CHAPTER II
REVIEW
OF
RELATED LITERATURE
CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

“Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike others animals that must start with each generation. Man builds upon the accumulated recorded knowledge of past.”


2.1 INTRODUCTION

The review of related literature is one of the important steps in the research design. To develop a better understanding about the topic and also to know what type of work has already been done in the field, the knowledge of related literature is necessary. Review not only helps to make us aware of pit falls that have been experienced by the reviewer, but it widens the investigator outlook, knowledge and experiences with regard to the subject.

Every research begins from where the previous researcher have left it, and goes forward, may be one inch or even less towards the solution of a problem or answer of a question. Therefore, for every researcher it is essential to acquaint himself with what has already been thought, expressed and done about the problem under investigation, this is possible only if he reviews and survey of books, journals, newspapers, records, documents, thesis, indexes, abstracts, dissertations and other sources of information directly or indirectly connected with the problem of investigation. The study of related literature implies locating, reading and evaluating reports of research as well as report of casual observation and opinions that are related to the individual planned research project.

According to Good and Scates (1992) “Review of related literature may serve to avoid unnecessary duplication and may help to make progress towards the solution of new problem.”

In the present chapter, a review of studies having adequate relevance to the problem have been made to arrive as trends depicted in these studies. Following logical sequencing, the investigator has divided the work under subheadings as follows:
2.2 Studies Related to Leadership styles.

2.3 Studies Related to Leadership Styles and Emotional Intelligence.

2.4 Studies Related to Leadership Styles and Organizational Role Stress.

2.5 Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Role Stress.

The following studies have been reviewed for the conduct of present investigation.

**2.2 Studies Related to Leadership Styles**

The reviews are presented under the following major headings:-

Patel (1983) studied "Leadership Style of Principals of Higher Secondary School" and found that there was a positive relationship between the two dimensions of leadership style of the school Principals i.e., instating structure and consideration.

Pandey (1983) studied "Leadership Orientation among College Students" and found that age had no impact on leadership orientation during the college stage. Boys record more on democratic and consideration oriented and girls on responsibility oriented leadership dimension.

Nuthep (1985) investigated "The Impact of Leadership Behavior Pattern of the Principals on the Teacher's Morale of Secondary Schools" and found that if a high level of teacher effectiveness and satisfaction is to be achieved, educational administration must give a great deal or consideration to the teacher -morale.

Pracha (1985) conducted a study entitled "Administrative Problems as Perceived by Physical Education Administrators in Relation to their Leadership Style" and found that college administrators had scored high both in initiative structure and consideration as well as in total leadership style.

Pandey (1985) studied "Leadership style of the Principal, Organizational Climate and Teacher Morale of the Secondary Schools" and found that no significant difference was found between the leadership style of rural and urban principals.

Singh (1985) conducted a study entitled "School Climate, Leadership Style and Moral Development of the Heads of Elementary and Secondary Schools" and found that the leadership style of the two types of the schools did not differ. The heads of the two types of schools equally varied in leadership style.
Nasreen (1986) examined "Principal's Leadership Behavior in relation to Teacher's Self Concept, Job Satisfaction and some other Institutional Characteristics at Secondary School Level" and found that the Principal's leadership behavior was positively related to teacher's job satisfaction. The initiating structure and consideration styles of principals leadership behavior was found to be significantly related with teacher's job satisfaction.

Mulia (1986) conducted "An Investigation into the Leadership Behavior of Students in the Context of Some Psycho-Socio Factors" and found that the students of the science stream had higher leadership behavior than students from the commerce and arts streams. Girls were superior to boys in leadership behavior. The SES variable had no effect on leadership behavior and the IQ showed a positive relationship with leadership behavior. The students with high IQ had a higher level of leadership behavior than those with low IQ.

Mulia (1990) investigated the "Leadership Behavior of the Students in the Context of their Streams, Sex and Level of Adjustment" and found that there was no significant difference in leadership behavior among three streams-commerce, art and science and there was a significant difference in leadership behavior between the two sexes.

Deota (1990) examined "The Characteristics of the Effective Leadership Style of Secondary School Principals" and found that there was positive and significant correlation between administrative behavior and leadership style of secondary school principals and the case studies had revealed that the situation related and reality based leadership was the best type of leadership.

Eagly (1992) investigated the “Gender and Leadership Style among School Principals: A Meta-Analysis” and found that female principals scored higher than males on task-oriented style measures but about the same on interpersonally oriented style measures. Females generally adopted a more democratic or participative style as compared to males.

Hipp (1997) studied “The effects of Transformational Leadership Behavior on Teacher Efficacy” and found that how principal's leadership behavior influenced teacher's sense of efficacy. The study showed that principal's direct behavior as well as indirect behavior as well as indirect symbolic forms of instructional leadership influence teacher's work and its outcomes.
Carless (1998) explored the “Gender Differences in Transformational Leadership: An Examination of Superior, Leader and Subordinate Perspectives” and found that both supervisors and managers themselves rated female managers higher on transformational leadership than men. Subordinates evaluated female and male leaders equally. Thus, carless found self ratings to be more stereotypical than subordinates' ratings.

Mdulii (2002) sought to evaluate the leadership style of female principals in the high school. The researcher made use of interviews and questionnaires to evaluate the perceptions of parents and educators towards the leadership style of female principals, and how effective female principals were when carrying out their managerial duties at school. On the basis of the views expressed by respondents, the study concluded that the leadership styles of the female principals in the area studied, were effective in areas such as promoting order and discipline and keeping accurate records of all financial transactions. The research project, however, established that although the majority (70%) of respondents perceive female principals in the area where the research was conducted as effective, there was a sizeable number varying between twenty five per cent and thirty per cent (25%-30%) of respondents who were either uncertain or did not agree that female principals are effective.

Oyinlade, et al (2003) studied "Essential Behavioral Qualities in these schools” and found that they suggest that people oriented leadership qualities are perceived to be better suited for effective leadership that are job-centered qualities in these schools.

Tova, et al (2005) investigated the leadership style and choice of strategy in conflict management among Israeli nurse managers in general hospitals. Head nurses perceive themselves significantly more as transformational leaders than as transactional leaders. Compromise was found to be the most commonly used conflict management strategy. Approximately half of the nurses surveyed used only one mode in conflict management. Transformational leadership significantly affected the conflict strategy chosen.

Lally (2008) examined the relationship between gender and leadership style in the Massachusetts high school principal ship. And found that Collaborative or transformational leadership had been identified as an effective practice in educational settings. Authoritative leadership practices often create a divisive culture of self-
interest focusing on the individual's own goals. Top-down management may prevent teachers from contributing beneficial input and could create an atmosphere of hostility. Furthermore, with the retirement of veteran male administrators, more women were assuming these positions and influencing the direction of educational leadership. A review of literature examining differences in the leadership behaviors of men and women did not produce conclusive results. Administrator training programs might have been benefited from research results on this topic. Consequently, a study was conducted investigating the existence of gender differences in the leadership practices of principals from regular public high schools in Massachusetts. Participants were provided with Kouzes and Posner's *Leadership Practices Inventor-Individual Contributor (LPI-IC) Self-Survey* (2007) as well as four questions for obtaining demographic data related to gender, teaching experience, the number of years as a high school principal, and the number of schools in which the individual has served as high school principals. The participants rated themselves on a Likert scale reflecting the degree to which they engaged in the described leadership behaviors. The results indicate no significant difference between men and women in their self-reported leadership practices. One demographic variable, the number of years of teaching experience, suggested a significant relationship with two of the leadership practices, inspire a shared vision and encouraged the change of heart.

Singh (2008) worked on the project “Leadership Styles and Conflict Resolution: An Exploratory Study of School Principals in Delhi” and found that mostly Principals are applying 'Practical' style of leadership. No one is applying democratic and absolutely autocratic style of leadership. This has been perceived by the teachers.

Posner (2009) studied "Examining Changes in Student's Leadership Behaviors” and found that the impact of leadership development programmed in students' first year with the subsequent leadership behavior of those students in their senior year. Significant changes were reported in the frequency of engaging in leadership behaviors from freshman to senior years. No difference was found on the basis of gender.

Tobbodi, et al (2009) conducted a study entitled "Effects of Leadership Style on the Faculty, Commitment of Humanities Department” and found that there was a significant relationship between the leadership behavior of heads of humanities departments and faculty commitment in the university.
Gamble (2009) in an investigation of the relationship between principals' leadership styles and student achievement that meet adequate yearly progress goals and found that leadership styles, gender, and years of experience were related to the students' TCAP achievement test scores. The nature of the relationships and the ways in which they manifest in practice remain to be studied.

Umar (2010) studied "Relationship between Leadership Style of Head of the Institution and Organizational Culture in Secondary School" and concluded that organizational culture in schools has positive moderate relationship with leadership behavior of the head of the institution.

Halliger and Renold (2010) studied "Leadership for Learning: Does collaborative Leadership make a Difference in School Improvement" and found that the significant direct effects of collaborative leadership on change in the schools academic capacity and indirect effects on rates of growth in student reading achievement.

Brauckman, et al (2011) explored the leadership style of a holistic leadership and found that the equal contribution of school leaders and school leader's organizations and researchers could probably provide a model for future professional development programs for both groups of professionals.

Siewioret, et al (2012) studied "Learning Leadership Skills in a Simulated Business Environment" and concluded that simulation gaming environment had the potential to be used in higher education to exercise the leadership skills relevant in real-world work contexts.

Harminder (2013) studied the influence of value pattern of leadership behavior of secondary school teachers and found that there was no significant relationship between the political and economic value pattern and leadership behavior of teachers.

A bird eye view of the investigator carried out on leadership styles depicted different types of results on different variables. It highlights the need to explore the field further.

2.3 Studies Related to Leadership Styles and Emotional Intelligence

Goleman (1998) asserts that no gender differences exist in E.I., 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.
Barling and Kelloway (2001) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Their research findings showed that emotional intelligence is associated with three aspects of transformational leadership (namely, idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration), and contingent reward. In contrast, active and passive management by expectation, and laissez-faire management were not associated with emotional intelligence.

Benjamin, et al (2001) worked on the project of emotional intelligence and effective leadership. The aim of the present paper was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. Emotional intelligence was assessed by a modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale in 43 participants employed in management roles. Effective leaders were identified as those who displayed a transformational rather than transactional leadership style as measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire. Emotional intelligence correlated with several components of transformational leadership suggesting that it may be an important component of effective leadership. In particular emotional intelligence may account for how effective leaders monitor and respond to subordinate s and make them feel at work.

Collins (2001) explored the emotional intelligence and leadership success made two major findings. The initial finding is that El might not directly play a significant role in the success of the executive participants. The second finding was suggested that if a role exists, other variables might not have an impact on the construct measurement.

Malhotra (2001) pointed out the significance of understanding emotional competencies for the leaders in the organizations. The focus was upon developing the six different leadership styles, which have emerged from components of Emotional Intelligence as given by Goleman. It was of paramount importance for the leaders to develop and enhance their Emotional Intelligence.

Lisa and Con (2002) examined the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. Emotional Intelligence Test predicted transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles measured by the multifactor leadership questionnaire in 110 senior level managers. Effective leaders were identified as those who reported transformational rather than transactional
behaviors. Emotional intelligence correlated highly with all components of transformational leadership, with the components of understanding of emotions (external) and emotional management the best predictors of this type of leadership style.

Mandel and Pherwani (2003) explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: a gender comparison. This study examined the predictive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style. The researchers also wanted to determine gender differences in the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style, as well as the gender differences in the emotional intelligence scores and transformational leadership style of managers. A significant predictive relationship was found between transformational leadership style and emotional intelligence. No significant interaction was found between gender and emotional intelligence while predicting transformational leadership style. A significant difference was found in the emotional intelligence of scores of male and female managers. Lastly, no significant difference was found in the transformational leadership scores of male and female managers.

Shipper, et al (2003) studied “A Cross Cultural Study of Linkage Between Emotional Intelligence and Managerial Effectiveness” and found that the higher levels of agreement between the self and other reports of the use of managerial skills is indicative of high managerial self-awareness. It was found that there was positive relationship between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness.

Dominguez and Gloryan (2003) explored the relationship of leadership orientations to emotional intelligence of public elementary, intermediate and high school principals in Puerto Rico. This study enabled the researcher to gain insights into the Caguas Education Region's school principals' leadership orientations and their emotional intelligence. The study conducted involved descriptive and co-relational research methods. Two instruments were used to assess leadership orientations and emotional intelligence. The results of the analyses of data indicated that of the dimensions of emotional intelligence, the dimension that had no relationship at all with leadership orientations was motivation. The results of the study indicated that principals in the Caguas Education Region viewed themselves in different ways when leading. The most surprising set of results occurred in the identification of leadership frames used.
The analyses of data indicated the finding of the absence of social skills and self-awareness.

Purkable (2003) investigated the emotional intelligence, leadership style and coping mechanisms of executives. Results indicate that more emotionally intelligent executives lead by example and use emotional information to analyze, cope with and solve problems. Men and women did not differ on any of the three measures.

Melita, et al (2003) explored the problem "Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Effectiveness, and Team Outcomes" emotional intelligence reflected the ability to read and understand others in social contexts, to detect the nuances of emotional reactions, and to utilize such knowledge to influence others through emotional regulation and control. As such, it represented a critically important competency for effective leadership and team performance in organizations today. In this paper, they developed a conceptual model that brought together theory and research on emotional intelligence, leadership, and team process and outcomes.

Byrne (2004) conducted a study on the role of emotional intelligence in predicting leadership and related work behavior. The results of the study showed Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) as predictive of leadership and related work behavior and explained significant variance in performance after age and personality variables were controlled.

Burbach (2004) conducting an investigation on the testing the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range leadership as moderated by cognitive style and self-concept. This field study examined the effect of an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence as a predictor of full-range leadership style. The moderating effects of leaders' cognitive style and direction of self-concept (internal vs. external) on the relationship between emotional intelligence and full-range leadership style were also examined. A significant predictive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and all the full-range leadership styles from leaders' perceptions. Cognitive style added significant variance to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and outcomes of leadership from leaders' perceptions. This indicated the combined extraversion and intuitive cognitive style was associated with transformational leadership over and above emotional intelligence. The leader's direction of self-concept added significant
variance to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational, management by exception and laissez-faire leadership from leaders' perceptions. This indicated that internal self-concept was associated with transformational leadership over and above emotional intelligence and external self-concept was associated with management by exception and laissez-faire leadership over and above emotional intelligence. No significant interaction was found between cognitive style or direction of self-concept and emotional intelligence while predicting full-range leadership style from leaders' perceptions. A significant predictive relationship was found between emotional intelligence and laissez-faire leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters' perceptions. A significant interaction was found between direction of self-concept and emotional intelligence while predicting transformational leadership, contingent reward leadership and outcomes of leadership from raters' perceptions. The results of this research provided guarded optimism for the predictive value of an ability model of emotional intelligence in leadership research.

Srivastva and Bharamanaikar (2004) examined the relationship of emotional intelligence with leadership excellence, success and job satisfaction. The results showed that emotional intelligence significantly correlated with transformational leadership and success. An emotionally intelligent person was more successful in all spheres than a person who possesses less emotional intelligence skills.

Punia (2005) conducted a study on 250 executives in the National Capital Region – Delhi, and found that leaders with higher emotional intelligence saw changes as opportunities for betterment, and they cherished not stability but ongoing development of individual workers and of the organization itself.

Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) established a link between emotional intelligence and workplace measures of leadership effectiveness, using an objective measure of performance and a 360° assessment tool. The research showed that executives higher on emotional intelligence were more likely to achieve organizational outcomes and be considered as effective leaders by their subordinates and direct manager.

Alon and Higgins (2005) opined that with the current rise of globalization, both emotional and cultural intelligence has become important for cross-cultural leaders to excel. Global leaders can make the best use of emotional intelligence and maximize success when they understand and work within diverse foreign environments. This
multiple intelligence framework helped to clarify adaptations to implement in leadership development programs of multinational firms.

Hopkins (2005) made an empirical research on the emotional intelligence competencies and styles underlying successful leadership by investigate the repertoire of competencies and leadership styles demonstrated by female and male leaders, resulting in their success. He found that gender has a powerful influence on the images and profiles of successful leadership and there are distinctly divergent paths to success for male and female teachers.

Rego, et al (2007) examined the relationship between leaders’ emotional intelligence and creativity of their teams. A sample of 138 top and middle managers from 66 organizations operating in the European Union was analyzed. Emotional intelligence was assessed by a self-report scale consisting of six dimensions: understanding one's emotions, self-control against criticism, self-encouragement (use of emotions), emotional self-control (regulation of emotions), empathy and emotional contagion, understanding other people's emotions. The results revealed that emotionally intelligent leaders behaved in ways that stimulated the creativity of their teams.

Singh (2007) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness among 340 software professionals of a large company in India. Emotional intelligence was found to be positively and significantly related to organizational leadership for both genders. The results revealed no significant differences between male and female software professionals in terms of emotional intelligence and overall leadership effectiveness. The relationship management aspect of emotional intelligence was found to be the most important predictor of leadership. The study laid emphasis on employees to develop their relationship skills in order to become effective leaders.

Lara (2008) worked on the problem “Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style of Leaders in Florida Agriculture” participants in this study reported the use of transformational leadership more than transactional or passive/avoidant leadership. The females in this study reported using transformational leadership slightly more than the males. Participants reported emotional intelligence levels comparable to the national norms. The males reported higher levels than the females. Additionally, the younger participants reported slightly higher levels of
emotional intelligence than older age groups. There was little or no relationship found between leadership style and emotional intelligence within this sample of WLIANR alumni.

Polychronious (2008) studied styles of handling conflict in Greek organization the impact of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Results suggested that transformational leadership, social skills, motivation, empathy were positively associated with the utilization of integrating as a conflict management style. Implications for management were discussed including the need for managers to use emotional intelligence competencies and transformational leadership, so that their subordinates, were encouraged to enhance integrating style of handling conflict.

Reilly, et al (2008) explored the role of emotional intelligence in predicting leadership and related work behavior. The validity of emotional intelligence was examined with a sample of 325 subjects in graduate business courses. A set of self-assessment instruments including the Emotional Competency Inventory, the NEO-FFI and a demographic questionnaire were administered to study participants. Measures of leadership included peer nominations in a Leaderless Group Discussion (LGD), co-worker assessments of management skills, expert evaluation of behavior in the LGD and the number of promotions corrected for age. The factor structure of ECI was tested with confirmatory factor analysis and discriminate validity was then examined by testing a nine-factor model that included four ECI factors and five factors for the NEO-FFI. Criterion-related validity of the ECI was examined using multiple measures of leadership and related work behavior. Number of promotions corrected for age, peer nominations in the LGD, expert evaluations of LGD behavior and co-worker evaluations served as a diverse set of criteria. Results supported the construct validity for the ECI. Confirmatory factor analysis results suggested that the ECI measures a set of factors that was distinct from personality variables. Results also showed that the ECI was predictive of leadership and related work behavior and explained significant variance in performance after age and personality variables were controlled. Prior studies using the ECI instrument did not use and independent review of predicted behavior. Additionally, this study demonstrated convergent, discriminate and internal validities between transformational leadership and organizational commitment: the moderating effect.
Majid, et al (2010) deal with exploration of the relationship of emotional intelligence: case study in Iran. This research aimed to explore the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. In addition, they intended to study the effect of emotional intelligence, which moderated the relationship of transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Correlation and regression analysis revealed that there was a direct and positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. Also results showed that emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. It established a link between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. It, also, showed that follower's emotional intelligence moderated that relationship. One of the managerial applications of their result was that effectiveness of transformational leadership depended on follower's EI. It means that managers who had transformational leadership style were effective when their followers were high on EI.

Ming-Ten, et al (2011) conducted a study on the relationship between leadership style, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and organizational commitment-A case study of the Banking Industry in Taiwan. This study had found that a supervisor’s emotional intelligence had a significant positive influence on his/her personal leadership style, that a supervisor with high emotional intelligence was able to perform excellent leading skills to elevate the employee self efficacy, and that employees self-efficacy resulted in a significant positive influence on organizational commitment. The present research empirically suggested that the emotional intelligence of a supervisor played a mediating role in the relationship between the leadership style of a supervisor and the self efficacy of employees. Meanwhile, there had been few studies in the discipline of human resources concerning the influence of self-efficacy on organizational commitment. It was thus expected that the findings of this study served to propel increasingly insightful research on the two constructs in the discipline of human resources.

Lisa (2012) worked on the problem of “Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Style and Perceived Leadership Effectiveness” the study outlined in this article explored the relationships between emotional intelligence, leadership style and leadership effectiveness. One hundred fifty-one managers completed the MSCEIT, an ability-measuring instrument of emotional intelligence. Those managers’ direct reported were
asked to complete the MLQ, on their perceptions of their managers’ leadership style and leadership effectiveness. The results showed that there were no relationships between a manager’s emotional intelligence and leadership style or the leader’s perceived effectiveness.

Omeke and Onah (2012) conducted an investigation on the influence of principals’ leadership styles for male and female teachers the results revealed that the principals adopted three leadership styles in their administration namely; autocratic laissez faire and democratic according to their dominance. Teachers irrespective of gender agreed that only democratic leadership enhances their job satisfaction. Recommendations include promotion of in-service training on the application of appropriate leadership styles for principals while teachers should be allowed to participate in decision making on the influence of gender on teachers’ job satisfaction, data indicated that all the teachers, irrespective of gender agreed that only democratic leadership enhanced their job satisfaction. However, they expressed no satisfaction with autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles of the principals. This tendency of both male and female teachers showed satisfaction with democratic leadership was not in doubt because their opinions, comments and suggestions were always needed for decision-making. The result of the t-test on the influence of principals’ leadership styles for male and female teachers indicated that the null hypothesis was sustained. The result showed that statistically significant differences did not exist between male and female teachers with respect to the influence of the principals’ leadership styles on their job satisfaction.

2.4 Studies Related to Leadership Styles and Organizational Role Stress

Mohan and Chauhan (1999) explored a comparative study of organizational role stress amongst managers of government, public and private sectors. The study was conducted on 174 middle level managers from Government (50), public (76) and Private (48) sectors. There were 137 males and 37 females. Overall, the latter were very less in number. These managers were administered Organizational Role Stress (ORS) Scale by Udai Pareek. A t-test was done to find sex differences, if any, on the 10 subscales of ORS and the total score. None of the t-ratios were significant, as such the data was pooled. Simple ANOVA were done for all the 10 subscales and total
ORS scores to test the differences amongst the three sectors. The results showed that there were only two significant F-ratios-for Role Erosion and Self-Role Conflict. The managers of public sector experienced the maximum Role Erosion and Self Role Conflict, followed by Government and the private sector. The private sector seems to have a better work climate which was giving enough forward orientation in one's job role and also less amount of intra-personal conflict situations. This could have implications for improvement of work climate in government and public sector.

Rutledge (2001) studied the organizational role stress in two small law enforcement agencies. A total of 86 officers were surveyed as part of this study. The objectives of the null hypotheses were to examine the self reported existence of role stressors that exist within the agencies and between the agencies. The research found that there was a difference between the agencies new questions wise from the study as to the nature and cause of the organizational stress differences that warrant further research.

Pestonjee and Azeem (2001) worked on the problem of “A Study of Organizational Role Stress in Relation to Job Burnout among University Teachers” and the study investigated the relationships between organizational role stress and job burnout among university teachers. The sample consisted of (N=300) university teachers, which had been classified into three groups of 100 each. The results of the study indicated that organizational role stress was highly correlated with job burnout among all the three groups of teachers (Lecturers, Readers and Professors). Lecturers had higher level of role stress as compared to other two counterparts and were found to be significantly different from Readers and Professors on demographic variables and their level of role stress and emotional exhaustion. Readers were found to be significantly different on Role Erosion, Role Overload, Self-Role Distance, Resource Inadequacy and Total ORS from the Professors but not found to be significantly different on the level of job burnout. Professors were found to have least amount of the level of stress and burnout as compared to Readers and Lecturers. Stepwise multiple regression analyses suggested that Total ORS, Role Erosion, Role Overload, Resource Inadequacy, Role Isolation, and Role Ambiguity were common significant predictors of job burnout among all these three groups.

Nirmala (2002) attempted to identify main sources of occupational stress and the relationship between various sources of occupational stress and job performance. The respondents were 175 cashiers-cum-clerks of nationalized banks of Haryana. The
findings showed significant negative correlation between the major sources of occupational stress and job performance. The relationship of other occupational variables were also in expected directions, though not significant.

Pattanayak (2003) conducted a study on organizational role stress and quality of work life. The study followed a 2x2 factorial design of research. The two factors were types of organization (Old/New) and role positions in the organizational hierarchy (executive/non-executive). The sample consisted of 800 employees from two public sector organizations. The objectives were to discover the differences, if any, between the sub groups with regard to organizational role stress (ORS) and perception of quality of work life (QWL). It also aimed to ascertain the relative importance of QWL variables in explaining ORS. The findings revealed that there were significant differences between the executives of the old and new public sector organizations on a number of ORS as well as QWL dimensions.

Mohsin (2004) investigated the role stress among women in the Indian information technology sector. Organizational role stress scale was used on a sample of 264 to explore the level of role stress. Resource inadequacy had emerged as the most potent role stressor, followed by role overload and personal inadequacy. The research found the differences in the level of stress between married and unmarried employees on several role stressors. However, level of education did not emerge as a significant differentiator of stressors.

Ching-Yi Lin (2004) explored the study to investigate the influence of the leadership style and role stress on organizational commitment, the intermediate effect of job satisfaction to leadership style, role stress and organizational commitment. Some suggestions would be made for management in this field according to the study results. This study was processed by questionnaire and used SPSS as Statistic analysis tool. There were 180 subjects. The numbers of valid questionnaires were 145 (84.44%). The data analysis had included descriptive analysis, factor analysis, reliability analysis, t-test, one-way ANOVA, Pearson’s correlation analysis, and multiple regressions. The conclusions of this study were the following

1. Correlation among leadership style, job satisfaction, role stress, job satisfaction and organizational commitment were positive.
2. Consideration leadership style would be more acceptable by employees to affect the job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
3. Leadership styles were significantly related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which were partially supported by the study. This was the result of which the employees intend to favor the considerate type of the leadership style.

4. There was notable negative correlation between “Role Ambiguity” of Role Stress and “Affective Commitment” of Organization Commitment.

5. The employees were higher to the identification of the job satisfaction; the identification feeling of whole organizational commitment also would be higher.

6. The job satisfaction played an intermediate effect between leadership style and organizational commitment.

7. The job satisfaction played an intermediate effect between role stress and organizational commitment.

Lehal and Singh (2005) studied “Organizational Role Stress among College Teachers of Patiala District” and the study indicated that the level of organizational role stress in government college teachers in Patiala district was significantly low than that being experienced by private college teachers.

John and John (2005) explored the relationships between job satisfaction and occupational stress. The participants were the staff members of primary schools selected through stratified sampling. Three hundred and fifty six staff members from 52 primary schools of six Catholic school systems in New South Wales, Australia were involved in this study. Data were collected using a survey. Factor analyses were used to identify underlying data structures. Nine job satisfaction and four occupational stress factors were identified. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were utilized to investigate the hypothesized relationships. Moderate to strong correlations existed between most of the job satisfaction and occupational stress variables. However, multiple regressions revealed occupational stress to be the best predictor of only two job satisfaction variables. Occupational stress did, nevertheless explain considerable variance in other facets of job satisfaction. The results hold implications for school systems and school administrators.

Vimla (2005) conducted a study on social support as moderator of role stress and job satisfaction; A comparison of government, public and private sector employees. The results revealed that the most significant predictor for stress management and
improving job satisfaction was found to be friend support among officers and staff of government sector. Senior support was also found to be significant predictor of job satisfaction among government officers. Family support however was found to increase role stress among government staff. In public sector the most significant predictors were supervisor/senior and coworker support for stress management and improving job satisfaction among managers and staff. Spouse support was also found to have moderating effect on job satisfaction of managers, only. Coworker support was found to be the most significant predictor of stress management and improving job satisfaction among managers of private sector. Whereas senior support was found to be most significant predictor for stress management and improving job satisfaction among staff of private sector. Friend support was also found to be significant predictor for stress management of managers and improving job satisfaction of staff of private sector. Family support, however, was significantly increasing role stress of managers on one hand and moderating stress of staff on other hand. The intersection differences of three variables revealed that Managers and staff of private sector perceived significantly lower social support than their counterparts of government and public sectors. Private sector managers experienced significantly higher role stress, than public sector managers. Job satisfaction was found to be significantly lower in private sector managers and staff than their counterparts of government sector.

Samuel, et al (2006) worked on the problem of work-home conflict among nurses and engineers: Mediating the impact of role stress on burnout and satisfaction at work. The findings suggested that while the two groups perceive many aspects of the work-home relationship differently, for both groups, work-based role conflict was an important antecedent of work-home conflict, and increased burnout an important direct consequence of work-home conflict. Finally, on the basis of the findings, the authors concluded that perspectives which view the work and non-work realms as independent must be reconsidered, and that the nature of the work-home relationship might, to a great extent, be contingent upon the way different occupational groups perceive their work situations.

Srivastav (2006) investigated “Role Stress in the Public Sector: An Empirical Study” and it was an attempt to analyze different types of role stress that affected employees in a public enterprise. Generally, the organizational members either experienced all
types of role stress or the stress due to overloading. Overload was experienced due to too high or too many expectations, difficulties in balancing between different roles occupied, conflicting expectations and expectations for which resources were perceived to be inadequate. These ten types of role stress were measured, using ‘ORS Scale’ for 453 randomly selected respondents from a large public sector enterprise. Linear regression analysis for the eleven role stress variables (i.e. ten types of role stress and total role stress) revealed strong positive correlations between each pair of above-mentioned variables except that ‘role erosion’ was not significantly related to ‘role overload’. ‘Role erosion’ was found to be the most prominent ‘role stressor’. Factor analysis of the ten role stress variables brought out that role stress was being experienced in the organization in two ways. ‘General stress’ and ‘overload stress’ were the two meta role stressors prominently operating in the organization.

Khetarpal & Kochar (2006) worked that role stress was the stress experienced by the persons because of their role (job) in the organization. They assumed 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 was being felt in their attitudes. The present study was an attempt to provide a preventive and positive approach to women experiencing stress at work and at home to find out the level of role stress and to identify key role stressors, the OSI inventory by Srivastava was used. It was found that majority of women (40%) were under moderately low level of stress followed by 36% women who reported moderately high level of stress. Women experienced very high or low stress were 12 % in each case. The key stressors which affected maximum number of women were poor peer relations, intrinsic impoverishment and under-participation.

Jennifer, et al (2006) in a study operationalized and tested a dynamic stress model for organizational change, including the interaction effect of sex on the model, on 804 employees at five VA medical centers. The model, an adaptation of Mack, Nelson, and Quick’s (1998) model included: the amount of organizational change within job role, work relationships, job context, facility, and career; uncertainty and challenge appraisal; perceived stress; and control and avoidance coping. Control coping emerged as a more adaptive strategy than avoidance coping for both males and females.
Aziz (2007) worked out the problem “Organizational Role Stress: An Investigation of Gender Differences” and the study used a descriptive research design. The instrument used for collecting data was 'Organizational Role Stress Scale' (ORS Scale). The ORS scale was a comprehensive tool to elicit data about the different role stressors afflicting a respondent. It covers a range of the stressors that might be experienced by an occupational group. The study found the similar level of stress for male and female employees on the overall organizational role stress. However, on individual stressors, statistically significant differences had been reported on the basis of gender and marital status.

Bhattacharya and Basu (2007) studied the “Distress, Wellness and Organizational Role Stress among IT Professionals: Role of Life Events and Coping Resources” and the present study revealed that among IT professionals of Kolkata, subjectively experienced distress and wellness were closely associated with Organizational role stress. In other words, personal and professional stressors exert cumulative effect on the individuals. Women professionals had a greater feeling of wellness and less organizational stress than men professionals. The older age group was more distressed than the younger age group. Wellness and Organizational role stress could be predicted from the number of stressful life events and coping resources taken together. On the whole, contrary to some findings, IT profession in Kolkata was not unusually stressful for its incumbents and follows the usual stress diathesis model applicable in all other professions.

Bunmi (2007) in a study of “Effect of Leadership Style on Job-Related Tension and Psychological Sense of Community in Work Organizations: A Case Study of Four Organizations in Lagos State, Nigeria” and focused on the effect of leadership style on job-related tension and psychological sense of community in work organizations. The study made use of two hundred selected workers from four manufacturing organizations in Lagos state of Nigeria. Three instruments were used to generate data for the study namely Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire (SBDQ), Job-related Tension (JT) and Psychological Sense of Community Questionnaire (PSCQ). Data collected was analyzed with t-test for independent groups and 2x2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Five hypotheses were tested and results showed that workers under democratic leadership style did not experience higher job-related tension than workers under autocratic leadership style. Also, workers under autocratic style of
leadership did not experience higher sense of community than workers under democratic style of leadership. Moreover, result revealed that female workers did not experience higher job-related tension than male workers under autocratic leadership style. Furthermore, no significant difference was found in the level of psychological sense of community of male and female workers under democratic style of leadership. Finally, sex status did not have any significant main effect on job-related tension.

Ahmady, et al (2008) studied organizational role stress among medical school faculty members in Iran: dealing with role conflict. The findings showed that role stress was experienced in high level among almost all faculty members. All three studied medical schools with different ranks were threatened with relatively the same levels of role stress. Specific differences were found among faculty members from different disciplines, and academic ranks. Also having permanent position and the length of services had significant correlation with the level of role stress. The major role-related stress and forms of conflict among faculty members were role overload, role expectation conflict, inter-role distance, resource inadequacy, role stagnation, and role isolation.

Jinky (2008) examined the “Organizational Role Stress Indices Affecting Burnout among Nurses.” The study showed that there was a significant correlation existing between burnout and self-efficacy, hazard exposure and organizational role stress, along with age and illness. In addition, organizational role stress and age had been found to be independent and most significant predictors of burnout. Acting together, some of the measured indices also exerted significant predictive capacities, which indicated that there was an interaction among these factors as they influence the development of burnout.

Pestonjee and Desai (2009) explored the study of organizational climate in relation to organizational role stress (ORS) and learned helplessness (LH). The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between the factors of learned helplessness (LH) and organizational role stress (ORS) to the motivational climate of the organization. The sample comprised of two hundred and twenty respondents belonging to the middle management of five units of the engineering industry located in western India. Motivational Climate of the organization was analyzed by using MAO-C questionnaire (Pareek 1981) comprising of 60 statements employing twelve dimensions and six motives of the organization. Organizational Role Stress scale
(Pareek 1981) was used to measure the stress the individual feels in the organization. It was a five point scale wherein 10 dimensions of stress were measured. Learned Helplessness scale (Pestonjee and Reddy, 1988) consisting of 24 items with a six-point rating format, was used to measure learned helplessness. Means and S.D.’s inter correlations and regressions were used to interpret the data. From the results, it was observed that Role Erosion was the highest contributor of stress in this group. The climate of the organization that was related to the trust among various members and groups seems to significantly affect the learned helplessness and stress of the executives. ‘Management of rewards’ was the other dimension of organizational climate which had a significant bearing on the dependent variables of learned helplessness (LH) and organizational role stress (ORS).

Azizi, et al (2009) examined the causes of occupational stress within the organization and the implication on job satisfaction and intention to leave and absenteeism. The finding showed that occupational stress did not have direct effect on intention to leave and absenteeism but have direct negative effect on job satisfaction. Job satisfaction had negative effect on intention to leave and absenteeism. Some recommendation needed to be applied by management to reduce the number of turnover. First organization need to increase job satisfaction by reducing occupational stress. By reducing stress companies could reduce the level of intentional to leave and absenteeism.

Jens and Wolff (2009) studied entitled “Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Followers' Chronic Stress” this study sought to provide information about the relationship between supervisors' leadership styles and subordinates' experience of chronic stress. It was found that one of the transformational leadership scales (i.e., individualized consideration) was negatively related to dissatisfaction. In contrast, the transactional subscale of management-by-exception passive was positively related to four indicators of chronic stress, while controlling for all other transformational and transactional leadership styles. Future research should include objective indicators of stress. Managers in governmental organizations should avoid utilizing the transactional leadership style of management-by-exception passive in order to foster employees' health. The results allowed for a more thorough and detailed understanding of leadership behavior, stress prevention, and occupational health.
Farooq and Shakeel (2010) studied the “Impact of Leader behavior on Employee Job Stress” this study examined the role of leadership style and job stress in organizational context. Data collected from 78 respondents through cross sectional field survey conducted in Pakistan. The results revealed that consideration style of supervisor behavior was negatively related to job stress. Initiating structure was found to be positively related with job stress.

Ratna, et al. (2011) explored the study entitled “Organizational Role Stress and its Management among IT Professionals” and it was found that role isolation was the major stressor in Company A and Company C where as personal inadequacy was the major role stressor in Company B. When correlation was found between the role isolation and other 9 parameters it was found that Inter Role Distance, Role Ambiguity, Role Erosion, Role stagnation, Role Overload, Role Inadequacy were positive correlated with Role isolation. It means that above parameters move in the same direction as the role isolation. They had direct relationship with Role Isolation. Role isolation long with above-mentioned parameters played an important part in the life of individuals because if one was effected other also got effected. Role expectation conflict, Self-Role Distance, Personal Inadequacy were negatively correlated with role Isolation. It means that above parameters moved in the opposite direction as the role isolation. They had indirect relationship with Role Isolation. Role isolation along with above mentioned parameters played an important part in the life of individuals because If one was effected other also got effected.

Dhamodharan and Arumugasamy (2012) studied the effect of occupational stress on executives’ leadership styles. In the investigation an attempt was made to explore the influencing effect of occupational stress on the executive’s leadership style. The occupational stress index developed by Shrivastava & Singh (1981) and Managerial Styles developed by McBer & Co. (1980) were administered on a sample of 388 Executives of Neyveli Lignite Corporation Ltd., Neyveli. The inferential statistical techniques, Chi-Square Test and Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were applied for determining the effect of occupational stress as an influence of leadership styles. The correlation analysis suggested that presence of the occupational stressors influences positively the coercive and authoritative leadership styles and influences negatively the affinitive, democratic, pace-setting and coaching styles. The Chi-Square Test also confirms the presence of association between stressors and leadership styles.
2.5 Studies Related to Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Role Stress

Ioannis and Ioannis (2002) examined the “Emotional Intelligence In The Workplace: Exploring Its Effects On Occupational Stress And Organizational Commitment” the purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and sources of occupational stress and outcomes on a sample of professionals in mental health institutions. A total of 212 participants were administered the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire as well as the Organizational Stress Screening Tool (ASSET), a new organizational screening tool, which measures workplace stress. The results were in the expected direction showed a negative correlation between emotional intelligence and stress at work, indicated that high scorers in overall EI suffered less stress related to occupational environment. A positive correlation was also found between emotional intelligence and organizational commitment, which according to the ASSET model was considered as a consequence of stress, suggested a new role for EI as a determinant of employee loyalty to organizations.

Nina Ogińska-Bulik (2005) investigated the problem of “Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: Exploring Its Effects On Occupational stress And Health Outcomes In Human Service Workers” the purpose of the study was to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived stress in the workplace and health-related consequences in human service workers. A sample of 330 participants (42.4% of men and 57.6% of women), representing various human service professions (physicians, nurses, teachers, probation officers and managers) was eligible for the study. The mean age of the participants was 38.4 years (sd = 8.45), and the employment period was 8.3 years (sd = 6.13). Three methods were used in the study: the emotional intelligence questionnaire– INTE with polish modification, the subjective work evaluation questionnaire developed in Poland, and the general health questionnaire (GHQ-28) with polish modification. The results confirmed an essential, but not very strong role of emotional intelligence in perceiving occupational stress and preventing employees of human services from negative health outcomes. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress therefore; it should be developed in stress managing trainings.
Petrides & Furnham (2006) “The Role of Trait Emotional Intelligence in a Gender-Specific Model of Organizational Variables” this article investigated the relationships between trait emotional intelligence (“trait El” or “emotional self-efficacy”) and 4 job-related variables (perceived job control, job stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment). Gender-specific data (N=167, 87 females) were analyzed via multi group structural equation modeling. Perceived job control had a negative effect on stress and a positive effect on satisfaction. Stress had a negative effect on satisfaction, which, in turn, had the strongest positive effect on commitment. There were many gender differences in the model, mainly concerning age, which was negatively related to control and commitment in the female sample only.

Nivedita (2007) studied the “Job Satisfaction and Emotional Intelligence as a Function of Stress among Primary and Secondary School Teachers” the major findings of the study were that there was no significant difference in job role stress of two categories of teachers which was found to be in average level. Emotional Intelligence and Job Role Stress were significant predictors of Job satisfaction of both categories of teachers. However, for Primary teachers, Emotional Intelligence rather than Job Role Stress was better predictor and for Secondary teachers, the Job Role Stress was better predictor. It was found that there was a negative relation between Job Role Stress and Job Satisfaction for both categories of teachers; however, it was only significant for the secondary teachers.

Singh & Singh (2008) investigated the relationship as well as the impact of Emotional Intelligence (EI) on to the perception of role stress of medical professionals in their organizational lives. It was conducted on a sample size of 312 medical professionals consisting of 174 male and 138 female doctors working for privately managed professional hospital organizations. The findings of the study indicated no significant difference in the level of EI and perceived role stress between genders, but significantly negative relationships of EI with organizational role stress for both the gender and the medical professionals as a whole. The study also found EI of both the gender and the medical professionals as a whole to predict significant amount of variance in the total variance in their perceived role stress. The findings of the study have been discussed and interpreted in the light of research findings of other researchers. The findings of the study have got important in academic as well as practical implications and that have been clearly stated. Looking at the inter
correlations among variables it was evident that Social support was found to be significantly negatively correlated with role stress among government staff as well as managers and staff of public and private sectors. Social support was found to have significant positive correlation with job satisfaction among government officers as well as managers and staff of public and private sectors. Role stress was significantly negatively correlated with job satisfaction among managers and staff of all sectors.

Ismail, et al. (2009) conducted a study to examine the effect of emotional intelligence in the relationship between occupational stress and job performance. The outcome of the study clearly stated that relationship between occupational stress and emotional intelligence significantly correlated with job performance. Statistically, the results confirmed that the inclusion of emotional intelligence in the analysis mediated the effect of occupational stress on job performance.

Rooprai and Kumar (2009) conducted a study on “Role of Emotional Intelligence in Managing Stress and Anxiety at workplace” the findings of the study indicated that the low and high level of Emotional Intelligence established relationship to some extent with stress and anxiety. Negative correlation of Emotional Intelligence with stress and Anxiety highlights that emotional intelligence would prove helpful tool in dealing with stress and anxiety at workplace.

Akomolafe (2011) investigated the influence of emotional intelligence and gender on occupational stress among secondary school teachers. Four hypotheses were postulated and tested. An ex-post facto design was used to gather 392 usable copies of the questionnaires from secondary school teachers working in Ondo state. Stratified random sampling technique was used to choose the sample. Two instruments, Emotional intelligence and Occupational stress scales were used to collect data for the study. The t-test analysed at 0.05 level of significance indicated that there was a significant difference between the occupational stress of secondary school teachers with low and those with high emotional intelligence. There was no significant difference between the occupational stress experienced by male and female secondary school teachers.

Nooryan, et al. (2011) studied “The Effect of Teaching Emotional Intelligence (EI) Items on Job Related Stress in Physicians and Nurses Working in ICU Wards in Hospitals” results showed that physicians and nurses experienced high level of stress.
The level of stress experienced at work by this occupational case was higher than control group. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional intelligence in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress.

Singh and Jha (2012) examined the study entitled “Emotional Intelligence and Occupational Stress among the Faculty Members of Private Medical and Engineering Colleges of Uttar Pradesh: A Comparative Study” this study tried to find the correlation between emotional intelligence (EI) and occupational stress in the faculty members of private medical and engineering colleges, as the courses related to these two fields were considered to be the most stressful. The purpose was also to see if there was any organizational and gender difference in the two variables under study. The study revealed a strong correlation between emotional intelligence and occupational stress of the faculty members. It also revealed a significant difference in the EI of the medical and engineering faculty members with latter having higher EI but the difference in their occupational stress index (OSI) scores was insignificant. Gender wise difference on the scores of OSI and EI was also not significant.

**The review of above studies lead to the following conclusions**


Goleman (1998), Mandell & Pherwani (2003), Purkable, (2003), Singh (2007) the results revealed that no significant differences between male and female principals in terms of EI and leadership styles. Barling Slater & Kelloway (2000) and Benjamin palmer and con stough (2001), Burbback (2004) their research findings showed that EI is associated with transformational leader ship and laissez-faire style is not associated with EI. Gardner (2002), Shipper, Rotondo and H oftman (2003), Srivastva and Bharamanaikar (2004) results showed that EI significantly correlates with transformational leadership. Hopkins (2005), Strickl (2008) revealed that gender has
a powerful influence on the images. There are distinctly divergent path to success for male and female teachers.

Ching yi lin (2004). Nobile and Cormick (2005) found significant relationship between leadership styles and organizational role stress. Khetarpal and Kochar (2006) majority of women were under moderately low level of stress. Bhattacharya and Basu (2007), Omolayo (2007) observed that women professional have a greater felling of wellness and less organizational stress then men professionals results revealed that female workers do not experienced high job related tensions then male workers under autocratic leadership styles. Aziz (2007) observed that similar level of stress for male and female employee on the over all ORS.

Nivedita (2007), Jude (2011) result indicate that there was significant difference between the occupational stress of teachers with low and high EI. Singh & Singh (2008) high lighted that no significance differences in the level of EI and perceived role stress between genders, but significantly negative relationship of EI with ORS for both the gender.