about the internal climate of the organisation, which is formed due to interaction of organisation components - structure, systems, culture, leader behaviour, and psychological needs of employees like authority, autonomy, responsibility etc. (Pareek, 1979). If employee perceive these factors as conducive to motivate for better performance, the organisational climate is considered to be favourable and vice versa.

Climate in natural sense, is referred so as the average condition of weather at a place over a period of time, as exhibited by temperature, wind velocity and precipitation. However, in the context of organisation, the climate refers to a set of properties of the work environment that is assumed to be a major force in influencing the behaviour of the employee on the job. These properties include the size, structure, leadership patterns, interpersonal relationship, goal direction, communication, decision making, orientation and risk taking patterns of organisation (Clay & Dennis, 1978). The properties of organizational climates, which have a bearing on motivation of people in the organisation is called motivational climate and influence the behaviour in it (Forehand and Glimer, 1964).
Litwin and Stringer (1966) conducted a study on the influence of organizational climate on human motivation. The major findings of the study are: (i) a distinct organizational climate can be created by varying leadership style, such climate can be created in a short period of time, and their characteristics are quite stable. (ii) once created, these climates seem to have significant, often domestic effects on motivation and correspondingly on performance of job satisfaction. Litwin and Stringer (1968) found that their researches gave considerable support to the theory that there is a relationship between climate and the arousal or reduction of motivating forces.

Further, motives like achievement, affiliation, dependence, power etc. also contribute to the climate of the organisation. Thus, the motivational climate determines the attitudes, values and beliefs of the members. It is relatively an enduring quality of the internal environment that is experienced by the members and influences their behaviour, MC Farland (1979).

According to Pareek (1989) organisations (and units, branches, divisions or department within organization) tend to be perceived as driven by one or more of six specific motives. These six motive and Achievement, Expert Influence, Extraversion, Control Dependency an Affiliation.
The importance of motivational climate in an Organisation lies in its potential for influencing the important factors like efficiency, productivity and job satisfaction.

According to Rao (1986) motivational scientists like Abraham Maslow, Douglas McGregor, Herzberg and Chris Argyris in their theories of motivation stated that apart from factors like adequate salary, security, challenging work etc., a conducive environment will act as a great motivator and make individuals desire to do their job well and achieve the goal set by management. Thus, the concept of motivational climate has evolved out of an attempt to apply the theories of motivation to behaviour in organisation.

In simple terms, motivational climate can be defined as the general culture of the organisation. Characterized by the dominant psychological needs. For example, an organisation may have a 'power-dependency motivational climate'. In such an organisation, the main concern of the people may be to get controlling positions through getting favours with people in power and then to distribute such gifts to others. Such a climate is operative in many universities. Motivational climate refers to the major concerns of its members (Pareek, 1979).

Employee satisfaction and performance to a great extent, depends upon their perception of motivational climate prevailing in the organisation. Hence, it is the responsibility of the management to
provide the conducive motivational climate for their employees at various levels.

In educational institutions teacher's effectiveness in a role depends on his own potential effectiveness, the potential effectiveness of the role (role efficacy) and the organizational climate (Pareek, 1993). Different type of organisational climate makes difference in the motivation and performance of teachers.

Motivational climate of an organisation refers to the major concerns of its members. Different people perceive different motivational concerns differently depending on one's place and importance in the hierarchy, experience, expertise and educational qualification etc. It is in the best interest of an organisation that its management at the top level gain some knowledge about the perception of various motivational concerns by its members so that appropriate measures could be taken to ensure the prevalence of proper internal environment.

MEASUREMENT OF MOTIVATIONAL CONCERN

An accepted way of examining the motivational climate is to identify the major motivational concerns of various categories of people in the organisation. Motivational concern refers to the type of 'concern'
shown by employees for various motivational dimensions in the organisation.

Pareek (1989) proposed that a framework based on motivation seems to be quite relevant for the study of organizational climate. Organizational climate studied in this framework can also be called motivational climate. He argued that six motives are particularly appropriate in developing a framework that facilitates analysis of the connection between organizational climate and motivation. These motives are achievement, affiliation, expert influence, extension, control and dependency. On careful review of literature, the following six major motivational concerns have been selected:

- Achievement
- Affiliation
- Expert Influence
- Control
- Extension
- Dependency

**Twelve Dimensions of Organizational Climate**

Likert (1967) proposed six dimensions of organizational climate (leadership, motivation, communication, decision, goals and control), while Litwin and Stringer (1968) proposed seven dimensions
Pareek (1989) further contended that twelve processes or dimensions of organizational climate relate specifically to motivation: orientation, interpersonal relationship, supervision, management of problems, management of mistakes, conflict management, communication, decision-making, trust, management of rewards, risk taking and innovation and change.

A review of their studies and those of others indicate that twelve process or dimensions of organizational climate relate specifically to motivation.

(i) Orientation
(ii) Interpersonal relationship
(iii) Supervision
(iv) Problem management
(v) Management of mistakes
(vi) Conflict management
(vii) Communication
(viii) Decision making
(ix) Trust
(x) Management of rewards
(xi) Risk taking
(xii) Innovation and change.
Pareek (1989) argued that the way in which these twelve dimensions of climate operate in an organization indicates the underlying motive of top management and the principle motive that is likely to be generated and sustained within the organization's population. When the twelve dimensions are combined with the six motives mentioned earlier a matrix is formed that can be useful in diagnosing the motivational climate of an organization.

Each dimension may have six possible motivational concerns. For example, for the dimension 'orientation', the employees may have achievement orientation, affiliation orientation, expert influence orientation, control orientation, extension orientation and dependency orientation. Thus altogether 72 motivational concerns emerge out of 12 selected dimensions.

ROLE EFFICACY AND MOTIVATIONAL CLIMATE

Litwin and Stringer (1968) found that an authoritarian climate (referred as 'Control Climate') produce low job satisfaction and low performance. A climate characterized by achievement, extension, and expert influence might be assumed to be related to higher job satisfaction and performance.

Cawsey (reported in Hellriegel and Slocum 1974), using Litarin and Stringer's instrument found higher job satisfaction among
insurance personnel who perceived the motivational climate as one of achievement.

Sen (1982) found correlation between role efficacy and motivational climate. A positive correlation (significant at 0.001 level) has been reported between role efficacy and achievement oriented climate (one promoting concern and pursuit of excellence). Positive correlation have also been reported by him between role efficacy and extension 'climate' (significant at 0.01 level) and 'expert power climate'. The correlation between role efficacy and dependency climate (promoting attitudes of expecting solutions from superiors) and affiliation climate (promoting personnel relationships) were not found to be significant. A negative correlation (significant at 0.01 level) only with 'the control climate' (promoting centralization of power) was also found.

Surti (1983) however reported positive correlation of role efficacy with control climate and dependency climate and negative correlation with extension climate 0.001 level in working women. Role efficacy has been reported to have positive correlation with perception of a participative climate in one's organisation. This was found both by Sen and Surti. In both the studies the correlation were significant. A regression analysis of data from 320 professional women, using role efficacy as a finally emerged in the regression, organizational climate
alone explained about 34 per cent of Variance, thereby exhibiting a
great effect on role efficacy (Surti 1982).

Khanna (1985) in a study of 392 executives of a manufacturing firm found a correlation between the six perceived motives or motivational climates and measures of organizational effectiveness. The climates were also correlated with total satisfaction, that is satisfaction with work and with the organisation as a whole. In the same study there were positive significant correlation between five aspects of organizational effectiveness (organizational commitment, organizational attachment, job satisfaction, total satisfaction and total effectiveness) and an achievement climate, and there was a negative correlation between these five aspects and control climate. An extension climate correlated positively with organizational commitment and with job satisfaction, total satisfaction and total effectiveness. A dependence climate showed no relationship with any measure. An affiliation climate had a negative correlation with job satisfaction and with total satisfaction and total effectiveness. A climate perceived as characterized by expert influence had only one positive correlation with organizational attachment. All correlation were in the predicted direction, although more correlation were expected with climates characterized by dependent and expert influence.
Surti (1983) performed regression analysis for finding contribution of various factors to role efficacy. The total explained variance of 59 per cent, 27 per cent was contributed by organizational and motivational climate, 15 per cent by role stresses service. Brahman and Pareek (1982) found that motivational climate explained 36 per cent variable, to which the largest contribution was made by achievement, expert power and dependent 31 per cent. The above is reported in Pareek (1987).

Pareek (1989) in his study of motivational climate of organisation found dominant motives different in various organisation. He found Expert Influence Motivational Climate in University department and scientific organisations.

Cristina (1999) has emphasised the importance of investigating motivational climate and their influence of psychological and behaviour at responses in achievement setting. According to her master motivational climate lead individual to adopt a mastery goal orientation, which in turn elicits an adaptive pattern of motivation. From an educational perspective, the implementation of climate that would elicit this positive pattern seems to be a desirable goal to pursue.

Misra (1999) in his study of Indian Air Traffic Controllers found mean score of motivational climate maximum in case of control followed by dependency and affiliation dimensions. Achievement dimension has
the lowest mean score. Achievement climate was reported the best but found negative predictor of probable role stresses except resource inadequacy. This indirectly show that achievement climate leads to high role efficacy.

In summary, organizational climate has an enormous influence on organizational effectiveness (role efficacy). A control climate seems to lower role efficacy. An affiliation climate lends to lower both satisfaction and effectiveness and increase role erosion and feeling of personal inadequacy. The achievement, affiliation, expert influence and extension motivational climate leads to higher role efficacy as given in the hypotheses.

Since, there are very few studies in the area of motivational climate in educational institutes and its relationship with role efficacy among teachers. Therefore, the present study focuses on the analysis of the prevailing motivational climate in polytechnic and its relation with role efficacy among polytechnic teachers.
QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE

In most industrialised countries people spend nearly half of their adult waking hours in the world of work. Their lives are inextricably and substantially organised around work and few things can contribute more to the quality of life than the quality of work itself (Mohan and Sehgal 1993).

Monga and Maggu (1981) opined that, it is through work that man achieve his ontological vocation of becoming more humane. It is perhaps work which could sustain humanity and accelerate the well-being of man. It is, again, the pursuit of work that generates the many stresses and strains of the modern day world. Therefore, it is work once again which is forcing industrial societies to show greater concern for work and its relationship to human well being. Goodman (1980) stated that people are looking for new ways to structure jobs and to organise work with a view to improve the economic viability, as well as making work a more satisfying and rewarding experience for the worker.

It is this changing meaning of work which led to the development of the "Quality of Working Life" (QWL) movement. Social scientists in general and psychologist in particular used various concepts for motivating people through work such as job design, job enlargement, job enrichment, industrial democracy, i.e. worker participation,
humanisation of work, organisational structure and climate, organisational effectiveness, organisational development etc. The quest for researching what motivates people resulted in filtering out the concept of Quality of Working Life (QWL) from a variety of studies conducted in industrial and organisational psychology and related disciplines. With increasing complexity of organisations and the society, greater attention is paid to reducing human cost. New organisation are giving more attention to work design that provide effective human results along with their technical results.

During the past decade, QWL's growth has been attributed to three major problems experienced by the industrialised societies (Pomonis and Baumgartel, 1980). The first was the widespread and possibly growing dissatisfaction and/or alienation of blue-collar, white-collar employees, as well as managerial personnel from their work, and the organisations in which they were employed. The second was the declining rate of growth in labour productivity in the face of scare resources. The third was the growing recognition of the paramount role of an individual's "quality of working life" in physical and mental health and family and community, well-being.

Quality of working life can be said to be both, a goal and an ongoing process for achieving it. As a goal, it is the commitment of any
organisation to work improvement, the creation of more involving, satisfying, and effective jobs and work environment for people at all levels of organisation. As a process, quality of working life calls for efforts to realize this goal through the active involvement of people throughout the organisation (Carison 1981).

Sekaran (1989) is of view that enhancing Quality of Working Life (QWL) in an organisation will result in high level of job involvement (as contrasted to job alienation by employee, sense of competence (feeling of confidence in one's own competence), and job satisfaction (positive feeling towards the job) and higher level of productivity and performance in organisation.

The term quality of working life first appeared in the early 1970's and has since increasingly found its way into professional management literatures. Improvement in quality of working life is becoming a catch slogan of today's employers and employees Mali,(1981). It is being given increased attention because of changes in people and environment and need of creating job to fit people and technology.

QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE: The concept and its definitions

The term "Quality of Working Life" encompasses aspects of good experiences and advantages for employees, organisation, and the society at large.
Quality of Working Life has been conceptualised and defined by different researchers according to their perception of its and its affect on individual and/or organisation. Some of the important concept of quality of working life are given here. Quality of Working Life is basically permitting every employee to develop himself through his work and take on responsibility (Gulowsen, 1971). Cherns(1975) opined that quality of working life is the area of "Humanization of the Work Place", "Work Place Democracy", "Work Restructuring" or "Job Design". According to Nadler and Lawler(1983), "Quality of working life is a way of thinking about people, work and organisations". Thus the focus of the quality of working life is not only how people can do work better, but how work may cause people to be better.

Katzell et al(1975) viewed QWL somewhat broadly as an individuals evaluation of the outcome of the work relationship. They observed that a worker can be said to enjoy a high quality of working life when he : (a) has positive feeling towards his job and future prospects, (b) is motivated to stay on the job and performs well, and (c) feels his working life fits well with his private life to afford him a balance between the two terms of his personal values. Spink (1975) defined the quality of working life as "the degree of excellence in work and working conditions, which contribute to the overall satisfaction of the individual and enhances the individual as well as organisational effectiveness".

71
Glaser (1976) explained the meaning of "Quality of Working Life". According to him, it means more than just job security, good working conditions, adequate and fair compensation, and more than even equal employment opportunities or job enlargement. The quality of working life requires an organizational climate and structures that really encourage, facilitate, reward, question, challenge, or suggest ways to improve the existing modus operandi in any way. It also requires expeditious, respectful, and appropriate response to such inputs. A typical quality of working life philosophy, contends Barnes (1979), revolves around creating trust, growth equity, and excellence in the organization setting. Thus, the quality of working life has been looked at differently by different people.

According to Wyatt (1980), quality of working life is a qualitative concept. It is a sense of overall well-being with the work process from the perspectives of both employer and employee. It involves the notion of a quality of working experience.

Delamofe and Takezawa (1984) further added that the concept of "Quality of Working Life" and "Quality of Life" emerged relatively recently in the industrialized nations where English was the primary language. Several other industrial countries used synonymous like "Humanization of Work", "Improvement of Working conditions", etc.
"Workers Protection", "Working Environment", and "Democratization of the Work Place". The core of these concepts is the value of treating the worker as a human being improvement of work decision. The concept is very close to HRD.

According to Davis and Newstrom (1985), Quality of working life (QWL) refers to the favourableness or unfavourableness or a job environment for people. It is generic phase that covers person's feeling about every dimension of work including economic rewards and benefits, security, working conditions, organizational and interpersonal relationships and its intrinsic meaning in a person's life. The basic purpose of QWL is to develop work environment that are excellent for people as well as for production.

According to Reddy (1985), the term Quality of working life though coined by Davis in 1972 at an International Conference at Arden House, New York, can be traced back for its germinal idea in one or the other form to the 1950s. The British Coal Mining Industry and the Norwegian Shipping Industry, for example, carried out a lot of profound diagnostic work regarding the impact of job structures and technology on Quality of Working Life in the 1950s. (Trist and Bramforth 1951; Herbert, 1954 and Aubert and Arner, 1959). Wyatt (1988), highlighted the usage of concept of quality of working life in various countries.
According to him QWL is qualitative concept. It is a sense of overall well being with the work process from the respective of both employer and employee. In a very important way, quality of working life involves the notions of a quality working experience. The very experience of working, as well as the consequences of working, may be desirable. Quality of working life means, at the upper end, a working experience that is physically and spiritually life enhancing. The life enhancing characteristic is from both the perspective of the employee and organization. Multinational organizations should concern themselves with how the local people conceive of quality of working life given their total life work situation.

The essence of 'Quality of Working Life' is cooperative rather than authoritarian; revolutionary and open rather than static and rigid; informal rather than rule-bound; impersonal rather than mechanistic; mutual respect and trust rather than hatred against each other.

Kahn(1990) found Psychological safety and meaningfulness dimensions as important elements of Psychological climate that enhance employee involvement. Brown and Leigh(1996) gave an operational definition based on concept given in Kahn(1990) which incorporates dimensions of climate (i.e. clarity, supportive management, and challenge). The operational definition also includes potentially
important aspects of climate, such as self expression perceived contributions, and recognition.

QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE IN INDIA

Sinha and Sayeed (1980) reported that in the Indian setting work has already been initiated on quality of working life by many, but a major headway is yet to be made. Here, initially the orientation to quality of working life remain sociological, but lately there has been a gradual switch over to psychological aspects of quality of working life. Ganguli and Joseph (1971), De (1977 a,b) and Sinha (1977), Shah (1978), Sayeed & Sinha (1981), Sehgal & Dhir (1991) were amongst the few who tried to approach quality of working life from psychological perspective.

Reddy (1985) stated that there is a view in the Third World countries, that when one hardly finds quality of life, why should one speak of the quality of working life. Surrounded by innumerable problems like poverty, population explosion, pollution and low wages, the third world countries can hardly afford to think about quality of working life of their workers. Nevertheless, there is another view that by reversing the same logic that quality of working life can be used as a launching pad for the improvement of the quality of life of the citizens of
developing countries by way of higher productivity, better quality of marketable goods and thereby greater prosperity of the countries.

The work on QWL, had begun in India a decade ago. Most of the work in Indian setting deal with the QWL in a theoretical descriptive frame work, or mostly in an action research context to bring about some desirable change in the design of work system (De 1987). According to (De, 1977) productive orientation combined with a fair amount of satisfaction on the job creates work culture where employees get more and more involved. Such a situation give rise to work commitment. He postulated five bases of work commitment : work should (a) not damage, degrade, Humiliate, exhaust stultify or persistently bore a worker, (b) interest and satisfy him (c) utilize his skill and abilities, (d) enhance or at least leave unimpaired his interest and abilities, and (e) fulfill the instrumental purpose of getting a living. All the requirements may be met if QWL experiences are positive for employees he opined.

DIMENSIONS OF QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE

The concept of quality of working life is essentially multidimensional. Many dimensions have been identified by various authors as dimensions of quality of working life at the work place. Walton(1972) offered the following conceptual categories or criteria for quality of working life. Adequacy in compensation. Safe and healthy
working conditions, Immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities. Opportunity for continued growth and security Social integration in the work organization, Constitutionalism in the work organization, Work and total life space, Social relevance of work life.

Maccoby (1984) identified four factors to measure quality of working life; Security(right to work and working conditions), Equity(distributive justice), Democracy(autonomy and opportunity to use abilities, Individualization(perception of uniqueness).

In the Indian setting too many researchers have worked in the area of quality of working life and proposed different dimensions. Joseph(1978) gave four dimensions viz. growth, mastery, involvement and self control. Ganguli(1979) presented a somewhat different list. Ghosh and Kalra(1982) delineated fifteen dimensions. Sinha and Sayeed(1980) put forth seventeen dimensions in their scale of quality of working life. These dimensions are : Economic benefits, Physical working conditions, Career orientation, Advancement on merit, Effect on personal life, Mental state, Union management relations, Self respect. Supervisory relationship, Intra group relations, Sense of achievement versus apathy, Confidence in management Meaningful development, Control, Influence and participation, Employees commitment, General life satisfaction and Organizational climate.
Delamotte and Takizawa (1984) gave the following dimensions as QWL problems in international perspective: occupational safety and health, working time, job security, (i.e. protection against dismissal for economic reasons), fair treatment at work for individuals and groups, influence on decision making, workers representation at a company board meeting, good opportunities for advancement in career etc.

Gani (1995) from his study of H.M.T. (Jammu & Kashmir) workers found adequate financial return from the job, besides desire for job security, better working conditions and advancement opportunities continue to be major consideration in employees working lives. The present study has also used the quality of working life inventory by Sinha and Sayeed (1980)

QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

In discussing organizations, more than one connotation can apply. Organization setting can be examined as the efficient manner of arranging teachers and students towards well defined educational goals. In this sense, the word organization takes on the meaning of "house management" in educational enterprise Kaur (1993). There appears to be a new look at attempting to research the multitude of variables in educational settings and their interdependence in the total system (White, 1969).
Quality of Working Life in a Polytechnic

The Polytechnic is a social system, where a number of teachers having different personality, traits, values, needs and dispositions work together for harmonious development of student's abilities, aptitudes and capacities for becoming a technician for industry/society. The teachers manifest variation in their behaviour in relation to one another and in relation to the head of the institution while fulfilling their assigned roles and satisfying their social needs. A complex sort of interaction goes on among the teachers and between the principal and the teachers which weave an intricate and delicate web of institutional climate. Thus, institutional climate is the condition within the institution resulting from social interaction among the teachers and between the teachers and the principal. This is a unique factor, which has been rightly equated by Halpin(1966) with the "personality of the school". This give rise to specific question relating to the teachers. How role efficacy of the polytechnic teachers is related to quality of working life?

POLYTECHNIC TEACHER'S ROLE EFFICACY AND QUALITY OF WORKING LIFE

Role efficacy is an important variable used as a strategy for organisational development of an organisation and improving people. A few studies have been conducted in the areas of teachers role efficacy,
motivation and effectiveness in relation to the Quality of Working Life. However, a lot of research is available in related fields of role efficacy, i.e., Motivation, Job satisfaction, Performance, Absenteeism, Organisational effectiveness, etc., and quality of working life.

Interest in quality of Working life programs as a method for improving organisational effectiveness has increased significantly over the last several years (Sorenson et al., 1985).


QWL aims at healthiest, more satisfied, and more productive employees and more efficient adaptive and profitable organisation (Suttle, 1977). Sinha (1980) found that the organizational efficiency and executive job satisfaction were influenced primarily by the organizational climate and only moderately by the socio-cultural values and union strength.
A prominent stream of literature has urged that when employees perceive the potential for the workplace, they engage themselves more completely and invest greater time and effort in the organization's work (Kahn, 1990; Pfeffer, 1994), such an attitude on the part of the employee helps to make him more efficient and effective.

Sayeed and Sinha (1981) examined the relationship between quality of working life, job stress and performance. The results indicate that higher quality of working life leads to greater job satisfaction and better performance.

Haque (1992) in his study found that quality of working life is positively related to performance and negatively correlated to absenteeism. This was validated again by Haque (1999) in his studies of Textile Mills of Bangladesh. The same aspects have been emphasised by Haque et al. (1999) in his research study. According to him QWL is important for job performance, job satisfaction, labour turnover, labour management relations and such other factors which play an important part in determining the overall wellbeing of an industrial organisation.

Hart et al. (1995) found that positive work experience leads to more satisfaction and a more positive perception of quality of working life and hence more effectiveness.
Recent research evidence indicates that when employees have a participatory, problem-solving approach to quality of working life, they are both committed to the organization and, if union members, to their union Fields and Thacker (1992).

Wadud (1996) in a study found that quality of working life was significantly higher among the private sector women employees than their counterparts in the public sector. It also showed that younger group and higher experienced groups had significantly higher perception of quality of working life than the older and the lower experienced groups. No significant different between younger worker (upto 33 years of age) and the older workers (34 years and above) with respect to their perceived quality of working life was found. Similarly, there was no significant difference in the quality of working life perceptive of low and high experienced groups.

A few studies have been conducted in the area of teachers role efficacy, motivation, effectiveness in relation to quality of working life.

Indiresen (1974) in her study of job satisfaction of engineering teachers found all the five dimensions related to perceived characteristic of the organizational atmosphere namely espirit, uthority, hindrance, administration and fairness significant variables. The total score being the predictor of job satisfactory.
Bhattacharya (1979) studied Polytechnic teachers performance in the area of effectiveness, performance of duties, class room lecture, human relations, and job satisfaction. The result revealed teachers' overall job satisfaction did not always depend on their satisfaction with salary, the use of talent had a great shaping influence. Four out of five teachers, who considered their salary bad, but use of talent excellent, had overall job satisfaction to the level of good. There was a significant correlation between overall job satisfaction and class room performance of teacher.

Anand (1983) in his study emphasized the importance of physical working conditions and need of infrastructure for the teachers to play their role effectively. Besides the physical structure and components, the school organization in its own way also influence the effectiveness of teachers. He further highlighted the role of quality of working life dimensions of control, influence and participation (CIP). He said that it may be because of their non-participation in the curriculum decisions, that the teachers have always been found to be very critical of whatsoever curriculum they are asked to cover.

Highlighting the importance of congenial environment, Venkatataish and Naidu (1984) found that if the teacher is satisfied with his environment, he will perform his duties perfectly. Thus, effectiveness is a function of the nature of quality of working life.
Kaur (1993) in research study clearly found teacher effectiveness significantly related with the positive perception of quality of working life and job satisfaction. Teacher effectiveness can be enhanced by improving Quality of Working Life. On further analysis it was found that environment giving due respect & provide satisfaction both with "on work" and "off work", cordial interpersonal relation in the institute and opportunity for meaningful development contribute significantly to teacher effectiveness.

Schuster et al. (1997) studied the effect of employee-centred management in improving organization performance over a five year period. The result of the study indicated that employee-centred management is compatible with high performance and competitive advantage. There is also evidence that in some instance, organization performance can be significantly enhanced through the participation and contribution of employees in problem-solving and decision making processes having different climate differ.

A positive perception of quality of working life by teachers in Polytechnic definitely enhances role efficacy, job satisfaction and feeling of well being in teachers. This may lead to enhancement of their effectiveness in work. In this study relationship of role efficacy and quality of working life was explored.
Majority of studies reviewed clearly reveals role efficacy positively related to perception of quality of working life by persons working in industries and educational institutes. In the present study it is expected that polytechnic teachers perceiving higher quality of working life in polytechnic will have high role efficacy and vice-versa.
ORGANISATIONAL ROLE STRESS

Organisations feel contended by prescribing various roles to people. On being assigned such roles, some individual feel elated in meeting the demands of their roles as well as find abundance of resources within the organization and within themselves. On the other hand, some other individuals playing the same role perceive inadequacy both in organisational and personal resources, for meeting the expectations of their roles, and face a number of problems which invite anxiety, tension and stress for them. Some times it leads to serious diseases like heart disease and cancer. It affects the performance of people and organisations. Therefore, organizations are lately concerned to understand and explore as to why and how some individual fell elated and other individual, feel stress in fulfilling the demand of their role (Pandey 1995).

Marshal and Copper(1978) found the relationship at work as major source of management stress. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snock and Rosenthal (1964) found behaviour in context of such role prescriptions inviting stress and being reflected in absenteeism, indifference, sickness and sudden or slow decrease of productivity in the organizations. Voluminous research has been carried out in recent years to unfold the nature of role stress in relation to personal, group and organizational variables (Pestonjee, 1992).
A lot of interest is being shown in the study of stress experienced by individual in the role for enhancing well being of individual and their production. Role Efficacy intervention are adopted to reduce the role stress. The study of role efficacy and role stress in polytechnic teachers and their relationship will help in enhancing effectiveness of polytechnics and contribution of teachers.

**CONCEPT & DIMENSIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL ROLE STRESS**

Several terms have been used that are synonymous or similar in meaning to stress. Pareek (1993) defined terms relating to stress as: ‘Stressor’ for stimuli which induces stress; ‘stress’ for the effective (emotional) part in the experience of incongruence; ‘symptoms’ for the physiological, behavioural and conceptual responses or changes’ and ‘coping’ for any behaviour which deals with the emotional component in the experience of incongruence (i.e. stress).

The concept of the role is key to understand how an individual functions in any system. It is through his role that individual is integrated into an organization (Katz and Kahn, 1966). They defined an organisation as a system of role. However role itself is a system. Pareek (1987) states, ‘Role can be defined as the position one occupies in a social system (organisation), as defined by the functions he/she performs in response to the expectations of the significant
members of the social and his/her own expectations from that position or office'.

Kahn et. at. (1964) were the earliest to draw attention to organisational stress in general and role stress in particular. They considered a specific variant in the form of role stress. Briefly, any aspect of role expectation which exceeds the incumbents resources may be termed as role stress.

Pareek(1976) definition of role indicates that there are inherent problems in the performance of a role and, therefore stress is inevitable. The concept of role and the related concepts of role space & role set have a built in potential for conflict and stress. Since a role is defined by the expectation of role senders, the expectation may remain ambiguous and conflict with one other, unless they are articulated, shared and integrated.

Pareek (1983) has given importance to two role systems : (a) role set, and (b) role space from the point of view of individual.

According to Pareek (1983) : Role Set is, "-the role system with in the organisation of which role are a part and by which individual roles are defined and Role Space refers to," – the role people occupy and perform.
Role set system consists of important persons who have varying expectations form the role that an individual occupies. The conflicts which arises as a result of incompatibility among these expectations by the 'significant' others (and by the individual himself) are referred to as role set conflict. These conflicts may take the forms of role ambiguity, role expectation conflict, role overload, role erosion, resource inadequacy, personal inadequacy and role isolation.

Role space (the dynamic relationship amongst the various roles an individual occupies and his self) has three main variables: self, the role under question, and the other roles he occupies. Any conflict amongst these are referred to as role space conflict or stress. These conflicts may take the forms of self role distance, role stagnation and inter role distance.

In the present study Organisational Role Stress Scale (ORS) by Pareek(1983) having ten dimensions is used for finding organisational role stress of polytechnic teachers. The meaning of these dimensions in the context of present study are:

**Role Space Conflicts**

This type of stress is created when there is a mismatch between the strength of an individual and the expectation of the role given to him.
(i) **Self Role Distance** - This stress arises out of the conflict between the self concept and the expectations from the role as perceived by the role occupant. If a person occupies a role which he may subsequently find as conflicting with the self concepts, he feels stressed.

(ii) **Role Stagnation** - This stress is experienced when an individual is promoted in the organization and new assignments are given to him which are new in comparison to the roles and duties in which one got accustomed over a long period of time.

(iii) **Inter Role Distance** - An individual has to play multiple role in life, such as the role of an executive, the role of a father, the role of a husband and so on. Conflicts may exist between two or more roles a person attempts to play.

**Role Set Conflicts**

The other fields which is important vis-à-vis an individual role, is the role set which consists of important persons who have varying expectations from the role that he occupies. The conflicts which arises as a result of incompatibility among these expectations by the 'significant' others (and by the individual himself) are referred to as role set conflict. These conflicts take the forms mentioned below:
(iv) **Role Ambiguity**

When the individual is not clear about the various expectations that people have from his role, the conflict that he faces is called role ambiguity. Role ambiguity may be due to lack of information available to the role occupant, or due to lack of understanding of the ‘cues’ available to him. Role ambiguity may be in relations to the activities, responsibilities, priorities, norms or general expectations.

(v) **Role Expectation Conflict**

There may be conflicting demands or expectation on an individual from the side of several persons such as boss, subordinates, colleagues or clients. In this stimulation role occupant will experience stress.

(vi) **Role Overload**

Role overload stress is experienced when the expected output from an individual is far beyond his capabilities.

(vii) **Role Erosion**

Role erosion occurs when an individual feels that the functions of his role are being performed by some other role in the organizations.
(viii) **Resource Inadequacy**

Resource inadequacy stress is experienced when the resources required by the role occupant for performing the role effectively are not available, these may be information, people, material, finance or facilities.

(ix) **Personal Inadequacy**

Stress is caused if an individual feels that he does not have the required skill, knowledge or training to perform the role assigned to him.

(x) **Role Isolation**

The same individual may perform several roles in an organization. The role one finds to be isolated from other roles performed by him can become a cause of stress.

**Role Stress in Polytechnic Teachers**

Polytechnic education system is required to be dynamic. It has to adapt effectively to the changes in economy, social environment, production and management process, rapid expansion of knowledge and advances in science and technology.

The teacher will be required to play multiple roles including teaching, research, consultancy, extension work and development of instructional resources.
The growing unemployment among the polytechnic pass-outs, the thrust from the industries for the development of quality products, budgetary constraints, time pressure and other jobs not related to polytechnic system i.e. law and order duty, election work and other such works assigned by the government are putting pressure on the polytechnic teachers causing serious stresses.

Teacher in earlier days had limited role to perform but the scenario has completely changed. In addition to his normal work of academics, the teacher has to fulfill role expectations of different dimensions in various areas. The expectations from the community, industry, parents, students, directorate, sister institutions, and other stake holders are mounting high. The teacher in addition to above job is also required to develop appropriate rural technologies and transfer them to improve the socio-economic conditions of rural masses, educating people towards the development of science and technology.

Within the framework of his development role he/she has to undertake curriculum development work, designing and developing instructional resources, generation of revenue etc. All these demands enhance role of teacher in varied dimensions and the teacher encounter many challenges and conflicting job situations. Teacher find himself/herself unable to fulfill these expectations due to various
constraints i.e. lack of budgetary provisions, lack of training, ambiguity of roles, compatibility of roles etc.

All this creates stress for teachers. stresses developed in the polytechnic teachers are detrimental to the individual and the organization he/she serves. Their interest, motivation, job satisfaction, interpersonal relation, effectiveness, performance, are adversely affected which in turn affects the performance of the organization to a large extent.

Gupta et al. (1997) in their study of 200 polytechnic teachers analysed the role conflict which exists in polytechnic teachers, implication of identified role conflict on the behaviour of the individual and organization and design strategies to minimize the role conflict. The study revealed that the polytechnic teachers suffer from high degree of role conflict due to increased role demand. The role conflict is in decreasing order for role stress dimensions namely role inadequacy, role erosion, role isolation, personal inadequacy, role overload, role stagnation, self role distance, inter role distance, role expectation, conflict and role ambiguity. It varies from 96 to 60 per cent. The study revealed that the physical and mental health of the teacher as well as his performance were adversely affected by the conflicting role situations. The organisation in turn suffered. It was concluded that role conflict, if unresolved and allowed to go unabated, It would produce
detrimental affect on the health and behaviour of individual and the organisation. A model for resolving role conflict was proposed. There is need of study the extent of the organisational role stress and type in polytechnic teachers and ways of reducing it.

ROLE EFFICACY AND ROLE STRESS

Organizations are making consistent efforts to reduce organisational role stress by developing various interventions. One such intervention is ‘role efficacy’ which tries to bring about feeling of pleasantness and availability of greater opportunity in the job incumbents in meeting the demands of their role.

The concept of ‘role efficacy’ or role making has been pioneered by Pareek (1974, 1980a, 1980b, 1986, 1987 and 1993). Following him, a number of researchers have tried to find the relationship of role efficacy with personal and organisational variables.

Attempts have been made to trace antecedents, moderators and consequent of role stress in different organizations settings (Beehrs, Walsch & Taber, 1976; Johnson & Stenson, 1975; Miles and Perrault, 1976; Morris, 1979; Pestonjee and Muncherji, 1991). These researchers indicate a trend that role based stress reduces one’s capacity to utilize and mobilize resources available in the organization as well as in one self. As a result of high/low level of job stress burnout
stress syndrome “Boss” Paine, 1982) and rust out stress syndrome “Ross” come to the focus which ultimately bring deterioration in performance (Pandey, 1995).

Sen(1982) reported negative and significant co-relation between role efficacy & eight role stress (as well as total stress). Sharma and Sharma (1984) attempted to relate role efficacy with job anxiety and tension.

Das (1984) found role efficacy having moderating impact on purposeful job behaviour and independent variables such as organisational climate and role stress. Increased work related tension was found to have overall negative relationship with role efficacy. Personal attributes and job demographics were found to have impact on role efficacy (Sayeed, 1985).

Pareek (1987) and Sayeed (1985 a, b) found he perception of greater opportunities in the role may decrease role-related stress.

Role efficacy was found to be reducer of role stress (Pestonjee, 1992). Conducive work environment was found to make leadership work which ultimately influenced role efficacy of organisational members and productivity of organisations (Sayeed 1992a). Strong linkage was found to exist between role efficacy and appropriate position power structure (Sayeed, 1992b).
Role efficacy was reported to have some psychological correlates in organizations from information technology (Deo, 1993). Role efficacy was found to prevent rail accidents caused by motor men on Central and Western Railways (Pandey, 1993). Role efficacy was also found to bring about a positive change in performance, interpersonal relations and overall job-behaviour of superiors (Pandey, 1994). A study on engine drivers of Indian railways to determine the relationship between their role efficacy and role stress (Pandey, 1995) revealed role efficacy and role stress to be negatively related; respondent suffering from feeling of role overload, resource inadequacy and personal inadequacy; educational inadequacy, positively related with role stress and negatively with role efficacy, advancement in experience was found to enhance probability of stress.

The negative relationship between each dimension of role efficacy with each dimension of role stress were found (Pandey, 1995).

There are not much finding available regarding relationship of role efficacy and role stress among teachers.

Nevertheless, there appears to be some logical ground to believe that perception of greater opportunity on the job or role efficacy may perhaps tend to enhance individual effectiveness and commitment. There is need of doing an empirical study to find out relationship between role efficacy and role stress for teacher of polytechnic.
The trend of the above findings suggests that role stress and role efficacy might have got some relationship. However, no empirical and systematic attempt seems to have been made to relate organizational role stress with organizational role efficacy in case of polytechnic teachers. It is expected in the study that polytechnic teachers role efficacy and organisational role stress will have negative significant relationship, as has been found in persons working in industry.
OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Modern life is full of stress. As organisations become more complex the potential for, and the amount of stress increases. People experience stress as they can no longer have complete control over what happens in their lives. There being no escape from stress in modern life, we need to find ways of using stress productively, and reducing dysfunctional stress Pareek (1993). With increasing emphasis on consumerism and economic values and changed priorities in life, the teaching profession is increasingly becoming more stressful.

In the recent years an increasing number of studies and publications have appeared on life stress, psychological stress and organisational stress. Newman and Beehr (1979) noted that occupational stress first appeared as a keyword in ‘Psychological Abstracts’ in 1973. Within the last two decades, a broad interest in occupational stress by academician has emerged copper and Payne, (1978, 1980); Ivancevich and Matteson, (1980); Copper, (1983); quick and Quick,(1984); Beehr and Bhagat, (1985). Rao (1983), Palsane et.al.(1986) and Pestonjee (1992) are some of the contributors to the stress research in the Indian context.

It is not exaggeration to conclude that occupational stress has become a central topic in the field of organizational behaviour (Staw, 1984).
Definitions

Several terms have been used that are synonymous or similar in meaning to stress. It is not an easy construct to define, as it means different things to different people.

Occupational stress researchers have typically defined Stress in one of the three ways: as a stimulus, a response, or stimulus - response relationship.

A stimulus definition of stress refers to a job 'stressor' which is any environmental event in the workplace requiring some type of adaptive response. Using this definition, a wide variety of working conditions have been studied as examples of stresses, including the role conflict, the role ambiguity, the role of overload (Kahn et.al.,1976), the danger of accidents, and the pace of work (Fresse, 1985).

In contrast, a response definition of stress is associated with what was referred to as a strain. Stress is an individual's response to work related environmental stressors. Selye (1976) refers to stress as the reaction of the organism which can be psychological, physiological, or behavioural.

Finally, stress may be defined within a stimulus response approach. Researchers who refer to stress in this way refer to the
interaction between environmental stimuli (job stressors) and individual response (strains) (Beehr and Fraz, 1987)

McGrath (1976) opined that the word stress is used to label an area of study, as is done in other topical area in industrial and organizational psychology (e.g., leadership, job design). In this context, the term stressor is often used to refer to job or organizational conditions, and the term strain is used to refer to the individuals response to these conditions.

Stress continues to be defined in a number of ‘different ways’ (Cox, 1978), and at a number of different ‘levels of analysis’ (Cox et al., 1992). Thus, stress has been treated as a stimulus, a response, or as a result of some interaction or imbalance between the individual and aspects of the environment (French et al., 1974; Newton, 1989; Cox 1990)

Beehr and Newman (1978) defined occupational stress as “a condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs characterized by changes within the people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning.

Myers (1987) stress is the body’s physical, mental and chemical reaction to stressors or circumstances that frighten, excite, endanger,
confuse, challenge, surprise, anger or irritate—such as unrealistic job deadlines, financial strain or broken relationships.

More simply, Reilly and Clevenger (1995) state that stress could be said to occur when there is an imbalance, either real or perceived, between environmental demands and the response capability of the individual. Occupational stress (OS) thus refers to this imbalance resulting from job related demands and abilities.

Ivancevich and Matheson (1993) defined stress simply as “the interaction of the individual with the environment”. They went on to give a more detailed working definition of stress as “an adaptive response, mediated by the individual differences and/or physical processes, that is a consequence of any external (environmental) action, situation or event that places excessive psychological and/or physical demands on the person”.

Luthans (1995) defined stress in a simplified manner as “an adaptive response to an external situation that results in physical, psychological, and/or behavioural deviations for organizational participants.”

Stress can arise from many sources viz., the family, the individual, social environmental conditions and the organization.
Stressors from these sources can work independently or collectively. The ultimate effect of these stressors in excess can be harmful to an executive physically, emotionally, socially and stress can manifest itself in subjective reactions, behavioural reactions, cognitive reactions, physiological reactions and organisational reactions (sailer, Schlacter and Edwards, 1982).

Occupational Stress and Effectiveness

Polytechnic teachers manage Physical, human and financial resources available to them for achieving objectives of the institution while performing varied functions like teaching, research, administration, continuing education activities and extension etc, they experience stress due to many reasons such as role conflict, role ambiguity and higher expectations etc. These produce stress to the teachers.

Pareek (1993) found job conditions such as work overload, time pressures, poor quality of supervision, insecure political climate, inadequate authority to perform responsibilities, role conflict and ambiguity, difference between company and employee values, change of any type, especially when it is major or unusual such as temporary lay off and frustration which cause stress for employee.
Polytechnic teachers, who manages stress to desired level in their working are generally found to be quite effective in their performance. Those, who fail to manage stress in their job go through strain, emergence of burnout effects, job dissatisfaction, feeling of alienation, and lowering of personal and organisational effectiveness.

Research indicates that the relationship between stress and performance is a function of various personal and psychological factors. Baron (1986) concluded that:

(i) The performance of many tasks is in fact strongly affected by stress.
(ii) Performance usually drops off sharply when stress rises to high levels.

The effects of stress on individuals may be problems of mental or physical ill-health and a reduction in job satisfaction (Rees, 1990). According to Schaubroeck et al. (1992) and Burke et al. (1993), there are indications that levels of difficulty and nature of tasks being performed along with persona dispositions such as Type A, personal control, learned helplessness, self-efficacy and psychological hardiness along with other psychological dispositions such as negative affectivity - affect the relationship between stress and performance.
The relationship between stress and work performance and productivity now includes "work place well being" (Fox and Poole, 1995). Stress is detrimental for well being. Well being is important because work place well being enhances effectiveness. A look at the consequences of continuous stress proves that it acts as a hindrance in the effective functioning of Individuals.

Sharma (1986) summed up the various consequences of stress as - dissatisfaction with the job; poor mental health; hostility indicated by intolerance to authoritarian and incompetent behaviour; monotony and boredom; psychological fatigue; low self-esteem created by lack of timely promotion. Such behaviours at work certainly lead to lower Effectiveness. According to Chen and Spector (1992), stress had the strongest impact on aggressive actions such as sabotage, interpersonal aggression, hostility and complaints. These types of psychological problems from stress, are especially relevant to poor job performance (McGrath, 1976).

The psychological problems arising from continuous exposure to stress lead to work behaviours like resentment of supervision, inability to concentrate and make decisions besides job dissatisfaction (Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Beehr and Newman, 1980). Such outcomes of stress hinders the effectiveness of any person or organization.
Zippo (1980) presented in a study ‘The executive under stress: A profile, saying that the profile is that of an executive who is both physically and emotionally at risk from stress. Sailer et al. (1982) in their study of stress, ‘causes, consequence, and coping strategies’ found that knowing how and when to apply stress - management strategies could increase managerial effectiveness and employee - productivity, improve the quality of work life and benefit the organization as well as the individual.

While Occupational Stress can exact heavy tolls from the employees in terms of mental and physical health and much reduced quality of life, it is also expensive to employers. Clement and Gibbs (1983), reported that employers pay around 80% of all private health insurance premiums. Furthermore, worker compensation laws are increasingly awarding benefits for injuries and sickness resulting from Occupational Stress (Ivancevich et al., 1990). Greenberg (1990) stated that the consequences of Occupational Stress for executives alone are costing businesses between 10 and 19 billion dollars per year. Direct expenses include such costs as worker benefits, sick pay and health bills. Hence, Occupational Stress is a negative contributor to Effectiveness.
Dehra (1989) studied role conflict in relation to personality, marital adjustment and job satisfaction in one hundred primary government school married female teachers classified into two groups on the basis of their teaching experience. She concluded that female school teachers have a definite pattern of role conflict which is correlated with job and personality variables and therefore hint at some probable intervention through psychological support and guidance for optimising their effectiveness, adjustment and improving their quality of life.

Srivastava (1991) examined the moderating effect of approach and avoidance modes of coping on the relationship of occupational stress and job performance. Significant inverse relationship was obtained between perceived occupational stress and performance. Further analysis yielded that approach mode of coping attenuates, whereas avoidance mode of coping intensifies the inverse relationship between occupational stress and job performance.

Thus, continuous stress and effectiveness display a constant negative relationship. Continuous stress leads to health related problems which influences effectiveness.

Stress proneness of Principals of intermediate colleges in U.P. was found not significantly related to their administrative effectiveness Agarwal (1983). Sayeed (1985) has reported negative correlation
between work related tension and the overall role efficacy measure. The results of cannonical analysis suggested that individual’s role making behaviour (measured by role efficacy) was greatly affected by the degree of tension experienced on the job.

In a study of Teacher Empowerment and School Effectiveness at Primary Stage International Perspective by National Council of Education Research and Training (1997) it was reported that stress reduction significantly enhanced teacher effectiveness.

In a study of 40 managers of Public and Private sector working for manufacture of defence related equipment Mohan (2000) occupational stress of Public Sector managers was found more compared to Private Sector managers; Managerial effectiveness of Private sector was found more than Public Sector managers and Managerial Effectiveness had inverse relationship with occupational stress. It also revealed that occupational stress is largely owing to task based stress or role based stress that adds to the higher incidence and magnitude of stress in the managers working in the public sector.

The review of literature suggests that presence of occupational stress affects negatively the performance and effectiveness of managers. The same hypothesis will be tested in the present study.