Chapter 1: Introduction

The chapter introduces the variables of the study. The chapter explains the context, concepts, causes and consequences of stress. It is followed by an overview of organizational role stress. The chapter then focuses on personality. The chapter ends with a brief introduction of problem of stress among police personnel.

1.1 The Context of Stress

The word “stress” is one of the most frequently used words today (Treven & Potocan, 2005). Although the term was first used in biological context by Hans Selye, a Canadian endocrinologist in 1936 (Hageman, 1982), it is now an oft used word in a general sense as well. Stress refers to irritations that disturb the individual balance (Plazza & Pozzi, 1994). It may be a complex pattern of emotional states, psychological reactions and related thoughts in response to external demands (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Individuals use it as a basic explanatory mechanism to describe what they see as improper with work, family life, and society. It is also the cause of marital discard, mental illness, disease and lesser productivity (Hobfoll, 2004).

In today’s competitive era and fast pace of development, the impact of Stress has increased manifold. Its adverse effects, in varying degree, are experienced by everyone now. Stress is the cause of many accidents, diseases, early deaths, suicides, dissatisfactions and tensions (Schmidt, 2001). Due to stress, humankind looses 100 million working days every year. Almost 50 to 75 percent of today’s diseases are related to stress (Treven & Potocan, 2005). It is estimated that job stress cost U.S. businesses up to $150 billion (Spielberger et al., 2003). Another estimate shows that stress costs US business a sum of $300 billion annually (Business News Daily, 2012). Although, studies quoted above indicate that there have been attempts to measure cost of stress in the quantitative terms, it is not possible to calculate all the losses it causes to economy, society and the individuals (Schmidt, 2001).

Twentieth century is the age of science and technology with the excitement of new discoveries tempered by the ever increasing pace of life (Doublet, 2000).
Twentieth century is aptly described as an age of anxiety and century of stress. In this century, world has witnessed tremendous change in the nature of society and workplace. People are expected to cope with rapidly changing technology as well as nature. They face stressors both on the job and off the job. These stressors are increasingly becoming intensive. Modern man is stressed by his/her needs and desires, uncertainty of future, marital disharmony, lack of support from relatives and friends. While working in an organization, the individual is stressed by intense competition, strict time lines, workload and work pressures, poor relations with seniors & colleagues and poorly designed jobs. These work and non-work stressors have become a major source of his or her psychological and/or physical illness. The manifestations of such stressors are headache, insomnia, cardiovascular diseases, skin diseases, allergies, gastrointestinal and respiratory diseases. The work related symptoms of stress may be tension, anxiety, irritation, job dissatisfaction and boredom. The severe ailments due to prolonged stress may lead to permanent psychological and physical disorders (Khan, 2007).

1.1.1 Stress: The Concept

Stress is the word which is derived from a *latin* word *stringere* (Edworthy, 2000). It means to draw tight. The term stress was earlier used to denote a stimulus and response to that stimulus, in the form of adversity and affliction (Keefe, 1988). The term was used in the seventeenth century to refer to hardship, strain, adversity or affliction. Stress is an integral part of life. It refers to those circumstances that place physical or psychological demands on an individual and to the emotional reactions experiences in these situations (Hazards, 1994). In the late eighteenth century, stress was used to denote *force, pressure, strain or long effort*, referring primarily to an individual or to an individual’s organs or mental powers (Hinkle, 1973).

The modern concept of stress was first introduced by Hans Selye in the year 1936 to the literature of life science. It is difficult to offer a general definition to the term ‘stress’ as it carries different meanings to scholars of different disciplines. In biological literature, it is used in relation to single organisms, populations of organism and ecosystems. The biologists refer to things such as heat, cold and inadequate food supply as being source of stress. The human biologists add the
microbial infection and intake of toxic substance to these sources of stress. Social scientists argue that individual’s interaction with his/her environment and resulting emotional disturbances are the sources of stress (Hinkle, 1987). Stress is a unique, subjective and individual experience. What one person may regard stressful, another person may regard the same event as a challenge. The focus of understanding shifts from discipline to discipline as well. Although stress as a concept, is familiar to both layman and professional alike. It is understood by all, when used in general context. But it is understood by very few when more precise account is required and this seems to be the central problem (Cox, 1985). Due to this, no single definition of the concept has been found comprehensive enough in all contexts and disciplines.

The concept of stress has three major viewpoints, namely, biological, psycho-biological and psychological. In biological context, stress is a dynamic condition in which an individual is confronted with an opportunity, constraints, or demands related to what he or she desires and for which the outcome is perceived to be uncertain but important (Selye, 1936, 1956). It is the state of an organism where the individual perceives that his well being (or integrity) is endangered and that he must drive all his energies to its protection (Cofer & Appley, 1964). It is a part of an adaptive biological system, where a state is created when a central processor registers an informational discrepancy (Levine & Ursin, 1991).

In psycho-biological context, the process of stress consists of three major stages. This process is initiated by a situation or stimulus that is potentially harmful in nature. If the stressor is interpreted as dangerous or threatening, an anxiety reaction will be extracted (Figure 1.1).

![Figure 1.1: Psycho-biological Context of Stress](Spielberger 1979)

The concept of stress has evolved in the psychological field. Stress is a (perceived) substantial imbalance between demand and response capability, under conditions where inability to meet demand has important consequences (McGrath,
1970). Stress may arise because of the frustration, conflict or pressure (Coleman, 1973). Frustration occurs when the ability to achieve a desired goal is delayed or blocked. Conflict occurs not from a single hurdle but when a choice is made between two or more priorities. Pressure involves demands that force us to speed up our efforts and this stem from our aspirations, standards and values. Stress occurs when there are demands on the person, which taxes or exceeds his adjustive resources (Lazarus, 1976). Again, this transactional pattern describes stress as a relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person and taxing or exceeding his/her resources and endangering his/her well being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Stress is a psychological response state of negative effect, characterized by a persistent and high level of experienced anxiety or tension (Finemann, 1979). Stress and Strain are same in non-scientific nature. The key difference between stress and strain is that strain is used only at response stage while stress may be used at any stage of stress (Agarwala et al., 1979). Scientifically, stress is the overall transaction process while the strains are individual’s psychological, physical and behavioral responses to stress and the outcomes. Stressors may be the events and properties of events (stimulus) that are encountered by the individuals. The consequences of strain can be found both on individual and organizational level (Beehr & Fenlason, 1988).

Stress is an under load or overload of matter, energy or information input to, or output from, a living system. It shows that stress occurs not only due to overload of demands but also due to under load of it (Steinberg & Ritzmann, 1990). Stress can be any factor, acting internally or externally, that makes it difficult to adapt and that induces increased effort on the part of the person to maintain a state of equilibrium both internally and externally (Humphrey, 1992). Stress may be noted as the cost by a multitude of demands (Stressors) such an inadequate fit between what we need and what we are capable of, and what our environment offers to us and what it demands of us (Levi, 1996). Stress is a body’s automatic response to any physical or mental demand placed upon it. When pressures are threatening, the body rushes to supply protection by turning on ‘the juices’ and preparing to defend itself. It’s the flight or fight response in action (Bowman, 1998).
In distillation, a new conceptual model of stress can be developed on the basis of literature review (Figure 1.2). Stress may occur due to under-load and overload of matter, energy and information of internal and external environment. Internal environment may include frustration, personal goals, conflicts, and anxiety or tension of the individual. External stressors may consist of demands, conflicts, pressure and information from the surroundings of the individual. These antecedent conditions may create stress within the individual. The response of these antecedent conditions can arise in terms of strain. The individual tries to defend himself by fight or flight response. By fight response, an individual tries to use various coping strategies to reduce or overcome the ill effects of strain. But, if the individual doesn’t use any coping strategy or use any inadequate coping strategy or the stressors are very severe in nature, flight response may occur. It can create physical and psychological disorders. These disorders can last for short time in the form of acute symptoms or can cause long term diseases.

**Figure 1.2: Stress-Strain Model**
1.1.2 Stress: Indian View

In the Indian context, there are a number of concepts developed by ancient Indian scholars, which relate or appear to relate to the phenomenon of stress. The modern view of stress is slightly different from the traditional view as given in Carak Samhita, Patanjali’s Yogasutra and Bhagwat Gita. Yet, some concepts developed by ancient Indian scholars can be related to the contemporary view of stress. Some examples are Dukha (pain, misery or suffering), klesha (affliction), kama and trishna (desire), atman and ahamkar (Self and ego), adhi (mental aberrations) and prajnaparadha (failure or lapse of consciousness) (Pestonjee, 1999).

The samakhya-yoga says that the fundamental non-cognition, which leads to phenomenological stress, is avidya (ignorance). Avidya leads to asmita (self-appraisal), namely, those concerning the self. The object and the threat are used for reality testing. The faulty evaluation produces stress and torment. The samakhya system contends that the feeling of dukha or stress is experienced by the individual in the course of his/her interaction with the world around him or her. In this system, researchers find three types of stresses: personal (adhyatmik), situational (adhhibodhik) and environment (adhedevik) (Rao, 1983).

Romas & Sharma (1995) have identified four levels of stressors in ancient Indian concept, namely, Prosupta, Tonu, Vichmica and Udara. Prosupta (Dormant Stressors) is any mental process which is potentially as stressful as any seed that has the potential to develop into a sapling. Tonu (Tenuous or Weak Stressors) are the stressors of insufficient strength and urge, which are kept under check of more powerful stressors. Vichmica (Intercepted Stressors) are alternate between stages of dormancy and manifestation while Udara (Operative Stressors) are found during a course of action as a permanent behavior.

It is clear that due attention has been paid to the problems of stress in Indian thoughts. The system is analytical in nature and helps an individual understand his own stresses and more specially the roots of these stressors (Sreelatha, 1991). The concept and application of ancient Indian concept of stress is suitable to Indian environment. Indian people still have belief in traditional Indian cultural values.
Thus, there is utility of traditional Indian concepts and coping strategies to reduce stress even in the present age of advancements (Quadir, 2005).

1.1.3 Stress: Approaches

There are four major approaches to define stress namely, physiological, stimulus based/engineering, psychological/interactional and transactional. These approaches are briefly discussed below:

1.1.3.1 Physiological Approach

Walter Cannon and Hans Selye, both physiologists, are pioneers credited with originating research on the body’s response to stressors. Emotional stimuli were capable of releasing a substance which would prepare the animal for flight or for defense (Cannon, 1939).

When the brain perceives that a given situation is going to be stressful, it sends alarm message by nerves and hormones to prepare the body for fight or flight response. This message travels quickly and directly to specific parts of the body. On the other hand, those which are sent by chemical messengers (hormones), such as epinephrine, travel much more slowly through the blood-stream to organ systems and that message is much more long-lasting (Bryce, 2001). Norepinephrine (NEp) is the main neurotransmitter in the brain responsible for the heightened arousal that follows exposure to a stressor. NEp acts by stimulating the sympathetic branch of the autonomic nervous system (ANS). This includes stimulation of the adrenal medulla with the consequent secretion of epinephrine (Ep) and norepinephrine (NEp) into the bloodstream. Most cells in the body have adrenergic receptors on which these two substances act. Stimulation of this system results in increased heart rate, blood pressure, perspiration, muscles tone and cell metabolism (Bryce, 2001).

Stressful situations also stimulate various areas of the hypothalamus, including the paraventricular nucleus. Stimulation of this nucleus results in the secretion of corticotrophin releasing hormone (CRH). CRH in turn stimulates the pituitary gland to secrete adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH) which circulates in the blood-stream and stimulates the adrenal cortex to secrete cortisol. Cortisol is a glucocorticoid. Almost every cell in the body has glucocorticoid receptors. Stimulation of this system results in increased glucose availability, increased
blood flow and increased behavioral responsiveness in the face of stressful situations. Although the short-term effects of glucocorticoids are essential for adhering to deadlines and personal achievement as well as organizational goals fulfillment, the long-term effects are harmful. These effects can damage muscle tissue, increased blood pressure and diabetes mellitus. In addition, excess cortisol inhibits seditious responses and the activity of macrophages, which are normally released into the bloodstream by the thymus gland to kill invading bacteria. A weakened immune system in turn makes us more vulnerable to infection and other serious ailments.

When a body copes with stress, a typical response pattern is observable, which Selye (1936) has termed as General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) (Bryce, 2001). It was discovered that the body’s stress response consists of a predictable, non-specific, three-stage pattern of physiological responses: the alarm stage, the adaptive or resistance stage and exhaustion stage (Bryce, 2001).

The Alarm Stage is a fight or flight response that prepares a person to meet the challenge or threat. At times, the person experiences anxiety, panic, fear, racing thoughts, increased heart rate, increased blood pressure, headaches, muscle tension and gastrointestinal distress. The alarm reaction stage is not the entire process for stress because no organism can remain continuously in this state, if the agent is so potent that this continued exposure becomes incompatible with life, the encountered animal dies during the alarm stage within the first hours or days. If it does not happen and if survives, alarm reaction is followed by the stage of resistance.

The Resistance Stage is also denoted as Catabolic stage. If the stress does not disappear and continues, the organism’s resources are mobilized to deal with the specific stressors caused. Cortisol, the principle mediator of the metabolic phase, is released from the adrenal cortex. The cortisol protects the organism not only from the stressor but also from the normal defensive reaction of the organism. It is the stage during which the body may return to its pre-excited state and recovers from the psychological strains of the alarm stage once the stressor is decimated. If again the stressor persists, the individual reaches a new level of adaptation as the internal organs mount a sustained resistance. However, if the stressor persists or
the defensive reaction proves ineffective, the organism deteriorates to the next stage of exhaustion.

The **Exhaustion Stage** is often termed as *burn out* phase. With its resources severely depleted, the organism is susceptible to illness, or in extreme cases, it may even lead to death (Edworthy, 2000). Warning signals of exhaustion contain feeling of hopelessness, feeling of helplessness, a desire to “cop-out”, suicidal ideation, homicidal ideation, marked impairment in social or occupational functioning (Bryce, 2001).

The General Adaptation Syndrome (Figure 1.3) had many shortcomings because Seyle’s focus was primarily medical (Pestonjee, 1992). It was noted that responses to stimuli do not always follow the same pattern. Responses, too, can be stimulus specific and dependent on the type of hormonal secretion. Another shortcoming was the issue of psychological response to stress. Although GAS model is still valid for some typical stressors, it is unable to explain psychosocial stress (Christian & Lolas, 1985). Selye also did not consider the environmental involvement in the stress process. The approach is not fit to define stress for human beings. The result was the formulation of a stimulus based approach to defining stress, which had the emphasis on identifying the events that might cause stress.

**Figure 1.3: General Adaptation Syndrome**

![Figure 1.3: General Adaptation Syndrome](image)

Source: Selye, 1956

**1.1.3.2 Stimulus Based Definition/ Engineering Approach**
The stimulus based definition of stress has roots in engineering and physics. The aphorism *the straw that breaks the camel’s back* encapsulates the essence of stimulus-based definitions of stress. This approach is based on Hook’s law of elasticity. It relates *stress* and *strain*. According to Hook’s law; if the strain produced by given amount of stress, falls within the *elastic limit* of the material, the material returns to its original state when element of stress is removed from the material. But, if the strain passes beyond this *elastic limit* of the material, some temporary or permanent damage occurs. The process is same in case of human being. Individuals also have different level of resistances. If the level of strain falls within the tolerance limit of the individual, he/she may return to normal state when stressors are removed but if it goes beyond the tolerance limit of the individual, permanent physiological or psychological damage is likely to occur (Edworthy, 2000; Husain et al., 2006).

**1.1.3.3 Interactional/ Psychological Approach**

This approach is based on the interaction of the person and the environment. The interactional approach to stress incorporates both stimulus-based and response-based approaches (Cox, 1978). It focuses on interaction between the stimulus and the response. The interactional approach conditions that situational variables interact with personal variables from which strain results (Ryan, 1996). Interactional approach may be the better approach for researchers interested in studying variables (Decker & Borgen, 1993). Then, a new approach of defining stress was proposed. This theory has also been referred to as transactional theory of stress (Greenberg, 1999).

**1.1.3.4 The Transactional Approach**

The transactional approach incorporates the stimulus, response, cognitive appraisal of the stressor, coping style of the individual, psychological defenses, and social milieu into account (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). It has been conceptualized that if there is no accurate fit between the person and the environment, strain will occur (French et al., 1982). Individuals *vary in their needs and abilities just as jobs vary in their incentives and demands* (French et al., 1982). This misfit can lead to disequilibrium (Edward & Cooper, 1988). This interaction between how an individual affects the environment and vice versa is a
complex bi-directional process. It is a result of a variety of variables and not any single factor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1986b). The term transaction implies that stress is neither in the person nor in the environment but in the relationship between the two (Lazarus, 1990). Stress arises when the demand of a particular encounter are appraised by the individual as about to tax or exceed the resources available, thereby threatening well being (Lazarus, 1991).

There is still considerable confusion over the actual meaning of stress, which is reflected in the variety of ways in which this term has been defined (O’Driscoll & Cooper, 1996). All the four approaches of stress define stress in their own ways but all approaches have certain shortcomings. This variety of definition is due to the application of the term in medical, engineering and social science research. However, most of the definitions have used similar terms such as misfit, mismatch, imbalance etc. to define stress. A transactional framework is integrative, because it acknowledges the importance of all the components. Stress is partially a function of the environment and it is also partially a function of the internal characteristics of the individual.

1.1.4 Sources of Stress

Sources of organizational stress may fall in seven categories, namely; factors intrinsic to job, role in organization, career development, organizational interface, organizational structure, relationship with organization and stressors due to individual differences (personality traits, coping capability, behavioural pattern) (Cooper & Marshall, 1976). Similarly Burke (1993) classified job stressors into the following six categories, namely; physical environment, role stressors, organizational structure & job characteristics, relationships with others, career development and work-family conflict. The sources of organizational stress can be broadly grouped into two main categories, i.e. job related stressors and individual related stressors (Table 1.1).
Table: 1.1 Job and Individual related stressors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Environment Specific</th>
<th>Organizational Specific</th>
<th>Job Specific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic conditions</td>
<td>Changes within</td>
<td>Poor fit between abilities and skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased levels of</td>
<td>organization</td>
<td>Work overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>competition</td>
<td>Reorganizations</td>
<td>Work place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market changes</td>
<td>Delaying</td>
<td>Pressure to work longer hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological</td>
<td>Lay-offs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td>Organizational Structure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in production</td>
<td>Organizational Culture/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and products</td>
<td>climate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive for greater cost-effectiveness</td>
<td>Mergers/ Acquisitions and similar changes in company ownership</td>
<td>Conflicting job demands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Networks</td>
<td>workforce diversity</td>
<td>Unclear job expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multination’s</td>
<td>Reward systems/</td>
<td>Pressure of responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General public concern for the environment</td>
<td>Promotion Policy</td>
<td>Time pressure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Individual Related Stressors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual Characteristics</th>
<th>Individual life Circumstances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality traits</td>
<td>Work/life conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic characteristics</td>
<td>Family problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coping skills, etc.</td>
<td>Personal problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial Difficulties etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Compiled based on Cooper & Marshall (1976); Chusmir & Franks (1988); Jamal (1990) in Montgomery et al. (1996); Blake et al. (1996); Montgomery et al. (1996); Schabraccq & Cooper (2000); Antoniou et al. (2006)

1.1.5 Nature and Consequences of Stress

Stress originates in three important sectors of life (Pestonjee, 1992). These sectors are: job and organizational sector, the social sector and intra-psychic sector. Job and organizational sector includes the totality of the work environment (task,
atmosphere, colleagues, compensation, management, appraisal, policies, etc.). The social sector includes social or cultural aspects of one’s life. It may include religion, caste, language, color, race and other such factors. In a country like India, social sector plays an important role of stress due to pressure of different religions, castes, languages, colors and races. The intra-psychic sector includes things that are intimate and personal to individual like temperament, values, abilities, traits, types, morals, abilities and health. Stress may originate in any of these sectors or in an area that falls in between them.

Every individual needs a moderate degree of stress to be alert and capable of functioning effectively in the organization. There is a view that certain level of stress is essential for being a creative manager (Pestonjee, 1987; Matthew, 1985). Stress is definitively harmful when it crosses the desired level but the desired level might differ from person to person. Eustress refers to stress that is good and necessary for an individual for achieving apex performance and managing minor crises. However, this has every chance of turning into distress. Distress indicates stress that is harmful. It is distress, not eustress, which is the cause of concern for individuals and organizations.

Pestonjee’s (1983) diagrammatic representation (Figure 1.4) is useful to understand the process of stress. These diagrammes show the stages that a person may undergo in experiencing various stressors. In the first stage of encounter, the stress experienced from the three sectors of life is well within the stress tolerance limit of the person. In the second stage, if the stress increases in one or more sector, it causes a minor dent. But if the effective coping or management strategy is adopted, the stress is manageable up to this stage. However, in the third stage, stressors or loads become unmanageable leading to the negative consequences in the form of emergence of stress related diseases. If it is unchecked, the person may slip into the last and intense phase of complete disintegration of personality.

---

13
Figure 1.4: Stress Process

(i) Minor Surface Changes
Adaptation Attempt
A. Extra Efforts
B. Excessive concern about the Task
C. Wories
D. Anx

(ii) Major Surface Disfiguration
Frantic Coping
A. Extraordinary Effort
B. Worries & Anxiety about the self
C. Onset of physiological symptoms
D. Aggressive tendencies
Coping with physiological symptoms
Drugs, Palliatives, Analgesics, Tranquilizers etc.

(iii) Breakdowns and cracks
## Failure in Coping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Related Symptoms</th>
<th>Physiological Symptoms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of Concentrations</td>
<td>Headaches/ Migraine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affected Clarity of Thinking &amp; Decision Making</td>
<td>Insomnia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent Absenteeism</td>
<td>Lack of Appetite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affected team work</td>
<td>Digestive disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive behavior</td>
<td>Coronary Heart Disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sexual Disorders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temperamental changes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Disintegration or falling apart

**Dissociative Personality**

- A. Somnambulism
- B. Multiple Personality
- C. Feeling and thought disturbances

![Stage of Medical or Psychological Help Diagram](image)

**Source:** Pestonjee, 1983

### 1.1.5.1 At Individual Level

The consequences of the distress can be physical or psychological or both (Greve, 2002). The short term effects of the stress are job dissatisfaction, change in behavior, raised blood pressure, depressed mood, irritability and chest pains (Melhuish, 1978). Stress often leads to health problems like depression and psychosomatic disorders in individuals (Hoel et al., 2001). But, if the acute stress is not managed successfully and increases over a long period of time, it can lead to long-term diseases, such as, coronary heart diseases and mental illness (Cooper & Marshall, 1976). In 10 to 18% of cases, individual may go through Posttraumatic
Stress Disorder (PTSD\textsuperscript{1}), (Teegen, 2002). The severe condition of stress can lead an individual at the stage of burnout\textsuperscript{2}.

1.1.5.2 At Organizational Level

The ill effects of organizational stress are manifested both on the level of the productivity and the competitiveness of the enterprise (Southerland et al., 1997). The extent of the economic loss to organizations caused by these stressful situations is not easy to evaluate but a report of W.H.O. says that it can cost up to 10\% of GDP of any country. In summary, the consequences of stress on organization can be classified in two categories - organizational symptoms and organizational costs (Chen et al., 2006). Organizational symptoms may be discontent, dissatisfaction and poor morale among the workforce, performance/productivity losses, low quality of products and services, poorer relationships with clients, suppliers, partners and regulatory authorities, losing customers, bad publicity, damage to the corporate image and reputation, missed opportunities, disruption to production, high accident and mistakes rates, high labor turnover, loss of valuable staff, increased sick-leave, permanent vacancies, premature retirement, diminished cooperation, poor internal communications, more internal conflicts, and dysfunctional workplace climate (Vokic & Bogdanic, 2007). Organizational costs may be costs of reduced performance/productivity (lack of added value to product and/or service), high replacement costs in connection with labor turnover (increase in recruitment, training and retraining costs), increased sick pay, and increased health-care costs (Vokic & Bogdanic, 2007). A study done on job stress has found that the average absenteeism cost in a large company is more than 3.6 million dollar per year (NIOSH, 2002). Another study shows that around 40\% of job turnover in the world is due to stress (Hoel et al., 2001).

\textsuperscript{1} PTSD is defined by the simultaneous presence of symptoms belonging to three distinct groups of avoidance symptoms, intrusions and hyper-activation.

\textsuperscript{2} Burnout is presumed to be a causative factor in poor quality of care, absenteeism, turnover, use of alcohol and drugs, insomnia, and family problems (Maslach, 1979; Maslach & Pines, 1977).
1.1.5.3 At Social Level

Third category of negative consequences of stress can be found at the level of society. Research studies reported that traumas as well as work absenteeism for long periods or early retirement have ill impacts on social level (Chappell & DiMartino, 2000). It is observed that society has to pay cost of stress in many ways. On the level of social interactions, inappropriate reactions on the part of the victim’s family and friends in particular like manifested distress, inadequate help, isolating the victim etc., can lead to a secondary victimization (Montada, 1988).

The causes and consequences of occupational or work stress were discussed in the preceeding sections. The next section presents the organizational role stress theory.

1.1.6 Organizational Role Stress Theory

To understand Organizational Role Stress (ORS) concept, it is necessary to understand the concept of role and role theory. The concept of ORS is explained after perusing literature on role and role theory.

1.1.6.1 Concept of Role

The origin of the term Role is from the French word Rolle which means a part one has to play. The Webster dictionary defines Role as a socially accepted behavior pattern determined by an individual’s status/ positions or status in a particular society. In the medical terminology, it has been defined as the characteristics and expected social behavior of an individual (Khan, 2007). Role theory sheds light on the relationship between role performance and personality, the development of self concept and deviant roles. Role theory views the person as an actor on the social stage. It sees behavior as shaped by the logic of one’s tasks and the social expectations as to what is the permissible range of proper behavior. It therefore, gives primacy to technical and social factors in shaping of behavior and to internalized norms and values (Khandwalla, 1977).

For Pareek (1993), role is a set of obligations generated by the significant others and the individual occupying a position or office. It denotes set of functions one perform in response to the expectations of the significant others and one’s own expectations from that position or office (Pareek, 1993). The organization and individual come together through role. Role, thus, is a link integrating the
individual and organization (Figure 1.5). The organization has its structure and goals. Similarly, the individual has his personality and needs. These two interact with each other and get integrated in a role (Figure 1.6). Thus, role is an integrating point of an organization and the individual (Pareek, 1993).

Figure 1.5: Role as an interacting region between organization and individual

![Figure 1.5](image)

Source: Pareek, 1993

Figure 1.6: Role as an integrating point of Individual and Organization

![Figure 1.6](image)

Source: Pareek, 1993

An office becomes a role when it is actually determined by the expectations of other office holders. Each role has its own system, consisting of the role occupant and those who have a direct relationship with him, and thereby, certain expectations from the role. These significant others having expectations are role senders. They send expectations to the role. As role occupant also has expectations from his role, he too is role sender. Thus a role is not defined without the expectations of the role senders, including that of the role occupant (Pareek, 1993)
1.1.6.2 Role Stress

The term role stress refers to the stress experienced by a person due to his job that he plays in the system. The role stress can be defined as a state of tension and an anxiety when a person finds it difficult to perform an assigned role. The performance of the role normally satisfies the various needs of the occupants. But sometimes, it becomes a potential source of stress too for the role occupant. The problem that a role occupant faces today is that of managing the complex structure in achieving an integration of one’s self with the system of the other roles as well as integration of various roles that a person might be occupying (Khan, 2007).

1.1.6.3 Organizational Role Stress

Stress is an inevitable consequence of socio-economic complexities. In organizational context, organizations are closely linked with work settings that have numerous systems such as production, finance, marketing, administration. They also have macro-organizational sub-systems like inter-organizational system, organizational goals, strategies, climates, cultures, structures, management styles and performance. These systems are accountable for the growth of the organization and its role incumbents on the one hand, and society at large on other. Very often, a person feels that he does not have any importance or lesser importance in the total organizational set up. This tends to generate feelings of powerlessness, meaninglessness, normlessness and consequent stress (Pestonjee, 1999).

Pareek (1983) has explained role conflicts in context of role space and role set. He defined role space as the role people occupy and perform. He also defined role set as the role system within the organization of which role is a part and by which individuals roles are defined. He proposed the following role characteristics that fall under these two categories of role stress viz. role space conflicts and role set conflicts.

1.1.6.3.1 Role Space Conflicts

Each individual occupies and plays several roles. For instance, a person is a daughter, a wife, a mother, a teacher, a member of the club, a member of the voluntary organization and so on. All these roles constitute the role space of that person. At the center of the role space is the self. As the concept of the role is
central to that of an organization, in the same manner the concept of the self is central to the several roles of the person. The term ‘Self’ refers to the interpretations the person makes about the referent ‘I’. A person performs various roles which are centered around the self (and from each other). These relationships define the role space. Role space is then a dynamic inter-relationship between the self and the various roles (Pareek, 1993).

- **Inter Role Distance**: Stress occurs when the linkages of organizational roles become weak. An individual learns to develop expectations of his socialization and identification with the significant others, he may perceive certain incompatibilities between the expectations of his organizational role and other role he occupies.

- **Self Role Distance**: The stress arises out of the conflict between the self concept and the expectations from the role which he may subsequently find conflicting with the self concept, he feels stressed.

- **Role Stagnation**: As the individual grows older, he/she grows in the role, he occupies in an organization. The new role demands that the individual outgrows the previous role and takes charge of the new role effectively (Pareek, 1993). Personnel working in organizations that do not have systematic strategy of man power development are likely to experience this stress when they are promoted.

1.1.6.3.2 Role Set Conflicts

The individual’s role in the organization is defined by the expectations of other significant roles, and those of the individual himself. The role set should be considered as a pattern of interrelationships between a role, and the other role. The field which is important vis-à-vis an individual’s role is the role set which consists of important persons who have varying expectations from the role that he/she occupies. The conflicts arise as a result of incompatibility among these expectations by the significant others and by individual himself/herself are referred to as role set conflicts (Pareek, 1993). These conflicts take the following forms:

- **Role Ambiguity**: When the individual is not clear about the various expectations that people have from his/her work. The conflict that he/she faces
is called role ambiguity. This may happen due to lack of information available to the role occupant or due to lack of understanding of the cues available to him.

- **Role Expectation Conflict:** When there are conflicting expectations or demands by different role senders (persons having expectations from the role), the role occupant may experience this stress from his/her seniors, subordinates, peers or clients (Pareek, 1993).

- **Role Overload:** When the role occupant feels that there are too many expectations from the ‘significant’ others in his/her role set. He/she experiences role overload. It has two aspects-quantitative and the other qualitative.

- **Role Erosion:** A role occupant may feel that the functions, which he/she would like to perform, are being performed by some other role. The stress felt is called role erosion (Pareek, 1993). It creates a subjective feeling that some important expectations that he has from the role are shared or taken away by other roles within the role set.

- **Resource Inadequacy:** This type of stress appears when the resources required by the role occupant for performing the role effectively are not available (Pareek, 1993). These resources may be in terms of information, people, material, finance, or facilities.

- **Personal Inadequacy:** Personal inadequacy is the feeling of lack of confidence or not prepared to undertake the role effectively. Being persons who are assigned new roles without enough preparation or orientation are likely to experience this type of stress.

- **Role Isolation:** When a role occupant feels that certain roles are psychologically closer to him, while others are at much greater distance. The main criterion of distance is the frequency and ease of interaction. When linkages are strong, the role isolation will be low and in the absence of strong linkages, the role isolation will be high. The gap between the desired and the existing linkages will indicate the amount of role isolation (Pareek, 1993).

After presenting an overview of stress and organizational role stress, let us take a stock of personality and its attendant concept in the next section.
1.2 The Concept of Personality

The origin of the term personality is from Latin word *persona* which mean mask. The actor in ancient Greece and Rome used to wear the mask to hide their identity on the stage while taking part in drama. Personality refers to the total behavior of the individual, particularly to those relatively enduring and consistent aspects that cause us to resemble others in some ways and to be totally different and unique in others. Personality is the integration of the individual’s structure, modes of behavior, interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and aptitudes (Munn, 1965).

Personality is a unique concept that emerges out of the interaction of the individual’s psychophysical systems with the environment. Thus, personality is a dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought (Allport, 1968).

The term ‘personality’ has many definitions, but a common theme runs throughout most definitions, that is, *personality refers to distinctive patterns of behavior* that characterize each individual’s adaptation to the situations of his or her life. The importance of personality in understanding behavior has gained prominence in recent years. Personality is considered to be determined by heredity and environmental factors and it is moderated by situational factors. It means natural and nurture factors. Although the researchers have carried out lot of work in measuring personality but nature and nurture debate is still working. Personality is also determined by influences acting upon the individual conceived and born, but it also significant to know the contribution of these personality changes on overall personality.

A frequent objection to the all personality theories is that no one possibly captures all of the variations in human personality (McAdams, 1992), and that they are too much broad. There are many theories and models to measure personality traits but no model appears to describe the whole personality of any individual. There is a need to explore the area of personality taxonomy further to develop a systematic framework for distinguishing, ordering, and naming the behavioral, emotional, and experiential characteristics of individuals.
1.2.1 Types Approach vs. Trait Approach

Personality type theory aims to classify individual into certain category. It refers to psychological classification of different types of individuals. Personality types are synonyms with personality styles. *Types* refer to categories which are distinct or discontinuous, whereas *Traits* refer to categories which are continuous in nature. Types are based on the qualitative differences between people, whereas traits might be constructed as quantitative differences (Bernstein et al., 2008). According to type approach of personality, introverts and extraverts are two basic categories of individuals. On the other hand, according to trait approach of personality, introversion and extraversion are part of a continuous dimension, with many people in the middle.

The trait approach represents a paradigm shift away from the type approach of personality. The shift began to take place in the 1920s and 1930s when the personality researches had been started in clinical settings and psychological laboratories (Carducci, 2009). The change has taken place because there are some shortcomings in type theory. The term *type* has not been used consistently in psychology. One of the major drawbacks of the type theory is that personality test scores usually fall on a bell curve rather than in distinct categories (Bess & Harvey, 2001). Some psychometric researches had compared *trait* approach and *type* approach and found that *trait* approach is more suitable in measuring the personality of the individual and other related psychometric dimensions. It was found that NEO-PI, a *trait* instrument was a better predictor of personality disorders in comparison to MBTI, a type instrument (Furnham & Crump, 2005). Because of these problems, researchers are now using *trait* approach in place of *type* approach of personality. It is also believed that it is near to impossible to explain the diversity of human personality with a small number of discrete types. It is described later that personality traits are subset of personality types. For the same purpose, this study has given special emphasis on the *trait approach of personality*.

1.2.2 Personality Traits: The Context

Celebrated polymath Goethe noted that *Behavior is a mirror in which everyone shows his image*. The statement captures an important element of personality,
which is known as trait approach of personality (Ajzen, 2005). Traits are the dimensions of the personality that influence in a particular way a person’s thoughts, feelings and behaviors (Costa & McCrae, 2006). In addition to it, these traits are also assumed to be a contributing factor to the consistency in the expression of such thoughts, feelings, and behaviors across situations and over time (McAdams & Pals, 2006).

The first well-known theory of personality was given by Sigmund Freud. The theory was based on the concept of sexual urges (Freud, 1912; Mroczek & Little, 2006). After Freud’s theory, various theories of personality were proposed by the different psychologists, including Sullivan, Horney, Jung, Bandura, Murray, Allport and Cattell (Mroczek & Little, 2006). Besides these well-known theories, various views of personality also exist. After examining the diverse classifications of personality theories, McAdams (1995) conceptualized personality as consisting of three levels, namely; dispositional traits, personal concerns and life narratives (Taylor, 2004). Dispositional traits are broad and nonconditional constructs, which describe personality in terms of dispositions. Personal constructs are related with life-tasks, coping strategies, motivations and development constructs related to specific location and role. The third and final level, the life narrative, includes the frameworks and constructs that give an identity to the individual (McAdams, 1995; Taylor, 2004). On the basis of classification done by McAdams, the trait approach is related to the first level of dispositional traits (Taylor, 2004). Traits refer to the observable behaviors in an individual that are often used to describe a person (Pervin & John, 2001).

1.2.3 Personality Traits: Basic Assumptions

Although there are various trait viewpoints, they all tend to be guided by certain basic assumptions (Wiggins, 1997). There are three basic beliefs associated with characteristics features of traits, namely; consistency, uniqueness and degree of likableness.

First, principal assumption of the trait viewpoint is that behavior is influenced across a variety of situations in a manner consistent with the traits possessed by the individual (Fleeson, 2001; Johnson, 1997). Consistency means a person can be expected to behave in approximately the same way in similar situations (Hurlock,
Second, principal assumption of the trait approach is individual differences or expression of *Uniqueness*. It is assumed that individual differs in the degree to which they possess certain traits (Costa & McCrae, 2006; Pervin, 2002). Uniqueness does not mean that a person has certain traits that are peculiarly his. It means that he has his own individual quantity of a particular kind of behavior (Woodworth & Marquis, 1947). Third, principal assumption of the trait theory is *likableness*. Some traits, such as, honesty, generosity, trustworthiness, are liked by others, while some traits, such as, rudeness, cruelty, egocentrism are disliked by others. These attribute towards traits result from social learning in a particular cultural setting and are most universal within a culture (Hurlock, 1976). In the case of police personnel, society likes the police personnel who are honest, hard-working while society dislikes the police personnel who are corrupt and dishonest.

### 1.2.4 Trait Approach: Different Perspectives

Theories explaining trait approach of personality were proposed by Gordon W. Allport, Raymond B. Cattell, and Hans J. Eysenck.

#### 1.2.4.1 Gordon Allport: Personalistic Viewpoint

Allport’s theory of personality is personalistic in nature (Carducci, 2009). As per this approach, *Personality is the dynamic organization within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine his characteristic behavior and thought* (Allport, 1961). The definition reflects a belief in internal structures (traits) and neuropsychic structures (personal dispositions), which together developed human behavior (Allport, 1966). Traits are actually the core concept of personality, and as they are core, they exist in the nervous system of the individual (Allport, 1966).

Whereas personal dispositions were used to distinguish the unique variation among individuals, Allport used the term *cardinal, central* and *secondary* traits to describe the variations (Cohler, 1993). *Cardinal traits* were argued to be pervasive and all encompassing. These traits represent the most significant and dominant features of individual personality, expressing themselves virtually all aspects of behavior (Carducci, 2009). These traits are not possessed by all the individuals. Allport defined *Central traits* as *outstanding characteristics of the individual* (Allport, 1937). The personality of most individuals is described by a
set of central traits (Carducci, 2009). These traits are less pervasive and dominant than cardinal traits, but it still have highly characteristic of individual personality. Central traits express the situation specific aspect of personality (Pervin & John, 2001). **Secondary Traits** are the personal dispositions having a much more limited influence on the individual’s behavior (Carducci, 2009).

### 1.2.4.2 Raymond B. Cattell: Structural Trait Viewpoint

According to Cattell, uniqueness of personality of each individual is due to two categories of traits, namely, *surface traits* and *source traits* (Wiggins, 2003). *Surface traits* refer to those behaviors that, when empirically measured and inter-correlated, tend to cluster together. These traits are the most visible evidence of a trait (Carducci, 2009). Surface traits are controlled by underlying source traits. *Source traits* form a unitary dimension and are the fundamental aspects of personality (Morgan, 2008). These traits are responsible for the individual difference among the personality of the different individuals (Carducci, 2009).

Cattell’s structural trait viewpoint has two major **strengths**. First strength was that it was a quantitative approach to study the personality. Second strength was the theory was basically scientific in nature. This was also the major **limitations** of the theory. The theory was too much technical in nature and that was not reader friendly, while filling up the questionnaire. Secondly, Cattell has been criticized for his attempt to define a universal set of source traits that seem lose sight of the individual (Carducci, 2009).

### 1.2.4.3 Hans J. Eysenck: Hierarchical Trait Viewpoint

Eysenck argued that “*experiment without theory is blind; theory without explanation is lame*” (Eysenck, 1960). Eysenck began with the fundamental idea that personality has two major dimensions (Brand, 1997). The two major dimensions of the personality were described as *Introversion-Extroversion* and *Stability-Instability* (Eysenck & Rachman, 1965, Figure 1.7), which Eysenck termed as super traits. A further supertrait identified by Eysenck (1982) is *psychoticism*.

Traits are hierarchical in nature, started from specific actions to general types. Eysenck’s view on the basic structure of personality can be illustrated from Figure
1.8. Eysenck argued for four hierarchy levels of traits, namely, specific response level, habitual response level, trait level, and type level.

**Figure 1.7: Two Major Dimension of Personality**

![Diagram showing two major dimensions of personality with traits and types]

**Figure 1.8: Hierarchal Nature of Traits**

![Diagram showing the hierarchy of traits with factors, traits, habitual response, and specific response levels]

*Source: Eysenck & Rachman (1965)*

*Specific responses* are observed in a particular situation. *Habitual response* is the repetition of the specific response across a number of situations. Traits are a collection of habitual responses. At the top level, personality types exist. A type is
the interrelationship of many traits to create a general pattern of behavior. This behavior exerts a major influence on the individual’s response style (Carducci, 2009).

Eysenck proposed three basic types of personality traits - Extraversion-Introversion (E), Neuroticism (N) and Psychoticism (P). These dimensions can be assessed using the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1994). *Extraversion-Introversion* comprises extraversion at one end of the continuum and introversion at the other end of the continuum (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975, 1994). Extraverted people like to be around other people, optimistic, Gregarious, outgoing, sociable and adventurous. On the other end, introverts like order. They are emotionally controlled, calculating, and socially distant outside of having only few close friends (Carducci, 2009). *Neuroticism* dimension comprises emotional stability at one end of the continuum and emotional instability on the other end of the continuum (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Neuroticism refers to an individual’s tendency to become upset or emotional. Emotionally stable people (low in neuroticism score) are care-free, even-tempered and calm in nature while emotionally unstable people are touchy, restless, moody and anxious in nature (Carducci, 2009). *Psychoticism* dimension comprises psychoticism at one end of the continuum and superego control at the other end of the continuum (Eysenck, 1990). The superego is the sense of morality. Psychoticism is associated with the tendency to be impulsive, cold, not empathic, unconcerned about the rights and welfare of others, and antisocial. Individuals low in psychoticism score are described as warm, sensitive and concerned about others (Carducci, 2009).

There were two major strengths of Eysenck’s approach. First, he had an emphasis on the scientific perspective of personality psychology. Second was his conceptual approach to personality psychology. His personality perspective combined the study of genetics, biological, and physiological processes, learning theory, and social and cultural factors (Carducci, 2009). Again, Eysenck, too, was criticized due to some shortcomings. It was pointed out that Eysenck’s notion of three dimensions in personality is not good enough to capture individual differences in personality. He was also criticized to disregard results that were contrary to his
own findings and simultaneously over estimating findings in according with his nomenclature (Pervin & John, 2001).

1.2.4.4 Five Factor Model: Contemporary Approach to classify Traits

Goldberg (1981) used the term Big 5 to the five factor model of personality. The Five Factor model (FFM) is a descriptive model used in analyzing and classifying the terms used by people to describe themselves and others (Costa & McCreae, 2006). McCrae and Costa described the model as comprehensive taxonomy of personality traits (1991).

McCrae and Costa (2006) labeled the five factors as Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness to Experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (Table 1.2). The trait of Neuroticism is associated with anxiety and negative affectivity. It is a tendency of an individual to experience distress (McCrae & John, 1992). The factor of Neuroticism has much consensus among the researchers of personality. The trait of Extroversion has fewer consensuses than trait of Neuroticism (McCrae & John, 1992). The trait is associated with sociability and the expression of positive effects. It is the trait that is relatively stable in terms of role it plays across the life course (Carducci, 2009). Openness to experience is rather a disputative trait among personality psychologists in terms of conceptualization (Matthew et al., 2003). In general term, the trait is associated with seeking novelty, freshness and change (Carducci, 2009). The trait Agreeableness reflects individual differences in concern for cooperation and social harmony (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997). People who score high on this trait are empathetic, considerate, friendly, generous, and helpful in nature (Haslam, 2007). Individuals who score high on this trait of Conscientiousness are described as thorough, organized, achievement-oriented, efficient, diligent, hard working, compulsive and goal striving. If it is taken to extreme, the individual may be defined as perfectionist (Haslam, 2007).
Table 1.2: The Big Five: Factor Labels and Characteristics Traits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Broad Label</th>
<th>Characteristic Traits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E-factor: Extroversion</td>
<td>Adventurous, assertive, dominant, shy, sociable, quiet*, reserved*, retiring*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-factor: Agreeableness</td>
<td>Cooperative, generous, sympathetic, cruel*, quarrelsome*, unfriendly*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-factor: Conscientiousness</td>
<td>Deliberate, efficient, precise, careless*, frivolous*, irresponsible*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N-factor: Neuroticism</td>
<td>Calm, contented, stable, anxious*, self-pitying*, temperamental*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O-factor: Openness</td>
<td>Artistic, insightful, intelligent, commonplace*, narrow interests*, shallow*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: John (1990)

Note: *these traits are negatively related to the factor.

The five factor model allows the systematic approach to personality. Various researches done by McCrae & Costa (2006) found that the model is valid across different cultures and languages. One limitation of the model shows that although it describes a basic unit structure, it does not explain why the structure exists. The model does also not focus on increasing the understanding of the individual (Carducci, 2009).

1.2.4.5 Zuckerman Kuhlman Model of Personality

An Alternative Five Personality Model (Zuckerman et al., 1993) was developed by comparing 46 commonly used scales based on three, four, five and six dimensions of personality questionnaires (Zuckerman et al., 1988, 1991). Both the three factor model of Eysenck and five factor model of McCrae & Costa were robust and reliable (Zuckerman, 1993). Based on these understandings and further statistical analysis of the data, a new questionnaire was developed in the personality psychology, known as Zuckerman Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire (ZKPQ scale). The items of ZKPQ scales were aimed to assess the five factors more clearly. The scale also excluded the items showing a strong social desirability influence (Aluja et al., 2006).

**Impulsive Sensation Seeking** items describe a lack of planning and tendency to act impulsively without thinking. The sensation seeking items describe the general need for thrills and excitement, a preference for unpredictable situations and friends and the change for need and novelty. These items of *Aggression-Hostility* describe a readiness to express verbal aggression, rude, thoughtless, or antisocial behavior, revengefulness and spitefulness. These peoples with *Neuroticism-Anxiety* have a quick temper and impatient with others. These persons describe emotional upset, tension, worry, fearfulness, obsessive indecision, lack of self-confidence and sensitivity to criticism. The *Activity* factor encompasses two groups of persons. One describes the need for general activity and impatience and restlessness when there is nothing to do. The second group indicates a preference for challenging and hard work and a lot of energy for work and other tasks. The *Sociability* factor reveals one group of items indicating a linking of big parties and interacting at parties and having many friends. The second group indicates intolerance for social isolation in extraverts and a linking for solitary activities in introverts. The alternative five factor model is most appropriate for the present study because *Activity, Sociability, Aggression-Hostility, Impulsive Sensation Seeking* and *Neuroticism-Anxiety* are the prominent personality traits of police personnel in India.

The study aims to understand the relationship between role stress and personality traits among police personnel of India. In the next section, the theme of present research study is presented. It is followed by rationale, problem statement and aim of study.

1.3 Introduction to the Research Theme

Police is an ubiquitous organization of the society. They are the watchdog of the democracy. Therefore, police personnel are supposed to be the most visible arms of the government. The police personnel are needed in the society at the time of
any danger, crisis and difficulty because the police personnel are expected to be more accessible, interactive, responsible and dynamic organization of any society. In broad way, the primary functions of the Police are mainly to prevent the crime and maintenance of law & order. These functions are responsible for ensuring peace and public order in the country. Thus, police plays a vital role in country’s development. It detects, fights, arrests and controls the enemies of peace and public order.

Police personnel are exposed to various stressors that are significantly different, in terms of quality and quantity to those experienced by the general population (Jones & Kagee, 2005). They are reported to have higher rates of substance abuse, divorce, suicide, cynicism, burnout, job dissatisfaction, heart diseases, stomach disorders, alcohol, drug use, lower morale vis-a-vis members even suicide attempts vis-à-vis members of other professions (Brown & Campbell, 1990; Gilmartin, 2002; Violanti, 1996). This is not surprising considering the inherent dangers and challenges police face in the course of their duties (Schaible & Gecas, 2010). The job profile of a police officer includes witnessing a fellow officer killed in the line of duty, killing someone in the line of duty, recovering bodies from motor vehicle accidents, witnessing domestic or community violence and responding to cases involving child abuse & neglect (Gulle et al., 1998). Stress is a byproduct of police work (Myendeki, 2008). Every year more police officers commit suicide than are murdered by felons (Kates, 2005).

As discussed earlier, role stress occurs due to role conflicts. An oft used measure to assess role stress is the Organizational Role Stress Scale. However, due to very limited studies examining role stress in police personnel in India, there is a need for further examination. Further, the relationship between personality and role stress has also not received enough attention. This is not unique to India. The relationship between personality and stress has generally been ignored in other context as well (Hochwalder, 2006).

As noted earlier, one of the best inventories to measure personality traits is Zuckerman Kuhlman Personality Questionnaire- shorter cross cultural version (ZKPQ-50-CC) developed by Aluja et al. (2006). Again, limited research has been carried out examining the personality traits of police personnel using ZKPQ-50-
CC around the world. The present study examines the role stress among Indian police personnel as well as investigates the relationship between the personality traits and role stress. This study is expected to contribute to enriched understanding regarding the stressors in police work in India and influence of personality on the stress. The major aims of the study are presented in the next section.

1.4 Aims of the Study
This study attempts to understand personality traits of police personnel and role stress amongst them. The study also aims to explore the influence and impact of personality traits on stress among police personnel. Specifically, the study is intended to:

• to investigate the nature and dynamics of stress among police personnel
• to identify specific stressors causing stress among police personnel
• to assess the personality traits among police personnel
• to explore the relationship of personality traits and role stress among police personnel

(In addition to these key objectives, the study also attempts to explore differences across various demographic variables like type of police organization, age, gender, length of service etc.)

• to propose managerial interventions to handle the stress among police personnel.

1.5 Chapterisation Scheme
In the present chapter, an attempt was made to present an overview of the key constructs of the study. In addition it explained the rationale and the approach of the study. In the next chapter, i.e. Chapter 2, a brief profile of the subject of this study, i.e. police, is presented. It enumerates the duties and responsibilities of police personnel in India. The chapter also presents the organizational structure of police in Indian States as well as Centre. The chapter ends with the discussion of stress among police personnel in India.

In Chapter 3, literature review pertaining to the subject matter of this study is presented. Literature review focuses on past and present research carried out on stress, especially on role stress. Under the theme of personality, review focuses on
the trait approach of personality, with particular emphasis on five-factor model of personality. In the end, discussion on police stress and police personality has been carried out with the help of extensive literature review across the world, laying especially emphasis on Indian studies.

Chapter 4 delineates the research strategy. It provides a description of the problem statement, objectives, hypothesis, research design and methods utilized in this research study. It includes details of the participants as well as the instruments. It also presents the hypothesized research model. For scale refinement, both the instruments were subjected to the Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The chapter explains the pattern of analysis followed to arrive at results. It also presents major limitations of the study.

In Chapter 5, the results of the data analysis are presented. The data analysis has been carried out through various statistical techniques such as Independent sample t-test, ANOVA test, Correlation estimation and Structural Equation Modeling. Finally, results of the hypothesis are presented.

In Chapter 6, Conclusion, Managerial Implications and Future Research Directions of the study are presented. The chapter begins with a summary of findings. This is followed by conclusion and the managerial implications. Implications have been divided into three groups, i.e., implications arising out of findings with respect to personality traits, implications based on results of organizational role stress and implications emerging out of interface of personality traits and organizational role stress. In the end, it suggests the future research directions so that this effort can be extended further.