CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The objectives of this chapter are to identify the:-

i) Correlates of job-satisfaction

ii) Sources of stress at work

iii) Correlates of organizational role-stress,

iv) Moderators of Role-stress and job-satisfaction relationship,

v) To develop hypotheses in the back drop of the related literature.

3.1. Correlates of Job Satisfaction:

Many researchers have conducted various studies in the field of correlates of job-satisfaction. Pestonjee (1979) computed intercorrelations between alienation and job-satisfaction. A high negative relationship was observed between the two variables. It indicated that as alienation scores increased job-satisfaction decreased and vice-versa. The research on correlates of job-satisfaction has attempted to relate it to personality and organisational climate.

3.1.1. Personality Correlates:-

Watson (1976) reported that satisfaction and dissatisfaction was highly related with the personality of
the workers. The significant relationship between job-satisfaction-dissatisfaction and personality factors has been confirmed by Porwal (1987) in the study of teachers.

Downey, Hellriegel and Slocum, (1975) indicated that job-satisfaction to be a function of the interaction between personality characteristic of an individual. Caplan, Cobb., French, Van Harrison and Finneau (1975) found significant correlations between two attitude variables—job-dissatisfaction and boredom, and four psychiatric complaints somatic complaints, depression, anxiety and irritation. The behavioural science literature is replete with theories and empirical research focusing on employee behaviour as a function of the simultaneous variation in both organizational dimensions and individual characteristics. Apparently neither organisational dimensions (climate) nor individual characteristics (job-satisfaction, tension, role clarity) by themselves explain a substantial amount of observed variation in job-satisfaction or organisational effectiveness criteria (Hellriegel and John, 1974).

(Spokane (1985) concluded from his extensive review of current findings that "higher congruence was substantially related to greater job-satisfaction." The empirical foundation for this broad conclusion was weakened however.
by several limitations in studies which had examined this relationship. First, much of the current evidence was based on studies of single occupational groups, for example, accountants, (Aranya, Barak and Amermic, 1981), engineers (Meir and Ereg, 1981); nurses (Hener and Meier, 1981); and teachers (Wiggins, Lederer, Salkowe and Rys, 1983). Second, many studies had focused only on overall job-satisfaction and had not examined the degree to which personal environment congruence was related to satisfaction with different dimensions of the job (Wiggens et al., 1983). Third, virtually all studies failed to include control for other known correlates of job satisfaction (e.g. educational degree level, organisational size etc.).

In India, some studies have been conducted in this field, Mehadi (1971) and Sinha (1971) have found that the satisfaction-dissatisfaction was highly related to the personality of the worker. Sinha and Agarwal (1971) showed that workers who were satisfied tended to have better adjustment scores and those less satisfied were generally poor in their adjustment. Eighteen personality factors were found related to job-satisfaction in a study conducted by Ranamichari and Bharti (1972). Srivastava (1986) found that job-satisfaction and personality characteristics were positively and significantly related with each other.)
Kumari (1986) revealed that there was a significant difference between high and low neurotic and authoritarian supervisors with respect to job-satisfaction scores. This clearly revealed that neuroticism and authoritarianism had significant bearing on job-satisfaction. Sehgal and Sharma (1990) conducted a study on respondents consisting of middle level managers of private organisations, which appeared to be extroverted, high on neuroticism and social desirability, with high needs for achievement, power, development/missionary zeal/autocratic style of leadership; authoritarian climate and low job-satisfaction were found to be significant. These results partially followed the trend reported by Kumar (1984); Mohan and Bali (1988) and Mohan and Jahangir (1984).

Muthayya and Ganesan (1975) reported no significant relationship between personality and need satisfaction. Similar were the findings in studies conducted by Ganesan (1978); Ganesan and Krishnaraju (1982); Sondhi and Bhardwaj (1987). Inderasen (1982) found that the correlation between bureaucratic orientation and job-satisfaction was not significant. The interactional effects of ego-strength and job-satisfaction were not found to be significant.
The association between mental health and job-satisfaction was low. However, the job-satisfaction was significantly associated with two aspects of mental health, viz., self acceptance and tolerance of ambiguity (Agarwala, 1981).

Kumari (1984) obtained negative and significant correlation between job-satisfaction and authoritarian attitude. This negative relationship has been confirmed by many researchers in different organisational settings (Mehdi and Singh, 1972; Pestonjee and Singh, 1972; Rastogi and Pandey, 1987). The job-satisfaction and neuroticism were found to be significantly and negatively related (Sondhi and Bhardwaj, 1987).

3.1.2. Organisational Correlates:

Pritchard and Karasick (1973) studied managers from two different industrial organisations. They found climate dimensions to be moderate to strongly related to such job-satisfaction facets as security, working conditions and advancement opportunities. This positive and significant relationship has been confirmed by many different researchers in different organisational setting (i.e. James and Singh, 1978; Lyon and Ivanceivch, 1974; and Schneider, 1973).
Studies conducted by Cawsey (1973) and Schneider (1972, 1973), clearly indicated that organisational climate was related to job-satisfaction in terms of interpersonal relations. A number of studies reported a significant relationship between job-satisfaction and organisational climate in different organisational settings (i.e. Alan, 1988; Cynthia, 1988; George and Bishop, 1971; Guion, 1973; James and Jones, 1974; Johannesson, 1971, 1973; La Follette and Sins, 1975; Payne, 1973; Payne and Roger, 1973; Pitchard, 1973). A significant relationship between job performance and organisational climate has also been found in numerous studies (Dunnette, 1973; Friedlander and Greenberg, 1971; Schneider and Hall, 1970). However, the relationship between performance and climate was not as easily understood, or as persuasive, as the relationship between job-satisfaction and climate.

Smart, Elton and Mclauglin (1986) supported that job-satisfaction was positively related to the congruence between personality type of an individual and his work environment. Person-environment congruence was positively related to the intrinsic job-satisfaction of the males and females. Hollands (1973) argued that vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement depended on the
congruence between one's personality and environment (composed largely of other people) in which one worked.

Downey, Hellriegel and Slocum (1975) indicated job-satisfaction to be a function of the interaction between the personality characteristics of the individual and the perceived environment/organisational climate. Lowler, Hall and Oldham (1974), and Schneider and Snyder (1975) reported that job-satisfaction and organisational climate was significantly and positively related. Raisani (1989) indicated that both organisational climate and demographic characteristics were related to job-satisfaction, but organisational climate related more strongly to job-satisfaction than demographic characteristics in the study of teachers. Similarly occupational status or rank of employees had close relationship with job-satisfaction (Alderfer, 1972; Chernik and Phelan, 1974). However, it remains to be seen as to what extent does it interact with the organisational climate of public and private management to affect worker's job-satisfaction. Campbell (1984) indicated that differences in aspiration level and different views of career progression help explain job-satisfaction over and above the match of needs and rewards.

Seybott and Gruenfeld (1976) have reported intercorrelations between alienation and satisfaction
separately by professionals and managerial workers, clerical workers and manual workers. It was found to be negative for all groups. Kavanagh, Hurst and Rose (1981) have indicated an association between characteristics of the workplace and psychological health. Although measures of job-satisfaction are not congruent with conditions of work (potential stressors), it does seem that satisfaction measures indicate a summary, within a time frame, of a persons affective reaction to his/her work conditions. Steer and Brunstain (1976) have reported a negative relationship between Organisational climate and job-satisfaction.

Employees satisfaction with supervision, co-workers, promotional opportunities and work, in general affected the perception of climate while results of satisfaction with pay were mixed (Mc Intyre, 1990). Sekaran (1989) studied the correlates of job-satisfaction of bank employees and indicated that making work more interesting, reducing stress and facilitating success experience would progressively increase employees sense of competence, which may result in increased job-satisfaction.

An increase in either form of leader behaviour has the due effect of increasing subordinate thoughts about living. These effects were not found to vary over levels of task structure and job stress (Emig, 1989).
In India, Inderasen (1981) observed significant and positive relationship between overall perception of organizational climate and need satisfaction. This positive relationship has been confirmed by the researchers in different organisational settings (Agarwal, 1976; 1977; Chadha and Kaur, 1989; Ganesan, 1978; Inderasen, 1973, 1979; Kanungo, Mishra and Dayal, 1975; Kishor, Gupta, Bhardwaj and Jakar, 1981; Kumar and Bohra, 1979; Partap and Srivastava, 1983; Sekaran, 1980; Sharma, 1975; Shetty, 1978; Singh and Das, 1978; Singh, Mathew and Das, 1977; Singh and Nath, 1991; Sinha, 1977; Srivastava, 1987).

Paul (1977) found that the correlation between the five dimensions of job-satisfaction and six dimensions of organisational climate was not significant. There was no evidence that perceptual agreement enhanced the psychological climate - job-satisfaction relationship found by Moussavi (1986).

Kandan (1985) found that correlation between organisational climate and need satisfaction variables was negative. This showed that the perception of organisational climate became negative when the needs were deprived. Similar were the finding of Ganesan (1978);
Partap and Srivastava (1983); Subha and Anantharaman (1981) in their respective area of study. Chadha and Kaur (1989) also found among white collar supervisors that "standard" and "support" dimensions of organisational climate were negatively and significantly related with job-satisfaction. Among blue collar supervisors, organisational climate dimension of "standard" was found to be negatively and significantly related to job-satisfaction.
3.2. Sources of Stress at Work:

The research on sources of role stress at work has attempted to relate stress to physical/environmental and psychological stressors.

3.2.1. Physical/Environmental Stressors:

Researches have focused on physical/environmental stressors such as physical hazards, chronic dangers, pollution, extremes of heat, cold, temperature, humidity, pressure, noise, working condition and badman-machine design (Althouse and Hurrell, 1977; Biersner, Gunderson and Ryman, 1971; Eden et al., 1977; Glass and Singer, 1972; Jenkins, 1971; Parker and Decotiis, 1983; Potter and Fiedler, 1981; Selye, 1976; Sofer, 1970; Swain and Guttman, 1980; Yates, 1979).

Cooper (1985) reported that work overload caused stress. Similar findings have been reported by many researchers (Caplan, 1971; Cherniss, 1985; Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Margolis, Kroes and Quinn, 1974; Michael, Cohen, Barbara, Stammer and Lambert, 1981; Olson, July, Matuskey and Patricia, 1982; Sales, 1970; Sears, Susan and Navin, 1983; Vanvucht Tijss et al., 1978; Whitehead and Lindquist, 1985; Yates, 1979) in their respective areas of studies.
Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinnieu (1975) have identified that job stress generally occurs because of a misfit between a person's attitudes, abilities, skills, and the demand of the job and the organization. French and Caplan (1972) found a number of stress factors inducing unfavourable mental and physical effects.

Some researchers believed that time variables was also a source of stress. These time variables included e.g. time pressure, length of work day, non standard working hours, and overtime shifts (Jenkins, 1971; McFarland, 1974; Olson et.al. 1982; Parker and Decotiis, 1983; Pearse, 1977; Potter and Fiedler, 1981; Rentos and Shepard, 1976; Schmidt, 1978, Selye, 1976; Sofer, 1970; and Yates, 1979).

In India, Central Labour Institute (CLI) and National Labour Institute (NLI) have been engaged in the pursuit of quality of working life for a number of years. By and large, these researches have been on such topics as "Environmental Health," Occupational Health", "Industrial Health," and "Mental Health," conducted mainly to:

(i) determine the effects of environmental, occupational and industrial hazards on physical and/or mental health;
(ii) determine the incidence of mental health in the industrial labour force;

(iii) improving safety, and

(iv) eliminate physical hazards from the work environment.

Sayeed (1985) found that career tension, heavy workload, supervisory evaluation without feedback, availability of information and decision making may also cause job stress. Dhar (1991) indicated that sources of stress were overload, electric shock, and stressful environment. Ghadially and Kumar (1989), in a study of female professionals working in government and semi-government organisations reported that inadequate pay, underutilization of skills, variability in work load caused stress.

Agarwala, Malhan and Singh (1979) pointed out that the focus in India, thus, appears to be on the effects of physical stressors such as dust, dirt, noise, temperature, excessive working hours, pesticides, dangerous and unguarded machinery, carbon-dioxide etc. on industrial workers, policemen, drivers and sweepers and scavengers. Shukla (1990) in his study found that lack of freedom at work caused stress.
Bhatnagar and Bose (1989) identified that stress can be caused by strike or gherao, or being superseded by juniors in race for promotions or in the form of everyday pressures and unrelenting flow of paper work, and political pressure etc.

3.2.2. **Psychological Stressors at work:**

Stress at work is a critical factor in the determination of employee's health and well-being and also has important implication for organizational effectiveness (Ganster, Mayes, Sime and Tharpe, 1982). Occupational and workplace characteristics have been found to be directly related to mental ill health and coronary heart diseases (Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Kasl, 1973); negative emotional experiences (e.g. tension, anxiety and depression) caused stress at work, which resulted in a deterioration if mental as well as physical health ranging all the way to Coronary heart diseases (House et.al,1979; Miles, 1975; Rizzo et.al.,1970). Van Vucht Tijseen et.al. (1978). noted that middle-age was often accompanied by a series of vague psychoneurotic and psychosomatic complaints, including heart neurosis, headaches, lower back complaints, exhaustion and overweight. Yates (1979) also identified that stressors at work led to diseases
like coronary heart disease, psychotic illness, mental health problem.

Job level is one of the most important structural variables which can be a source of stress (Gorrell, Bragman, Hunter and Thomas, 1985; Schuler, 1975). Many researchers have reported that role conflict and role ambiguity were the source of role stress in their respective area of studies (Caplan et al., 1973; Cooper, 1955; Cooper and Marshall, 1976; Graen, 1976; Moddie, 1971; Rizzo et al., 1970; Van sells, Brief and Schular, 1981; Yates, 1979). Davidson and Cooper (1980) identified that anxiety, depression, low self esteem, sleeplessness, frustration, dissatisfaction and tension with life or work caused stress. Other researcher also found that tension on the job may even effect the quality of work (Kahn et al. 1975; Katzel, 1970; McKinic, 1978).

Kahn and Quinn (1970) classified stress under three categories: expectation - generated stress; expectation resource discrepancies; and role and personality discrepancy. In a research with youth groups and Air Force Personnel, the supervisors' style was found to be a stressor for subordinates (Buck, 1972; Quick, Shannon and Quick, 1983). Marshall and Cooper (1979) reported that job stress was caused because executive were not able
to achieve "acceptable balance between work and home life."

Nelson and Quick (1985) identified the sources of stress for professional women as discrimination, stereotyping, marriage/work interface, and social isolation.

The research on job stress has proceeded in a number of directions examining diverse sources of stress in relation to varieties of attitudinal, physiological and behavioural outcomes. Most of these studies have focused on the role requirements (Mary, Brief and Schular, 1981); while some others have examined various dimensions of the job or task attributes as sources of stress (Buck, 1972; Hall and Lawler, 1970).

Non participation at work and in decision making has been found to be the most consistent and significant indicator of job stress by many researchers (e.g. Armenakis and Curran, 1981; Buck, 1972; Margolis, Kroes and Quinn, 1974; Steers and Koch, 1979). Lack of managerial support, having too little responsibility, having to keep up with rapid technology changes, nature of relationships with one's boss, subordinates and colleagues were the other potential role stressors (Cooper and Marshall, 1978). Work group size, span of subordination, supervisory span, excess of responsibility, communication flow and lack of career progression were the
other variables which could lead to stress (Bedian, Armenakis, and Curran, 1981; Burke, 1976; Caplan, 1976; Ivancevich and Matterson, 1982; Morris, Steers and Koch, 1973).

In India, Parasuraman and Allutto (1981) identified a number of sources of stress (Stressors) in the work environment and examined the relationship of contextual, task and role related variables to such stressors. In the recent past, researchers in India have expressed serious concern about stress inducing factors like role ambiguity, role conflict etc. and their implications (Bhogle, 1971; Das, 1982; Dayal and Sharma, 1971; Dhar, 1983; Dhar, 1991; Pareek, 1981; Sharma, 1983; Sharma, Dhar and Dhar, 1986; Srivastava and Dave, 1978). Deshpande (1978) provided an indepth analysis of the facilitating and restraining forces that impinge upon senior executives in terms of management policies, manpower planning, appraisal system, promotions, lack of coordination and perception that their abilities remain unutilized. Sah (1980) indicated that lack of unity of command and direction, lack of autonomy and responsibility, poor interpersonal relationships were some of the organisation climate variables reported to be stressors by employees of a cooperative organization.
Sukla (1990) in a study of managerial stress experiences concluded that it would be more accurate to look at stress as a pattern of inter-related experiences rather than as one single experience. The stress due to lack of freedom at work was as real as the experience of stress due to an interpersonal encounter. He also conceded that pattern of stressful experiences appeared to be unique to an individual, or a group of individuals and it might be determined by the life situations of individuals, as well as personality. Agarwal and Sharma (1979) and Sharma (1986) have identified that middle age was often accompanied by a series of vague psychoneurotic and psychosomatic complaints which included heart neurosis, headaches, lower back complaint, exhaustion and overweight.

Das (1982) reported that work group climate and perceived power were the causes of managerial stress.
3.3. Correlates of Organisational Stress:

The research on correlates of organisational stress has attempted to relate it to psychiatric symptomatology and psychological symptomatology. Under psychiatric symptomatology all those types of diseases are taken, which are the effect of organisational stress i.e. illness (both mental and physical), heart diseases, drowsiness, headache, boredom, depression etc. On the other hand psychological symptomatology includes i.e. job-satisfaction, job anxiety, and job tension etc.

3.3.1. Organisational Role Stress and Psychiatric Symptomatology:

Many researchers (Cooper, 1985; Cooper and Marshall, 1978; House, 1974; Jenkins, 1976; Koroes, 1976; Selye, 1976) have found significant relationship between job stress and illness (both mental and physical).

It has been generally observed that excessive stress is harmful and that the effect of stress may be seen in physical and emotional reactions. It gives rise to negative emotional experiences, such as tension, anxiety and depression resulting in a deterioration in mental as well as physical health ranging all the way to coronary heart diseases. A good number of studies have revealed
inverse relationship between perceived job/role stress and mental health to cite a few studies (House, Mishael, Wells, Kaplan and Landerman, 1979; Miles, 1975; Rizzo, House and Litzman, 1970; Srivastava, 1986). Some researchers have focussed attention on cardiovascular diseases which is known as coronary heart diseases (CHD). A significant and positive association between various aspects of organisational role stress and heart disease has been reported (Caplan, Cobb and French, 1975; Caplan and Jones, 1975; Evans, Palsane and Carrere, 1987; Falger, 1979; House, 1974; House, Mischael, Wells, Kaplan and Landerman, 1975; Jenkins, 1971, 1976; Keitner and Robert, 1985; Sherry, 1981). Rajeshwari (1992) revealed that employees were suffering from certain stress related ailments such as ulcer, diabetes, heart problems, asthma, rheumatoid, arthritis, high blood pressure and back pain. Jagdish (1987) reported that some stressors, e.g. depression, anxiety etc. have led to heart diseases, similar were the findings reported by Srivastava, (1986) and Srivastava and Jagdish (1990) in their respective area of study.

A few studies have reported relationship between organisational role stress and drowsiness, headache, nervous stomach, being nervous, feeling blue, emotional exhaustion, boredom, feeling depressed and lacking energy
Many researchers have reported behavioral consequences (alcoholism, smoking and drug abuse) to be related to job stress (Caplan et al. 1976; Comway, Vickers, Ward and Rahe, 1981; Cooper and Arbose, 1984; Fimian, Zacherman, Joseph and Robert, 1985; Green, Berger and Stinberg, 1981; Leaderer, 1973; Margolis, Kores and Quinn, 1974; Mangiane and Quinn, 1975, Westman, Eden and Shirom, 1985).

Armenakis and Curran (1981), Brief and Aldag (1976), Gupta and Beehr (1979), Vansell et al. (1979), have found stress symptoms such as withdrawal behaviour (absenteeism, turnover and propensity to leave) to have positive relationship with role conflict and role ambiguity. A significant relationship between role ambiguity, role overload, role conflict, resource inadequacy and withdrawal behaviour of absenteeism, tardiness and anticipated turnover has been reported by Jamal (1984).
Bedeian, Armenakis and Curran (1981) found that neither role ambiguity nor role conflict was related to performance. It is generally believed that stress impairs performance, but the evidence provided by field studies is both sparse and mixed (i.e. Buck, 1972; Green and Organ, 1973; Schular, 1977; Sheridan and Vrenderburgh, 1979; Srivastava, 1980).

In India, Sah (1980) has highlighted several psychological and behavioural consequences of managerial stress. He reported that respondents manifested moderate range of reactions to stress. Organisational stress has also been found to be associated with health related variables reported by Srivastava, (1983). Chaturvedi (1983) has found that patients with the psychosomatic complaints reported their job an overtaxing demanding and full of series of disagreements with their authorities.

3.3.2. Organisational Role Stress and Psychological Symptomatology:

(a) Job-Satisfaction:

Job-satisfaction has been found to be the most relevant correlate of stress (Burke, 1976; Eysenck, 1976; and Lingford, 1980). Mckinley(1986) examined the
interaction of organisation types, role conflict with job-satisfaction and job stress of middle level.

Cooper (1985) found a number of potential occupational stressors to predict job-dissatisfaction and ill health (both mental and physical) in a variety of different occupational settings. These stressors included factors intrinsic to the nature of the job, role ambiguity and conflict, poor relationship at work, lack of career development, and inadequate organisational and structural climate. In a study of Navymen (Larocco and Jones, 1978) stress was measured as a component score reflecting perceived conflict and ambiguity, and the measures of strain included job-satisfaction, dissatisfaction with the navy, intent to reenlist and number of medical visits.

Sarason, Irwing and Johnson (1979) highlighted that stress caused due to experienced changes in work environment was related to job-satisfaction. Positive changes were related to lower level of satisfaction.

Karasek, Triantis and Chaudhry (1982) have reported that high job demands and decision latitude caused stress. They assessed psychological strain which included depressed mood, life satisfaction, job-dissatisfaction, job related depressed mood and absenteeism.
Emig (1988) reported that subordinates were not found to vary over levels of satisfaction and job stress.

Tosi (1971) failed to find significant relationship between role ambiguity and job-satisfaction. Miles (1976) reported that there was no significant relationship between role conflict and job-satisfaction but casual direction was inferred between role ambiguity and job-satisfaction.

Johnston (1989) identified a negative relationship between role stress variables (role conflict and role ambiguity) and all job-satisfaction areas. This negative relationship has been confirmed by many researchers in different organisational settings. (i.e. Allie, 1983; Bedian, Armenakis and Curren, 1981; Cynthia and Schuler, 1982; David and Salis, 1982; Ebeling and King, 1982; Furtrell and Parasuraman, 1981; Ganster, Fusiliar and Mayer, 1986; House and Rizzo, 1972; Johnson and Stinson, 1975; Keller, 1975; Larocco and Jone, 1978; Moore and Robert, 1984; Odewahn and Petty, 1980; Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970; Schneider, 1975; Vensall, Brief and Schular, 1979). High role ambiguity was correlated negatively with satisfaction (Kleinberg, 1984). Relationships with superior at work could be stressful, and mistrust of a supervisors' intentions could lead to
role ambiguity and low job satisfaction (French and Caplan, 1976).

Role overload has also been found to be negatively related to job-satisfaction (Bechr, Walsh and Tabor, 1976; Cooper and Jim, 1985). Keenan and Mcbain (1979) confirmed a negative relationship between role conflict, role ambiguity, overload and job-satisfaction. Similar were the findings in a study by Frank (1983). Chadrow (1984) determined the influence of Person-Environment fit, on job-satisfaction and stress related responses.

In India, in a study by Pestonjee and Singh (1982), it was reported that various types of stresses, which developed out of either poor organisational structure and/or poor employee relations had detrimental effects to job-satisfaction in all spheres, whether it was related with job, management, personal adjustment, and social relation activities.

There are few other Indian studies which found positive and significant relationship between job-satisfaction and role stress (Mishra and Singh, 1986; Sharma and Sharma, 1983). Mishra and Tripathi (1980) reported job-satisfaction as one of the most significant correlate of stress.
Jagadish and Srivastava (1984) indicated a significant inverse relationship between job-satisfaction and role stress. Similar were the findings in studies conducted by Mishra (1987) and Srivastava and Parmar (1979). Job-satisfaction and strenuous working condition was not found significant among industrial supervisors (Mishra, 1986) and higher management level (Harigopal and Kumar, 1979).

In a study by Surti (1983), on a sample of working women found that role stress and job-satisfaction were significantly and negatively related. This negative relationship has been confirmed by many researchers in different organisational settings, (i.e. Chaudhary and Hinger, 1991; Jagadish and Srivastava, 1983; Mishra, 1987; Mishra and Singh, 1983; Mittal, 1988; Rehman, 1989; Sharma and Sharma, 1984; Singh and Mishra, 1983; Solanki and Ganguli; 1989; Srivastava and Jagdish, 1990). Harigopal and Kumar (1979) reported that at the middle management level and lower management level company satisfaction was negatively and significantly associated with role-stress variables, role overload, role ambiguity and role conflict.

Though statistically insignificant the negative correlation of life stress with all the three types of
stress scores mean that higher the stress experienced by an individual less would be his sense of satisfaction with life (Solanki and Ganguli, 1989).

(b) Job Anxiety:

There are a few available studies concerning the relationship of organisational role stress and anxiety. Brief and Aldag (1976); Caplan et al. (1975); Hammer and Tosi (1974); Tosi and Tosi (1970); have reported role conflict to be positively associated with anxiety. Similarly, role ambiguity has been found to be related to anxiety (Jones and Caplan, 1975; Posner and Randolph, 1980). The positive relationship between job stress and anxiety has been confirmed by Frank (1983). There are certain other stressors like underutilization of skills, job insecurity, variation in work load, lack of participation and shift work which have been found to have moderate to high relationship with anxiety (Gavin and Axelord, 1977; Harrison, 1976; Meers and Verhaegen, 1978; Farasuraman and Alutto, 1984; Quinn and Shepard, 1974). Cooper (1983) presented results from previous studies of female executives in U.K. and showed that 55 per cent of them suffered from anxiety aroused by stress at work.

In India, Srivastava (1983) reported that high stress
group had significantly higher free-floating anxiety than its low stress counterparts. Sharma and Sharma (1984) investigated the relationship at organisational role stress with general anxiety on a group of gazetted and non-gazetted officers. Role efficacy has been found to be negatively related with anxiety (Sharma and Sharma, 1983).

(c) Job Tension:

In a recent review, some Western researchers reported a positive relationship between role conflict/role ambiguity and job tension (Beehr, Walsh and Taber, 1976; Ivancevich and Donnelly, 1974; Miles and Patty, 1975; Vansell, Brief and Schular, 1979). In a study of supervisory and non-supervisory participants it was found that role clarity was inversely related to job tension (Keenan and McBain, 1979). The positive relationship between, role ambiguity, role conflict and job tension has been confirmed by Bedeian, Armenakis and Curran (1981); Wright and Thomas, (1982); in their respective areas of research.

In India, Jagdish (1987) found that occupational stress arising from various dimensions caused negative attitude towards job and management. Occupational stressors resulted in tension, anxiety and low job-
satisfaction among employees. A significant inverse relationship between job-satisfaction and job tension has been reported by Harigopal (1979) in different job levels. Singh, Agarwala and Malhan (1981) showed that role conflict was more closely related with job tension than with either job-satisfaction or satisfaction with working life.

Sehgal and Sharma (1990) considered personality as a major correlate of the role stress. Junior executives experienced greater level of stress on some of the stress dimensions like group cohesiveness and role conflict, role ambiguity, overload, lack of leadership support (Singh, 1990). Mishra and Singh (1986) found that the intercorrelation between ego strength and occupational stress was negative and significant.
3.4. Moderators of Organisational Role Stress - Job-Satisfaction Relationship:

3.4.1. Personality Moderators:

Benson, Kemery, Saucer and Tankesley (1985) investigated the use of need for clarity as a moderator of the relationship between role ambiguity and job-satisfaction. They indicated that need for clarity was an independent predictor of job-satisfaction. The lower satisfaction and greater role stress of union members in comparison to non-union members should not necessarily be interpreted as a failure of the union to improve working conditions of Union members (Odewahn and Petty, 1980).

It has been argued for many years that some individuals have personalities dimensions. Which particularly predispose them to the effects of occupational stressors, one such individual difference that has been examined in some detail is type-A "Compulsive prone behaviour". Type-A behaviour is characterised by sustained drive towards poorly defined goals, preoccupation with deadlines, competitiveness and desire for advancement and achievement, mental and behavioural alertness or aggressiveness, chronic haste and impatience (Fletcher, 1989; Jenkins, Zyzianski and Roseman, 1971; Payne, 1988; Price,
1982), such behaviours are seen as being promoted by environmental factors (Friedman and Rosenman, 1974) and it is from this perspective that the work environment maybe important.

Kenan and McBain (1979) used type A as a moderator of the relationship between perceived stressors and strains. The three stressors were role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. These three were found to be related to tension at work and job-satisfaction. Baltis (1980) studied 111 supermarket managers measuring job-satisfaction, job related anxiety and propensity to leave as strains and role ambiguity and role conflict as stressors. Abdel Halim (1980) found that the relationship between role ambiguity and job-satisfaction was moderated by locus of control. In more ambiguous jobs the internals were more satisfied than the externals. Since job-satisfaction and indices of strain typically correlate over 0.30 (Kasl, 1978) this maybe an indirect support for a moderation of a genuine stress-strain relationship. Karasek (1979) showed that the most stressful jobs were those with low autonomy and high demands, autonomy was perhaps appropriately conceptualized as a stressor. The dependent variable was job-satisfaction. Locus of control did not have extensive moderator effects on stress-strain relationship.
Ford and Bagot (1976) suggested that type A behavioural pattern moderated the relationship between role clarity and job-satisfaction (Laster and Balis, 1982). In a study, Keenan and McBain (1977) also confirmed that type-A personality had stronger relationship between role ambiguity and psychological strain than those with type B personality. Similar were the finding in a study by Ivancevick and Matterson (1982) on groups of nurses and managers. Abush and Burkhead (1984) on a sample of midwife working women found a significant relationship between type-A personality and job tension.

A significant relationship between job tension and a linear combination of type-A personality and job characteristics (i.e. autonomy, feedback, significance, friendship opportunities, variety, challenge, identity dealing with others) was found in a study conducted by Abush and Jane (1984). Type-A individuals being aggressive and competitive may perceive a rather passive, low pressured environment as a constraint, while type-B may see it as an opportunity (Schular, 1980).

Moderating impact of type-A personality on psychiatric symptoms of depression, irritation, anger, systolic blood pressure, and other poor physical well being indicators
has been confirmed by many researchers (Gatti, 1984; Howard, Canningham and Rechnitzer, 1986; Ivancevich and Matterson, 1982).

There is clear empirical evidence that the type-A person experiences more stress at work and suffers more coronary heart diseases than type B person, with later, apparently, partially due to the former (Caplan and Jones, 1975; Caplan, Cobb and French, 1975; Evans, Palsane and Carrere, 1987; House, 1974; Jenkins, 1971; 1976; Sherry, 1981).

The measurement of time has become more sophisticated over the past hundred years and the pace of life has increased. Roseman and Friedman (1974) called this mental and behavioural pattern, the type-A behaviour. On the basis of experience and research, they adopted a theory that is unacceptable to many cardiologists. In the absence of a type-A behaviour pattern, coronary heart disease almost never occurs before 70 years of age, regardless of the fatty food eaten, the cigarettes smoked or the lack of exercise. But this disease can easily erupt in one's thirties or forties (Roseman and Friedman, 1974). Such type of persons, who continually lives under time pressure and worries about lack of time is found in many organisations, some authors say that this type of
behaviour is an extreme variant of what is socially highly recommended and positively rewarded. Others think that type-A behaviour is dysfunctional and that the better jobs are only for the quiet, detached, contemplative type-B (Mathews, 1982). Glass (1977) has theorized that A-types demonstrate hyper-responsiveness with regard to challenging situations, meaning that they always expose themselves to fight situations. If they fail to succeed, they will, much more so than B-types, start to achieve less and experience learned helplessness.

French, Caplan and Harrison (1982) analysed some of the data from their studies to test the Person-Environment fit model correlation between strains (defined as any deviations from the normal state or responses of the person), and income and education, and reported that (a) too little income was associated with increased strain and (b) strains (job-satisfaction, boredom, and somatic complaints) increased primarily when the person had more education than was typically required to perform the job.

The results of Milutinovich and Tshaklanganos (1976) indicated that (a) Black from middle income communities were more satisfied with their total job than Black from high-middle income communities, (b) Black from poor community were less satisfied with their total job than
whites from poor communities, (c) Whites from poor communities were less satisfied with their total job than white from either middle income or high income neighbours. Weaver (1980) reported that job-satisfaction was generally higher for white collar than blue-collar employees. Professionals - technicals and managerial administrative employees were both significantly more job-satisfied than white-collar employees.

The executives were more satisfied in their jobs than the "skilled" and "unskilled" (Alderfer, 1972; Chernik and Phelan, 1974). Smith and Walter (1982) reported that male professors were significantly more satisfied than female professors. Veroff, Douvan and Kulka (1981) reported a decline in job-satisfaction among women within a time period of 1957 to 1976. They also reported that women expressed different sources of gratification from work in 1957 in contrast to 1976.

Stern (1970) reported that high school graduates whose personality were more congruent with their college climate were more satisfied with their college. Swaney and Prediger (1985) for a broad section of young adults, indicated that persons reporting intrinsic job-satisfaction displayed greater interest-occupation congruence than persons not reporting intrinsic job-satisfaction.
Keenan and McBain (1981) on a sample middle level managers, found that role ambiguity was significantly associated with high tension at work in subjects classified as externals but not in internals. However, in another study by Marine and White (1985), on a sample of health care personnel, it was found that job specificity was positively related to job stress among internals and negatively related to stress among externals.

Baltis (1980); Koreman (1971) and Organ and Green (1974) studies failed to provide evidence of any significant moderating effect of locus of control on the relationship between role ambiguity/role conflict and three outcomes i.e. job-satisfaction, job anxiety and turnover.

Howard and Smith (1986) found that the strongest predictor of computer anxiety was specific mathematical anxiety, while correlations with general "stress tolerance" measures such as trait anxiety and locus of control were not significant. General personality indices of stress tolerance need to be developed, of course, though they may be less clearly related to obvious characteristics such as trait anxiety and temperament. In any case, they may not be applicable to situations where
clearly defined problems provide a more specific focus for adaptive behaviour. A cognitive approach may be better equipped to deal with these.

Research literature suggested that person with external locus of control perceived higher stress in a particular situation than the person with internal locus of control (Abdel-Halim, 1980; Anderson, 1977; Houston, 1972; Organ and Green, 1974; Valecha, 1974). However, in a study by Marine and White (1985) it was found that externals experiences less job stress in mechanistic structures with precise role prescription, standardized operating procedures-formal work roles and centralised lines of authority than the internals.

It has been established that the relation of perceived job stress and mental health is moderated by various personal characteristics of the focal employee and a number of organisational variables. In recent years some efforts have been made to ascertain the moderating effects of some social and personal variables. These studies have yielded moderating effects of social variables (Caplan et al., 1975; Grove, 1978; House and Walls, 1978; Winubst and Marcelissen 1982); personality type (Gavin and Axelrod, 1977; Keenan and McBain, 1979) on the relation of job/role stress and strains and mental health.
Glogow (1986) and Keene, Ducette and Alder (1985) indicated that subjects with an external locus of control were more likely to develop attitudes indicative of burnout. Fleishman (1984) argued that, the distinction between personality characteristics and coping behaviours was one of generality or level of abstraction. General personality orientations may be manifest in the choice of specific coping behaviours in a particular situation.

A considerable amount of research has characterized coping in terms of relatively stable personal traits or styles. Studies adopting this approach examined the impact of a particular personality trait or coping style, such as hardiness (Kobasa, Maddi and Courington, 1981), locus of control (Lefcourt, 1985) on the relationship between stress and well being, under the assumption that individuals with certain predispositions (e.g. high hardiness, internal locus of control, type B behaviour pattern) are better able to cope with stress and therefore suffer fewer of its negative consequences. Inspite of the intuitive appeal of this approach, there was little unequivocal evidence that particular personal traits or coping styles consistently led to the attenuation of the relationship between stress and well being (Cohen and Edwards, 1988).
Bartol (1975) asked a group of 40 female college students, who smoked at least five cigarettes a day to rate their desire to smoke in two hypothetical situations: stressful and non-stressful. Subjects were classified into two groups - extraverts and neurotic. The results indicated that extraverts had greater desire to smoke in stressful situation, whereas introverts showed their desire to smoke in the non-stressful situation. A number of studies confirmed that cigarette smokers were significantly higher in extroversion than non-smokers and ex-smokers (Chaterjee et al., 1979; Rustina et al., 1978). Similarly it has been found that the subjects who had high neuroticism score were more likely to smoke than those with low scores (Cherry and Kiernan, 1976).

Personality characteristics which have been found to be of significance in stress research are rigidity, conformism, suppression of aggression, dogmatism, authoritarianism, internal versus external control etc. (Winnubst, 1984).

Dan (1984) found that extroverts assigned significantly more positive meaning to the heat-stress situation and tended to estimate their probability of success higher than did introverts. However, extroverts tended to suffer from higher physiological stress than
introverts. Holland (1973, 1985) suggested that (a) Most people could be characterized by their similarity to each of six personality types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, conventional) that reflected most of what was known about individuals, and (b) there were six analogous work environments that characterized the prevailing physical and social settings in society. The degree of congruence between individuals' primary personality type and their respective work environment was the basis for hypothesized vocational consequences (e.g., stability, success, satisfaction) resulting from person-environment interactions.

Kim (1980) found that the introvert subjects reported less dissatisfaction than did the extravert subjects in the non-stimulating task, whereas the extravert subjects were more satisfied than were the introvert subjects in stimulating task. Levy (1976) reported that low authoritarian subjects were judged to be significantly better than high authoritarians who were maladjusted led to a prediction of relationship.

Extraverts as compared to introverts, tended to be habitually in a state of low arousal, had a higher level of sensory threshold, and consequently, sought for stronger external sensory stimulation. Conversely, introverts
tended to be more often concerned with reducing stimulation from the environment (Hammer and Organ, 1978). Extraversion has been implicated in efforts of monotony, noise, incentives, drugs, sleep deprivation and other stressors, though other factors have also been shown to be important (Eysenck, 1982). He further argued that neuroticism may potentiate the beneficial or adverse effects of incentives, so that the performance of neurotic introverts (high anxiety individuals) was likely to suffer under higher incentive while that of neurotic extraverts were more likely to benefit. Stable individuals of either temperament type were less likely to show any effects. High anxiety i.e., neuroticism, appeared to be associated with a tendency to attribute failure to a lack of self ability and vise-versa in individuals low in anxiety. High levels of traits anxiety may, therefore, be associated with a belief that nothing could be done to overcome stress or its resultant problems (Eysenck, 1982). Gray (1973) argued that individual differences in susceptibility to reward were related to the personality dimension of impulsivity: those low in impulsivity (i.e. stable introverts) were low in susceptibility to reward whereas those high in impulsivity (i.e., neurotic extroverts) had high susceptibility to reward. On the other hand, differences in susceptibility were related to the anxiety dimension: those low in anxiety (i.e. stable
extraverts) were much less susceptible to punishment than those in high anxiety (i.e. neurotic introverts).

Rim (1977) found among college students that the people’s perceptions on the degree of significance of their work were influenced by extraversion. At the management level, Kirton and Mulligan (1973) found attitudes towards Organisational change to be related to a combination of neuroticism and extraversion.

A study of Savage and Stewart (1972) involving 100 female card punch operators in training supported the assumption that extraverts would have more difficulty in monotonous jobs of this type than introverts. There were negative correlations between extraversion and supervisor ratings of output per month.

Hill (1975) found no relationship between boredom and extraversions. Similar were the findings in a study by Horne and Ostberg (1977).

Eysenck and White (1976) found relationship between extraversion-introversion and mental health. Introversion was found to be a factor in mental ill health. However, Moore (1976) found no relationship. Herilizer (1975) argued that the relationship was more complex and
suggested an additional theoretical alternative, that there were two interacting bipolar dimensions involved: introversion-extraversion and neuroticism-impulsiveness. Either pole of the latter "adjustment" dimension may be associated with extraversion or introversion. Thus there could be four types of maladjusted. The most common would be neurotic introversion and impulsive extraversion because of a slight positive correlation between dimensions.

In India, also studies have been conducted in this field regarding personality moderators. Mishra and Singh (1987) found occupational stress to be significantly affecting the relationship of job-satisfaction and job-involvement. Occupational stress had moderating effect upon the job-satisfaction and job-involvement relationship (Mishra, 1986). The independent variable of stress, task variety, and task identity, and the intervening variable of sense of competence had significant direct effect on job-satisfaction (Sekaran, 1986). Rao and Ganguli (1972) reported that highly skilled personnel were more satisfied than skilled personnel. Bushan and Kaur (1984) reported job-satisfaction to be higher in the public mines than in the private mines. The executives were significantly more satisfied in their jobs than the "skilled" and the "unskilled" workers (Bose, 1976; Bhushan and Sinha, 1987).
Ganesan and Rajendran (1982) that the satisfaction of the higher order needs like autonomy and self actualization was not related to personality orientation.

Kumar (1983) found that at low task difficulty, the performance of extraverts and introverts was similar, at medium task difficulty also both the groups did not differ in their performance, but at high task difficulty the extraverts were more accurate than introverts.

The correlation between role stress and neuroticism, social desirability, need for achievement, need for power, develop/missionary/autocrat styles of leadership, authoritarian climate and low satisfaction were found to be significant (Kumar, 1984; Mohan and Bali, 1988; Mohan and Jahangir, 1984; Sehgal and Sharma, 1990). Rangaswami (1983) showed that alcoholics were more extraverted and neurotic. They experienced much more life stress than normals.

The inter correlation between ego-strength and occupational stress was negative and significant (Mishra and Singh, 1986).

Srivastava (1986) found that low extravert employees were more satisfied with their job as compared to the high
extravert employees, and similar results were observed for the neurotic group of employees.

3.4.2. Situational Moderators:

Job-satisfaction is viewed as cause of job perceptions in as much as job-satisfaction predisposes the individual to construct and maintain a psychological climate that is consistent with existing or desired, levels of job-satisfaction (Banura, 1978; James and Singh, 1978; Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977, 1978). Lyon and Ivancevich (1974) indicated that different climate dimensions influenced individual job-satisfaction facts for nurses and administrators, and subordinates (Cynthia, 1988). Pritchard and Karasick (1973) confirmed that a highly supportive climate was found to be closely linked with high job-satisfaction of managers, regardless of the individual managers personality needs.

In a study of managerial personnel, Abdel Halim (1982) reported that work group and supervisor support moderated job strains in the presence of role conflict and rule ambiguity.

Partial support was also found for the Person-Environment fit hypothesis related to job-dissatisfaction.
The sex differences suggested that more men than women were dissatisfied with income, fringe benefits, and opportunity for promotion, and that women in social environment were more dissatisfied than men (Elton and Smart, 1988). Job-satisfaction was multifaceted construct that included satisfaction with pay, fringe benefits, job security, opportunity for advancement, co-workers, work environment, etc. Although persons might value high pay, job security etc, it was unreasonable to expect interest inventory scores to be related to job-satisfaction with pay, security etc. (Osipow, 1979; Prediger, 1982). Employees satisfaction with supervision, co-workers, task, promotional opportunities and work, in general, affected the perception of climate while results of satisfaction with pay were mixed (McIntyreray, 1990).

Workers in conventional and artistic environments reported higher satisfaction, while those in an enterprising environment reported significantly less satisfaction (Wiggins, Lederer, Salkowe and Rye, 1983). Mount and Muchinsky (1978) have reported higher job-satisfaction among congruent workers in investigative, conventional, and enterprising environments than among workers in social and artistic environments.
Parker and Decotis (1983) moved a step ahead in defining the job stress dimensions caused by time pressure and anxiety on the job and empirically related them to higher order outcomes such as organisational climate structure and information, organisational commitment satisfaction, motivation and performance.

Cultural support did not appear to be directly related to stress. No significant differences were found regarding the amount of stress reported by Hispanic and non-Hispanic psychologists (Roxana, 1988). Katzel (1983) found that excessive experienced tension on the job even affect the quality of work life in organisations.

Professional women competing in a male dominated environment were related to chronic stress (Hall and Hall, 1980), and that professional women experienced more stress than do housewives or men (Haynes and Feinleib, 1980). House and Rizzo (1970) reported that less role conflict was associated with mechanistic organisational practices. Zelznik, Kets de Vries and Howard (1978) showed that managers as compared to staff and operational people showed a low prevalence of stress reactions. The environment, particularly, the frustrations and deprivations associated with bureaucracy and lack of power activated the defence against anger and rage, that in turn
led to symptom formation. Borrego (1980) found that organisational groups which had the least control in the workplace, showed the highest level of stress related problems.

Morris, Streers and Koch (1979) found that the impact on role conflict and ambiguity of particular structural properties may be influenced by the characteristics of the occupational groupings to which a given role is ascribed. The analysis for separate occupational groupings suggested that structural properties (e.g. work group size, span of subordination, supervisory span, formalisation and functional dependence) individually were consistently associated with adverse role perceptions among secretarial/clerical employees than either the blue collared or professional employees.

Several reviews have indicated that support from supervisors and co-workers is positively related to more favourable job attitudes and health (Cobb, 1976, Cobb and Kasl, 1977; Gore, 1974; Pinneau, 1976). Bediean et.al. (1981) indicated that Organisational level did not significantly interact with either role ambiguity or role conflict in hospitals' nursing service.
In India, Porwal (1987) showed that the nationalization had not significantly increased the level of job-satisfaction of bank employees. However, the higher mean job-satisfaction score of the employees of nationalised banks indicated that nationalisation had a little, if any, impact on the job-satisfaction level of its employees. Nationalised and non-nationalised banks did not differ significantly in job-satisfaction. Dhillon (1989) has reported the significant effect of hierarchy on perceived occupational stress and job-satisfaction in male police personnel.

Job level has turned out to be a moderator of stress well-being relationship (Harigopal and Kumar, 1978, 1979; Sharma and Sharma, 1983). Singh et al. (1980) suggested that as one moved down from the top through middle to the bottom organisational level, the role conflict mean values increased. Natha (1980) reported that role conflict decreased with the increase in job-tenure in an organisation.

Das (1982) reported work group climate as an important cause of managerial stress and perceived power to be the second most potent cause of managerial stress. Contrary to Western studies, role ambiguity did not turnout to be a significant cause of stress. Thus a negative group
climate and powerlessness may be a stronger source of stress experienced by Indian managers.

Singh, Agarwala and Malhan (1980) indicated that individuals engaged in research and development activities experienced lesser degree of general role conflict as compared to those in production department. People in finance and commercial departments experienced lesser degree of conflict than those in research and development department. Surti (1983) found that nurses and bank employees experienced highest role stress, while University and college teachers experienced lowest level of role stress. In addition, social workers and gazetted officers felt more efficacious in their role, while researchers and bank employees felt less efficacious.
3.5. **Hypothesis of the Study**:

I. There will be a significant difference in the Job-satisfaction of Professionals vs. Non-Professionals.

II. There will be a significant difference in the perception of different types of Role Stress among Professionals vs. Non-Professionals.

III. Professionals and Non-Professionals with different levels of Extraversion and Neuroticism will differ in their perception of Job-Satisfaction.

IV. Professionals and Non-Professionals with different levels of Extraversion and Neuroticism will differ in their perception of the different types of Role Stress.

V. There will be a significant difference in the perception of organisational climate among Professionals vs. Non-Professionals.

VI. There will be a significant relationship between Extraversion and Neuroticism and the perception of Job-Satisfaction among Professionals and Non-Professionals.
VII. There will be a significant relationship between Extraversion and Neuroticism and the perception of the different types of Role Stress among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

VIII. There will be a significant relationship between Organisational Climate and the perception of Job-Satisfaction among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

IX. There will be a significant relationship between perceived organisational climate and the perception of the different types of Role Stress among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

X. Extraversion and Neuroticism will be significant predictors of the perception of Job-Satisfaction among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

XI. Extraversion and Neuroticism will be the significant predictors of the perception of the different types of Role Stress among Professionals and Non-Professionals.
XII. Perceived Organisational Climate will be a significant predictor of the Job-Satisfaction among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

XIII. Perceived Organisational Climate will be a significant predictor of the perception of the different types of Role Stress among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

XIV. Personality and Organisational Climate taken together will explain larger proportion of the variance in the Job-Satisfaction among Professionals and Non-Professionals.

XV. Personality and Organisational Climate taken together will explain a larger proportion of variance in the perception of different types of Role Stress among Professionals and Non-Professionals.