CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The chapter basically has been dealt into two parts. In the first part of the chapter the researcher has covered various aspects relating to the leadership styles viz. basic concept, definitions from different angles, different approached of leadership theories and different models. On the other hand in the second part of the chapter various aspects of occupational stress have been discussed such as basic concept, definitions, different models of stress, causes and consequences of occupational stress and its effects on productivity.

A. LEADERSHIP: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is generally considered as a process of influencing the activities of a group in an effort to achieve certain organisational goals. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (1938) the term 'leader' was used in English language as early as the year 1300 but the term leadership had a late appearance.

Scientific research on leadership began in twentieth century. The focus of the research has been on the determinants of leadership effectiveness. Social scientists have made attempts to find out the traits, abilities, and behaviour of leader, their source of power, and the way they influence followers and accomplish group objectives.

Many studies on leadership in organisation have been conducted in past century. Its necessity is still felt in today organisations as the individuals
who determine the major objectives and the strategic courses of organisations and introduce major change are essential for advancement of the organisation in contemporary business environment.

Managers are individuals in positions of formal authority. They provide the intellectual consent necessary for organisations to perform effectively. Their main aim is to maximise the output of the organisation through administrative implementation. They are instrumental in organising, coordinating and facilitating followers’ performance. Therefore, leadership is one of many assets which a successful manager must possess; to direct, supervise and to provide corrective feedback and support to subordinates in their day-to-day activities.

The manager-subordinates dyadic relationship is guided by the leadership style of the manager. In other words, managerial behaviour such as monitoring, networking, coaching, mentoring, team building and motivating are important for developing subordinates’ skills, confidence and strengthening their identification with the organisation and its mission. Evidences for the importance of leadership and managerial behaviours are provided by descriptive research in part which is discussed in next chapter.

Two attributes of leader-follower relationship, that is, dependency and face-to-face interaction with each other are instrumental in management behaviours to provide the followers a psychologically satisfying work environment.

The leadership style exhibited by the manager differs widely depending on personality characteristics and behaviours of the individual. A vast
number of empirical social scientific studies have yielded a number of theories which, attempts to explain the leadership style of manager.

The relationship, a manager shares with his subordinates and the way he makes them perform, develops psychologically satisfying or dissatisfying working environment. The dissatisfying working environment often acts as a stimuli or constraining force acting on the subordinate, who in attempting to cope with these stimuli of force exerts himself and consequently feels fatigued, anxiety and distress. The researchers in the organisational psychology and management have used the term, job situation. Stress at work resulting from increasing complexities, divergent work demands, has become a prominent and pervading feature of the modern organisations. In a situation of severe stress, human composition and capabilities are taxed severely and his overall effectiveness is distorted. Job stress many times adversely affects performance of the individual, leads to absenteeism, turnover, accidents and poor physical and mental health. It ultimately results in a noticeable deterioration in overall effectiveness of the organisations. Therefore, there is need to understand the leadership style of manager, its effects on stress level of the subordinates to regulate the performance, organisation effectiveness and a psychologically satisfying working environment.

2.2 DEFINITION AND CONCEPT

Leadership has existed since the beginning of civilization when men gathered in groups to fulfill different objectives. Discussions on leadership and its effectiveness can be found in old classics and scripts. Systematic research into the field of leadership is a product of the twentieth century. Since then a lot of work has been done in this field.
Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behaviours, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, followers’ perceptions, influence over followers, influence on task, goals, and influence on organisational culture. Some representative definitions are presented here under.

Stogdill (1974) defined leadership as the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction.

According to Hemphill & Coons (1957), leadership is the behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. The goal directed definition of Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik (1964) also states that leadership is the interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals.

Leadership is defined by Berlaw (1974) in terms of shared vision. According to him leadership is the process of instilling in others shared vision creating valued opportunities, and building confidence in the realization of the shared values and opportunities. On this line, Richards & Engle (1986) also defined leadership as a process about articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished.

Katz and Kahn (1978) defined leadership as the influenced increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation.

Some of the contemporary social researchers have refined the definition of leadership highlighting the role of leader in the changing business environment in last decade.
Jacobs and Jaques (1990) defined leadership as a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose. Schein (1992) focused on the role of leadership to adopt change. His definition states that leadership is the ability to step outside the culture, to start revolutionary change processes that are more adaptive.

Astin (1993) gave a comprehensive definition of leadership. According to him, it is a process by which members of a group are empowered to work together synergistically towards a common goal or vision, that will create change and transform institutions and thus improve the quality of life. The leader is a catalytic force or facilitator who by virtue of position or opportunity empowers other to collective action toward accomplishing the goal or vision.

As it appears from the above definitions that leadership is mainly an influence process. The subject and object of influence differ in many respects, including important differences in who exerts influence, the purpose of influence attempts, and the manner in which influence is exerted.

Moreover, the definition of leadership has progressive, broadened to include contributing, social order introducing. Major changes, giving meaning, purpose to work and to the organisations, empowering followers, infusing values and ideology.

Leadership has been defined in many ways, as there are thinkers who have attempted to analyse and define the leadership concept. However, despite the diversity in definitions, there is a similarity among the various definitions made in this area. Some of the definitions and concepts of
leadership have been reviewed by a number of scholars including Morris and Seeman (1950); Shartle (1951, 1956); Carter (1953); Gibb (1954, 1969) and Bass (1960). It is apparent from such syntheses that leadership has been defined as an initiation of structure; a-locus of group processes: as an art of inducing compliance; as the exercise of influence; as an actor behaviour; as a goal achievement; as an effect of interaction; as a differentiated role, and as a personality and its effects.

In the past 50 years, there have been as many as 65 different classification systems developed to define the dimensions of leadership according to Fleishman et al. (1991). Some definitions view leadership as the focus of group processes. From this point of view, the leader is at the center of group (Bass, 1990). Another group of definitions looks at leadership from a personality perspective, which suggests that leadership is blend of special traits or characteristics that individuals possess and that helps them to induce others to accomplish tasks. Other approaches to leadership have defined it as an act or behaviour. The activities leaders perform to bring about change in a group.

In addition, leadership has been defined in terms of the ‘power relationship’ that exists between leaders and followers. From this viewpoint, leaders have power and use it to bring changes in others. Still others view leadership as an ‘instrument of goal achievement’ in helping group members to achieve their goals and meet their needs. This view includes leadership that transforms followers through vision setting, role modeling, and paying individual attention.

In a nutshell leadership has been conceptualized and many components are central to the phenomenon of leadership. They are (a) leadership is a
process; (b) leadership involves influence; (c) leadership occurs within a group context, and (d) leadership involves goal attainment. Based on these components, the following definition of leadership will be used in this study. Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

2.3 LEADERSHIP IS A FACET OF MANAGEMENT

Leadership and management both are referred as a process. Leadership involves influence, as does management. Leaders and managers require working with people. Leadership is concerned with effective goal accomplishment and so is management. In general, many of the functions of management activities are consistent with the definition of leadership.

Kotter (1990) argues that the functions of the two are quite dissimilar. The function of management is to provide order and consistency to organisations, whereas the primary function of leadership is to produce change and movement. Management is about seeking order and stability; leadership is about seeking adaptive and constructive change.

The major activities of management are different from leadership. In planning and budgeting, the emphasis of management is on establishing detailed agendas, setting timetables from several months to a few years, and allocating the necessary resources to meet organisational objectives. In contrast to this, the emphasis of leadership is on direction setting, clarifying the big picture, building a vision that is often long term, and setting strategy to create needed organisational changes.

In organising and staffing, focus of management is on formulating structure for the work of individuals, their relationships, and the physical
setting in which they work. Emphasis on ‘right man at the right job’ and developing rules and procedures for how work is to be performed. For leadership, in organising and staffing emphasis is on communicating vision to employees, getting their commitment, and working with them to build teams.

For the activities of controlling and problem solving, the focus of management is on incentives to motivate the workforce, problem solving, monitoring progress toward performance objectives, and taking corrective action when performance is derailed. In contrast, leadership emphasizes motivating and inspiring individuals, empowering them, and energizing them to satisfy their unmet needs.

There have been many scholars, in addition to Kotter, who have argued that leadership and management are distinct constructs. Bennis and Nanus (1985), for example, maintain that there is a significant difference between the two. To manage means to accomplish activities and master routines, while to lead means to influence others and create visions for change. Bennis and Nanus make the distinction very clear in their frequently quoted phrase "Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing".

In addition to these thinkers Rost (1991), Zeleznik (1977) etc are also of the opinion that both the terms are significantly different from each other. Yukl (1989) has the opinion that both leadership and management have the considerable amount of overlap. From the discussion and views given above we find that leadership is one important component of the manager’s directing function. A manager is a leader because of the formal authority he possesses; therefore he has to be effective in his
work. Hence it is a quality, to be possessed by a successful manager to maximize the output of the organisation through managerial functions.

2.4 ARE LEADERS BORN OR MADE?

Leadership can be learned is a matter of discussion that has perplexed researchers for many years. If leaders are ‘born’, your leadership success or failure has already been determined. If leaders are ‘made’, then there is hope for us all. As Jay Conger suggests that these perspectives are quite different, and their implications for the training and development of leaders are profoundly different. If leadership ability is genetically determined, training could hardly play a role in its development. But if leadership is learned through experience, training might will be used to "develop new skills and to help synthesize past experiences into useful insights.

Almost all leadership researchers are of opinion that leaders are both born and made, particularly within the broad context of leadership that we have adopted traits that may contribute to and facilitate leader effectiveness such as intelligence, physical energy, and social potential. But, experience also play a crucial role; specifically, work experience, hardship, opportunity, education, role models, and mentors all go together to craft a leader.

2.5 SKILLS FOR MANAGER –LEADER

It is not enough for a leader to have appropriate personality traits; he also needs considerable skill to be effective as a leader. Moreover, one advantage of looking at leaders in terms of behaviours instead of personality is that specific behaviour can be controlled whereas it is
difficult to control and change the personality types of an individual. Therefore, emphasis on leadership skills is due to contribution of certain skills to leadership effectiveness and they can be learned.

The five basic leadership skills that is communication, listening, being assertive, giving feedback to others, and managing stress are important for effectiveness of leaders. Further the skills of managers as leaders in workplace can be categorised into technical skills, conceptual skills, and interpersonal skills.

Technical skills include knowledge of products and services, knowledge of work operations, procedures, equipment and knowledge of markets, clients and competitors.

Conceptual skills include ability to analyse complex events and perceive trends, recognize changes and identify problems and opportunities, ability to develop creative and practical solutions to the problems and ability to conceptualise complex ideas and use models, theories and analogies.

Interpersonal skills include understanding of interpersonal and group processes, ability to understand the motives, feelings and attitudes of people from what they say and do (empathy, social sensitivity), ability to maintain cooperative relationships with people (tact, diplomacy, conflict resolution skills), and oral communication and pervasive ability.

A fourth category of administrative skill may also be added to the managers’ job. It refers to the ability to perform relevant managerial functions such as planning, delegating and supervising. It involves combination of specific technical, cognitive and interpersonal skills.
For personal success and effectiveness, technical competence is critical because in many ways it plays an important role in building effective relationships with superiors and peers, setting goals, and delegation. Another important skill of leadership is effectiveness in managing conflict, both within and between groups.

The skill requirements of manager to successfully lead its subordinates depends on situational factors such as manager’s level of authority, type of organisation and prevailing business strategy.

2.6 MOVEMENTS IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Leadership is defined as the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. In essence, leadership involves accomplishing goals with and through people. Therefore, a leader must be concerned about tasks and human relationships. Chester I. Barnard identified the same leadership concerns in his work ‘The Functions of the Executive’ in the late 1930s. These leadership concerns are the reflections of two schools of thought in organisational theory of Scientific management and Human relations.

2.6.1 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT MOVEMENT

In the early 1900s, Frederick Winslow Taylor propounded the scientific management movement through conducting Time and Motion studies. The basis for his scientific management was technological in nature. It was felt that the best way to increase output was to improve the techniques, or methods, used by workers. Consequently, he has been interpreted as considering people as instruments or machines to be manipulated by their leaders. Once jobs had been reorganised with
efficiency in mind, the economic self-interest of the workers could be satisfied through various incentive work plans (piece rates). Management was to be divorced from human affairs and emotions. The result was that the workers had to adjust to the management and not the management to the workers.

The emphasis of the leader under scientific management was to set up performance criteria to meet organisational goals. The main focus of a leader was on the needs of the organisation and not on the needs of the individual.

2.6.2 HUMAN RELATIONS MOVEMENT

Elton Mayo and his associates in the 1920s and early 1930s initiated the changes in scientific management and replaced it by the human relations movement. These theorists argued that for improving output, can be done by looking into human affairs. It was claimed that the interpersonal relations play significant role within the working unit, which influence output. The study of these human relations was the most important consideration for management. The organisation was to be developed around the workers and had to take into consideration human feelings and attitudes. The main focus, contrary to scientific management theory, was on individual needs and not on the needs of the organisation.

In essence, scientific management movement emphasized a concern for task (output); the human relations movement stressed a concern for relationships (people).

Below is the list of the contributors in leadership and motivation who have developed various models and given theories.
2.7 LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

Leadership is a topic with universal appeal. It has been point of attraction for academicians, researcher and practitioners. In spite of abundance of writing on the topic, it has continuously presented a challenge for better understanding of the nature of leadership. Approaches to leadership can basically be categorized into; Trait, Attitudinal, and Situational approach.

2.7.1 TRAIT APPROACH

Before 1945, the most common approach to the study of leadership focused on leadership traits. This approach advocates about certain characteristics, such as physical energy or friendliness, are essential for effective leadership. Personal qualities, like intelligence, were considered to be transferable from one situation to another. It implied that if we could discover how to identify and measure these leadership qualities (which are inborn in the individual), we should be able to separate leaders from non-leaders. Leadership training would then be helpful only to those with inherent leadership traits.

A good overview of study on trait approach is found in two surveys completed by Stogdill. In his first survey, Stogdill analysed and synthesized more then 120 trait studies. His study highlighted on the following leadership traits i.e., alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self confidence and sociability. The second study further added persistence and tolerance to the list and focus to the importance of leadership traits for a person to be a leader.

Mann in his study suggested that personality traits are helpful to discriminate leaders for non-leaders. His results identified leaders as
strong in the following traits: Intelligence, masculinity, adjustment, dominance, extroversion and conservatism.

Bennis (1989) conducted a five year study on ninety outstanding leaders and their followers. On the basis of this research, he identified four common traits, or areas of competence, shared by all ninety leaders. These are:

a. Management of attention: The ability to communicate a sense of outcome, goal, or direction that attracts followers.

b. Management of meaning: The ability to create and communicate meaning with clarity and understanding.

c. Management of trust: The ability to be reliable and consistent. And

d. Management of self: The ability to know one's self and to use one's skills within the limits of one's strengths and weaknesses.

Bennis suggested that leaders empower their organisations to create an environment where people feel significant and are part of the community. Bennis updated these traits with seven characteristics of effective performance:

a. Business literacy: Knowledge of business

b. People skills: Capacity to motivate, to bring out the best in people

c. Conceptual skills: Capacity to think systematically, creatively, and inventively

d. Track record: Manager done it before and done it well?

e. Taste: Ability to pick the right people - not clones, but people that can make up deficiencies.

f. Judgment: Ability to make quick decisions with imperfect data.

g. Character: The core competency of leadership is character, but character and judgment are the qualities we know least about when trying to teach them to others.

Lord et al reassessed the findings put forward by Mann. Kirkpatrick and Locke postulated that leaders are not like other people, they differ from non-leaders on six traits: drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business.

From the multitude of studies that have been conducted through the years on contribution of personal characteristics in making of a leader. It is clear that many traits contribute to leadership. Some of the important traits that have appeared in most of the studies are intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability.

2.7.1.1 NEGATIVE LEADERSHIP TRAITS

Yukl (1994) indicated that there might be negative traits in a person. In one study, John Geier (1967) found three negative traits. Those three traits were, in order of importance, the perception of being uninformed, of being non-participants, or of being extremely rigid. Members who were uninformed, uninterested, or overly rigid would hinder the group's accomplishment of its goals. Morgan McCall and Michael Lombardo (1983) examined differences between executives who went to the top and those who were expected to go to the top but were "derailed" just before reaching their goal. Both winners and losers had strengths and
weaknesses, but those who failed to reach on the top have one or more of what McCall and Lombardo called "fatal flaws." Following are the list of negative traits.

Insensitive to others: Abrasive, Intimidating, Bullying style, Cold, Aloof, Arrogant, Untrustworthy, Overly ambitious: Always thinking of next job, Playing politics, Having specific performance problems with the business, Unable to delegate or build a team, Over managing, Unable to staff effectively, Unable to think strategically, Unable to adapt to boss with different style, Over dependent on mentor. The most frequent cause for derailment was insensitivity to others, but the most serious was untrustworthiness. Betrayal of trust, not following through on promises or double-dealing was the one "unforgivable sin".

The trait approach is useful for managers in an organisation, as it allows them to analyse their strengths and weaknesses and help them to develop a clear understanding of the personality attributes to enhance their leadership.

The main advantage of traits approach is that it provides an in-depth understanding to the leader component in the leadership process. There is a great deal of research and empirical study to validate this approach. Moreover, it provides benchmark, against which individuals can evaluate their personal leadership attributes.

Other wise, the traits approach has failed to limit a definite list of traits for leadership. It has not taken situational factors into consideration. Also, the traits that have been highlighted for leadership in greater part are individuals’ personal attributes which are relatively stable and fixed and therefore, can not be changed.
Leadership is a dynamic process, varying from situation to situation with changes in the leader, the followers, and the situation. Therefore, although certain traits may help or hinder in a given situation, there is no universal set of traits to ensure leader’s success.

2.7.2 ATTITUDINAL APPROACH

Attitudinal approaches to leadership occurred between 1945, with the Ohio State and Michigan studies, in the mid-1960s with the development of the Managerial Grid. It emphasizes on the behaviour of the leader. Researchers studying the style approach determined that leadership is composed of two kinds of behaviours: task behaviour and relationship behaviours. Task behaviours facilitate goal accomplishment. They help group members to achieve their objectives. Relationship behaviours help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other and with the situation in which they find themselves. The main purpose of this approach is to explain how leaders combine these two kinds of behaviours to influence subordinates in this efforts to reach a goal. Many studies have been conducted to investigate the attitudinal approach. The Ohio State studies, the Michigan studies, including Rensis Likert’s work; and the Managerial Grid are discussed below.

2.7.2.1 OHIO STATE LEADERSHIP STUDIES

The leadership studies initiated in 1945 at The Ohio State University, attempted to identify various dimensions of leader behaviour. Ralph Stogdill (1957) defines leadership as the behaviour of an individual when directing the activities of a group toward goal attainment, restricted the description of leader behaviour to two dimensions: ‘Initiating structure’ and ‘consideration’. Initiating structure refers to “a type of
leader behaviour that describes the extent to which a leader is task oriented and directs subordinates' work activities toward goal achievement”. On the other hand, consideration refers to "a type of leader behaviour that describes the extent to which a leader is sensitive to subordinates, respects their ideas and feelings, and establishes mutual trust.” Ohio leadership studies were conducted with help of two questionnaires the first was Leaders’ Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) and Leader Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ). The major emphasis in the Ohio State Leadership studies was on observed behaviour. The leader opinion questionnaire (LOQ) was to gather data about leaders' self-perceptions of their leadership style. Followers (supervisors, or associates) completed the LBDQ: but the leaders themselves scored the LOQ. The Ohio State staff found that initiating structure and consideration were separate and distinct dimensions. A high score on one dimension does not necessitate a low score on the other. The leader behaviour was first plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum.

2.7.2.2 MICHIGAN LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Researchers at the University of Michigan conducted leadership studies, starting in 1945. The studies identified two concepts, which the researchers called employee orientation and production orientation. Leaders who were identified as employee-oriented inclined towards the relationships aspect of their job. They felt that every employee is important, accepting their individuality and personal needs. On the other hand Production-oriented leaders emphasized production and the
technical aspects of the job. Employees were seen as tools to accomplish the goals of the organisation.

2.7.2.3 GROUP DYNAMICS STUDIES

Dorwin, Cartwright and Alvin Zander (1982) summarised the findings of various studies at the University of Michigan, claimed that group objectives fall into one of two categories: The achievement of some specific group goal or the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself.

According to Cartwright and Zander, the manager initiates action, keeps members' attention on the goal, clarifies the issue and develops a procedural plan. On the other hand, typical behaviours for group maintenance are characterized by a manager who keeps interpersonal relations pleasant, arbitrates disputes, provides encouragement, gives the minority a chance to be heard, stimulates self-direction and increases the interdependence among members. Research findings in recent years indicate that leadership styles vary considerably from leader to leader. Some leaders emphasize the task and can be described as authoritarian leaders; others stress interpersonal relationships and may be viewed as democratic leaders. Still others seem to be both task-oriented and relationship-oriented. There are even some individuals in leadership positions who are not concerned about either. No dominant style appears, as various combinations are evident. They are separate and can be plotted on two separate axes.

2.7.2.4 RENSIS LIKERT'S SYSTEM 4 MANAGEMENT
Rensis Likert conducted extensive research to discover the general pattern of management used by high-producing and low producing managers. Supervisors with the best records of performance focus their primary attention on their employees’ problems and on making efforts to build effective teams with high performance goals. These supervisors were called ‘employee-centered’. Other supervisors who kept constant pressure on production were called ‘job-centered’ and were found more often to have low-producing sections. High-producing supervisors make clear to their employees what the objectives are and what needs to be accomplished and then give them freedom to do the job. Thus, he found that general rather than close supervision tended to be associated with high productivity. Likert in his studies found that the prevailing management styles of organisations can be drawn on a continuum from system 1 through system 4. These systems might be described as follows.

**System 1**

Management has no confidence or trust in employees and seldom involves them in any aspect of the decision-making process. The bulk of the decisions and the goal setting of the organisation are made at the top and issued down the chain of command. Employees are forced to work with fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards. The limited management-employee interaction that does take place is usually with fear and mistrust. Control process is concentrated in top management.

**System 2**

Management has limited confidence and trust in employees, such as a master has toward the servants. Most of the decisions and goal setting are made at the top, but many decisions are made within a prescribed
framework at lower levels. Rewards and some punishment are used to motivate workers. Although the control process is still concentrated in top management, some control is delegated to middle and lower levels.

**System 3**

Management has substantial, but not complete confidence and trust in employees. Broad policies and general decisions are kept at the top, but employees are permitted to make specific decisions at lower levels. Two way communication flows. Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement are used to motivate workers. There is a moderate amount of interaction with a fair amount of confidence and trust. Significant aspects of the control process are delegated downward, with a feeling of responsibility at both higher and lower levels.

**System 4**

Management has complete confidence and trust in employees. Decision-making is widely dispersed throughout the organisation. Communication flows not only up and down the hierarchy, but also among peers. Workers are motivated by participation and involvement in developing economic rewards, setting goals, improving methods, and appraising progress toward goals. There is extensive friendly management-employee interaction, with a high degree of confidence and trust. There is widespread responsibility for the control process, with the lower units fully involved.

In summary, system 1 is a task-oriented, highly structured authoritarian management style; system 4 is a relationship-oriented management style based on teamwork, mutual trust, and confidence. Systems 2 and 3 are
intermediate stages between two extremes, which approximate closely Theory X and Theory Y assumptions.

2.7.2.5 THE LEADERSHIP GRID

The Ohio State, Michigan, and Likert leadership studies, were focused on two broad variables: one emphasizing task accomplishment and the other personal relationships. Robert R. Blake, Anne Adams and Mc Canse (1982) modified these concepts in their Leadership Grid (formerly the Managerial Grid by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton) and have used them in organisation and management development programs.

In the Leadership Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and concern for people (relationship) are placed in four quadrants similar to those identified by the Ohio State studies. Concern for production is placed on the horizontal axis. A leader with a rating of nine on the horizontal axis has a maximum concern for production. Concern for people is illustrated on the vertical axis. A leader with a rating of nine on the vertical axis has maximum concern for people. The five leadership styles are described as follows:

1, 1 Impoverished Management: Minimum effort to get work done is appropriate to sustain organisation membership.

1, 9 Country Club Management: Attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationships helps in maintaining a comfortable, friendly organisation atmosphere.

9, 1 Authority-Obedience Management: Arranging conditions of work in such a way that interference of human is minimal.
5, 5 Organisational Man Management: Balancing the necessity to get work out while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

9, 9 Team Management: Committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organisation purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.

One significant difference between the Leadership Grid and the Ohio State frameworks is "Concern for" is a predisposition about something, or an attitudinal dimension. Therefore, the Leadership Grid tends to be an attitudinal model that measures the values and feelings of a manager, whereas the Ohio State framework attempts to include behavioural concepts (items) as well as attitudinal items. The attitudinal approach on leadership has broadened the scope of leadership research to include the study of behaviours of leaders rather than only on personality traits. It highlights the importance of two main dimensions of leadership behaviour: task and relationship.

Though it is supported by wide range of studies, but, researchers have not been able to associate the behaviours of leaders with outcomes such as morale, job satisfaction, and productivity overall, the attitudinal approach gives a clear understanding of behaviour of leader on task and relationship but fails to support a particular leadership style as the most effective leadership style.

2.7.3 SITUATIONAL APPROACH

Situational approaches to leadership are focused on the observed behaviour of leaders and their group members (followers) in various situations. This approach does not consider any hypothetical inborn or
acquired ability or potential for leadership. The approach gives the scope to consider the possibilities to be trained, to adapt their style of leader behaviour. Therefore, it is believed that people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development.

Chester Schriesheim, James Tolliver, and Orlando Behling (1978) noted that situational view is necessary to study the complexities of the leadership process. Victor Vroom (1988) concurred, that he did not see any form of leadership as optimal for all situations. The contribution of a leader's actions to the effectiveness of his organisation cannot be determined without considering the nature of the situation in which that behaviour is displayed. Peter Drucker (1954) fathers of modern management, has concluded that different people need to be led differently. There is no one right way to lead people, individually or in teams, organisations, or institutions. Earlier we identified the three main components of the leadership process as the leader, the follower, and the situation. Situational approaches to leadership examine the relationships among these variables in order to find causal relationships.

Five models have received wide attention in leadership research in the approach namely, Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum of Leader Behaviour, Fiedler's Contingency model, the House-Mitchell Path-Goal theory, Vroom-Yetten Contingency model, and the Hersey-Blanchard Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model. These are discussed under.

2.7.3.1  **TANNENBAUM-SCHMIDT LEADERSHIP CONTINUUM**

Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt's, (1973) cited in Harvard Business article "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern", was one of the
initial and certainly one of the most significant situational approaches to leadership. In this model, the leader selects one of the possible leader behaviours depending upon the forces among the leader, follower, and situation. The range of choices is between democratic, or relationship-oriented behaviours and authoritarian, or task-oriented, behaviours. Leaders influence their followers in either of two ways (1) They can tell their followers what to do and how to do it or (2) They can share their leadership responsibilities with their followers by involving them in the planning and execution of the task. The former is the traditional authoritarian style, which emphasizes task concerns. The latter is the more nondirective democratic style, which stresses the concern for human relationships. The authoritarian style of leadership based on the assumption that the power of leaders is derived from the position they occupy and that people are lazy and unreliable (Theory X). The democratic style assumes that the power of leaders is granted by the group they are to lead and that people are basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated (Theory Y). As a result, in the authoritarian style, the leader determines all policies; in the democratic style, policies are open for group discussion and decision.

There are a wide variety of styles of leader behaviour between these two extremes. Tannenbaum and Schmidt drew a continuum moving from authoritarian, or manager-centered, leader behaviour at one end to democratic or follower-centered, leader behaviour at the other end. Leaders whose behaviour is authoritarian tend to be task-oriented and use their power to influence their followers; leaders whose behaviour appears democratic tend to be group-oriented give and their followers freedom in
their work. Often this continuum is extended beyond democratic leader behaviour to include a laissez-faire style. This style of behaviour permits the members of the group to do whatever they want to do, no policies or procedures are established.

2.7.3.2 FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL

Fred Fiedler (1984) widely respected as the father of the contingency theory of leadership, developed the Leadership Contingency model. He suggested that three major situational variables determine whether a given situation is favorable to leaders:

a. Personal relations with the members of their group (leader-member relations)

b. The degree of structure in the task that their group has been assigned to perform (task structure), and

c. The power and authority that their position provides (position power).

Fiedler defined the favorableness of a situation as "the degree to which the situation enables' leader to exert influence over the group.

The most favorable situation for leaders in which they are liked by the members (good leader-member relations), have a powerful position (strong position power), and are directing a well-defined job (high task structure). On the other hand, the most unfavorable situation for leaders is one in which they are disliked, have little position power, and face an unstructured task.

In a reexamination of old leadership studies and an analysis of new studies, Fiedler concluded that Task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in-
group situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations that are intermediate in favorableness.

Fiedler has made an important contribution to leadership theory, particularly in his focus on situational variables as moderating influences. He may, in his single continuum of leader behaviour, suggesting that there are only two basic leader behaviour styles, task-oriented and relationship-oriented. Most of the evidences indicate that leader behaviour must be plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Thus, a leader who is high on task behaviour is not necessarily high or low on relationship behaviour. Any combination of the two dimensions may occur.

2.7.3.2 PATH-GOAL THEORY

Path-goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals. Path-goal theory first appeared in the leadership literature in the early 1970s in the works of Evans (1970), House (1971), House and Dessler (1974), and House and Mitchell (1974). The stated goal of this leadership theory is to enhance employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation.

Path-goal theory emphasizes the relationship between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. The underlying assumption of path-goal theory is derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a certain outcome, and if they believe that the payoffs for
doing their work are worthwhile. For the leader, the challenge is to use a leadership style that best meets subordinates' motivational needs. This is done by choosing behaviours that complement or supplement what is missing in the work setting. Leadership also motivates when it makes the path to the goal clear and easy to travel through coaching and direction, when it removes obstacles and roadblocks to attaining the goal, and when it makes the work itself more personally satisfying.

In brief, path-goal theory is designed to explain how leaders can help subordinates along the path to their goals by selecting specific behaviours that are best suited to subordinates' needs and to the situation in which subordinates are working. By choosing the appropriate style, leaders increase subordinates' expectations for success and satisfaction.

The different components of path-goal theory include leader behaviours, subordinate characteristics, task characteristics, and motivation. Path-goal theory suggests that each type of leader behaviour has a different kind of impact on subordinates' motivation. Whether or not particular leader behaviour is motivating to subordinates is contingent on the subordinates' characteristics and the characteristics of the task.

**Leadership Behaviours**

Although many different leadership behaviours could have been selected to be a part of path-goal theory, this approach has so far examined directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours. Path-goal theory is explicitly left open to the inclusion of other variables.
a. **Directive Leadership**

Directive leadership characterizes a leader who gives subordinates instructions about their task, including what is expected of them, how it is to be done, and the time line for when it should be completed. A directive leader sets clear standards of performance and makes the rules and regulations clear to subordinates.

b. **Supportive Leadership**

Supportive leadership refers to being friendly and approachable as a leader and includes attending to the well-being and human needs of subordinates. Leaders using supportive behaviours go out of their way to make work pleasant for subordinates. In addition, supportive leaders treat subordinates as equals and give them respect for their status.

c. **Participative Leadership**

Participative leadership refers to leaders who invite subordinates to share in the decision making. A participative leader consults with subordinates, obtains their ideas and opinions, and integrates their suggestions into the decisions regarding how the group or organisation will proceed.

d. **Achievement-Oriented Leadership**

Achievement-oriented leadership is characterized by a leader who challenges subordinates to perform work at the highest level possible. This leader establishes a high standard of excellence for subordinates and seeks continuous improvement. In addition to expecting a lot from subordinates, achievement-oriented leaders
show a high degree of confidence that subordinates are capable of establishing and accomplishing challenging goals.

House and Mitchell (1974) suggest that leaders may exhibit any or all of these four styles with various subordinates and in different situations. In addition to leader behaviours, two other major components of path-goal theory are subordinate characteristics and task characteristics. Each of these two sets of characteristics influences the way leaders' behaviour affects subordinate motivation. In other words, the impact of leadership is contingent on the characteristics of both subordinates and their task.

a. **SUBORDINATE CHARACTERISTICS**

Subordinate characteristics determine how a leader's behaviour will be interpreted by subordinates in a given work context. Subordinates' needs for affiliation, preferences for structure, desires for control, and self-perceived level of task ability determine the degree to which subordinates find the behaviour of a leader an immediate source of satisfaction or instrumental to some future satisfaction. Path-goal theory predicts that subordinates who have strong needs for affiliation prefer supportive leadership because friendly and concerned leadership is a source of satisfaction. For subordinates who are dogmatic and authoritarian and have to work in uncertain situations, path-goal theory suggests directive leadership because that provides psychological structure and task clarity. Directive leadership helps these subordinates by clarifying the path to the goal and making it less ambiguous. The authoritarian type of individual feels more comfortable when the leader provides a greater sense of certainty in the work setting.
Subordinates' desires for control have received special attention in path-goal research through studies of a personality construct, locus of control that can be subdivided into internal and external dimensions. Subordinates with internal locus of control believe that they are in charge of the things that occur in their life, while individuals with external locus of control believe that chance, fate, or outside forces are the determinants of life events. Path-goal theory suggests that for subordinates with internal locus of control, participative leadership is most satisfying because it allows subordinates to feel in charge of their work and to be an integral part of the decision-making process. For subordinates with external locus of control, the path-goal theory suggests that directive leadership is best because it parallels subordinates' feelings that outside forces control their circumstances. Another way that leadership affects subordinates' motivation is the subordinates' perception of their own ability to perform a specific task. As subordinates' perception of their own abilities and competence goes up, the need for directive leadership goes down. In effect, directive leadership becomes redundant and perhaps excessively controlling in situations where subordinates feel competent to complete their own work.

b. TASK CHARACTERISTICS

In addition to subordinate characteristics, task characteristics also have a major impact on the way a leader's behaviour influences the motivation of subordinates. Task characteristics include the design of the subordinate's task, the formal authority system of the
organisation, and the primary work group of subordinates. Collectively, these characteristics in and of themselves can provide motivation for subordinates. When a situation provides a clearly structured task, strong group norms, and an established authority system, then subordinates will find the paths to desired goals apparent and will not have a need for a leader to clarify goals or to coach subordinates in how to reach these goals. Subordinates will feel as if they can accomplish their work and that their work is of value. Leadership in these types of contexts could be seen as unnecessary, un-empathetic, and excessively controlling.

In some situations, however, the task characteristics may call for leadership involvement. Tasks that are unclear and ambiguous call for leadership input that provides structure. Also, tasks that are highly repetitive require leadership that gives support in order to maintain subordinates' motivation. In work settings where the formal authority system is weak, leadership becomes a tool that helps subordinates by making the rules and work requirements clear. In contexts where the group norms are weak or non-supportive, leadership assists in building cohesiveness and role responsibility. A special focus of path-goal theory is on helping subordinates to overcome obstacles. Obstacles could be just about anything in the work setting that gets in the way of subordinates. Specifically, obstacles create excessive uncertainties, frustrations, or threats for subordinates. In these settings, path-goal theory suggests that it is the leader's responsibility to help subordinates by removing these obstacles or helping them around. Assisting
subordinates around these obstacles will increase subordinates' expectations to complete the task and increase their sense of job satisfaction.

Recently, House (1996) published a reformulated path-goal theory that extends his original work to include eight classes of leadership behaviours. Besides the four leadership behaviours discussed previously in this chapter, (a) directive, (b) supportive, (c) participative, and (d) achievement-oriented behaviour, the new theory adds (e) work facilitation, (f) group-oriented decision process, (g) work-group representation and networking, and (h) value-based leader behaviour. The essence of the new theory is the same as the original: To be effective, leaders need to help subordinates by giving them "what is missing" in their environment and by helping them compensate for deficiencies in their abilities.

Hence, the path-goal approach suggests that leaders need to choose a leadership style that best fits the needs of subordinates and the work they are doing. The theory predicts that a directive style of leadership is best in situations in which subordinates are dogmatic and authoritarian, the task demands are ambiguous, and the organisational rules and procedures are unclear. In these situations, directive leadership complements the work by providing guidance and psychological structure for subordinates.

For work that is structured, unsatisfying, or frustrating, path-goal theory suggests that leaders should use a supportive style. The supportive style provides what is missing by giving nurturance to subordinates when they are engaged in tasks that are repetitive and unchallenging. Supportive
leadership offers a sense of "human touch" for subordinates engaged in mundane mechanized activity.

Participative leadership is considered best when a task is ambiguous because participation gives greater clarity to how certain paths lead to certain goals. It helps subordinates to learn what leads to what (House & Mitchell, 1974). In addition, participative leadership has a positive impact when subordinates are autonomous and have a strong need for control, because this kind of subordinate responds favorably to being involved in decision making and in the structuring of work.

Furthermore, path-goal theory predicts that achievement-oriented leadership is most effective in settings in which subordinates are required to perform ambiguous tasks. In settings such as, leaders who challenge and set high standards for subordinates raise subordinates' confidence that they have the ability to reach their goals. In effect, achievement-oriented leadership helps subordinates feel that their efforts will result in effective performance. in settings where the task is more structured and less ambiguous.

However, achievement-oriented leadership appears to be unrelated to subordinates' expectations about their work efforts.

An effective leader has to attend to the needs of subordinates. The leader should help subordinates to define their goals and the paths they wish to take in reaching those goals. When obstacles arise, the leader needs to help subordinates confront them. This may mean helping the subordinate around the obstacle or it may mean removing the obstacle. The leader's job is to help subordinates reach their goals by directing, guiding, and coaching them along the way.
Path-goal theory has several positive features. First, path-goal theory provides a useful theoretical framework for understanding how various leadership behaviours affect the satisfaction of subordinates and their work performance. It was one of the first theories to specify four conceptually distinct varieties of leadership (e.g., directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented), expanding the focus of prior research, which dealt exclusively with task- and relationship-oriented behaviours. The path-goal approach was also one of the first situational/contingency theories of leadership to explain how task and subordinate characteristics affect the impact of leadership on subordinate performance. The framework provided in path-goal theory informs leaders about how to choose an appropriate leadership style based on the various demands of the task and the type of subordinates being asked to do the task. A second positive feature of path-goal theory is that it attempts to integrate the motivation principles of expectancy theory into a theory of leadership.

Although path-goal theory has various strengths, it also has several identifiable weaknesses. First, path-goal theory is so complex and incorporates so many different aspects of leadership that interpreting the meaning of the theory can be confusing. A second limitation of path-goal theory is that it has received only partial support from the many empirical research studies that have been conducted to test its validity. Another criticism of path-goal theory is that it fails to explain adequately the relationship between leadership behaviour and worker motivation. The principles of expectancy theory suggest that subordinates will be motivated if they feel competent and trust that their efforts will get
results, but path-goal theory does not describe how a leader could employ various styles directly to assist subordinates to feel competent or assured of success. A final criticism that can be made of path-goal theory concerns a practical outcome of the theory. Path-goal theory suggests that it is important for leaders to provide coaching, guidance, and direction for subordinates; to help subordinates to define and clarify goals; and to help subordinates around obstacles as they attempt to reach their goals. In effect, this approach treats leadership as a one-way event; the leader affects the subordinate. The potential difficulty in this type of "helping" leadership is that subordinates may easily become dependent on the leader to accomplish their work. Path-goal theory places a great deal of responsibility on leaders and much less on subordinates. Overtime, this kind of leadership could be counterproductive because it promotes dependency and fails to recognize the full abilities of subordinates.

Path-goal theory provides a set of general recommendations based on the characteristics of subordinates and tasks for how leaders should act in various situations if they want to be effective. It informs us about when to be directive, supportive, participative, or achievement oriented. For instance, the theory suggests that leaders should be directive when tasks are complex, and when tasks are dull the leader should give support. Similarly, it suggests that leaders be participative when subordinates need control, and leaders should be achievement oriented when subordinates have needs to excel. In a general way, path-goal theory offers leaders a road map that gives directions about ways to improve subordinate satisfaction and performance.
The principles of path-goal theory can be employed by leaders at all levels within the organisation as well as for all types of tasks. To apply path-goal theory, a leader must carefully assess his or her subordinates and their tasks and then choose an appropriate leadership style to match those characteristics. If subordinates are feeling insecure about doing a task, the leader needs to adopt a style that builds subordinate confidence. If subordinates are uncertain if their efforts will result in reaching their goals, the leader needs to prove to them that their efforts will be rewarded.

### 2.7.3.3 VROOM-YETTEN CONTINGENCY MODEL

The Contingency model developed by Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetten (1973) is based on a model contingency approach to leadership. This model is based on the assumption that situational variables interacting with personal characteristics of the leader, result in leader behaviour that can affect organisational effectiveness.

Situational variables such as followers, time, and job demands, interacting with persons’ attributes of the leader, such as experience or communication skills, result in leader behaviour as a directive style of leadership, to influence organisational effectiveness which is also influenced by other situational variables, outside the control of the leader e.g. world economic conditions, actions of competitors, government legislation. This model is a contingency model because the leader's possible behaviours are contingent upon the interaction between the questions and the leader's assessment of the situation in developing a response to the questions.
The Vroom-Yetten approach is important for several reasons. One is that it is widely respected among researchers in leadership behaviour. Another reason is that the authors believe that leaders have the ability to vary their styles to fit the situation. This point is critical to acceptance of situational approaches to leadership. A third reason is that the authors believe that people can work to be developed into more effective leaders.

2.7.3.4 HERSEY-BLANCHARD TRIDIMENSIONAL MODEL

In this model given by Hersey and Blanchard (1985) the terms task behaviour and relationship behaviour are used to describe concepts similar to initiating structure and consideration of the Ohio State studies. The four basic leader behaviour quadrants are labeled high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task. The leadership style of an individual is the behaviour pattern, as perceived by others, that a person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others. This may be very different from a person's own perception, which we shall define as ‘self-perception’ rather than style. A person's leadership style involves some combination of task behaviour and relationship behaviour. The two types of behaviour, which are central to the concept of leadership style, are:

a. Task behaviour

Leaders organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers) and to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished.
b. Relationship behaviour

Leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, active listening, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviours.

The effectiveness of leaders depends on how appropriate their leadership style is to the situation in which they operate. Therefore, an effectiveness dimension should be added to the two-dimensional model.

In his "3-D Management Style Theory," William J. Reddin (1970) was first to add an effectiveness dimension to the task concern and relationship concern dimensions of earlier attitudinal models such as the Leadership Grid. Reddin, whose pioneering work influenced us greatly in the development of the Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model, felt that a useful theoretical model "must allow that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation.

By adding an effectiveness dimension to the task behaviour and relationship behaviour dimensions of the earlier Ohio State Leadership model, we are attempting in the Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model to integrate the concepts of leader’s style with situational demands of a specific environment. When the style of a leader is appropriate to a given situation, it is termed effective; when the style is inappropriate to a given situation, it is termed ineffective. It is the interaction of the basic style with the environment that results in a degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. This is the third dimension ‘effectiveness’ because in most organisational settings various performance criteria are used to
measure the degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a manager or leader. But it is important to keep in mind that the third dimension is the environment in which the leader is operating.

Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model is distinctive because it does not depict a single ideal leader behaviour style that is suggested as being appropriate in all situations. Situational Approach represents a shift in leadership research from leader to the leader in conjunction with the situation in which works. In spite of the criticisms attached to situational theories like complex in application and questions raised on its validity and workability, it has made substantial contribution to the understanding of the leadership process.

2.8 RECENT APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

Recent work has identified some traits such as high achievement motivation, emotional maturity, integrity, tenacity, task relevant knowledge, adaptability/flexibility, high energy, stress tolerance, need for power for the benefit of the organisation, self confidence, intelligence and the like, as reinforcing the strength of a leader in the performance of the job.

2.8.1 CHARISMATIC AND SYMBOLIC LEADERSHIP

There is renewed interest in the study of charismatic leadership. By virtue of their personal capabilities, charismatic leaders are seen to have a very powerful influence on their followers. Such leaders develop a new rejuvenated culture for the organisation, formulating new values, beliefs and expectations, by resorting to rituals, stories, symbols and myths.
These leaders provide a new vision and lead the organisation to new heights as Deal and Kennedy (1982) Peters and Waterman (1982).

Conger and Kanungo (1998) offer a three-stage model of charismatic leadership — critical examination of the present state of affairs, formulation of future goals and evolving a method for achieving them. They state that when leaders are seen to have vision, environmental sensitivity and as proactive, followers attribute charismatic qualities of leadership to them and work purposefully to make their vision a reality.

The characteristics of charismatic leaders and distinguishing them from those who are not, are identified as self confidence, vision, strong conviction in the vision, unconventional behaviour that runs counter to the norm to make the vision a live reality and their actions as agents of change.

2.8.2 TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Bass (1985) makes a distinction between transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leaders take an exchange perspective of their relationship with subordinates, exchanging rewards for the efforts put in by the employees. Bass argues that if leaders are to obtain excellent performance much beyond the normal limits, they should practice transformational and not transactional leadership.

Transformational leadership is exercised when the leader intellectually stimulates the subordinates, excites, arouses and inspires them to perform far beyond their own wildest expectations. In effect, the transformational leader broadens the horizon of interests of the followers. By presenting the picture of a new vision, she or he transforms the followers into people
who self-actualise. Bass opines that transformational leadership is strongly present at the top management level, and a combination of transactional and transformational leadership can be found at other levels throughout the system in some organisations.

Charismatic leadership is central to transformational leadership. Charisma inspires the followers with a sense of purpose, goals and mission. By paying individualised attention to the members, their self-worth is enhanced, and they become intellectually stimulated, engaging in problem solving activities with zest.

Transformational leadership is assessed through use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which measures, a leader’s behaviour in seven areas, individualized consideration (cherishing) inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealized influence, contingent reward, management by exception and laissez-faire behaviour. High scores on individualized consideration and motivation factors are most indicative of strong transformational leadership.

This approach has received a lot of attention by researchers. It emphasizes the importance of followers in the leadership process and gives importance to morals and values. There are some weakness attached to transformational leadership, mainly that the approach lacks conceptual; clarity and is interpreted as too simple. Moreover, it is supported by data which focus heavily on senior-level managers. In spite of weakness, it appears to be a valuable and widely used approach.
2.9 AN OVERVIEW:

An organisation is formed to accomplish certain tasks, which are of common interest to all its members. The members must remain coordinated and integrated so that the task is accomplished. The different approaches on leadership do focus on variety of dimensions related to leader, follower, task and situation. In organisations, there are varieties of tasks, which may be repetitive in nature, unclear or challenging. Also the characteristics of subordinates vary depending on their need for affiliations, preferences for structure, desires for control and self-perceived level of task ability. Hence the leader can help subordinates by selecting a style of leadership that provides them satisfaction or instrumental to some future satisfaction and motivate them to reach their goals by directing, guiding and coaching them along the way. Therefore the leadership approach followed by managers in an organisation should be such that affect the productivity and satisfaction of the subordinates by increasing their efficiency and effectiveness at work as well as by reducing turnover, absenteeism, wastage, etc. therefore we need to look at leadership approach as an important instrument in managing subordinates in an organisation.
B. STRESS: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.10 INTRODUCTION

An organisation, like other settings, exerts its own set of unique forces on the individual. Through these forces, the organisation is able to channel the individual’s behaviour toward certain goals and directs interpersonal relations with others. The environment of an individual at workplace, the job demands, and various other factors together lead to a complex pattern of emotional states, physiological reactions and related thoughts in response to the external demands referred as stressors.

It is an accepted fact that stress can influence physical and psychological health of an individual and hence affects the performance of employee in the organisation. Therefore an in depth understanding of stress is vital to manage performance level of people at workplace. Especially, the changes taking place in organisation structure and working to compete in the business, requires high level of performance from its people. Thus the notion that stress influences physical and psychological health has lead to various findings in the outcomes of stress and its relation with other factors in the job life of an individual. A key point to keep in mind with respect to stress is that whether, and to what extent it occurs in a given situation, depends heavily on peoples’ interpretation of what is happening to them – their ‘cognitive appraisal’ of the stressors they confront with.

2.11 CONCEPT OF STRESS

The term stress has been in the English language for a long time. Stress and anxiety have become pervading features of human life in modern
world. The term has been derived from the Latin word ‘Stringere’, which means to draw light. It refers to hardship, strain, adversity or affliction.

During the 18\textsuperscript{th} and 19\textsuperscript{th} centuries, the major uses of the term identified it as a force or pressure exerted upon a material object or person. Various terms have been synonymously used with stress, viz. anxiety, frustration, conflict, pressure and strain, etc. Stress referred to the interval resisting force, presumably equal and measured in the same way. Strain or distortion was the resulting change in the object under study, the ratio of the change in size or shape to its original size or shape.

The physiologist Walter Connon (1914) used the term Stress to describe emotional state that has possible detrimental physical impact on the focal organism. Later, in 1935 Cannon modified the use of the term stress to describe physical stimuli and used the term strain for organism’s response to the stressor. Hans Selye (1936) introduced the term stress in life science. He wrote that stress is the non-specific result of any demand upon the body, be the effect mental or somatic.

The concept of stress faces various definitional contradictions because of the fact that different referents and meanings have been used to describe it by various investigators. The concise oxford Dictionary defines stress mainly in three different ways that is stress as a constraining or impelling force as an effect or demand and as a force exerted on the body.

Wingate (1972) in Penguin Medical Encyclopedia described stress as any influence which disturbs the natural equilibrium of the body, and includes within its reference, physical injury, exposure, deprivation, all kinds of disease and emotional disturbance
Approaches to define stress may be medical, psychological and sociological Farmer, Monahan and Hekeler (1984) have defined stress as any event in which environmental demands, internal demands or both, tax or exceed the adaptive resources of the individual, social system or tissue system.

For a meaningful interpretation of stress it is important to know the context in which it is being discussed as it is evident from the variety of definition available to define stress. Therefore, stress is a state caused as a response to internal and external events or disturbances.

2.12 STIMULI AS STRESSORS.

Stressors are those external conditions or events that evoke responses indicative of stress adverse physiological changes psychological tensions, physical changes etc. Basowitz, Persky, Korchin, and Grinker (1955) concluded in their study on stress and anxieties any stimulus may in principle arouse a stress response in a particular individual. Though it is a fact that any stimuli may evoke stress symptoms in someone and not in some others. However, we are interested in those stimuli which produce such response in most individuals. Beehr (1984); Beehr & Bhagat (1985) Selye (1975) has described stimulus leading to stress as new, intense rapidly changing demanding, sudden, or unexpected change. Lazarus (1966) considered such events as failure or the threat of failure, noxious or unpleasant agents in the environment isolation and rapid social changes as stress stimuli.

The stimulus situations often lead to stress. Weitz (1970) enlisted eight type of stressful situation, namely speeded information processing, noxious environmental stimuli, perceived threat, disrupted psychological
function, isolation, confinement, blocking, group pressures, and frustration. Frank Enhaeuser (1988) has denoted ‘lack of control’ over events as stressful situation. Thus, all undesirable and excessively demanding stimuli or situations have been considered as stress. People react to the stressful situations depending on their own interpretation meanings of these situation or events. Hence, stress is a subjective experience where the physical and psychological situation or events become stressors based on the cognition and interpretation by the individual concerned.

2.13 RESPONSE TO STRESS

The way in which the individual handles and perceives stressors the defenses it mobilizes and the alarm reactions ignited constitutes the true nature of the stress. From response perspective, stress an imbalance between the requirements to make an adaptive response and the repertoire of the focal person. The greater the perceived discrepancy between demand and response capacity and the higher the appraise cost of making such reactions, the more stress there will be in impinging on the individual. To regard every organisational demand on the person as a stressor, the undesirable demand will make the individual unsatisfied. In his work, Selye (1982) emphasized on the distinction between good stress and bad stress, which he called in eustress and distress.

Levi (1972) suggested that stimulus deprivation and excess are equally and symmetrically stressful. Lazarus (1974) concluded in his study that the nature and severity of the stress disorder depends on at least three factors: (a) the formal characteristics of the environmental demands (b) the quality of the emotional response generated by the demands, or in
particular individuals facing these demands, and (c) the process of coping mobilized by the stressful combination.

In organisations stressors such as organisational environment, technology, structure, or policy leads to creating stressors at the level of specific jobs.

2.14 CAUSES OF STRESS

Causes of stress can be divided into two categories

1. Causes relating to organisations or jobs or work related stress/occupational stress and

2. Causes relating to other aspects of individuals' lives.

2.14.1 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

Stress at workplace is inevitable. Increasing complexities of work is a great source of stress for the managers. Job stress denotes employees’ mental state aroused by a job situations perceived as excessive and divergent demands.

Caplan Cobb, and French (1975) have defined occupational stress as any characteristics of job environment which poses a threat to the individual. Occupational stress has been expressed by copper and Marshall (1976) negative environmental factors or stressors associated with a particular job.

The stressfulness of a job situation or a factor is determined not only by the divergent or threatening demands of the situation but also by the individual perceives and evaluates it with reference to own capability and characteristics. Margolis, Kores and Quinn (1974) defined job stress as a
condition at work interacting with workers characteristics to disrupt his psychological or physiological homeostasis. Similarly, Beehr and Newman (1978) described job stress as a condition wherein job related factors interact with the worker to change his psychological conditions such that the person is forced to deviate from normal functioning.

Many researchers such as Parasuraman and Alluto (1981); Allen, Hitt and green (1982); Beehr & Bhagat (1985); Schuler (1980) in their definition of organisational stress have reported that it is a psychological or physiological homeostasis that force one to deviate from normal functioning because of job demands, constraints and job related situations or opportunities that have uncertain outcomes.

To better explain the concept of stress French, Rodgers and Cobb (1974) highlighted on person environment fit perspective of occupational stress. According to them peer fit or unfit between employees their work and its environment results in stress and psychological and health strains. In this theory, fit is bilateral between employee and his job. Both should satisfy each others demands and expectations. The supplies from superiors and colleagues, opportunities are important to satisfy needs for affiliation, power and achievement notices of the employee. Fit also involves the relationship between the requirements and demands of the job and the abilities of the employee to meet those demands. If supplies for the threatened by discrepancies between demands and abilities, the individual experience stress. Harrison (1976), Ross and Altmair (1994) have also accepted and defined occupational stress in terms of Person environment fit framework.
Beehr and Newman (1978) have outlined three categories of symptoms: psychological, physical and behavioural symptoms.

Psychological symptoms of occupational stress include job dissatisfaction, dislike for the job, depression, anxiety, boredom, frustration, isolation and resentment.

Physical symptoms of occupational stress are cardiovascular diseases, gastrointestinal problem, allergies and skin diseases, headaches and respiratory diseases. Behavioural symptoms are avoidance of work, increased intake of alcohol or drugs, overeating or under eating, aggression toward coworkers or family members and interpersonal problems in general. The organisational related symptoms of job stress include absenteeism, leaving the job, accident proneness and decrease in work efficiency. The stress at workplace in an individual reduces performance, job satisfaction, morale and cause absenteeism and turnover in an organisation.

Work settings vary on the basis of stressful environments. Some jobs/organisations where individuals are exposed to high level of stress while others involve at much lower level of stress. Following factors determines the level of stress among them is as under:

2.14.1.1 OCCUPATIONAL DEMANDS

Some jobs, such as physician on emergency duty, firefighter, and airline pilot, expose the people who hold them to high levels of stress. Others, such as college professor or librarian, do not. This fact has been confirmed by the results of a survey involving more than 130 different occupations. The results indicated that several jobs e.g. physician, office
manager, foreman, and waiters, remain high in stress. On the other hand maidservants, craft worker, farm labourers, are much lower. Several factors made a Job stressful are: Decisions Making, Constant Monitoring Devices/Materials, Repeated exchange of information with others, unpleasant physical conditions, and performing unstructured tasks.

2.14.1.2 ROLE CONFLICTS

Incompatibility between the expectations of parties or a single role is known as role conflict. Thus there are two or more sets of pressures on the individuals and it is not possible to satisfy all of them. In other words role conflict is occurred when contradictory demands are simultaneously upon an employee. But such effects can be lessened by high levels of social support in work settings and can also be lessened by certain employment policies, for instance, flexible work scheduling and supportive supervisors.

2.14.1.3 ROLE AMBIGUITY

Role is a set of activities associated with a certain position in the organisation/society. If these work activities are ill defined, resulting into stress due to role ambiguity. Most people dislike uncertainty and find it quite stressful, but it is difficult to avoid. In fact, role ambiguity is quite common: 35 to 60 percent of employee surveyed report experiencing it to some degree. The amount of role ambiguity experienced by employees differs from culture to culture. In a study involving participants from 21 different countries, Peterson (1995) and his colleagues found that in countries where large differences in status or power between managers and subordinates are the norms (high power distance countries) role ambiguity is relatively low. Similarly,
such ambiguity was also found to be relatively low in countries where people prefer to act as members of groups rather than as individuals (low individualism). These are considered to be basic dimensions along which many cultures vary.

2.14.1.4 ROLE OVERLOAD AND ROLE UNDERLOAD

a. OVERLOAD

Overload can be further subdivided into two parts namely; ‘Quantitative overload’ and ‘Qualitative overload’. Quantitative overload occurs where individuals are asked to do more work than they can complete in a specific period of time. In contrast, Qualitative overload refers to employees' beliefs that they lack the required skills or abilities to perform a given job. Both types of overload are unpleasant and can lead to high levels of stress.

b. UNDERLOAD

Underload can also be further divided into two parts: ‘Quantitative underload’ and ‘Qualitative underload’. Quantitative underload refers to the boredom which results from having too little to do, and qualitative underload, which refers to the lack of mental stimulation that accompanies many routine, repetitive jobs.

2.14.1.5 RESPONSIBILITY FOR OTHERS

People who are responsible for others: who must motivate them, reward or punish them, communicate with them, experience higher levels of stress than those who handle other organisational functions. Such people are more likely to report feelings of tension and anxiety, and are actually
more likely to show overt symptoms of stress such as ulcers or hypertension. Such persons confront the human costs of organisational policies and decisions. For example, they must deliver negative feedback and then witness the distress it generates. And it is also their responsibility to listen endless complaints, mediating disputes, promoting cooperation, and exercising leadership. All these tasks are demanding and can contribute to the total burden of stress experienced by managers.

2.14.1.6 LACK OF SOCIAL SUPPORT

When confronted with stressful situations, one can feel better when a network of friends has and associates to whom can turn for support and counsel. Managers who believe they have the friendship and support of their immediate supervisors and co-workers experienced low level of stress when exposed to high levels of stress situations. In one recent study, Doby and Caplan (1972) found that employee were particularly likely to experience adverse effects from exposure to stressors that threatened their relationships or reputation with their supervisor.

2.14.1.7 SEXUAL HARASSMENT

It can involve any actions of a sexual nature that create a hostile work environment for employees actions such as posting offensive pinups, staring at portions of co-workers' anatomy, or making repeated remarks about their appearance. They are certainly an important source of stress for many individuals.
2.14.1.8 UNPLEASANT PHYSICAL WORKING CONDITIONS

Excessive variations in temperature, inadequate or glaring lighting, dusty or polluted air, and noise as major causes of stress at work. With respect to noise, the sound of human voices, in particular, appears to be stressful and distracting, and interferes greatly with effective performance on many tasks.

2.14.2 STRESS OUTSIDE WORK

Although work is clearly one of the most important activities in many people's lives, it is not the only activity. For this reason, events occurring outside work settings often generate stress that persists and is carried back to work. While many different factors contribute to stress in this manner, most fit under two broad categories: Major stressful life events and Daily hassles.

2.14.2.1 STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS

Family, religion, race, education, economic situation and interaction with socio-cultural world has significant role to play in ones life. With the growth of a person responsibilities also increases. Holmes and Rahe (1967) have developed social readjustment scale for the assessment of degree of stress due to unpleasant life events.

2.14.2.2 HASSLES OF DAILY LIFE

Day to day life has filled with countless minor irritations that seem to make up for their low intensity by their high frequency of occurrence. Such daily hassles, are an important cause of stress. Lazarus (1974) and his colleagues found that daily hassles people experience, occur in several areas of life: household hassles (e.g.,
preparing meals, shopping), time pressure hassles (e.g., too many things to do), financial hassles (e.g., concerns about owing money).

2.15 STRESS: ITS MAJOR EFFECTS

Stress is an unavoidable part of working life and life generally. Growing evidence indicates that it can strongly affect our psychological well-being and our performance on many tasks. Let's take a closer look at these effects.

2.15.1 STRESS AND TASK PERFORMANCE

In the past, it was generally assumed that the relationship between stress and performance on many tasks is curvilinear in nature. Low levels of stress were assumed to increase performance, while beyond some point, further increments in stress tended to reduce performance. Individuals can give exceptional performance at times of high stress. This may result from the fact that they are truly expert in the tasks being performed. Alternatively, the individuals involved may view stress as a challenge rather than as a threat. As cognitive appraisal plays a key role in determining the level of stress. Individuals with Type A personality actively seek arousal and high levels of sensation or stimulation. For such people, stress may improve performance. In contrast, other people possessing type B personality react in an opposite manner. They avoid arousal and high levels of sensation. Such persons find stress upsetting, and it may interfere with their performance on many tasks.

In nutshell, stress can produce both positive and negative results. Stress interferes with task performance. However, effects depend on the
nature of the tasks being performed, the expertise of the persons performing them, and several personality traits.

2.15.2 STRESS AND BURNOUT

Most jobs involve some degree of stress. Yet, somehow the people holding them manage to cope. But some individuals have not the chance to cope due to excessive job conditions such as; over time; they seem to be worn down psychologically by repeated exposure to stress. Such people are often described as suffering from burnout. This is basically a syndrome involving several kinds of exhaustion coupled with several kind of negative attitudes. Exhaustion can be classified into three categories, namely; Physical Exhaustion, Emotional Exhaustion and Attitudinal Exhaustion. Physical exhaustion is just what you might expect: reduced energy with symptoms like frequent headaches, nausea, poor sleep, and loss of appetite, Emotional exhaustion involves feelings of depression, helplessness. Finally, Attitudinal exhaustion often known as depersonalization; involves cynical beliefs about others such as all are incompetent and callous with negative beliefs about oneself, one's job, one's organisation, or even one's entire life. Finally, victims of burnout often report feelings of low personal accomplishment; they feel that they haven't accomplished much in the past and won't succeed in the future.

2.15.2.1 BURNOUT: SOME MAJOR CAUSES

The primary factor seems to be prolonged exposure to stress. However, other variables also play a role. Job Conditions within an organisation and several personal characteristics determine degree of burnout. For example, job conditions suggesting that one's efforts are
useless, ineffective, unappreciated contribute to burnout. Individuals develop the feelings of low personal accomplishment which is an important reason of burnout. Similarly, poor promotion opportunities and inflexible rules and procedures help to feel that they are trapped in an unfair system, contributing to the development of negative views about their jobs. Another important factor is the ‘leadership style’ used by employees' supervisors. The lower the amount of consideration demonstrated by their supervisors (i.e., the less they are concerned with employees' welfare or with maintaining good relations with them), the higher employees' reported levels of burnout.

2.15.2.2 BURNOUT: CAN IT BE REVERSED?

With appropriate help, burnout victims can recover from physical and psychological exhaustion. If ongoing stress is reduced, victims gain added support from friends and co-workers, and cultivate hobbies and other outside interests; at least some people can escape form burnout. Such results can be attained, only through active efforts designed to overcome burnout and to change the conditions that produced it.

2.16 STRESS AND HEALTH

According to medical experts’ estimate that stress plays a role in anywhere from 50 to 70 percent of all forms of physical illness. Moreover, some of the most serious and life-threatening diseases known to medical science: Coronary Heart Disease (CHD), Stroke, Ulcers, Headaches, Diabetes, Cancer and other psychological disorders etc. In addition to its role in such degenerative diseases, growing evidence indicates that stress may also play a key role in infectious diseases that are caused by infectious agents such as bacteria or viruses. Many studies in-
dicate that exposure to high levels of stress increase susceptibility to diseases such as upper respiratory infections, herpes virus infections, and various bacterial infections. In nut shell, it often exerts powerful, adverse effects on personal health.

2.17 **INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN RESISTANCE TO STRESS**

Several personal characteristics like type of Personality, Optimism, Hardiness, Tension discharge rate play a role in stress resistance. Type A people seem to seek out high levels of stress. For instance, by taking on several jobs at once. This behavior is somewhat self-destructive. Many studies indicate that Type A persons are more susceptible to the harmful effects of stress than Type B persons. Hopeful outlook on life (Optimism); see situation in a positive light, expect favorable outcome. High level commitment to the job (Hardiness); believe that they can control the outcome, see stress as a challenge, together these traits make them resistant to adverse effect of stress. Person high on Tension discharge rate dissipates job related tension quickly at the end of the day.

2.18 **MANAGING STRESS**

Stress is necessary for optimum efficiency. It is unavoidable, but this doesn't mean that its harmful effects, too, are inescapable. In fact, there are many steps both individuals and organisations can take to optimize the stress.

2.18.1 **PERSONAL APPROACHES TO STRESS MANAGEMENT**

Protecting oneself from the serious consequences of stress can be done through three major strategies.
2.18.1.1 LIFESTYLE MANAGEMENT

Getting into good physical shape is one of the best things you can do to increase your resistance to stress. Good diet, too, is an integral part of such efforts. As the old saying goes "We are what we eat," and if you eat wisely and avoid gaining weight the benefits where stress resistance is concerned are obvious.

2.18.1.2 RELAXATION AND MEDITATION

Meditation is a process in which people learn to clear their minds of external thoughts, often by repeating a single syllable over and over again. Meditation requires sitting quietly in a comfortable position, closing eyes, relaxing muscles, and breathing slowly. The trick is to keep other thoughts that would break your restful state from entering your mind. Doing this once or twice a day for 10-20 minutes per session is an effective way of reducing stress and increasing one's capacity to work and to enjoy life generally.

Relaxation is a method in which people learn how first to tense and then to relax their muscles. By becoming familiar with the differences between these states, people become able to induce relaxation whenever they feel themselves becoming too tense.

2.18.1.3 COGNITIVE TECHNIQUES

Surveys indicate that almost 90 percent of all people worry too much. Moreover, many realize that they worry about issues that are either unimportant, outside their control, or both. Worrying about such matters is a waste of cognitive effort and can contribute to increased stress. By reducing such worrying, many persons can help reduce the stress they experience. Excessive worrying is not the only thing
we do that contributes to our own stress. Often, we engage in patterns of thought in which we magnify the effects of failure, not being perfect, or being rejected by others. Such thinking, too, often adds to our level of stress. Reducing such irrational and self-defeating cognitions can be useful step in combating stress. We don't have to worry excessively about things we can't change, strive for absolute perfection. Instead, we can actively decide to avoid such reactions and in this manner, reduce our own stress.

2.18.2 ORGANISATION-BASED STRATEGIES

Several organisation-based or organisation-initiated tactics can be highly effective in this regard.

2.18.2.1 FAMILY-SUPPORTIVE PRACTICES

Organisational policies designed to help lessen such role conflict might also be effective in reducing stress and its negative effects. In a recent study on this issue, Thomas and Ganster (1994) conducted a survey on nurses and nursing supervisors and asked to complete a questionnaire designed to measure the extent to which their organisations had adopted policies designed to reduce work-family conflict (family-supportive policies), the amount of work-family conflict they experienced, and psychological, physiological, and behavioral signs of strain. Results indicated that all family-supportive policies have beneficial effects. Specifically, policies such as flexible scheduling and supportive supervisor behaviors increased feelings of personal control, reduced work-family conflict, and so reduced several aspects of strain—for example, depression, health complaints, and even blood cholesterol levels.
In short, it appeared that when organisations adopted policies designed to reduce the degree of work-family conflict their employees experienced, the stress they experienced was decreased.

2.18.2.2 STRESS MANAGEMENT PROGRAMS

Another step organisations can take to help their employees manage stress is stress management programs. These involve extensive in-house training that concentrates on many of the techniques described earlier (e.g. meditation, relaxation, lifestyle management), as well as others. Companies that do not use stress management programs have other systematic ways of helping their employees. Many provide help through their employee assistant programs (EAPs) plans that provide employees with assistance in meeting various problems e.g. substance abuse, career planning, financial and legal problems, skill training areas such as time management, interpersonal skills, training to think positively about life and its problems and looking at sources of stress realistically and analytically.

2.18.2.3 HEALTH MAINTENANCE

Many organisations provide facilities at their premises for physical fitness such as gyms, swimming pools, as well as psychological counseling. They hold seminars, workshops and lectures to help employees in understanding the nature and sources of stress, its ramifications and possible ways to reduce its negative effects. Most programs involve one or more of the following techniques: biofeedback, meditation, and muscular relaxation exercises.
2.18.2.4 SELECTION AND PLACEMENT

The basic hiring process should be based upon matching of skills, personality and work requirements. Being placed in a job, which is not compatible with your ability and temperament, can be highly frustrating and stress producing. The criteria for selection could also include the applicant's ability to handle role ambiguity and role conflict when present. Accordingly, during the process of hiring, some personality tests can be designed to evaluate the candidate's stamina for stress.

2.18.2.5 JOB ENRICHMENT

Redesigning the job should be in such a manner as to use the maximum potential of the employee with emphasis on employee involvement in such redesigning. This will help reduce stress caused by monotony, routine work, role ambiguity, work overload or underload. Job enrichment enhances motivation and leads to more challenging assignment, improved task significance, more responsibility, more meaningful work and more control over the employee's own work environment

2.18.2.6 EFFECTIVE APPRAISAL AND REWARDS

It is necessary that performance is appraised in an objective and non-biased manner and the rewards be clearly and proportionately related to performance. The employee must know what is expected of him and for what exactly he is responsible and accountable. This will reduce role conflict. Employees' contribution to the organisation must be well recognized, appreciated and rewarded. This will instill enthusiasm and a sense of dedication and belonging may lead to stress-fighting phenomenon.
2.18.2.7 PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

If the employees are invited to participate in making decisions involving their own work setting, within the organisational guidelines, this would make the employees feel that they are their own boss, a factor which is associated with less negative reactions to stress. Participation increases job involvement and reduces ambiguity and conflict.

2.18.2.8 BUILDING TEAM WORK

Creating a work environment in which the members of the work group consider themselves as members of the same family. There is no provision for interpersonal conflict within the group or for conflict between an individual and the group. Such conflicts are causes of stress and should be prevented from-building or eliminated if they develop. Such groups should be developed that are more productive and mutually supportive. Members of such group seek each other’s support, which is a necessary ingredient for diluting stress.

2.19 JOB STRESSORS AT WORK

All the occupational stressors identified by stress researchers have been summarized below under two major categories i.e. objectively defined and subjectively defined "job stressors:

2.19.1 OBJECTIVE JOB STRESSORS

Some of the objectives are given under which directly affect the level of occupational stress in organisational life. These are; Physical hazards,
Chronic dangers, Pollution, Noise, Inadequate man-machine design, Unusual/non-standard working hours, Technical limitations, Change in shift pattern, Deadlines, Time pressure.

2.19.2 PROPERTIES OF WORK AND WORK SETTING

Some of the characteristics are directly responsible for occupational stressors are; New work setting, Machine pacing, Work overload, Lack of training, Inadequate intrinsic rewards, Inadequate extrinsic rewards, Poor management-labour relations, Job insecurity, Territoriality (alienation, isolation), Organisational structure, Poor organisational climate, Negative organisational attitude, Inter-and intra-group competitions, Job complexity, Qualitative workload, Autocratic leadership, Crowding, Discrimination in resources and demand.

2.19.3 CHANGES IN JOB

Changes in the job also bring some amount of stress in individuals life are; Loss of job/employment, Qualitative changes in job, Over promotion, Transfer of job locus, Null changes, Job/career transition

2.19.4 SUBJECTIVE JOB STRESSORS OCCUPATIONAL ROLE

Occupational role of the employees also contributes the stress. These roles can be in the form of; Role ambiguity, Role conflict, Less control over work processes, Responsibility for people, Responsibility for things, Low participation, Feedback and communication problems, Self-role distance, Role stagnation, Resource inadequacy, Role erosion, Inter-role distance and Role isolation.
2.19.5 MISCELLANEOUS JOB STRESSORS

Strained relationship with supervisor, Inadequate support from supervisor, strained relationship with coworkers, Conflict with subordinates, Ambiguity about future, Inequality of pay, Quantity-quality conflict, Building and maintaining career, Lesser opportunity for advancement

In addition to the job stressors some other factors also contributes in individual stress. These are; Stressful life events, Demands of husband and children, Work-family conflicts, Spillover effect of non-work Stressors etc.

2.20 MODELS OF STRESS

To give a holistic picture of the phenomenon of stress, various models have been suggested and experimental time to time. As these models of human behaviour are influenced by various constellations of factors, therefore, each model is determined by the particular focus adopted by the researchers. Some of the models are briefly discussed below.

2.20.1 GENERAL ADAPTATION SYNDROME

It is the first scientific formulation or model of low stress acts on the individual. It was given by Selye in 1950. It consists of three steps: Alarm Reaction, stage of Resistance and Stage of Exhaustion. This model puts emphasis on the stress as it is necessary for biological adaptation. It helps in understanding immediate, short term and long term effects of stress.
2.20.2 LOAD OF INFORMATION MODELS

Snedfeld (1979) proposed Overload/Under-load Model. It links stress to events for their under-arousal or over-arousal. There is a ‘U’ shaped relationship between the two. Snedfeld has identified several factors considered important for the determination of the optimal level of stimulus overload. Though physiological arousal is crucial, personality variables such as locus of control, cognitive complexity and extraversion – introversion play an important role in the evaluation of the level of stimulation considered optimal by the person. This model helps to develop an understanding that stress in dependent on individual stress tolerance levels.

Model of stress “Optimal Information flow and mood” was given by Hamilton in 1981. It is along the same lines as stimulus overload/underload model. It highlights that positive moods are an outcome of optimal information; negative moods reflect a mismatch between the optimal level and the stimulation. Non-optimal stimulation produces negative mood such as depression, anger and anxiety.

2.20.3 INTERACTION MODELS

These models focus on the relationship between the individual and the environment whether an event is stressful or not, depends on the subjective perception of the characteristics of the event by the individual.

The cognitive models of stress proposed by Lazarous and Folkman in 1984 puts emphasis on the perception of individual that determines stress, this perception also determines how one copes with the stressor and finally the outcomes of stress in terms of emotional, motor or
physiological or a mixture of all three. This model helps in knowing the factors under lying stress perception.

Person-Environment (P-E) fit model advocated by French, Rodgers and Cobb in 1974 deals with how the characteristics of the person and those of the environment affect the wellbeing of a person. Its focus is on the fact that stress depends on the degree of non-fit between the person and the environment, need and supplies fit, and abilities and demands fit. It implies that both actual and/or perceived discrepancies between personal resources and environmental demands cause stress.

Lumsden in 1975 made an attempt to take into consideration all the salient features of the different models and called it a ‘System Model’ for analysis of stress. The stress system is conceived of an open system, which is continually interacting with the environment. The stress process is conceptualised as being dynamic and homeostatic in nature rather than a simple equilibrium model. The coping process over time is due to either exogenous or endogenous stressor. The system involves detection, meditation and the actual appraisal of the stimulus, followed by coping process. The individual copes with the stressor by bringing about certain changes in his responses. It depends on how prone a person is to stress determined by a large number of person variables.

Some specific models were suggested by researchers involving organisational variables such as Elliot and Eisdorfer in 1982 described the stress research model that involves three primary elements: something in the environment that becomes an activator (stimulus, stressor), individual reactions to that activator, and consequences of those
responses. They have also shown the relationship of mediators and their influence on the three elements on the sequence.

McGrath in 1976 illustrated the model of stress in form of a cycle with four processes which link the situation, perceived situation, response selection and behaviour. The process is appraisal, decision making, performance, and outcome. Dohrenwen, Pearlin, Clayton, Hanburg, Riley and Rose (1982) model of stress process extended to include antecedents of stressful life events such as death of a loved one, birth of a first child, loss of a job, diverse etc. They emphasized that stressful life events are jointly determined by circumstances in the environment and by characteristic of individuals.

The Ivancevich and Matteson Model for organisational stress research (1980) deals with the stress process in full, that is, from the intro organisational and extra-organisational stressor at work, to the short-term physiological and behaviour outcomes (responses), and to the longer term, diseases of adaptation. Schler’s (1981) model is similar in its specification of organisation (environmental) stressors, its differentiation of responses over time and individual characteristic as moderations in the stress sequence. Payne, Jick, and Burke (1982) add extra-organisational stressors that interact with those encountered on the job.

The research of Levi (1981) and Frankenhaeuser (1989) from the Karolinska Institute of the University of Stockholm contributes significantly to the study of organisational stress. Their model emphasized on stressors that are generated at work; of the six categories of stressors included in the model, five arise from the job itself (relationship with superior, subordinated, colleagues; organisational
structure and climate; stressors intrinsic to job; role in the organisation and career development) and the organisational context of the job. The sixth category of stressors belongs to extra organisational sources.

Kakh, Wolfe, Quimm and Snock (1964) proposed a model to study the effects of role conflict and ambiguity at work. Various models are developed at the Institute for Social Research (ISR) of the University of Michigan, designated as ISR models. The ISR model of social environment and mental Health given by French and Kahn (1962) emphasized several principles that have become agreed upon doctrine, if not practice, in research on organisational stress. It shown that two sets of mediator variables are important enduring properties of the person (genetic, demographic, personality) and contextual properties (interpersonal relations) of the work situation influence greatly the individual perceptions his/her responses and the effect of those responses on his/her subsequent state of health or illness.

The model discussed above give a picture of the origin, nature and consequent of stresses generated in organisational life but none of the model gives a complete picture of the whole stress process. There are points of differences and similarities in all these models. The points of convergence among the various models are notable. All of them reflect the conceptualization of stress as involving a process and help to develop a better understanding of organisational stress.

2.21  STRESS: AN OVERVIEW

Stress is a reality we face in every day life. There are various stressors influencing the quality of life of an employee in the organisation in optimum level of stress leads to better performance.
Among the different factors of stress, interpersonal and group factors which include unpleasant relationship with superior can be a constant source of stress for employee. To minimise the effect of distress, various strategies are available such as; exercise, meditation, and enhancing personal skills and abilities at the individual level. Also, the leadership style exhibited by the superior can play a crucial role in managing the stress level of a subordinate. The different stress models discussed above also highlight the relationship with superior as an important factor contributing to occupational stress of subordinates. Hence, there is a need to regulate the leadership style and the stress created among the subordinates for better performance.