CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
In an educational institution the principal is to be a good leader, must have insight into the human problems and capacity to analyze the emotional forces that motivate the conduct of the teachers and the students. “Schools are organizations that rely on strong leadership to ensure success” (Sarros & Sarros, 2007. “A leader is one who leads others and is able to carry individual or a group towards the accomplishment of a common goal” (Haiman, 2003). Leadership is the driving force of an organization. It determines the quality and success of an organization. “Leadership in an organization is the quality of behavior of an individual where he/she guides people and their activities into an organized effort. A successful leader must possess certain basic traits necessary for motivating the subordinates to improve results. Leadership is all about influencing, motivating and inspiring people to create vision and achieve it. Leadership is based on the relationship between an individual and a group. It is built on the ground of some common interest. Mutual understanding and interaction between the leader and the followers may determine the success of leadership”. (Verma & Jain 2005)

Sai Baba’s Mahavakya on Leadership (Chibber,2005) To be-To do-To see-To tell

-To be is source of leadership which is dependent on universal inner structure of the leader. The universal inner structure of the leader is based upon the foundation of selflessness based on ideal/vision which consists of courage to decide, will power to persist, initiative to be a self-starter, knowledge of the self, ability to deal with people and knowledge of the job for us to decide.

-To do is the study of leadership by personal examples. For examples-“If the king plucks one apple from the public garden, the public will take away even the roots.”Thus do no evil, do what is good.

To see -Tools to manage situation. See no evil, do what is good.

To tell- lovingly, humanly.

A true leader should practice and then preach to transform his followers, and then only we can drive our education system on the right path.
1.1 CONCEPT OF LEADER

Education is the most important instrument for the progress of any nation. It is never ending process of inner growth and development and its period stretches from cradle to grave. It is very important for the progress of individual and society. The schools are important social institutions for providing education. The success of every institution depends upon the alertness, imagination, efficiency and capacity of heads or administrative authorities. Progress of education mainly depends upon the head. “He is the seal and school is the wax. It is the fly-wheel that regulates the machine; it is the stream engine that moves the ship.” (Bennis, 2004) The head is an organizer, director, co-coordinator, and superintendent. He is the teacher of teachers, friends, philosopher, advisor and guide. He controls the school affairs by planning, directing, executing and evaluating the educative process. He is, therefore, the leader of leaders. The principal is the keystone to the arch of school administration. She/he is the hub of the educational process. It is said, as is the Head, so is the school. The school bears the stamp of his personality and reflects the head.

Even though many of the responsibilities of an administrator are managerial in nature, an educational administrator is certainly more than a manager. In addition to direct management of the organization (Dutta, 2009) “he must be an educational leader who will provide both enthusiasm and direction to the instructional programmer. Be an insightful leader on both curricular and co-curricular matters. Provide broad and far reaching leadership towards overall planning, including budget and facilities. Define and interpret goals and provide continuing leadership towards achieving them. Provide opportunities for improvement of employees. Give positive leadership to public sentiment and students care.”

“A leader does not perform the task himself. He only gives direction and accepts the responsibility of performing the task. Leadership is a process of developing and coordinating a group’s activities towards certain goals accomplishment in a given situation” (Dutta, 2009). “It is clear from this definition that the leadership process is dependent on the leader, the follower and the situation, in order to be effective. Organizations today require leaders, whose personal experiences are supplemented by an understanding of forces that affect him and the situation in which he is operating. The leader is a catalyst to inspire and motivate the rank and file in the organizations. He sets the tone and culture of the organization. What set a leader apart from his team
members are the all encompassing vision and his ability to communicate the vision to all levels in the organization. Leader should be the person who culturally binds the organization. He has a multiple role, and therefore, he is looked upon more as one who objectively looks at issues". (Dutta 2009) The responsibilities of a leader fall into three inter related needs concerning task, team and individuals. The leader must aim to satisfy the three areas of needs of achieving the task i.e building the team, developing and motivating individual.

**Leader as a Follower**

A good leader is also a good follower. An effective leader should seek to reach out to his followers; he knows that there will always be people who are more intelligent than him. There is a saying about a true leader “When you are able to know other people, you are wise. When you are able to know your self, you are enlightened.”(Dutta 2009) “Followers are an important part of the leadership process and all leaders are sometimes followers as well. Good leaders know how to follow and they set an example for others”. (Kapani 2010)

**1.2 LEADERSHIP**

Buildings and machines can be owned; people can not. Leadership does not just happen; it can be learned and develop through practice as well as by studying the leadership ideas and behavior of great leaders with a vision. It is important to remember that leadership is both an art and a science. It is an art, because many leadership skills and qualities can not be learnt from a text books. Leadership take practice and hands-on experience, as well as intense personal exploration and development. However leadership is also a science because a growing body of knowledge and objective facts describes the leadership process and how to use leadership skills to attain organizational goals. Halpin, (1966) “Leadership consists of two important behavioral dimensions – initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure refers to the leaders in delineating the relationship between him and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and method of procedure. Consideration, on the other hand refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and members of his staff.”
“Leadership is a process in which a leader attempts to influence his or her followers, to establish and accomplish a goal or goals. In order to accomplish the goal, the leader exercises his or her power to influence people. That power is exercised in earlier stages by motivating followers to get the job done and in later stages by rewarding or punishing those who do or do not perform to the level of expectation. Leadership is a continuous process, with the accomplishment of one goal becoming the beginning of a new goal. The proper reward by the leader is of utmost importance in order to continually motivate followers in the process”. (Halpin, 1966)

**Definitions of Leadership in the Early Times**

Traditionally leadership in the early years has been associated with individual skills characteristics and personal qualities in the leader. “A recent view of leadership is that it is not an isolated activity invested in a single or more persons, but rather that a variety of people contribute to effective leadership, and that leadership is therefore distributed.” (Nivala and Hujala, 2002)

Stogdill (1959) defines “Leadership may be considered as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts towards setting goal achievements.”

According to House (1971) “Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members.”

Singh (1985) Says “The leader who is task oriented and nurtures the dependence of members on him is most effective in dealing with other members.”

Bennis (1989) is of opinion that "The first job of a leader is to define a vision for the organization. Leadership is the capacity to translate vision into reality."

Bolman and Deal (1991) lays down “Leaders display leadership behavior in one of four types of framework, structural, human resource, political or symbolic. The style can either be effective or ineffective, depending upon the chosen behavior in certain situations.”

Cunningham (1993) “Defined it as the attitudes of the individual to affect other people in order to reach a target.”

Robbins (1993) says “Leadership is the ability to influence the group to achieve the target.”
Yukl (1994) holds “Leadership is the process of influence on the subordinate, in which the subordinate is inspired to achieve the target, the group is maintained in cooperation, and the established.”

Stogdill (1997) emphasizes “It is an act of having influence on the activities of an organized group in its attempts to set and achieve its goals.”

Northouse (2001) opined that “Leadership is exchanged relationship between leader and subordinate, mission is accomplished, and the support from external group is obtained.”

Fry (2003) hold that “Leadership means use of leading strategy to offer inspiring motive and to enhance the staff’s potential for growth and development.”

Bennis (2004) is of the view that “Leadership is a function of knowing yourself, having a vision that is well communicated, building trust among colleagues, and taking effective action to realize your own leadership potential.”

Northouse (2007) hold the view that “Leadership is process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve goals.”

Keith (2007) is of the opinion that “Leadership is ultimately about creating a way for people to contribute to making something extraordinary happen.”

Conclusion - Leadership is defined in so many different ways that it is hard to come up with a single working definition. Leadership is not just a person or group of people in a high position; understanding leadership is not complete without understanding interactions between a leader and his or her followers. Neither is leadership merely the ability or static capacity of a leader. We need to look into the dynamic nature of the relationship between leader and followers. In these unique social dynamics, all the parties involved attempt to influence each other in the pursuit of goals. These goals may or may not coincide: Participants actively engage in defining and redefining the goal for the group and for themselves.

Leadership Qualities

Solly (2003) highlights “Enthusiasm, passion, inspiration and advocacy as leadership qualities.”
Hessebein and Cohen (1998) of the Drucker Foundation says that leaders exist at all levels of the organization. They identified the following traits of leaders: They excel seeing things from fresh eyes and they challenge status quo. They are energetic and seem to be able to run through obstacles. They are deeply interested in a cause or discipline related to their professional arena. They can tap convictions of others and connect them to the organizational arena. They help every one see what their everyday work means to larger purpose they have a high quest for learning. They are open to people and their ideas. They are driven by goals or ideals that are bigger than what an individual can accomplish. They are willing to push themselves from comfort zones even after they have achieved success.

Peffer (1998) observes three qualities of most successful transformations: "Build trust, Encourage change and Measure the right things and align the incentive system to new practices. He argues that a people centered approach can increase profits and give competitive advantage to it."

Bennis (1982) on the other hand, “identified the following five traits of 'super' leaders based on interview data. These are:-vision, communication, persistence, empowerment, organizational ability.”

**Leadership Qualities from Extensive Literature Reviews**

The following Thirteen leadership qualities necessary to influence people were identified from extensive literature reviews.

1. Visioning: The leader communicates the vision and helps the team to clarify its goals. (Katzenbach and Smith 2003)

2. Inspiring: This behavior is usually displayed by the communication of high expectations, using symbols to focus efforts, and expressing important purposes in simple ways. (Humphreys 2002)

3. Stimulating: The leader helps subordinates to look at old problems from new and different perspectives. Intelligence and rationality are used in problem solving. (Humphreys 2002)

4. Coaching: The leader pays close attention to individual differences among subordinates; and he/she teaches and advises employees with individual personal attention. (Humphreys 2002)
5. Rewarding: The leader provides rewards and positive feedback to employees who meet agreed goals. (Humphreys 2002)

6. Punishing: This style is characterized by giving punishment and negative feedback to employees who show undesirable and below par performance. (Daft 2003)

7. Delegating: The basic concept of delegation is to transfer authority and responsibility to lower positions in the organizational hierarchy and to provide challenging and difficult tasks to subordinates to enhance their development. (Daft 2003)

8. Leading by Example: The leader does the same real work and contributes in the same way like subordinates. (Katzenbach and Smith 2003)

9. Sharing and open communication: The leader shares all types of information throughout the organization, across functional and hierarchical levels. (Daft 2003)

10. Listening: The leader grasps both facts and feelings to interpret a message’s true meaning, and shifts thoughts to empathizing with others. (Cacioppe 1998; Daft 2003)

11. Directing: The leader tells subordinates exactly what they are supposed to do. The leader sets the goals, standards, rules, and the regulations. (Daft 2003)

12. Participating: The leader consults with subordinates before making decisions. Opinions, suggestions, and participation are encouraged in the decision-making process. (Katzenbach and Smith 2003; Daft 2003)

13. Proactive: The leader actively seeks information from others and identifies problems at the early stage. (Daft 2003)

**Principles of Leadership**

To help you be, know, and do, follow these eleven principles of leadership (U.S. Army, 1983).

1. Know Yourself and Seek Self-Improvement - In order to know yourself, you have to understand you be, know, and do, attributes. Seeking self-improvement
means continually strengthening your attributes. This can be accomplished through self-study, formal classes, reflection, and interacting with others.

2. Be Technically Proficient - As a leader, you must know your job and have a solid familiarity with your employee’s tasks.

3. Seek Responsibility and Take Responsibility for Your Actions - Search for ways to guide your organization to new heights. And when things go wrong, they always do sooner or later — do not blame others. Analyze the situation, take corrective action, and move on to the next challenge.

4. Set the Example - Be a good role model for your employees. They must not only hear what they are expected to do, but also see. We must become the change we want to see - Mahatma Gandhi.

5. Know Your People and Look Out for their Well-Being - Know human nature and the importance of sincerely caring for your workers.

6. Keep Your Workers Informed - Know how to communicate with not only them, but also seniors and other key people.

7. Develop a Sense of Responsibility in Your Workers - Help to develop good character traits that will help them carry out their professional responsibilities.

8. Ensure that Tasks are Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished - Communication is the key to this responsibility.

9. Train as a Team - Although many so called leaders call their organization, department, section, etc. a team; they are not really teams, they are just a group of people doing their jobs.

10. Use the Full Capabilities of Your Organization - By developing a team spirit, you will be able to employ your organization, department, section, etc. to its fullest capabilities.

Functions of Leadership

“The functions of leadership have been described as the following: (1) the ability to create a clear focus, purpose or vision, (2) understanding the organization as a system, like the system described above with interdependent points of interaction that are aligned in their effort, (3) the ability to created channels of communication and
connection within the organization while accepting the value of diversity, and (4) developing an understanding within the organization of new technology or methodology for improvement.” (Breen, 2011)

Leadership Theories - Major Leadership Theories (Kendra, 2007)

1. "Great Man" Theories:

Great man theories assume that the capacity for leadership is inherent – that great leaders are born not made. These theories often portray great leaders as heroic, mythic and destined to rise to leadership when needed. The term "Great Man" was used because, at the time, leadership was thought of primarily as a male quality, especially in terms of military leadership. Learn more about the great man theory of leadership.

2. Trait Theories:

Similar in some ways to "Great Man" theories, trait theories assume that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. Trait theories often identify particular personality or behavioral characteristics shared by leaders. If particular traits are key features of leadership, then how do we explain people who possess those qualities but are not leaders? This question is one of the difficulties in using trait theories to explain leadership.

3. Transactional Theory (Process Theory)

This approach emphasizes the importance of the relationship between leader and followers, focusing on the mutual benefits derived from a form of 'contract' through which the leader delivers such things as rewards or recognition in return for the commitment or loyalty or the followers.

4. Contingency Theories:

Contingency theories of leadership focus on particular variables related to the environment that might determine which particular style of leadership is best suited for the situation. According to this theory, no leadership style is best in all situations. Success depends upon a number of variables, including the leadership style, qualities of the followers and aspects of the situation.
5. **Situational Theories:**

Situational theories propose that leaders choose the best course of action based upon situational variables. Different styles of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making.

6. **Behavioral Theories:**

Behavioral theories of leadership are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Rooted in behaviorism, this leadership theory focuses on the actions of leaders not on mental qualities or internal states. According to this theory, people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation.

7. **Participative Theories:**

Participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account. These leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others.

8. **Management Theories:**

Management theories, also known as transactional theories, focus on the role of supervision, organization and group performance. These theories base leadership on a system of rewards and punishments. Managerial theories are often used in business; when employees are successful, they are rewarded; when they fail, they are reprimanded or punished. Learn more about theories of transactional leadership.

9. **Relationship Theories:**

Relationship theories, also known as transformational theories, focus upon the connections formed between leaders and followers. Transformational leaders motivate and inspire people by helping group members see the importance and higher good of the task. These leaders are focused on the performance of group members, but also want each person to fulfill his or her potential. Leaders with this style often have high ethical and moral standards.
1.3 LEADERSHIP STYLES

From Mahatma Gandhi to Winston Churchill, Martin Luther King to Rudolph Giuliani, there are as many leadership styles as there are leaders. Fortunately, businesspeople and psychologists have developed useful and simple ways to describe the main styles of leadership, and these can help aspiring leaders understand which styles they should use.

So, whether you manage a team at work, captain a sports team, or lead a major corporation, which approach is best? Consciously, or subconsciously, you'll probably use some of the leadership styles.

(Leithwood et al, 2006) write about “Core leadership practices which are: setting directions; developing people; redesigning the organization; and managing the teaching programme. They offer a warning that we have instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, constructivist leadership, servant leadership, cultural leadership, and primal leadership.” A few of these qualify as leadership theories and several are actually tested leadership theories. But most are actually just slogans’, rather than conceptually coherent ideas supported by evidence that shows the effects of such approaches on pupils and schools.

Community aspects of leadership are emphasized by Kagan and Hallmark,(2001) who suggest that leadership in the early years can take the following forms:

- Community leadership, which connects early childhood education to the community through informing and constructing links among families, services, resources and the public and private sectors.
- Pedagogical leadership, forming a bridge between research and practice through disseminating new information and shaping agendas.
- Administrative leadership, which includes financial and personnel management.
- Advocacy leadership, creating a long-term vision of the future of early childhood education. This involves developing a good understanding of the field, legislative processes and the media, as well as being a skilled communicator.
- Conceptual leadership, which conceptualizes early childhood leadership within the broader framework of social movements and change.
Different Styles of Leadership (Lewin, 1939)

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. Lewin (1939) led a group of researchers to identify different styles of leadership.

1. Authoritarian Leadership- Authoritarian leaders, also known as autocratic leaders, provide clear expectations for what needs to be done, when it should be done, and how it should be done. There is also a clear division between the leader and the followers. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently with little or no input from the rest of the group. Researchers found that decision-making was less creative under authoritarian leadership. Lewin also found that it is more difficult to move from an authoritarian style to a democratic style and vice versa. Abuse of this style is usually viewed as controlling, bossy, and dictatorial. Authoritarian leadership is best applied to situations where there is little time for group decision-making or where the leader is the most knowledgeable member of the group.

2. Participative Leadership (Democratic)- Lewin’s study found that participative leadership, also known as democratic leadership, is generally the most effective leadership style. Democratic leaders offer guidance to group members, but they also participate in the group and allow input from other group members. In Lewin’s study, children in this group were less productive than the members of the authoritarian group, but their contributions were of a much higher quality. Participative leaders encourage group members to participate, but retain the final say over the decision-making process. Group members feel engaged in the process and are more motivated and creative.

3. Delegative Leadership (Laissez-Faire) Researchers found that children under delegative leadership, also known as laissez-faire leadership, were the least productive of all three groups. The children in this group also made more demands on the leader, showed little cooperation and were unable to work independently. Delegative leaders offer little or no guidance to group members and leave decision-making up to group members. While this style can be effective in situations where group members are highly qualified in an area of expertise, it often leads to poorly defined roles and a lack of motivation.
This early study has been very influential and established three major leadership styles. The three major styles of leadership are (U.S. Army Handbook, 1973)

- Authoritarian or Autocratic
- Participative or Democratic
- Delegative or Free Reign

Although good leaders use all three styles, with one of them normally dominant, bad leaders tend to stick with one style.

**Authoritarian (Autocratic)** - This style is used when leaders tell their employees what they want to be done and how they want it accomplished without getting the advice of their followers. Some of the appropriate conditions to use it is when you have all the information to solve the problem, you are short on time, and your employees are well motivated. Some people tend to think of this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. This is not the authoritarian style, rather it is an abusive, unprofessional style called “bossing people around.” It has no place in a leader's repertoire. The authoritarian style should normally only be used on rare occasions. If you have the time and want to gain more commitment and motivation from your employees, then you should use the participative style.

**Participative (Democratic)** - This style involves the leader including one or more employees in the decision making process (determining what to do and how to do it). However, the leader maintains the final decision making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; rather it is a sign of strength that your employees will respect. This is normally used when you have part of the information, and your employees have other parts. Note that a leader is not expected to know everything — this is why you employ knowledgeable and skillful employees. Using this style is of mutual benefit — it allows them to become part of the team and allows you to make better decisions.

**Delegative (Free Reign)** - In this style, the leader allows the employees to make the decisions. However, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made. This is used when employees are able to analyze the situation and determine what needs to be done and how to do it. You cannot do everything! You must set priorities and delegate certain tasks. This is not a style to use so that you can blame others when
things go wrong, rather this is a style to be used when you fully trust and confidence in the people below you. Do not be afraid to use it, however, use it wisely. This is also known as laissez-faire (or laissez-aller faire), which is the non-interference in the affairs of others.

Goleman (2002) identified the following six leadership styles

1. Visionary Leader: who moves people towards shared dreams.
2. Coaching Leader: who connects what a person wants with the organization.
3. Affiliative Leader: who creates harmony by connecting people to each other.
4. Democratic Leader: who values people's input and gets their commitment through participation.
5. Pace Setting Leader: who meets challenging and exciting goals.
6. Commanding Leader: who soothes fear by giving clear direction in an emergency.

Leadership styles (Sinha 1982) - The various leadership styles given by Sinha, are as follows:

• Authoritarian Leadership – These types of leader makes all decisions by themselves and directs the followers to do without questioning. They generally believe in centralization of power and authority.
• Bureaucratic Leadership – One who emphasizes on strict rules and regulations.
• Nurturant task Leadership – These types of leaders directs and motivates the employee to be committed to goals and realization of tasks.
• Task-oriented leadership – A task-oriented leader emphasizes high performance and achievement of targets.
• Participative Leadership – They always consult with their subordinates for decision making and place a high degree of confidence with their followers.

Different Type of Leadership Styles Given By (Stephen, 2011)

1. Autocratic Leadership- Autocratic leadership is an extreme form of transactional leadership, where a leader exerts high levels of power over his or her employees or team members. People within the team are given few opportunities for making
suggestions, even if these would be in the team's or organization's interest. Most people tend to resent being treated like this. Because of this, autocratic leadership usually leads to high levels of absenteeism and staff turnover. Also, the team's output does not benefit from the creativity and experience of all team members, so many of the benefits of teamwork are lost. For some routine and unskilled jobs, however, this style can remain effective where the advantages of control outweigh the disadvantages.

2. Bureaucratic Leadership- Bureaucratic leaders work “by the book”, ensuring that their staff follow procedures exactly. This is a very appropriate style for work involving serious safety risks (such as working with machinery, with toxic substances or at heights) or where large sums of money are involved (such as cash-handling). In other situations, the inflexibility and high levels of control exerted can demoralize staff, and can diminish the organizations ability to react to changing external circumstances.

3. Charismatic Leadership- A charismatic leadership style can appear similar to a transformational leadership style, in that the leader injects huge doses of enthusiasm into his or her team, and is very energetic in driving others forward. However, a charismatic leader can tend to believe more in him or her self than in their team. This can create a risk that a project, or even an entire organization, might collapse if the leader were to leave: In the eyes of their followers, success is tied up with the presence of the charismatic leader. As such, charismatic leadership carries great responsibility, and needs long-term commitment from the leader.

4. Democratic Leadership or Participative Leadership- Although a democratic leader will make the final decision, he or she invites other members of the team to contribute to the decision-making process. This not only increases job satisfaction by involving employees or team members in what’s going on, but it also helps to develop people’s skills. Employees and team members feel in control of their own destiny, and so are motivated to work hard by more than just a financial reward. As participation takes time, this style can lead to things happening more slowly than an autocratic approach, but often the end result is better. It can be most suitable where team working is essential, and quality is more important than speed to market or productivity.
5. Laissez-Faire Leadership – Laissez-faire leadership is defined as a leader who takes a hands-off approach to leadership. These leaders allow subordinates to work their problems out by themselves with little input (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This French phrase means “leave it be” and is used to describe a leader who leaves his or her colleagues to get on with their work. It can be effective if the leader monitors what is being achieved and communicates this back to his or her team regularly. Most often, laissez-faire leadership works for teams in which the individuals are very experienced and skilled self-starters. Unfortunately, it can also refer to situations where managers are not exerting sufficient control.

6. People-Oriented Leadership or Relations-Oriented Leadership – This style of leadership is the opposite of task-oriented leadership: the leader is totally focused on organizing, supporting and developing the people in the leader’s team. A participative style, it tends to lead to good teamwork and creative collaboration. However, taken to extremes, it can lead to failure to achieve the team’s goals. In practice, most leaders use both task-oriented and people-oriented styles of leadership.

7. Servant Leadership – This term, coined by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s, describes a leader who is often not formally recognized as such. When someone, at any level within an organization, leads simply by virtue of meeting the needs of his or her team, he or she is described as a “servant leader”. In many ways, servant leadership is a form of democratic leadership, as the whole team tends to be involved in decision-making.

8. Task-Oriented Leadership – A highly task-oriented leader focuses only on getting the job done, and can be quite autocratic. He or she will actively define the work and the roles required, put structures in place, plan, organize and monitor. However, as task-oriented leaders spare little thought for the well-being of their teams, this approach can suffer many of the flaws of autocratic leadership, with difficulties in motivating and retaining staff.

9. Transactional Leadership – Transactional leadership is defined as leaders who lead by using rewards for good behavior and punishment for poor behavior (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This style of leadership starts with the premise that team members agree to obey their leader totally when they take a job on: the “transaction” is (usually) that the organization pays the team members, in return for their effort and compliance. As
such, the leader has the right to “punish” team members if their work doesn’t meet the pre-determined standard.

10. Transformational Leadership – Transformational leadership refers to leaders who are able to inspire workers to go above and beyond the performance they thought they could do. (Avolio & Bass, 2004)

At last it can be concluded that most effective leaders integrate maximum number of styles regularly. They switch to the one most appropriate in a given leadership situation. For instance, the study of school leaders found that, in those schools where the heads displayed four or more leadership styles, students had superior academic performance relative to students in comparison schools. In schools where the heads displayed just one of two styles, academic performance was poorest. (Hay/McBer,2000) Leadership styles have been extensively researched, but few solid conclusions have been reached. What is clear is that the style a leader adopts depends on their perception of their group. Effective leadership involves assessing the group’s style and stage of development and then using a matching leadership style. If the style of the leader and the needs of the group are mismatched, the group will be unproductive. Leaders also need to adapt their style to the urgency of the task to be accomplished.

Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

Goleman (1998) observes "Emotional, a role whose essence is getting others to do their jobs more effectively. Interpersonal ineptitude in leaders lowers everyone's performance: It wastes time, creates acrimony, corrodes motivation and commitment, and builds hostility and apathy. A leader's strengths or weaknesses in emotional competence can be measured in the gain or loss to the organization of the fullest talents of those they manage."

The characteristics of leaders possessing a high level of emotional intelligence are as follows (Saavedra, 2000):

- They set goals that are clear and mutually agreed upon.
- They prefer praise as a tool for training and inspiring employees.
- They rely on decentralization for achieving their goals.
They focus on employees and their feelings.
They are role models.

For Better Leadership - Needs High Level Emotional Intelligence (Marian et al 2001)

Emotionally intelligent leaders create and maintain relationships based on trust with their employees. They possess the skills to confront problems promptly, challenge others appropriately, remain optimistic, and constructively channel impulses. In addition, emotionally intelligent leaders know their values and emotions and use that knowledge to make decisions. The success of their actions often depends upon their ability to accurately read the emotions of others. Higher levels of emotional intelligence are associated with better performance in the following areas: (Goleman, 1998)

- Participative Management
- Putting People at Ease
- Self-Awareness
- Balance Between Personal Life and Work
- Straightforwardness and Composure
- Building and Mending Relationships
- Doing Whatever it Takes
- Decisiveness
- Confronting Problem Employees
- Change Management

**Participative Management** reflects the importance of getting buy-in at the beginning of an initiative. It is an extremely important relationship-building skill in today’s management climate in which organizations value interdependency within and between groups. In other words, managers who are seen as good at listening to others and gaining their input before implementing change are likely to be assessed as good at cooperating with others, able to find pleasure in life, able to foster relationships, control impulses, and understand their own emotions and the emotions of others.
Putting People at Ease gets at the heart of making others relaxed and comfortable in your presence. From the perspective of direct reports, putting people at ease was related to impulse control, which is defined as the ability to resist or delay the impulse to act. Putting people at ease are related to happiness, suggesting that your disposition is related to how comfortable others are in your presence.

Self-Awareness describes those managers who have an accurate understanding of their strengths and weaknesses. Self-awareness was related to impulse control and stress tolerance. If you find that you explode into anger easily, it is likely that others don’t see you as very self-aware. In addition, it appears that others may draw conclusions about your self-awareness from how you handle difficult and challenging situations. If you get anxious, others may interpret this as a lack of self-awareness.

Balance Between Personal Life and Work Measures the degree to which work and personal life activities are prioritized so that neither is neglected. High ratings from bosses on these behaviors were associated with the emotional intelligence measures of social responsibility, impulse control, and empathy. Giving your bosses the impression that you are balanced is connected with your feelings of being able to contribute to a group, controlling your impulses, and understanding the emotions of others.

Straightforwardness and Composure, which refers to the skill of remaining calm in a crisis and recovering from mistakes, is related to several emotional intelligence measures. Direct report ratings are also associated with stress tolerance, optimism, and social responsibility. Boss ratings are related to happiness. Thus it appears that being rated highly on straightforwardness and composure has to do with controlling impulses during difficult times, being responsible toward others, and having a satisfied disposition.

Building and Mending Relationships is the ability to develop and maintain working relationships with various internal and external parties.

Doing Whatever It Takes, which has to do with persevering in the face of obstacles as well as taking charge and standing alone when necessary were related to two of the emotional intelligence scales: independence and assertiveness. People who are high on independence tend to be self-reliant and autonomous. Although they may ask for
input from others, they are not dependent on it. Assertiveness has to do with expressing feelings, thoughts, and beliefs in a nondestructive manner. People high on this scale are not shy about letting others know what they want. Direct report ratings are associated with independence and optimism. Optimism has to do with looking at the brighter side of life. This constellation of relationships suggests that doing whatever it takes requires emotional intelligence in the sense of being able to go after what you want, being able to persevere in getting what you want, and seeing that a bright future is possible.

**Decisiveness** is related to assessments of independence. Decisiveness has to do with a preference for quick and approximate actions over slow and approximate ones. Independence has to do with the ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one’s thinking. It does not seem at all surprising that people who rate themselves as independent thinkers would be viewed by their direct reports as decisive.

**Confronting Problem Employees** the degree to which a manager acts decisively and fairly when dealing with problem employees, and the emotional intelligence measure of assertiveness. Assertive people are able to express their beliefs and feelings in a nondestructive manner. These results suggest that being able to do this is helpful when it comes to dealing with problematic performance situations.

**Change Management** is the final stage that is scale connected with emotional intelligence. This skill has to do with the effectiveness of the strategies used to facilitate change initiatives. Mainly measures of social responsibility is required. In other words, the ability to be a cooperative member of one’s social group is associated with perceptions of effectiveness in introducing change. Peer ratings of change management are related to interpersonal relationship abilities. Apparently, the ability to establish satisfying relationships has a connection to how well peers judge your ability to institute change.

**Conclusions:** On the basis of above discussion it can be concluded that Leadership abilities vary according to rater perspective and level of emotional intelligence. In general, co-workers seem to appreciate managers’ abilities to control their impulses and anger, to withstand adverse events and stressful situations, to be happy with life, and to be a cooperative member of the group. These leaders are more likely to be seen as participative, self-aware, composed, and balanced.
1.4 LEADERSHIP AND GENDER

Women’s personalities have long been considered “feminine” or softer than men’s. “Women often tend to place greater value upon being humanistic, social, inclusive and acting in cooperative and collaborative ways” (Collins & Singh, 2006). “Men’s traits in contrast are seen as confident, assertive, ambitious and independent” (Eagley & Johannesen, 2001). Gender differences in leadership styles have also been observed and are conjectured to be the result of personality variations between men and women. As male workers were predominant in the workforce their leadership styles dominated and were assumed to be the proper and most successful management tactics. “Male managers were confident, task-oriented, competitive, objective, decisive and assertive” (Yukl, 2006). Where as “female management characteristics were referred to as "transformational” which is more closely related to consideration and motivation” (Yukl, 2006).

Several studies have been conducted to determine if male or female leaders are more transformational in their leadership style. Bass and Riggio (2006) state that “there is anecdotal research, and meta-analytic evidence that show women have a higher tendency to use a more transformational leadership style in the leadership positions they hold.” Again, Mandell and Pherwani (2003) found “the transformational leadership scores of females to be slightly higher than those of the males.” Their research is supported by other studies that found females more likely to use transformational leadership than males and that males are more likely to use transactional leadership as their preferred leadership style (Druskat, 1994; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990). Eagly, et al (2003) also found that “female leaders utilize transformational behaviors more than male leaders. Male leaders used other aspects of transactional leadership such as active and passive management by exception.” On other hand some experts believe that there are no differences between men and women’s styles of leadership. (Eagley & Johannesen, 2001)

1.5 ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS

“Role stress refers to the conflict and tension due to the roles being enacted by a person at any given point of time.” (Pareek, 2003) Enacted in the context of organizations, such role stresses are called organizational role stress. Any organization may be perceived as a system of roles. These roles are different from.
positions or offices in the organization. According to Katz and Kahn (1966) “office is a relational or power related concept. Office is concerned with the hierarchical positions and privileges, whereas role refers to the obligations attached to that office.” Thus, “office defines the power of the holder.” (Mintzberg, 1983) Role determines the obligation of the person holding that office. Pestonjee (1992) explain “Role as the totality of formal tasks, informal tasks and acts as organized by an individual. Each individual is a member of social systems and the expectation as well as demand of one may put pressure on the other.” “There are 2 role systems: Role Space and Role Set. Both have a built in potential for conflict and stress.” (Pareek, 2003) It may be expected that organizational role stress will operate in interaction with the general ill being and well being. There is an expected high relationship of organizational role stress with these two. As organizations become more complex, the potentiality for stress increases. Stress is a consequence of socio-economic complexity and to some extent is a stimulant as well. Therefore, one should find ways of using stress productively, and reduce dysfunctional stress. The term "stress" will be used here to refer to such terms and concepts as strain and pressure.

As organizations become more complex, the potentiality for stress increases. Stress is a consequence of socio-economic complexity and to some extent is a stimulant as well. Therefore, one should find ways of using stress productively, and reduce dysfunctional stress. The term stress will be used here to refer to such terms and concepts as strain and pressure. The concept of role and its two related aspects, role space and role set, have a built-in potential for conflict and stress. (Pareek 2005)

**Role Space**- Role Space has three main variables: self, the role under question, and the other roles one occupies. Any conflict among these is referred to as role space conflict. These conflicts may take several forms as Inter-Role Distance, Self/Role Conflict, Role-Expectation Conflict, Personal Inadequacy, and Role Stagnation. (Pareek 2005)

**Role Set**- Role Set is the role system within the organization of which roles are part and by which individual roles are defined. Role Set conflicts take the forms of Role Ambiguity, Role Overload, Role Erosion, Resource Inadequacy, and Role Isolation. The above dimensions of conflict are worth considering in relation to organizational role stress. (Pareek 2005)
Kahn, et al (1964) were the first to describe “Organizational stress in general and role stress in particular.” Katz and Kahn (1966) continued this research and suggested that “An organization can be defined as a system of roles and they used three categories to define role stress: role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload.” Pareek (1976) Many researchers have used Katz and Kahn (1966) definition of role stress, but recent studies do not capture the entire work experience of those being researched. “Each role is a system of functions, and there are two important aspects of an individual’s role that should be considered when examining role stress: (1) role set, which is the role system in an organization that defines individual roles; and (2) role space, which is the roles people occupy and perform.” (O'Driscoll & Cooper, 1996)

**Brief Description of Each Dimension of Role Space**

**Inter-Role Distance:** It stands as the conflict between one's organizational role and other roles, e.g., between travel on the job and spending time with one's family. Conflicts may exist between two roles played by an individual. For example, project managers often encounter conflicts caused by their roles in project groups, the workplace environment, and their family roles, which may be incompatible. Goffman (1961) introduced the concept of role distance to describe how an individual may demonstrate that his or her identity is not fully defined by a role in an organization.

**Role Stagnation:** It is a feeling of stagnation and lack of growth in the job because of few opportunities for learning and growth. People grow into the roles they occupy in an organization. As they advance in an organization, their roles may change, and they may feel the need for new challenges. In some cases, if an individual occupies a role for a long period of time, he or she may feel too secure to take on new roles and challenges. In other cases, especially during middle age and usually at middle-management levels, an individual may have fewer chances to advance in an organization. Job opportunities are fewer and those jobs that are available take longer to master and old knowledge and methods become obsolete. Levinson (1973) and Constandse (1972) stated that “Many middle-aged, middle-management managers suffer from fear and disappointment in silent isolation. Project managers face a number of organizational challenges in the workplace, and as they grow into their roles, they tend to feel secure and hesitate taking on new challenges, even though the nature of project management is to tackle projects in any situation. Middle-aged project managers are usually proficient at organizational processes and may feel they
have fewer opportunities for advancement.” “Higher management positions that are available may require a different set of skills that may take longer to master and does not require old knowledge and methods. As with executives, project managers may suffer from fear and disappointment in silent isolation.” (Constandse, 1972; Levinson 1973)

**Role-Expectation Conflict:** It is the conflicting demands placed on one from others in the organization, e.g., producing excellent work but finishing under severe time restraints. Individuals develop expectations as a result of their socialization and identification with significant others, and there is usually some incompatibility between an individual’s expectations of a role and the expectations of others: For example, a professor may feel that the demands of teaching and doing. (San, Juan 2008)

**Self/Role Conflict:** It stands for a conflict between one’s personal values or interests and one’s job requirements. Conflict often develops between project manager’s self-concepts and their expectations about their roles. For example, an introverted person may have trouble fulfilling the role of salesperson. It is also fairly common for people to experience conflict between the way they treat others in everyday life and the way they are required to treat others in their organizational roles, where maintaining distance from others may be necessary. Such conflicts are very common. Self-efficacy is a belief in one’s ability to perform specific tasks. Such a belief helps determine individuals’ willingness to initiate specific behaviors as well as their persistence and emotional reactions when confronting barriers and conflicts. (Bandura, 1986)

**Personal Inadequacy:** It is the lack of knowledge, skill, or preparation to be effective in a particular role or many times an individual may sacrifice his or her own interests, preferences, and values for a job because he or she is afraid of being inadequate enough to fill the role. The fear of demotion or obsolescence is especially strong for those who have reached a career ceiling, and most people will suffer some erosion of status before they retire. In some cases, managers may sense an employee's feelings of inadequacy and, as a result, hesitate to consider him or her for promotion. Senior project managers may fear demotion or obsolescence, and they may experience some erosion of status before retirement. Upper management may sense these feelings of inadequacy and, as a result, hesitate to consider these senior project managers for promotion. (Bandura, 1986)
Brief Description of Each Dimension of Role Set

**Role Overload:** too much to do and too many responsibilities to do everything well or “People experience role overload when they believe the expectations are too high for their role.” (Kahn et al., 1964) It is more frequent to find project managers with too many expectations or projects that depend on the abilities of a single individual. Kahn et al (1970) suggested some conditions under which “role overload is likely to occur: (a) in the absence of role integration, (b) in the absence of role power, (c) when large variations exist in expected output, and (d) when duties cannot be delegated.”

**Role Ambiguity:** It stands for unclear feedback from others about one's responsibilities and performance. When people are not clear about the expectations others have about them and their roles, whether due to poor feedback or poor understanding, they experience role ambiguity. Kahn et al (1970) stated that “Role ambiguity may be related to activities, responsibilities, personal style, and norms. They suggested that role ambiguity is created by the actual expectations held by others, the expectations of the role occupant, and the expectations the role occupant receives and interprets in the light of prior information and experience.” According to Kahn et al (1970) “Four types of roles are most likely to experience ambiguity: (a) roles new to an organization, (b) roles in expanding or contracting organizations, (c) roles in organizations exposed to frequent changes in demand, and (d) roles concerned with process.” Kahn et al. (1970) “Found that people who suffered from role ambiguity experienced low job satisfaction, high job-related tension, a sense of futility, and low self-confidence.” Kahn (1973) distinguished two components of role ambiguity: present ambiguity and future-prospect ambiguity.

**Role Erosion:** It stands for a decrease in one's level of responsibility or a feeling of not being fully utilized. Employees and project managers often feel that the functions important to their roles are being performed by an individual in another role. Role erosion is likely to be experienced in an organization that is redefining roles and creating new roles. In these situations, people with not enough to do or not enough responsibility for a task experience as much stress as those with too much to do. People do not enjoy feeling underutilized. (Beukel & Molleman, 2002)

**Resource Inadequacy:** Lack of resources or information necessary to perform well in a role. Resource inadequacy refers to people’s belief that they do not have adequate
resources to perform their roles effectively, whether it is a lack of supplies, personnel, information, historical data, a lack of knowledge, education, or experience. Deficiency in any of these areas will adversely affect people’s outcome and affect individual’s work motivation. (Beukel & Molleman, 2002)

**Role Isolation:** It is the feelings of being isolated from channels of information and not being part of what is happening. People often believe that individuals occupying other roles are either psychologically near or distant. The main criterion of perceived role distance is considered low. When relationships are weak, the role distance can be measured in terms of the gap between desired and existing relationships. Kahn et al. (1970) and French and Caplan (1985) concluded that “mistrust of coworkers is positively related to high role ambiguity and low job satisfaction.”

**Definitions of Organizational Role Stress**

Katz and Kahn (1978) "Poor interpersonal relationships are also a common source of stress in organization."

Richard et al (1989) Role stress is defined in medical literature as "Physical, emotional and mental strain resulting from the match between and individual and his/her environment."

Ramirez (1996) associated “Stress with work overload, resources inadequacy, dealing with patients, suffering keeping up to date, being responsible for the quality of work of other staff and having to deal with relatives.”

Payne (1999) defined “Role stress as a process which causes or precipitates individuals to believe they are unable to cope with the situation facing them and the falling of anxiety, tension, frustration and anger which result from recognition that they are failing in same way and the situation is getting out of their control.”

Pestonjee and Azeem (2001) explained of “Role as the totality of formal tasks, informal tasks and acts as organized by an individual.”

Pareek (2005) “Role stress refers to the conflict and tension due to the roles being enacted by a person at any given point of time.”
**Causes of Role Stress** (Lawless, 1992)

**General Causes**
- Organizational problems
- Insufficient back-up
- Long or unsociable hours
- Poor status, pay and promotion prospects
- Unnecessary rituals and procedures
- Uncertainty and insecurity

**Specific Causes**
- Unclear role specifications
- Role conflict
- Unrealistically high self-expectations (perfectionism)
- Inability to influence decision making (powerlessness)
- Frequent clashes with superiors
- Isolation from colleagues' support
- Lack of variety
- Poor communication
- Inadequate leadership
- Conflicts with colleagues
- Inability to finish a job
- Fighting unnecessary battles
- Task-related
- Difficult clients or subordinates
- Insufficient training
- Emotional involvement with clients or subordinates
- The responsibilities of the job
- Inability to help or act effectively
Effects of Role Stress (Selye 1946)

Role stress is the stress experienced by the persons because of their role (job) in the organization. They assume a role based on the expectation of the self and others at work place. The family members try to adjust their roles within the family and a change is being felt in their attitudes. The following are the effects of role stress:

- Concentration and attention span decrease
- Distractibility increases
- Short- and long-term memory deteriorate
- Response speed becomes unpredictable
- Error rate increases
- Powers of organization and long-term planning deteriorate
- Delusions and thought disorders increase
- Physical and psychological tensions increase
- Hypochondria increases
- Changes take place in personality traits
- Existing personality problems increase
- Moral and emotional constraints weaken
- Depression and helplessness appear
- Self-esteem falls sharply
- Speech problems increase
- Interests and enthusiasms diminish
- Absenteeism increases
- Drug abuse increases
- Energy levels are low
- Sleep patterns are disrupted
- Cynicism about clients and colleagues increases
- New information is ignored
- Responsibilities are shifted onto others
- Problems are 'solved' at an increasingly superficial level
- Bizarre behavior patterns appear
- Suicide threats may be made

**Figure No. 1.1 Potential Sources of Organizational Stress**
Potential Sources of Organizational Role Stress

There are three categories of potential stressors:

1. Environmental Factors
2. Organizational Factors
3. Individual Factors

Symptoms of Role Stress

Selye (1946) was the first to describe the phases that “the body goes through in response to a threat. The general adaptation syndrome model states that the body passes through three stages. The first stage is an alarm reaction. The body prepares for a potential emergency. Digestion slows down, the heart beats faster, blood vessels dilate, blood pressure rises, and breathing becomes rapid and deep. All bodily systems work together to provide maximum energy for fight or flight. The second stage is resistance. If the stress continues, the body builds up a tolerance to its effects. The body becomes habituated to the effects of the stressor, however, the bodies adaptive energies are being used as a shield against the stressor. The third stage is exhaustion. When the body's adaptive energies are depleted, the symptoms of the alarm reaction reappear, and the stress manifests itself as an illness, such as ulcers, heart ailments, and high blood pressure.” During the first or second stages, the removal of the stressor will eliminate the symptoms. Ivancevich and Matteson (1980) point out that during the early days of our evolution, we needed the fight-or-flight response for our survival. "The problem we encounter today is that the human nervous system still responds the same way to environmental stressors, although the environment is radically different. The tigers are gone and with them the appropriateness of the fight-or-flight response." Reitz (1986) writes that “individuals in modern society often substitute other psychological reactions for flight or flight. Substitutions for fighting include negativism, expression of boredom, dissatisfaction, irritability, anger over unimportant matters, and feelings of persecution. Substitutions for fleeing include apathy, resignation, fantasy, forgetfulness, inability to concentrate, procrastination, and inability to make decisions. Short-term stress has served a useful purpose in our survival. Long-term stress, however, involves increasingly higher levels of prolonged and uninterrupted stress. The body adapts to the stress by gradually adjusting its
baseline to higher and higher levels." For example, workers in stressful jobs often show an increased "resting" heart rate. Albrecht (1979) believes that the effects of stress are cumulative in nature. Ulcers do not just happen overnight in a high stress situation; they are generally the result of long extended exposure to stress. "The health breakdown is simply the logical conclusion of a self-induced disease development over a period of 10 to 20 years." Job stress can have a substantial negative effect on physical and emotional health. Job stress can make people more susceptible to major illnesses. "High stress managers are twice as prone to heart attacks as low stress managers." (Rosenman and Friedman, 1971) "Excessive job-related stress is not a small or isolated problem. Over one-third of all American workers thought about quitting their jobs in 1990. One-third believes they will burn-out in the near future, and one-third feels that job stress is the single greatest source of stress in their lives. Nearly three-fourths of all workers feel that job stress lowers their productivity, and they experience health problems as a consequence." (Lawless, 1991, 1992)

1.6 ORGANIZATIONAL ROLE STRESS AND GENDER

A recent study by Gregg (2008) investigated the link between gender roles especially in the area of principal ship and conflicts that arose as a result of the role held within the school environment. Gregg Suggested in his study “that school principalship was both challenging and sacrificial in nature for females and female principals as compare to males. Female principals may be torn between commitments to family obligations and work requirements.” In addition, Gregg found that “some female principals and female assistant principals had been provided minimal training for the major duties of being a principal and had some difficulty adjusting to a male dominated profession.” Gregg’s solution was that female assistant principals needed mentors or a support person to assist them in gaining promotions in secondary administration. Jones (2008) revealed that “some females found it difficult in interpreting and interacting in middle school principal ship while Gregg added that female assistant principals were limited in opportunities to be educational or transformative leaders and were often held to a different standard of performance than male assistant principals.”
1.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

"Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a type of intelligence that differs from Intelligence Quotient (IQ). While IQ tests are important in the areas of mathematical, verbal, and comprehension abilities, EI skills are those related to empathy, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, and social skills." (Weymes, 2003) “Intelligence represents the abilities to carry out abstract thought, to solve problems and to adapt to the environment. This ability to adapt is represented by a commonality referred to as a g.” (Spearman, 1927) “A g is the abbreviation for the general intelligence factor, and is a widely used construct in psychology. It helps quantify scores of intelligence tests.” Spearman (1927) theorized that “two factors can help to explain intelligence tests. The first is the factor specific to an individual mental task making a person more skilled at one task than another. The second factor is a general factor that governs performance on all cognitive tasks.”

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a term that was first conceptualized by Thorndike (1920) when he used the term social intelligence. Law et al (2004) describe “EI as studied primarily in the social sciences.” He also point out that Thorndike (1920) used the definition of social intelligence to describe a person who has the ability to “understand and manage men and women, boys and girls, and to act wisely in human relations” Mayer et al (2004) confirm the history of EI as being seated in the social/psychological sciences. They describe the term emotional intelligence as being used in the 1960’s, and again in a dissertation by Payne (1986). Gardner (1983) states that “there are multiple specific intelligences, called “hot intelligences” that are characterized as social, practical, personal and emotional. He proposed that there are seven areas of intelligence one of which is interpersonal intelligence.” It was in 1990 that EI was further developed into a theory, definition and instrument (Mayer, & Salovey, 1990). Mayer et al. (2004) describe the “political turmoil” of the 1960’s as being a cultural influence for the interest and research of EI from a social context. Gardner (1993) also used EI theory to describe one area of his theory of multiple intelligence. He states that interpersonal intelligence is the ability to “notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions”. This definition can be applied to the inter and intra- personal intelligence of people “EI operates on emotional information”. (Law et al., 2004; Mayer et al, 2004)
One of the rapid growing areas of interest with regard to emotional intelligence is its role in the workplace. “Traditionally the workplace has been considered to be a cold and rational environment, a place where there is no room for the experience or expression of emotions and in fact researchers fostered the belief that emotions is the antithesis of rationality.” (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995; Ashkanasy, et al 2002) However, this view has begun to be challenged, with the recognition that individual bring there affective states, traits and emotions to the workplace.

Emotions are an integral and inseparable part of every day organizational life. “The experience of work is saturated with emotions, from moments of fear, joy, frustration or grief to an enduring sense of commitment or dissatisfaction.” (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995)

Goleman (1988) has outlined “the distinctions between emotional intelligence and emotional competence. Emotional competence refers to the personal and social skills that lead to superior performance in the world of work. The emotional competencies are based on Emotional Intelligence. A certain level of Emotional Intelligence is necessary to learn the emotional competencies.”

According to Goleman, (1990) “IQ accounts for only about 20% of a person’s success in life, balance can be attributed to emotional intelligence or EQ.” (Fig. 1.2)

Fig. 1.2 Components of Success

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Fig. 1.2 Components of Success

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33
Cooper (1993) thinks "Without Emotional intelligence in medium to long term, you will be less balanced in personal life and make lots of enemies."

Mayer and Salovey (1993) developed a scientific measure for knowing the differences in people's ability in areas of emotion. They later specified group of competencies, which are:

1. The ability to perceive and express emotion accurately.
2. The ability to access and evoke emotion.
3. The ability to comprehend emotional information.
4. The ability to regulate one's own emotion.

According to Goleman (1995) "Emotional Intelligence is the ability which includes self-control, zeal, persistence and the ability to motivate oneself."

Mayer and Salovey (1997) explored “the two components, “Emotional” and “Intelligence” for understanding the concept of emotional intelligence”. In the eighteenth century, psychologist recognized an influential three-part division of mind into cognition (thought,) affect (emotion) and conation (motivation). Intelligence is characterized by how well the cognitive sphere functions. Emotions belong the affective sphere of mental functioning.” Definition of EI connects emotions with intelligence, as emotions make thinking more intelligent and that one thinks intelligently emotions.

Bar-on (1997) “Emotional intelligence reflects one’s ability to deal with daily environment challenges and helps predict one’s success in life, including professional and personal pursuits.” Cooper and Sawaf (1997) state that “Emotional intelligence is a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.”

Goleman (1998) “Emotional intelligences is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth.”

Bar-on (1999) Emotional intelligences is defined as the “ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feeling’s and emotions to discriminate among them and to used this information to guide one’s thinking and actions”.

34
Caudron (1999) “Emotional intelligence is a person’s ability to manage and monitor his/her emotions, to correctly gauge the emotional state of others and to influence opinions.”

Cooper and Orioli (2000) “Emotional intelligence is the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, creativity, connection and influence.”

Stein and Book (2001) defined “Emotional intelligence as set of skills that enables us to make our ways in complex world – the personal, social and survival aspect of overall intelligence, elusive common sense and sensitivity that are essential to affective daily functioning.”

In the words of Bar-on (2002) "Emotional Intelligence is an array of non-cognitive, capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures."

Kapadia (2003) has attempted to describe Emotional Intelligence from Vedic Psychology point of view, According to her it can be described as “transformation of mind, body and spirit to realize one’s true potential and is a pre-requisite of the well being of the universe. EI is the science that connects us on one side to our own higher self and on the other the larger consciousness. It illuminates the unused potential of our brain and releases creativity. EI begins with self knowledge leading to self realization to self actualization. EI awakens the inner knowledge, wisdom of the heart thus enabling us to become better and emotionally mature human beings.”

According to Dunn (2003) components of “emotional intelligence, which can be regarded as a key to successful life, are self-awareness and self-honesty, knowledge about causes of emotions, empathy, motivation and good decision-making, ability to analyze and understand relationships, intuitiveness, creative and flexible thinking, integrated self and balanced life.”

Singh (2003) has proposed an operational definition of Emotional Intelligence in the Indian Context. According to him, “Emotional intelligence is the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. Emotional intelligence constitutes three psychological dimensions- Emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity, which motivate individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behavior.”
David (2004) defined “Emotional intelligence as the ability to accurately identify emotions, use emotions to help, what you think, understand, which causes emotion and manage to stay open to these emotions in order to capture the wisdom of our feelings.”

According to the National level Interactive workshop organized by the Chamber of Commerce and Industry in New Delhi in 2002 to discuss the “Emotional Intelligence at Work.”

1. Emotional Competency constitute the capacity to tactfully respond to emotional stimuli elicited by various situations, having high self-esteem and optimism, communication, tackling emotional upsets such as frustration, conflicts and inferiority complexes, enjoying emotions, doing what succeeds, ability to relate to others, emotional self control, capacity to avoid emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout, leading to avoidance of negativity of emotions, handling egoism.

2. Emotional Maturity constitutes evaluating emotions of oneself and others, identifying and expression feelings, balancing state of heart and mind, adaptability and flexibility, appreciating others, delaying gratification of immediate psychological satisfaction.
3. Emotional Sensitivity constitutes understanding threshold of emotional arousal, managing the immediate environment, maintaining rapport, harmony and comfort with others, letting others feel comfortable in your company. It also involves being honest in inter-personal dealings, interpreting emotional clues truthfully, realizing communicability to emotions, moods and feelings and having insight into how others evaluate and relate it to you.

Dann (2003) had put fourth the historical perspective of emotional intelligence and it provides a summary view of development of E.I movement. Table presents the diverse perspectives of various psychologists on emotional intelligence.

**Table – 1.1 Historical perspective of Emotional Intelligence (E.I)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Originator</th>
<th>EI Related Concept</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Thorndike</td>
<td>Social Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1935</td>
<td>Doll</td>
<td>Social competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1940</td>
<td>Wechsler</td>
<td>Non intellective Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>Leeper</td>
<td>Emotional thought</td>
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<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>Leuner</td>
<td>Emotional Intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>Sifneos</td>
<td>Alexithymia’ (Cognitive affective deficits)</td>
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<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>Gardner</td>
<td>Multiple intelligence, Intra &amp; Inter personal intelligence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>Bar-on</td>
<td>Emotional quotient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Saarni</td>
<td>Emotional competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>Salovey&amp;Mayer</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Bogby&amp; Taylor</td>
<td>TAS (Toronto alexithymia scale)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Goleman</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Dulewicz &amp; Higgs</td>
<td>IQ, EQ, &amp; MQ,</td>
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<td>2001</td>
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<td>Emotional fitness</td>
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Components of Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence comprises components like self awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships. Salovery and Mayer (1990)

1. Self Awareness: Observing own self and recognizing of feelings as it happens.
2. Managing emotions: Handling feelings, so that they are appropriate to realize what is behind a feeling, finding way to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness.
3. Motivating oneself: Channeling emotions in the service of a goal, emotional self controls, delaying gratification and stifling impulses.
4. Empathy: Sensitivity to others feelings and concerns and taking their perspective, appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.
5. Handling Relationship: Managing emotion in others, social competence and social skills.

Thus, it can be says, that emotionally intelligent persons are better able to distinguish between their emotional states and express their emotions effectively. They are also to cope up with set backs and difficulties effectively as compared to others who have limited repertoire for emotional responses.

Influence of Emotional Intelligence:

“For star performance in all jobs, in every field, emotional competence is twice as important as purely cognitive abilities. For success at the highest levels, in leadership positions, emotional competence accounts for virtually the entire advantage.”

Goleman (1998)

Drucker (2004) the management guru, feels that “to succeed in the today’s (stressful) environment, one has to learn how to manage oneself, which is one of the essential ingredient for success. This calls for the ability to unlearn the old behavior and learn the new behavior according to the changed circumstances.”

According to Goleman (1995) “Cognitive skill gets you in the door of a company, but emotional skill helps you thrive once you’re hired. In the corporate world, I.Q gets you hired but E.Q gets you promoted. He emphasized that emotional intelligence
is twice as important as I.Q and technical skills. Higher up the organization you go, more important the emotional intelligence becomes. This shows that E.I matters more for professional and personal success than I.Q.”

Hay/McBer (1999) has demonstrated that “emotionally intelligent people can more effectively imbibe new cultures, its values and implement changes part that lead to better results. E.I with its emphasis on social awareness, emotions, and social skills can greatly enhance an individual ability to work in group. The research findings and practical experience has proved that managers with high E.I are more productive, generate more revenue, produce superior results and contribute towards wealth maximization. Besides this, emotional intelligence is the most crucial factor in selection, retention and motivation of the talented people.”

**Nurturing Emotional Intelligence Leverages Success:**

“Emotional intelligence affects just about everything you do at work. Even when you work in a solitary setting, how well you work has a lot to do with how will you discipline and motivate yourself.” (Goleman, 1998)

- Developing emotional intelligence enables to achieve better outcomes in leadership, management and supervision.
- E.I improves productivity, communication, organizational climate, team work and health.
- The acquired proficiency in selected emotional intelligence competencies helps to achieve measurably improved performance.
- Developing E.I raises individual strengths and areas for improvement.
- E.I enables to align actions with personal and organizational core values.
- E.I facilities improving communication by using tools for more effective listening and speaking especially in difficult situations.
- E.I enhances effectiveness in working with others and improves efficiency in decision making. It creates healthy climate and builds up the morale. E.I encourages using one’s intuitive intelligence.
Signs of High and Low E.Q:

Hein (2007) outlined the general characteristics of people with high and low E.Q. "A person with high Emotional Quotient expresses his feelings clearly and directly, he do not afraid to express his feelings, is not dominated by negative emotions such as fear, worry, guilt, shame, embarrassment, obligation, disappointment, hopelessness, powerlessness, dependency, victimization and discouragement, is able to read non-verbal communication; lets his feelings guide him through life; balances feelings with reason, logic and reality; acts out of desire, not because of duty, guilt, force or obligation is intrinsically motivated; is not motivated by power, wealth, status, fame, or approval; is emotionally resilient; is optimistic and does not internalize failure; is comfortable talking about his feelings and is able to identify multiple concurrent feelings."

“A person with low emotional quotient doesn’t take responsibilities for his feelings, but blames you or others for them; attacks, blames, commands, criticizes; withholds information about or lies about his feelings (emotional dishonesty); exaggerates or minimizes his feelings; lets things build up or blow up or react strongly to something; lacks integrity and carries grudges; is unforgiving; acts out his feelings, rather than talking them out; has no empathy, no compassion; is rigid, inflexible, needs rules and structure to feel inadequate, disappointed, resentful, bitter or victimized; uses his intellect to judge and criticize others without realizing he is feeling superior, judge mental critical and without awareness of how his actions impact others feelings; is a poor listener and misses the emotions being communicated and focuses on “facts” rather than feelings.” Hein (2007)

Emotional Intelligence can be Learned

“Like all learning, the development of emotional intelligence comes from building new patterns in the brain. These new patterns develop when we have experiences that we can link to background knowledge. The learning is integrated by experiencing cause and effect and through practice.” Friedman and Schustack (2004)

“IQ is relatively stable throughout life but much of emotional skill is learned.” Said Goleman. IQ is largely genetic. It is primarily fixed early in life and changes little from childhood. But the skills of emotional intelligence can be learned at any age. E.I consists of a set of abilities that people can develop and improve upon with practice and commitment and increases with age.
According to Caruso and Wolfe (2004) “E.I refers to reading peoples’ emotions, a skill which can be improved Behavioral theories suggest that modification of any behavior can be made. Operant conditioning theory proposes that a schedule of intervention is an effective way to achieve behavioral modification, individuals emotional intelligence vulnerabilities can be improve by a systematic self regulated schedule of behavior modification with proper support and diligence.”

**Emotional Intelligence (E.Q) Increases with Age:**

“This age-related confirms the common wisdom that ‘emotional maturity' comes with age and experience.” Stein and Book (2001)

The Bar-on test results from multi-health systems revealed that older you get, the more emotionally intelligent you become. A study of emotional intelligence was carried out throughout the United States and Canada by MHS on 3831 individuals. All participants were given the Bar-on Emotional Quotient inventory. The normative results were analyzed and comparisons were made of people between the ages of 16-19, 20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50 and above. (Based on comparison to general population norms. 100 is average.)

Stein and Book (2001) found that “There was a consistent and significant age effect. The total E.Q score increased significantly with age, peaking in the late forties or early fifties. This finding is dramatic considering that cognitive intelligence (I.Q) has been found to peak in the late teens, and level off until the late fifties, further, I.Q scores tend to mildly decline later in life.”

The Bar-on EQ-1 finding can have important implications in the work place. The large pool of Bar-on EQ-1 data shows that people with high EQ scores enjoy success at work, regardless of gender.

Hence it can be said that emotional intelligence includes ability such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations to control impulse and delay gratification to regulate morals and keep distress from swamping the ability to think and to emphasize and hope. Keeping in view all these things, there is a great need of emotional literacy program in schools in the field of education. The administrators, the teachers and students are obliged to take the responsibility together in developing the emotional intelligence at a personal, group and organizational level.
1.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

Goleman (1998) asserts that “no gender differences in E.I. exist, admitting that while men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of E.I. are equivalent.” However, studies by Mayer and Geher (1996), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), and more recently Mandell and Pherwani (2003) have found that “women are more likely to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence than men, both in professional and personal settings.”

Brackett and Mayer (2003) found that “females scored higher than males on E.I. when measured by a performance measure (the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test). More research is required to determine whether or not gender differences do exist in emotional intelligence based on a combination of emotional competencies.” We know that leaders who are emotionally competent tend to have higher management performance, better evaluations from direct supervisors and subordinates; we also know that in some cases, more of these managers tend to be women (Rosener 1995) (Helgesen ,1990) Cavello& Brienza, 2003) This finding doesn’t directly correlate to women being more effective leaders, only that they sometimes tend to score higher on measures of emotional intelligence ( Helgesen& Rosener, 1990). ( Goleman 1998 ) disagrees that “women have higher emotional intelligence, but acknowledges each gender might be more proficient in particular emotional intelligence competencies.” In some other cases male and female leaders score equally in total measures of emotional intelligence, but consistently score higher in different competencies of emotional intelligence. (Bar-On 2000) For example, “female leaders tended to score higher in empathy, interpersonal relationships and social responsibility, while male leaders scored higher in stress tolerance, impulse control and adaptability.” (Bar-On 2000)

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In any educational institution, the principal's leadership style of dealing with different situations has a direct influence on the working of an institution. Any organization consists of a set of people involved with different positions, roles and responsibilities working for the attainment of the pre-defined goals. There is a need for an individuals who can monitor the system, guide personnel, plan, organize and lead the
organizational activities towards a sustainable development by achieving goals. In educational organization so many problems or stress arise and affect the functioning and effectiveness of the organization. In educational institutions, principals have to face a number of problems while interacting with their management, staff, students and their parents.

Due to privatization of education on now a days educational management is becoming more complex, reason behind this is multiple funding, diversity of stakeholders, Fast evolution of management trends, it become significant to study leadership styles of principles who are major steering force in efficient running of an institutions.

A serious scanning of the researches conducted in the area of education reveals that very few studies have been conducted to study the leadership style preferred by principals in educational institutions in this challenging scenario of change. Hence the researcher found this area challenging for research.

1.10 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS IN RELATION TO ORGANISATIONAL ROLE STRESS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

1.11 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1) The study has been confined to a sample of 250 senior secondary schools principals.

2) The study has been delimited to private unaided schools located in the five districts (Moga, Ludhiana, Jalandhar, Patiala and Ferozpur) of Punjab state only.

3) The study has been delimited to the study of leadership styles, emotional intelligence and organizational role stress only.

1.12 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study was carried out with the following objectives:-

1. To study the leadership styles of principals with respect to gender.
2. To study the levels of organizational role stress of principals with respect to gender.

3. To study the levels of emotional intelligence of principals with respect to gender.

4. To find out the relationship between dimensions of organizational role stress and leadership styles of principals.

5. To find out the relationship between dimensions of emotional intelligence and leadership styles of principals.

6. To find out the difference in the leadership styles preferred by principals with respect to gender.

7. To find out the difference in leadership styles among principals perceiving high and low organizational role stress.

8. To analyze the difference in the leadership preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

9. To find out the predictors of leadership styles from among the independent variables of organizational role stress and emotional intelligence in case of male principals.

10. To find out the predictors of leadership styles from among the independent variables of organizational role stress and emotional intelligence in case of female principals.

1.13 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The study was carried out with the following Hypotheses:-

1. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of the organizational role stress and leadership styles of male principals.

2. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of the organizational role stress and leadership styles of female principals.

3. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of the emotional intelligence and leadership styles of male principals.
4. There will be no significant relationship between dimensions of the emotional intelligence and leadership styles of female principals.

5. There will be no significant difference in the leadership styles of principals with respect to gender. To test this hypothesis, five minor hypotheses were stated w.r.t. the five leadership styles i.e. (LS1) Authoritarian leadership, (LS2) Bureaucratic leadership, (LS3) Nurturant leadership, (LS4) Task-oriented leadership and (LS5) Participative leadership.

H 5(a) - There will be no significant difference in (LS1) Authoritarian as leadership style preferred by principals with respect to gender.

H 5(b) - There will be no significant difference in (LS2) Bureaucratic as leadership style preferred by principals with respect to gender.

H 5(c) - There will be no significant difference in (LS3) Nurturant as leadership style preferred by principals with respect to gender.

H 5(d) - There will be no significant difference in (LS4) Task-oriented as leadership style preferred by principals with respect to gender.

H 5(e) - There will be no significant difference in (LS5) Participative, as leadership style preferred by principals with respect to gender.

6. There will be no significant difference in (LS1) Authoritarian as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low organizational role stress.

7. There will be no significant difference in (LS2) Bureaucratic as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low organizational role stress.

8. There will be no significant difference in (LS3) Nurturant as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low organizational role stress.

9. There will be no significant difference in (LS4) Task-oriented as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low organizational role stress.

10. There will be no significant difference in (LS5) Participative as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low organizational role stress.
11. There will be no significant difference in (LS1) Authoritarian as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

12. There will be no significant difference in (LS2) Bureaucratic as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

13. There will be no significant difference in (LS3) Nurturant as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

14. There will be no significant difference in (LS4) Task-oriented as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

15. There will be no significant difference in (LS5) Participative as leadership style preferred by principals with high and low emotional intelligence.

16. None of the independent variables of organizational role stress and emotional intelligence will contribute significantly in predicting the leadership styles of principals independently or conjointly in case of male sample.

17. None of the independent variables of organizational role stress and emotional intelligence will contribute significantly in predicting the leadership styles of principals independently or conjointly in case of female sample.