CHAPTER ONE
1. STRESS IN THE MODERN WORLD

1.1 Introduction

The last half-century has experienced an enormous change in the nature of society and of the workplace in particular (Cooper, 1998). Though assured by the limitless possibilities of change, the British Prime Minister of the time proclaimed that the 'white heat of technology' was to transform lives, producing a leisure age of 20 hours working week. This was met by a period of industrial struggle and conflict during the 1970s in much of the developed world. Then came the 'enterprise culture' of the 1980s, a decade of privatization; process re-engineering transformed work-places into free-market and hot-house cultures. Although this encouraged a high level of competitiveness in international markets, there were the first signs of strain, as 'stress' and 'burnout' became living concepts.

However, the most profound changes were seen in the Industrial Revolution of the 1990s. This period was dominated by the effects of the recession and efforts to get out of it, forcing organizations to downsize and flatten their structures. From the mid 1900s to 1990, we see a dramatic increase of women workers in the workplace with a noticeable pushing of the 'glass ceiling' upward. Although all this has led to a slight increase in profitability and productivity, decision making has slowed down and organizations on the whole have lost the right mix of human resource skills and experience. (Worrall & Cooper, 1997-1999).

Hence, when countries no longer operate within boundaries, they have to face competition globally. As rightly stated by Michael Porter in his book 'The Competitive
Advantage of Nations' (1990): 'Firms will not ultimately succeed unless they base their strategies on improvement and innovation, a willingness to compete and a realistic understanding of their national environment and how to improve it.'

The 1900s till date stand apart from every other period in history as a time of incredible change. Different people have attached different names to this period.

- Age of Discontinuity - Peter Drucker (1968)
- Age of Uncertainty - Economist John Kenneth Galbraith (1977)
- Age of Anxiety - Karl Albrecht (1979)

However, Toffler (1970) exhorts that due to the accelerating rate of change, people are bound to experience an inescapable level of physiological stress - a form of tangible and biological arousal that makes all humans vulnerable to other pressures and events in their lives.

The last half of the century has seen enormous changes in the nature of society and of the workplace, and we must consider the implications of these developments for the experience of strain. The general thrust of these changes has been summarized by Kevin Murphy (1999), who depicted the new environment as the 'post-industrial workplace' and by Gowing, Kraft, and Quick (1997), who referred to it as the 'new organizational reality'.

Patricia Murphy and Susan Jackson (1999) have suggested that work no longer comes in neatly packaged bundles of prescribed tasks. Instead, future job
descriptions 'will be fluid rather than fixed, abstract and general, rather than detailed'. (Murphy, 1999).

Researchers and scholars have linked the consequences of stress to associated personnel problems, which translated into reduced productivity, absenteeism, job turnover, and premature retirement (Alluisi & Fleshman, 1982; Celoline, 1982; Chadwick Jones, Nicholson, and Brown, 1982; Saffer, 1984). As stated by Miller and Smith (1997), stress caused about one million employees to be absent on any given work-day and ultimately was responsible for 50% of employee burnout and 40% of employee turnover.

In real terms of absenteeism, reduced productivity, and workers compensation benefits, stress has cost American industry more than $300 billion annually or approximately $7,500 per worker per year, and has been linked to six leading causes of death: heart disease, cancer, lung ailments, accidents, cirrhosis of the liver and suicide. (Miller & Smith, 1997).

Distressed individuals can experience negative health effects such as ulcers, headaches, exhaustion, and coronary heart diseases (Beehr & Bhagat, 1985; Davis, 1979; Greenberg, 1984; Martin & Schumerhorn, 1983; Sethi & Schuler, 1984; Tung & Koch, 1980; Yates, 1979).

Organizations have been held financially accountable for issues related to job stress, and stress has become expensive for the organization. Health-care benefits due to stress-induced illnesses can create financial burdens for many companies (Margolis, Keowa & Quinn, 1974; Van Harrison Moss, Dielman, Horvath & Harlan, 1987). This
health-care cost which has accounted for approximately 12% of the gross domestic products would escalate annually (Miller & Smith, 1997).

Yet again, other areas of organizational cost could include retaining employees, replacing individuals who leave their jobs (Frew, 1977) and paying for sick employees' health-care. (Quick & Quick, 1984).

1.2 Concept of Stress

Stress has been seen as a contributory factor to the loss of productivity and health-care, but stress-research studies of stress-related illnesses and deaths show, stress imposes a high cost on individual health and well-being as well as organizational productivity. (Cooper, Liukkonen, & Cartwright, 1996; Sutherland & Cooper, 1990).

The word 'stress' derives from the Latin language 'stringere' (strictus) that means to draw tightly or bind. It was used in Old French (estrece) and in Middle English where it appeared as 'stress', 'strisse', or with other similar spelling. It was used popularly in the seventeenth century to mean 'hardship', 'strait', 'adversity', or 'affliction'. (Online Dictionary, http://www.dictionary.com). During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it was used to denote 'force', 'pressure', 'strain', or strong 'effort'.

Robbins (2001) defines stress as a dynamic condition in which the individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraint, or demand related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important. Stress can be caused by environmental, organizational, and individual variables. (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1999; Cook & Hunsaker, 2001).

Rao, S.K. Ramachandra (1983) finds the origin of stress in Samkhya and Yoga systems and noted that two Sanskrit words Klesa and Dukha related to stress. Klesa has its origin in the root Khis meaning to 'foment', 'cause pain', or 'to afflict'. The Klesas are not mental processes but are a set of 'hindering levels' on our mental process; they produce agitation, which acts as a restriction or hindrance. The samkhyayoga system postulates three types of stress: personal (adhyatmik), situational (adhibhoutik), and environmental (adhiavik). This system also discusses
the coping orientation (abinivesa). It suggests the practice of Kriya-yoga to reduce the 'number and intensity of stressors and to help in the conservation of mental energy'.

Wolf (1948) describes stress as an inherent characteristic of life. Lazarus (1966) went on to explain stress as a broad class of problems or demands that exerts pressure on the system and the response to that system. The response however is dependent on the interpretation (consciously or unconsciously) and the significance of a harmful, threatening or challenging event.

According to the Person-Environment Fit Model, Caplan (1983) explains stress in terms of matching needs and values of a person with the environmental supplies and opportunities to meet these needs and values. Yet, according to Eckles (1987) stress is developed internally rather than externally. Thus stress is internal, caused by ways in which we relate to the world, events and people around us.

Stress may be viewed in at least three different ways: as a response to some demand, as a situation, and as a relationship between a person and the environment (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987). While some bridges between these various conceptions do exist (Baum, Fleming, & Singer, 1982), most research tends to focus on one perspective. The following is the review of the different perspectives:
1.2.1 Stress as a Response

A pioneer in stress research defined the term as 'the non-specific response of the body to any demand'. Hans Selye (1956) coined the term 'stress syndrome', showed that the stress syndrome is fundamental to virtually all higher forms of animals. He developed a comprehensive theory of the body's adaptive processes, based on a three-stage General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) which is a widely accepted model that explains the stress phenomenon.

**Alarm Reaction:** The first stage is an alarm reaction composed of an initial shock phase and then a counter-shock or rebound phase. Autonomous excitability, adrenaline discharge, increased heart rate, muscle tone, blood content and gastrointestinal ulceration characterize this stage.

**Stage of Resistance:** During this stage the individual attempts to adjust to the demands imposed by the stressor. Should the stressor persist, then the individual moves into the next stage.

**Stage of Exhaustion:** The final stage of exhaustion occurs when the individual's ability to adapt has reached its limit. After the reactions of the alarm stage disappear and the adaptation energy gets exhausted, the organism collapses.

Although, the non-specific concept of stress-related illnesses and the GAS have had far-reaching influence and significant impact on the conceptualization and understanding of stress, they have been challenged (Cox, 1985). Research indicates, for instance, that response to stimuli do not always follow the same pattern and can be stimulus-specific and dependent on the type of hormonal secretion. For example: anxiety-producing situations are associated with adrenalin, whereas no adrenalin is
released in response to aggression-producing events. Concomitantly, the GAS approach does not address the issue of psychological responses to stress, nor that a response to a potential threat may in-turn become the stimulus for another response.

An additional problem that emerges is that Stress is considered as a generic term that subsumes as a large variety of manifestation (Peartin, Lieberman, Menaghan, & Mullen, 1981). There is disagreement about the actual manifestation of stress, as well as about where in the organism or system, stress is manifested.

Due to the medical focus that emphasizes the organism's response, Selye's approach and response-based definitions generally have also been criticized because they appear not to consider environmental factors in the stress process.

1.2.2 Stress as an Interaction
This approach focuses on the statistical interaction between the stimulus and the response. Defined as a 'structural' approach (Stahl, Grim, Donald, and Neikirk — 1975) and 'quantitative' (Straus, 1973) is one wherein the relationship is between a stimulus and response. According to Lazarus and Launier (1978), a definition like this which focuses only on the interaction between two variables extends the attempt to only explain relationship limited to 'structural manipulations'. Hence the interactional approach is limited to its ability to causal interaction and relationship. In contrast, however, the transactional model of stress works to explore the essential nature of stressor-response along with the dynamic stress process contained in it.
1.2.3 Stress as a Relationship between People and the Environment

The third approach defines stress as a relationship between the individual and the environment (Lazarus, 1966). Stress can be viewed both as an intrinsic factor as well as extrinsic factor depending on the causative factors leading to stress. Stress is experienced due to the factors inherent within an individual's personality or due to factors existing in the environment. From this perspective, therefore, a person has certain abilities, needs and values and there are certain opportunities available in the environment to match the requirement of the person.

Woolfolk and Richardson's (1979) model of stress aligns itself to that of Lazarus. It proposes that stress responses are not the direct result of environmental factors, which are neutral in nature and therefore incapable of creating stress reactions. Stress here is seen as a perception of one's mind. Environmental demands exist only in so far as they are perceived. In the opinion of McGrath (1976), there is potential for stress when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand which threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources for meeting, under conditions where he expects a substantial differential in the rewards and the cost from meeting the demand, versus not meeting it.

Beehr and Bhagat (1985) proposed that stress will be a function of perceived demands on the individual and the perceived resources and coping strength of the individual, multiplied by the perceived importance of meeting the demands and duration of the situation.

Harrison (1985) offers a detailed conceptualization of the relationship between the person and the environment in the person-environment fit theory. This has been
elaborated by French and Kahn, 1962; French, Rogers & Cobb, 1974; Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison & Pinneau, 1980; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982; and Caplan, 1983).

The importance of the interface between the individual and the job has generally been recognized, by (Pervin, 1968; Hulin & Blood, 1968; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Argyris, 1973; and Feather; 1975).

This theory is based on the description of motivational processes by Lewin (1951) and Murray (1938). This theory distinguishes between two types of fit, each measured in terms of commensurate properties of the person and environment. There is a fit between the needs and values of the person and the environmental supplies and opportunities to meet these needs and values. The fit is achieved through the different roles assigned by the organization. One deals with how a job occupant's abilities and skills match with the demand of the job. Another kind of fit refers to the degree of which the work environment provides supplies to meet the occupant's job demands.

In the Person-Environment theory, two types of dimensions were identified; dimensions reflecting fit between motives and supplies, and dimensions reflecting fit between demands and abilities. Individual stress is fundamentally based on insufficient environmental supplies to meet motives. Just as meeting needs and values is fundamental to the continued functioning and existence of the individual, meeting role demands is fundamental to the continued functioning and existence of the organization. Just as the individual seeks in the environment supplies for motives; similarly, the organization seeks in its 'environment' for individuals to meet role demands.
1.2.4 Physical and Behavioral Reactions to Stress

Stress places physical demands on the human body and mind, often resulting in detrimental consequences. A survey of workers in various industries conducted jointly by International Communications Research, the American Society of Chartered Life Underwriters and Chartered Financial Consultants, and, the Ethics Officer Association, noted 88% of respondents reporting physical and psychological reactions to workplace pressure with insomnia, headaches, depression, weight changes, and panic attacks being the top complaints in order of frequency (Boyd, 1997).

Iwasaki et al (2004) notes qualitative differences in the experience of men and women with regard to emotional stress. In their study, female managers identified relationship stress as a negative event creating significant worry for them because it involved being 'worried about other people' (Iwasaki et al, 2004). Those women assumed responsibility for a positive emotional outcome for all involved. In contrast, the male managers demonstrated an ability to detach their thought processes from workplace relationship issues. These contrasting orientations of assumed responsibility for others versus self-focused detachment create a qualitative difference in the experience of daily events and seem to impact the perceived level of stress. Their research also highlighted the reluctance of women to articulate their internal emotional distress when males were present.

Previous research examining gender differences and the impact on job strain and health has provided mixed results. Isolating the impact of work related stressors versus the impact of a male or female response to those stressors is a challenge. It is unclear, for example, whether correlations between job strain and health are
caused by differences in exposure to workplace stressors or different responses to those stressors (Vermeulen & Mustard, 2000).

Roxburgh (1996) posed two possible explanations for the apparent higher levels of psychological distress among women in relation to work:
(a) There are no gender differences in the degree of exposure to workplace stressors, but women are more vulnerable to the effects of stress, or
(b) Women are exposed to a greater magnitude of work stress than men.

Parker and Griffin (2002) note the correlation of an environment with high levels of gender harassment with over-performance demands upon the harassed individual. Such over-performance demands ultimately lead to psychological distress. In their study of female (n = 262) and male (n = 315) police officers, they found 48% of the women reported feeling they must work twice as hard as their colleagues, whereas only 9% of men responded this way.
1.3 Concept of Role Stress

A member in an organization assumes a role, which can be defined as expectation of self and others from the focal person at the workplace. A role can be understood in terms of a role set. An organizational man usually has a superior, co-workers, and subordinates who are significant persons in one's role set (Banton, 1965; Gross, Mason, & McEaachern, 1958; Neiman & Hughes, 1951). In many instances, the incumbent personalizes the position (Graen, 1976) so that individuals in the same position will exhibit different effective behaviors. The freedom experienced in every role performance allows people to fill a role without experiencing role strain (Komarovsky, 1973; Merton, 1966). In situations wherein individuals occupy roles which conflict with ones value system or conflict with each other lead to an outcome of role stress or role conflict.

However, when single or multiple roles which confront the individuals which may not be clearly articulated in terms of behaviors or performance levels expected, then the situation is referred to as role ambiguity (Kahn et al, 1964).

1.3.1 Role Stress

Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) exhort role stress as potential role stress. Kahn and Quinn (1970) have identified three categories of role stress, namely expectations generated stress, expectations-resource discrepancies and role-personality mismatch. The first category encapsulates role ambiguity and role conflict. The second category contains role overload, responsibility-authority dilemma, and inadequate technical information. The third category relates to the gaps between the role and personality.
The concept of an organization is a system of roles and role itself is a system. Organizational roles constitute the basic HR infrastructure on which the success of HR systems and process depends, Srivastav (2006). According to Pareek (2004), membership of an organization and the concept of an organizational role have inbuilt potential for stress. Stress due to occupation of a role in an organization is known as Organizational Role Stress (ORS).

While explaining various role related terms, Pareek states that each individual in the society performs several roles. All these roles make up one's role space. The self is in the centre of the role space. The person plays various roles around one self. Since the roles are at various distances from the self and from each other, these relationships define the role space. Each role has its own systems, which has been called role set. Role set is the pattern of relationships between the role being considered by role occupant and other role occupants who have expectations from the former role occupant. In this, the role of the role occupant is in the center and all other roles are around the person's particular role.

In the role behaviors of an individual, several variables are involved: the self, the other roles (role senders), the expectations by the other roles, expectations by the self, other role expectations by the self and other roles under-taken and performed by the individual. It is in the nature of the role that it has built-in potential for conflict and stress. So stress is a natural variable in the role performance. While performing several roles or within one's role, a person finds that the way is not leading one to the desired goal. The consequence is disillusionment, frustration, tension, conflict and, stress.
Pareek (1981), on the basis of theoretical speculation and statistical analysis has identified ten different types of role stresses prevalent in any organizational setting, as below:

**1.3.1.1 Inter Role Distance (IRD)**

An individual usually performs more than one role and there may be conflicts between these roles. Thus, there is conflict between the organizational role and other roles, that is, stress due to the conflict of not being able to share time between the work demands and family demands. The distance or conflict among these various roles represents inter-role distance.

**1.3.1.2 Role Stagnation (RS)**

As an individual grows older, he grows in the role that he occupies in an organization. With the advancement of the individual, the role changes, and with this change in role, the need for taking up a new role becomes crucial. Such a type of stress results into perception that there is no opportunity for one's career progression. This perception may be more intense when the role occupant holds a role for a longer period and enters in a new role in which he feels less secure.

**1.3.1.3 Role Expectation Conflict (REC)**

When there are conflicting expectations or demands by different role senders (persons) having expectations from the role, the role occupant may experience this stress. It is possible that the significant persons differ in their expectation about the same role and the role occupant is ambivalent as to whom to please.
1.3.1.4 Role Erosion (RE)

A feeling that some important functions a role occupant would like to perform have been given to some other roles or it could be a feeling that there is not much challenge in the functions given to the role occupant. Moreover, this can also happen when the role occupant performs the functions but the credit has gone to someone else.

1.3.1.5 Role overload (RO)

When an individual feels or that there are too many expectations from the 'significant' others in his role set, he experiences role overload. There are two aspects of this stress, namely quantitative and qualitative. The former refers to having 'too much to do' while the latter refers to 'too difficult'.

1.3.1.6 Role Isolation (RI)

In a role set, the role occupant may feel that certain roles are psychologically closer to him, while others are at a much greater distance. The main criterion of distance is the frequency and ease of interaction. The frequency and ease of interaction among the roles is a measure of the strength of the linkages among the roles.

1.3.1.7 Personal Inadequacy (PI)

This type of stress arises when the role occupant feels that he does not have the necessary skills and training for effectively performing the functions expected from his role. This is found to happen when the organizations do not impart periodic training to enable the employees to cope with the fast changes occurring both within and outside the organization.
1.3.1.8 Self Role Distance (SRD)
This type of stress arises out of conflict between the self-concept and the expectations from the role, as perceived by the role occupant. The conflict of one's values and self concepts with the requirements of the organizational role is known as self role conflict. This is essentially a conflict arising out of a mismatch between the person and his job.

1.3.1.9 Role Ambiguity (RA)
When the individual is not clear about the various expectations that people have from his role, the conflict that he faces is called role ambiguity. It may be due to lack of information available to the role occupant. It may exist in relation to activities, responsibilities, personal styles and norms and may operate at the three stages:

- When the role sender holds his expectations about the role
- When he sends it, and
- When the occupant receives those expectations

1.3.1.10 Resource Inadequacy (RIn)
When the resources required by the role occupant for performing the role effectively are not available, these may be related to information, people, material, finance, or facilities.

The independent variables are divided into two parts namely Job/Organizational factors and Personal factors.
1.4 Job/Organizational Factors

The following are the job organizational factors applied in this study:

- **Management Level Variable**
  This variable refers to the hierarchical position an officer holds in an organization. In this study the sample has been divided into three categories. For e.g. Lower Level, Middle Level, and Upper Level. The Lower level cadre refers to officers in the junior position reporting to the Middle Level officers, while the Upper level officers are considered the decision makers of the organization.

- **Span of Control variable**
  According to the online business dictionary, span of control may be defined as, 'The fundamental concept of management, that a manager or supervisor can effectively manage only a limited number of subordinates under his or her direct control.'

  [http://www.businessdictionary.com](http://www.businessdictionary.com).

- **Length of Service variable**
  This variable determines the extent to which an employee has worked in the organization. 2-3 years of work experience is considered lower than 10-15 years of work experience in an organization. The study focuses on the comparative difference between three groups of Length of Service, namely 0-10 years, 11-20 years and 20 and above.
Work Environment Variable

Work environment may be defined as the internal influence of surroundings, physical lighting, service conditions and work culture, on an individual. This variable is contributed in the Job Organizational factors and it includes five sub-factors such as: Equipments, Physical Condition of work, Service Condition of work, Social Interaction and Superior Support.

1. **Equipments** refer to the infrastructure such as computers, printers, software, etc. that are required for the execution of work.

2. **Physical condition** of work indicates the lighting at work place, the building location, and externals of workplace, which in turn facilitate working.

3. **Service condition** refers to the process and administration of officers in view of retention and employee satisfaction such as leave benefit, health insurance, etc.

4. **Social support** refers to the extent of support each officer receives within the organization through informal and formal interaction.

5. **Superior support** refers to the level of support offered to the officer in order to complete work task and make working satisfying.

Finally, the impact of the Environmental support factor on role stress is analyzed by taking the total scores of all factors.
1.5 Personal/Demographic Factors

The following are the Personal/ Demographic factors applied in this study:

- **Age variable**
  
  In this variable the level of one's age is studied in relation to Role Stress. The sample is divided into different age groups namely, Below 30 yrs, 31-40 yrs, and above 40 yrs. The first age group is considered 'lower' age group, while 31-40 is considered the 'middle' age group and above 40 is considered 'upper' age group.

- **Marital Status variable**

  The current sample is divided among officers who are married and unmarried. The marital status is compared with reference to its impact on Role Stress.

- **Gender variable**

  Men and Women react differently to stress levels and hence this variable analyses the responses of Men officers and Women officers to role stress.

- **Income variable**

  Income variable refers to the level of income an individual earns in a month. The income has been divided into three groups namely, below Rs.15000, Rs.15001-Rs.25000, and Rs.25001 and above. The first group is considered the 'lower income group', while Rs.15001-Rs.25000 is considered the 'middle income group' and Rs.25000 and above is considered as the 'higher income group'.

**Health Variables**

Health variables refer to the practices such as physical exercise, jogging, games, yoga and meditation, which in turn are considered useful in maintaining one's level of stress at the work place.

1. **Physical Exercise** means the practice of working out in the gym or exercising with machines.
2. **Jogging** is slow rhythmic running either on the ground or on the treadmill.
3. **Games** indicate group activities such as football, basketball, tennis, etc.
4. **Meditation** means the practice of concentration of breath or other practices that is done in order to focus attention or calm one's mental faculty.
5. **Yoga** reflects the practice of postures etc. for the development of good health and fitness.

**Finally, the impact of the total of health practices on role stress is analyzed by taking the total scores of all practices above.**
1.6 Rationale for the present research

A review of literature purports that various empirical researchers in various organizational settings have concluded that almost every aspect of the job context for example, work activities, supervisory style, interpersonal patterns, the structure of job characteristics etc., can act as potential stressors. Scholars such as Beehr and Newman (1978) and Van-Sel et al (1981) among others have found that personal characteristics are equally responsible for both, the focal person's perception of stressors as well as reactions to them. Some of the personality variables which were examined to assess the individuals sensitivity to stress situations are locus of control (Spielberger, 1966), job involvement (Weissenberg & Gruenfeld, 1968) and many demographic variables like age, sex, marital status, educational level, organizational tenure etc.

An overview of the large literature that deals with these spheres reveals important achievements mixed with certain discontinuities and deficiencies. For example, it is striking that despite the attention given separately to various personal and job/organizational stressors in causation of stress reaction. There is not enough conclusive evidence which deals with the intricate linkage that prevails between different types of role stresses and personal and job/organizational stressors.

The purpose of this study is to know the impact of Personal and job organizational factors on Organizational Role Stress. The Personal demographic factors under study are Age, Marital status, Gender, Income, and Health Practices. Job/organizational factor under study are Management Level, Span of Control, Length of Service, and Environmental Factors.
The Problem under study in this research can be stated as: 'What is the impact of varying health practices of employees and work environment on organizational role stress, in addition to the impact of other demographic and organizational variables already studied in the literature?' The study also looks into the difference of the impact between Private and Public sector bank officers.
## 1.7 RESEARCH MODEL

### Personal/Demographic Factors
1. AGE
2. MARITAL STATUS
3. GENDER
4. INCOME
5. HEALTH PRACTICES
   - Physical Exercise
   - Games
   - Meditation
   - Jogging
   - Yoga

### Job/Organizational Factors
1. MGT LEVEL
2. SPAN OF CONTROL
3. LENGTH OF SERVICE
4. WORK ENVIRONMENT
   - Equipment Support
   - Physical Condition
   - Service Condition
   - Social Support
   - Superior Support

### Organizational Role Stressors
1. INTER ROLE DISTANCE [IRD]
2. ROLE STAGNATION [RS]
3. ROLE EXPECTATION CONFLICT [REC]
4. ROLE EROSION [RE]
5. ROLE OVERLOAD [RO]
6. ROLE ISOLATION [RI]
7. PERSONAL INADEQUACY [PI]
8. SELF-ROLE DISTANCE [SRD]
9. ROLE AMBIGUITY [RA]
10. RESOURCE INADEQUACY [RIn]
11. TOTAL ROLE STRESS