CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a highly sought-after and highly valued attribute for managers in the organisations. A review of the scholarly studies on leadership shows that there is a wide variety of different theoretical approaches to explain the complexities of the leadership process. Literature on leadership has examined various organisational variables and their effects on job stress. This occupational or job stress has been noted to put impairing effect on employees job behaviour and physical and psychological well being, representing serious cost to organisations in human and monetary terms. Substantial amount of research has been done by stress researcher of different disciplines to reveal the causes and consequences of psychological stress moreover, modern organisations and competition has further added different dimensions to the understanding of stress.

To better understand stress and the role of leadership attributes in creating stress among subordinates, the researcher has presented findings of studies conducted by eminent scholars at national and international level. The purpose of this literature on organisational leadership with an emphasis on leadership style or type of leadership executed by the superior in an organisation and the stress level of subordinates.

The chapter is divided into four parts. In the first part the worldwide leadership studies are covered, specifically the researcher has focused to consult only those studies which are directly on indirectly related to the
topic undertaken. In the second part of the chapter the researcher has tried to consult and collect the leadership studies which are conducted in the Indian subcontinent. In the third part of the chapter, studies relating to the occupational stress have been collected specifically; the researcher has given the priorities to the areas and variables which cover only occupational part of the stress. The forth part of the chapter deals with the studies conducted by various researchers relating to the occupational stress in India.

3.2 IMPORTANT LEADERSHIP STUDIES

Leadership has been defined in terms of individual traits, leader behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence on task culture. Leadership has been studied using both qualitative and quantitative method in variety of groups and organisations.

There appears considerable overlap between the role of leadership and management. Bennis and Nanus (1985) proposed that ‘managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing’. Zaleznik (1977) proposed that managers are concerned about how things get done, and leaders are concerned with what things mean to people. Therefore, the studies discussed in the chapter focus on leadership as a process and the type of leadership executed by the managers in the organisation. Yukl (1989) advocated that when managers are involved in influencing a group to meet its goals, they are involved in leadership. When leaders are involved in planning, organizing, staffing and controlling, they are involved in management. Both processes involve influencing a group of individuals towards goal attainment.
In 1915, Conway mentioned three types of crowd leader viz. Crowd-compeller, Crowd-exponent and Crowd-representative. Bogardus (1981) suggested four types of leaders:

a. The autocratic type who rises to office in a powerful organisation;

b. The democratic type who represents the interests of a group;

c. The executive type who is granted leadership because he can get things done; and

b. The reflective intellectual type who may find it difficult to recruit a large following.

Sanderson and Nafe (1929) have proposed four types of leaders: the static, the executive, the professional and the group leaders. Further Pigors (1936) has observes that leaders in group-work tend to act either as (1) master, or (2) educator.

Levive (1949) has identified four types of leaders. The charismatic leader helps the group rally around a common aim, but tends to become dogmatically rigid. The organisational leader highlights and tends to drive people to effective action. The intellectual leader usually lacks skill in attracting people. The informal leader tends to adopt his style of performance to group needs. Harding (1949) enumerated twenty types of educational leaders as follows: autocrat, cooperator, elder statesman, eager bearer, pontifical, muddled, loyal staff man, prophet, scientist, mystic, dogmatist, open-minded, cynic, optimist and democrat. Haiman (1951) suggested that five types of leaders are needed in a democracy. These are: (1) the executive, (2) the judge, (3) the advocate, (4) the expert and (5) the discussion leader.
Getzels and Guba (1957) proposed three types of leadership; of these two are associated with separate dimensions of group activity. Nomothetic leadership is involved with roles and expectations, which defines the normative dimensions of activity in social systems. Ideographic leadership is associated with individual needs and dispositions of members, which define the personal dimensions of group activity. Synthetic leadership reconciles the conflicting demands arising from the two contrasting systems within a group.

Cattell (1954) explored four types of leaders in experimental groups. These are; (1) Persistent momentary problem solvers, high in interaction rate, (2) Salient leaders picked up by observers as exerting the most powerful influence on the group, (3) socio-metric leaders-nominated by their peers and (4) elected leaders-attaining office by election. Blake, Mouton and Bidnell (1962) observed country club management, impoverished management, middle of the road, team management and task management as leadership types, a reference to which has been made in the second chapter of this study.

In a program of research conducted by McClelland and his colleagues (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982, McClelland & Burnham, 1976). Leader motives were measured with a projective test. The three motives investigated were need for power, need for achievement, and need for affiliation. Their research also found that leaders with a socialized power orientation use their influence to build subordinate commitment to organisational goals, and they seek to empower and develop subordinates by using more consultation, delegation, and coaching.
Another study conducted by Miner and his colleagues (Berman & Miner, 1985; Miner, 1978) reveals that positive attitude towards authority figures are important because a manager who resents authority figures is unlikely to maintain effective relations with superior and develop the upward influence necessary to carry out position responsibilities.

The findings of Zaccarro, Foti, & Kenny (1991) shows that leadership emergence depends jointly on the ability to recognize what followers want in different situations and the flexibility to respond approximately to follower expectations in different situations.

Several researchers have classified leadership on the basis of functions, which a leader performs. Krech and Crutchfield (1948) proposed a number of leadership function. These are executive, planner, policy maker, “expert” external group representative, controller of internal relationships, purveyor of rewards and punishments, arbitrator and mediator, exemplar, symbol of the group, surrogate, for individual responsibility, ideologist, father figure and scapegoat.

Stogdill (1959) suggested that it is the function of the leader to maintain group structure and goal direction and to reconcile conflicting demands arising outside the group.

Since the personality trait approach had proved less significant it was felt that an attempt should be made to study the behaviour rather than the traits of leaders.

Hemphill and his associate (1951) at the University of Maryland, developed a list of approximately 1,800 items describing different aspects of leaders behaviour. However 150 items were found on which sorters
were agreed to subscale for assigning an item. These items were used to develop the first form of the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill, 1950; Hemphill and Cooris, 1957).

Several factor analytic studies conducted by Haplin and Winer (1957) of the item Inter-correlations produced two factors identified by Hemphill as “consideration” and “Initiation of Structure” in interaction.

The behavioural approach emphasized what leaders and managers actually do on the job and the relationship of this behaviour to leader effectiveness.

In Japan, 30 years of research on performance-oriented (task) and maintenance-oriented (people) behaviour by leaders found more consistent evidence that both types of behaviour are necessary for leadership effectiveness (Misumi, 1985; Misumi & Peterson, 1985). Yukl (1989) revealed in his study that though some task- and people-oriented behaviour is necessary for any leader, but the relative importance of specific forms of this behaviour varies from situation to situation.

Pioneering studies by social scientists Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) and Coch and French (1948) more narrowly defined aspect of leadership such as consulting with subordinates individually or making joint decisions with item as a group. The findings from descriptive case studies of effective managers have been more consistency supportive of the benefits of participative leadership as appeared from the studies of Bradford & Cohen (1984); Kanter (1983); Kouzes & Posner (1987); Peters & Austin, (1985), Peters & Waterman (1982). Their research
found that effective manager used a substantial amount of consultation and delegation to empower subordinates and give them a sense of ownership for activities and decisions. Manz & Sims in 1987 and 1989 found that the effectiveness of power sharing and delegation tends to be supported also by research, on self-managed groups.

Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, and Huber (1984) found that praise and contingent rewards usually increase subordinate satisfaction and performance. The importance of recognition and appropriate rewards has been noted also in descriptive studies of leadership in effective organisations by Peters & Austin (1985) and Peters & Waterman (1982).

Clarifying is the primary component of initiating structure. It is related to managerial effectiveness by setting specific, challenging but realistic goals as reported by Yukl, Wall and Latham (1990). Moreover Locke & Latham (1990) gave the evidence that goal setting by a manager result in better subordinate performance than no goals.

Power possessed by a leader is important for influencing subordinates. According to Danserean, Graen & Haga (1975); Graen & Cashman (1975) studies on leader-member exchange theory (LMX) describes how leader develop different exchange relationships overtime with different subordinates. Kotter (1985), Yukl (1989); Yukl & Taber (1983), in their studies highlights that effective leaders rely on a combination of power sources. Further some theorists such as McCall (1978), Sayles (1979) proposed that the manner in which power is exercised largely determines whether it results in enthusiastic commitment, passive compliance, or stubborn resistance.
Influence is a fundamental to leadership. The use of multiple tactics to influence subordinates was evident in the research by Yukl et al (1991) which showed that most effective tactic for obtaining target commitment, and inspirational appeals; the least effective tactics were pressure, coalition tactics and legitimating tactics.

Burns (1978) emphasized power from a relationship standpoint. According to it, power is not an entity that leaders use one or others to achieve their own ends, but instead it occurs in relationships and should be used by leaders and followers to benefit their collective goals.

Researcher at the University of Michigan explored leadership behaviour, giving special attention to the impact of leaders behaviours on the performance of small groups. The Michigan researchers in their initial studies, conceptualized employee and production orientations are at the opposite ends of a single continuum. Later studies of Kahn (1956) showed that when the two behaviours were treated as independent orientations, leaders were seen as being able to be oriented to both production and employees at the same time.

Blake and Moutan (1985) indicated that a person usually has a dominant grid style, which he or she uses in most situations, and a backup style. The backup style is what the leader reverts to when under pressure, when the usual way of accomplishing things do not work.

Extensive research conducted by Stewart (1976, 1982) using observation, interviews, and diaries to describe managerial behaviour. According to her work, a managing pattern of interactions and amount of time spent with subordinates, peers, superiors and outsiders depends on the nature of the work and whether it is self-generating or reactive, repetitive or
variable, uncertain or predictable, fragmented or sustained, hurried or unhurried. Stewart concluded that the core demands of managerial jobs have important implications for selection and promotion decision, since different patterns of traits and skills.

Hunt & Osborn (1982) emphasized the influence of the influence of macro-level situational determinants on a manager’s behaviour. These situational variables include level of authority in the organisation, size of work unit, function of work unit, technology centralization of authority, lateral interdependence, and forces in the external environment. The micro-level situational variables such as task complexity, task interdependence among subordinates, subordinate goal orientation, and group cohesiveness also influence leader’s behaviour.

Research on what motivates employees and the need for the leader to motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals lead to the work of Evans (1970), House (1971), House and Dessler (1974), and House and Mitchell (1974) in form of Path-goal theory. It focused on the goal of leadership as a way to enhance employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation. According to Indvik (1986), leaders try to enhance subordinates goal attainment by providing information or rewards in the work environment; they provide subordinates with the elements they think that their subordinates need to reach their goals.

According to House and Mitchell, leadership generates motivation when it increases the number and kinds of payoffs that subordinates receive from their work. Leadership also motivates when it makes the path to the goal clear and easy to travel through coaching and direction, when it
removes obstacles and road blocks to attaining the goal and when it makes the work itself more personally satisfying.

This approach has examined directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours. The directive and supportive leadership style is similar to the “initiating structure” and “Consideration behaviour” as described in the Ohio State studies.

The significance of Path-goal theory as marked by House and Mitchell is that leaders may exhibit any or all of the four styles with various subordinates and in different situations. Path-goal theory is not a traits approach that locks leaders into only one kind of leadership; leaders should adapt their style to the situation or to the motivational needs of the subordinates.

The researchers have focused on subordinates needs for affiliation, preferences for structure, desires for control, and self perceived level of task ability. These characteristics as well as many others, determine the degree to which subordinates find the behaviour of a leader an immediate source of satisfaction or instrumental to some future satisfaction. Task characteristics also have a major impact on the way leaders behaviour influences the motivation of subordinates task the formal authority system of the organisation, and the primary work group of subordinates.

A special focus of Path-goal theory is on helping subordinates to overcome obstacles, which leads to increase in subordinates’ expectations to complete the task and increase their sense of job satisfaction. Because, the obstacles in the work setting which gets in the way of subordinates. Specially, obstacles create excessive uncertainties, frustrations, or threats for subordinates.
House (1996) published a reformulate path-goal theory that extends his original work to include eight classes of leadership behaviours. Besides four leadership behaviours discussed earlier, new behaviours include work facilitation, group-oriented decision process, work-group representation and networking and value-based leader behaviour.

Meyor (1968) studied two organisations, one managed according to McGregor’s Theory Y, and the other according to theory X. It was found that workers under the more permissive (theory Y) type of management reported higher responsibility, risk, reward, warmth and they identified item that were suggestive of group cohesiveness and member satisfaction. Solem (1959) found that full delegation (permissiveness) results in decisions of better quality and higher satisfaction than a more restrictive form of discussion leadership.

The behaviour of the supervisor has been assumed to determine the subsequent satisfaction of the viable there is some evidence, meager though it may be to suggest that satisfaction of subordinate and supervisory style may not be a matter of one to one relationship as advocated by Haythron (1958). Lawler and Hall (1970) have suggested that people differ as a function of their background. The degree to which they get involved in their jobs is a function of this difference, other things remaining constant. In this direction, Runyon (1973) has found those employees who were characterized by internal locus of control experienced greater satisfaction with directive supervisor. In other words, it is suggested that a given supervisory style may induce satisfaction among some but not all subordinates.
3.3 INDIAN STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP

Goswami and Ghosh (1957) have made elaborate studies on the pattern of effective supervision and have brought out a number of papers and monographs. Ganguli (1964) has reported that 46.9 percent of the manager and 3.10 per cent of workers of a factory preferred autocratic organisational climate while only 12.30 percent of the managers preferred democratic climate. The existing environment was perceived to be autocratic by 51 per cent of the managers and 43.6 percent of the workers.

Sequeira (1962 a, 1962 b) who worked with Ganguli, has outlined the characteristics of the effective supervision. He has come to the conclusion that effective supervisory practice is less ambiguous and less relative. The main criteria seem to be the level of supervisor in the hierarchy. Bhatt and Pathak (1962) found high intelligence and dependability as important perceived characteristics of effective supervision.

Indian management is generally believed to be autocratic with subordinates closely supervised by their superiors and only a limited degree of participation is allowed to the subordinates. Myers (1960) from his interview with industrialists, government officials, labour leaders, and managers in both Indian and foreign owned organisations, concludes that barring a few most Indian top managers are relatively authoritarian in their, relationships with lower management and labour. Similar result has also been highlighted by Ganguli (1964) in his study of leadership behaviour in a state-owned engineering company. Rangaswamy (1976) in his study of leadership behaviour of 56 top level managers has found that
Indian managers are more employee-oriented as compared to American counterpart.

Yet, in another study, Lai (1983) found evidence of Consultation in Indian managers. The results showed that department heads used prior consultation (35.02 percent) in most cases followed by joint decision-making (29.56 per cent). Delegation to subordinates was indicated by only 3.52 percent of the respondents. Further, the direct subordinates rating corresponding to exactly with those of department heads rating in their rankings.

The study conducted in Indian organisation by Saiyadain (1974) confirmed that the supervisory practices that are characterised by participative style are more satisfying to employees than those characterised by directive style.

A study conducted in Modi Rubber Limited by Pal and Vasudeva (1989) showed that workers working under relationship oriented supervisors experience significantly a greater degree of satisfaction than their counterparts working under task oriented supervisors. This was further supported by another study of 33 regional managers from the Pharmaceuticals industry by Singh & Sengupta (1997).

Hingar (1986) in her study on leadership style and job satisfaction among executives found the bureaucratic style was found to be significantly correlated with the efficiency of superior and the efficiency of the organisation. The values of multiple correlations indicate that effectiveness of subordinates, efficiency of division and efficiency of the organisation are significantly influenced by the leadership styles. The authoritarian style was found to be negatively correlated with the
effectiveness of subordinates. Besides, its trend of correlation with other variables of effectiveness was found to be negative. Therefore, the study concluded that some of the variables of effectiveness viz. effectiveness of superior in terms of his administrative and other abilities, efficiency of division and positively influenced by bureaucratic, nurturant, participative and task-orientation styles of leadership, whereas the authoritarian style of leadership is having a negative impact on the different variables of effectiveness. Also no significant difference in leadership style was found when these were judged by the leader himself and when these were judged by their subordinated.

In a study on the effectiveness of leader in organisation among executives in Gwalior (MP) Patwardhan (2003) has highlighted that the communicative factor has highest weightage among other factors for a manager to be effective leader. Also it revealed that achievement oriented and assertive traits are found to be more significant traits than persistent trait. It clearly indicates that in Gwalior (MP) region followers are required to be more influenced by Achievement oriented and assertive traits.

3.4 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS STUDIES

Occupational stress among the employees due to various factors which are related to the job environment within which he is directly going to be affected. Below are the studies, are being compiled which are related with the work environment and especially those variables are being taken which are directly or indirectly connected with leadership styles of the superiors.
Many organisation theorists have, in facts, suggested that good relations between organisation members can be a key factor in improving organisational health like, Likert (1961, 1967); Argyris (1964) and McGregor (1960). In the Goddard study, French and Caplan have examined the quality of the relations people have with their immediate superior, their colleagues as important sources of organisational stress. Poor relations have been defined as those which include low trust, low supportiveness, and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with the problem that confront the organisational member.

Early experimental research has shown that lack of opportunities to participate in decisions can create strain in the person and even adversely affect productivity. One study of participation in a sewing plant by Coch & French (1948) showed that the greater the degree of participation, the greater was the subsequent productivity, the higher the job satisfaction, the lower the turnover, and the better the relations between the workers and the managers. These findings were later replicated in a study in a Norwegian factory by French, Israel and As (1960).

In Yugoslav factories, operated under a system of worker, councils, it was found that participation is associated with job satisfaction as studied by Obradovic, French and Rodgers (1970).

In America, a study of forty four organisations by Levitan (1970) revealed that high satisfaction with the job and the organisation, high self-esteem, low alienation, high commitment to work and to the organisation, more innovation for better ways of doing the job, doing more extra work, reading more books and magazines related to work, a higher performance evaluation by one’s manager and lower absenteeism.
In the Goddard study high participation was accompanied by better relations with the person’s immediate superior, colleagues and subordinator (r-range from .24 to .52)

Buck (1972) focused on the attitude and relationship of workers and managers to their immediate boss using Fleishman’s leadership questionnaire on consideration and initiating structure. The consideration factor was associated with behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and certain warmth between boss and subordinate, Buck concludes that the considerate behaviour of supervisors appears to have contributed significantly inversely to feelings of job pressure. Also he found that both managers and workers who felt under pressure most, reported that their supervisor always ruled with an iron hand and rarely tried out new ideas or allowed participation in decision making. Managers under stress reported that their supervisors never let the persons under them do their work in the way they thought best. Margolis et al. (1974) found that non-participation at work, among a national representative sample of over 1400 workers, was the most consistent and significant predictor or indicator of strain and job related stress. Kasl (1973) also found that low job satisfaction was related to non-participation in decision making, inability to provide feedback to supervisors, and lack of recognition for good performance and that poor mental health was linked to close supervision and no autonomy at work according to Quinn et al (1971). Neff (1968) has highlighted the importance of lack of participation and involvement.

Poor relations with one’s superior, colleagues, and subordinates are likely to occur whenever the person experiences a good deals of ambiguity
about what he should be doing as part of his role in the organisation as the correlations ranges from -0.23 to -0.46. These findings are in keeping with those from another study by Kahn et al (1964). In that study mistrust of the persons one work was positively associated with high role ambiguity (r=.38). Also, poor relations with one’s immediate superior do effect threat (r=-41). Apparently individuals’ feelings of threat are more likely to be reduced by improving his relations with his superior.

Sofer (1970) has observed that the middle age and usually middle management level career becomes problematic and most executives find their progress slowed if not actually stopped. And these managers, as suggested by Levinson (1973) and Constandse (1972), suffer these fears and disappointments in silent isolation from their families and work colleagues. This has been called by Constandse as “the male menopause”. The fear of demotion or obsolescence can be string for those who know that they have reached their career ceiling and most will inevitably suffer from erosion of status before they finally retire.

Role Ambiguity is a state in which the person has inadequate information to perform his role. An intensive study of the effects of Role Ambiguity on job satisfaction and job related psychology tensions in six large business organisations in the United States by Kahn et al. (1964). The major findings of this study showed that men who suffered from role ambiguity experienced lower job satisfaction and higher job-related tension. A latter study carried out at Goddard Space Flight Canter, one of NASA’s bases further supported above findings. The findings of Kahn et al. regarding low utilization of personal abilities suggest that people are unable to make their best contribution to an organisation partly because
the channels for utilization are unclear or ambiguous. Moreover, the individuals tend to see little opportunity for their own advancement in the organisation ($r = -0.44$), again because there is ambiguity about how to get ahead. Also fifteen percent of the employees reported that role conflict is a frequent and serious problem. The study revealed that men job satisfaction and higher job related tension. It was found that among managers, role conflict decreases satisfaction ($r = -0.54$) and increases job-related tension ($r = -0.39$).

The reanalysis by Sayles (1969) of some of the findings from the study of role conflict that a good deal of the relationship between role conflict and job-related tension is explained by role overload. Miller (1960) has shown that excessive overload leads to general breakdown in a system no matter what the level of the system is. Research by Terreberry (1968) has also indicated that overload resulting from excessive rates of changes in the complexity of the environment also leads to system breakdown. According to McClelland (1961), quantitative overload is prevalent in the achievement oriented society.

Trust forms a prerequisite to effective organisational process. In a distrustful situation, quality of decision goes down, while in a trusting climate it improves substantially according to McGregor (1967). A study conducted by Rosen and Jerdee (1977) shows that level of trust determines the extent to which a superior is willing to involve the subordinates in participative decision making.

In a study conducted by Etzioni (1984) it has been found that several stressors result in a state where the employee sees no relief or satisfaction in sight and experiences physical, emotional and mental exhaustion.
In this study, Likert (1967) advocated that trust is a prerequisite for leadership effectiveness. Leaders need to have utmost confidence and trust in their subordinates to make correct decisions and act effectively without engaging themselves in constant negotiations.

3.5 OCCUPATIONAL STRESS STUDIES IN INDIA

The results obtained from a study of role stress and coping in three banks by Sen (1982) provides some pointer towards a theory of role stress and coping. It reveals that employees generally experience role stresses most. Role overload is a pertinent factor in this. Other significant stresses are role stagnation, role ambiguity arising out of conflict of expectations, role erosion due to lesser importance given to the individual role, role isolation on account of lack of linkages with other roles and role inadequacy.

Sinha (1976) found that authoritarian leadership is preferred by employees in Indian organisation.

Srivastava, Hagtvet, and Sen (1994) found that in a private sector organisation, middle level managers perceive greater stress and anxiety in comparison to top level managers and workers. In another that role efficacy accounted for 22 per cent variance of role conflict perception.

In the study conducted on supervisors of Indian Railways by Pandey (1997), it shows that demographic variables such as age has positive but non-significant relationship with all the dimensions of role stress excepting role ambiguity where it had significant relationship. Their education showed positive but non-significant correlation with all the dimensions of role stress. Experience showed positive and significant
relationships with inter-role distance, role expectation conflict, role ambiguity, personal inadequacy and role stagnation. Again, experience showed positive relation with role stagnation and role erosion and with personal inadequacy and self-role distance. It has positive relation with role overload and role stagnation with non-significance. The study also reported that creativity has negative relationship with role overload and self-role distance.

According to study by Ahmad, Bhardwaj and Narula (1985), age, education, income, marital status and experience of the executives were found to be unrelated with role stress.

In a study on leadership styles and role stress conducted by Bhatnagar and Bose (1985) among the branch managers scored lower on role stagnation indicating that respondents do not experience major stresses in these areas. The role stresses namely, role erosion, inter-role distance and role isolation were found to be related with leadership styles i.e. inter-role distance correlated negatively and significantly with high task low people orientation (style 1) and with high task high people orientation (style 2). The overall style adaptability was associated negatively and significantly with personal inadequacy.

Dwivedi (1989) studied Organisational Role Stress (ORS) among Public Sector Personnel in India and it showed that there was a significant negative relationship between most of the ORS measures and pay, followed by age, experience, and education and leader effectiveness.

Another study by Dwivedi (1995) on Organisational culture and Performance, among managers of Public and Private sector. All measures of ORS signify that in high performance (private sector) organisation,
stress levels are low and in low performance (public sector) organisation stress levels are higher. Moreover, the study also showed that all ORS and distrust elements have negative impact on organisational performance.

Khanna (1985) in a case study of three levels of managers in manufacturing unit, revealed that executive belonging to production and R & D departments experienced higher role stress as compared to those from marketing and administration departments. Junior level managers experienced higher stress than their counterparts at senior level. Moreover, it was found that Role Erosion was found to be major contributor of role stress, also, the executives with lower degree of Role Ambiguity reported higher job satisfaction. Age was found to be negatively associated with role stress but was positively related to organisational effectiveness. In order of priority job satisfaction, legitimization, innovation and achievement were the most important predictors of organisational role stress.

Role Stagnation, Personnel Inadequacy and Self Role Distance were found to be significantly higher among lower level executives as depicted in a study by Kumar (1989) among executives in an oil company.

The response of executives studied by Pandey (1994) in a manufacturing unit shows that the three levels of job hierarchy coexisting of middle management executives, lower management executives and supervisors differ significantly in terms of Role Stagnation and Role Overload stresses, impunitive, intro-persistive and extra-persistive coping styles, and Role erosion was found as dominant role stress in all the three job hierarchy levels.
The results of the study by Hinger, Jain and Chaudhary (1997) among the employees of central government Organisation shows that in higher level officers, role inadequacy, role overload and role expectation conflict cause stress, while in the middle level officers role erosion, role expectation conflict and inter-role distance are the important dimensions causing stress. Moreover, the correlation between role stress and job satisfaction is negative in the entire group. This strengthens the opinion that higher the role stress, lower would be the job satisfaction. Similar results were found by Sen (1981), Pestonjee and Singh (1981), Jagdish and Srivastava (1983), Singh and Mishra (1987), Mittal (1993), Hinger and Chaudhary (1992).

Sehgal (1990) in a study of executives belonging to junior, middle and senior level reveals that Role Erosion and Role Inadequacy are predominant role stresses experienced by executives. Also, middle level executives experiences relatively higher stress arising out of role stagnation.

A study of organisational climate, Role Stress and coping strategy amongst Public Sector executives by Srivastava (1993) shows, Role stress experienced was the general stress and the overload stress. Role stress was positively correlated with dysfunctional climate and avoidance coping strategy, whereas negatively with functional climate. Also Role expectation conflict and personal inadequacy were positively correlated with age. Role Erosion was negatively correlated to dependency but positively to extension. Also Role expectation and role ambiguity were negatively correlated with affiliation.
In a study engineering executives in Public Sector, Rajgopalan and Khandelwal (1988) found that total role stress had positive correlation with avoidance and negative correlation with approach coping style. Moreover, REC, RE and SRD were not correlated with each other; correlations in case of IRD, RI and RA were significant and in others RS, RO, PI and RIM were significant.

In another study, on Organisational Role Stress and Coping strategies of PSU executives, Gupta (1988) revealed that Role Erosion (RE) was experienced by a higher number of executives (80 percent), followed by Role Inadequacy (RI) 78 percent, Role Stagnation (RS) 74 percent, Self Role Distance (SRD) 60 percent, Personal Inadequacy (PI) 65.8 percent, Role Isolation 62.2 percent and Role Expectation conflict (RE) 44 percent.

Whereas, in a study by Kaur and Murthy (1986) in major Public Sector organisational Hindustan Aeronautics Limited, on Organisational Role Stress, Coping Strategies and Locus of Control, no significant differences were found with regard to role stress, coping strategies and locus of control.

Gupta and Pratap (1987) observed linear increase in organisational role stress as a function of service length among the executives of BHEL subdivided into three categories on the basis of their length of service.

In a study by Sehgal (1997) on role, it was found that the persons who experience high role stress tend to use the avoidance coping styles, whereas those who experience low stress use the approach coping styles. The study also shows that role stress is significantly related to alienation and as stress increases it results in a state of alienation. The findings
showed that role stress is significantly and negatively related to job involvement.

Another study by Srivastava (1993) on organisation Role Stress (ORS) indicates that ORS is found to increase with avoidance coping strategy and dysfunctional organisational climate. ORS is found to decrease with approach coping strategy, functional organisational climate and aging. His study shows that ORS has negative correlation with age; role stagnation has negative correlation with age and positive correlation with avoidance coping styles. Also, role ambiguity is positively correlated to avoidance coping styles.

A study by Pattnaik (1997) on role stress and quality of work life in manufacturing industries reveals that employees in the production area experience greater amount of stress due to role isolation compared to employees in Service area.

A number of researchers have endeavored to unfold the relationship of role efficacy with personal and organisational variables. Sharma and Sharma (1984) attempted to relate role efficacy with job anxiety as having Das (1984) found role efficacy as having moderating impact on purposeful job behaviour and independent variables, such as organisational climate and role stress, Increased work-related tension was found to have overall negative relationship with role efficacy. Personal attributes and job demographics were found to have impact on role efficacy according to Sayeed (1985). Role efficacy was found to reduce role stress by Pestonjee (1992). Conductive work environment was found to make leadership work which ultimately influenced role efficacy of organisational members and productivity of organisations according to
another study by Sayeed (1993). Strong linkage was found to exist between role efficacy and appropriate position power structure.

Study of executive stress and organisation effectiveness by Khanna (1997) based on ORS scale developed by Udai Pareek (1982) reveals that job involvement, Organisational commitment, Self-control and total satisfaction significantly affect stress, whereas, different stress factors such as job satisfaction, legitimatization and innovation are the most important in reducing (or increasing) stress. Further, the result reveals a trend that lowers the age higher degree of correlation between stress and age.

Role efficacy was found to being about a positive change in performance, interpersonal relations, and overall job behaviour of supervisors as found by Pandey (1995).

The findings of the study conducted by Dwivedi (1995) indicate that trust, distrust and role stress are related behaviour variables. The trust measures have positive impact on organisation performance and constitute as driving forces. Distrust and organisational role stress elements have negative impact on organisational performance. This indicates performance and distrust and organisational role stress cause ineffective performance.

Tyagi’s (1985) study indicates the impact of trust and support dimensions of leadership on performance directly as well as affecting intrinsic motivation. Moreover, trust forms a prerequisite of constructive resolution of conflicts according to the study of Deutch (1973).
The different studies discussed in the chapter provide a foundation for this research. The findings reflect the leadership styles exhibited by the managers in organisations. It appears that the leadership style of the managers vary depending upon various factors like the situation, need of the subordinates personal attributes etc. Few studies were available highlighting the impact of leadership style of superior on the level of stress of the subordinates. Though different studies on the variables of occupational stress among executives indicate that role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, under participation, trust, intrinsic impoverishment significantly contribute to stress.