Chapter -II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The constructs of Job Satisfaction, Job Withdrawal and Well Being bears a cardinal significance in the traditional as well as recent empirical studies of Organizational Behaviour. In the current era of competition majority of human resources policies and programmes are adequately developed and implemented to enhance and reduce the various vital end variables respectively i.e. to increase Job Satisfaction and Well Being of employees and to decrease the absenteeism and lateness in the organization. The leadership style has been regarded as an important independent variable effecting and relating to these above cited end variables (Job Satisfaction, Job Withdrawal and Well Being).

In pursuance with the aim of the study, all these variables were reviewed separately (as a construct) as well as in relation to other organizational variable through various sources viz., American Psychological Abstracts, Management Digest, Journal of Industrial Relations etc from the time period of 1970 to 2005. The search was done through National Informatics Centre Delhi by taking the key variables i.e. Leadership Style, Job Satisfaction, Job Withdrawal Behaviour and Well Being.

LEADERSHIP STYLE

The term ‘Leadership’ refers to an influence, the act of process of influencing people so that they can strive willingly and enthusiastically toward the achievement of organizational goals. It is one of the most important factors influencing organizational performance. Leadership Style, approach, orientation, type, attitude, leadership belief or managerial values were taken as relevant, hence listed. Being a broad construct, theorists and thinkers have lot of discrepancy in deriving a particular conclusion regarding the most effective leadership style to be used in order to become an effective Supervisor. Number of research studies either focusing on unitary or multiple approaches of leadership i.e. Trait approach, Environmental approach, situational approach, functional approach in relation to some other variables either on the independent side or dependent side or as a moderator variable or a correlate have been given below.
Leadership is a crucial factor in good management. It is an elusive quality of manager’s personality that enables him to influence others to accept his directions freely and willingly and ultimately inspires them to perform. A good leader is not necessarily a good manager, but an effective manager must have many of the qualities of a good leader. A good leader of mob, for example, may possess a few of the capacities of good manager, but a good manager must be able to influence his employees and associates to his bidding. He must be able to elicit their cooperation to motivate them. Followers, of course, are motivated by the use of incentives which will satisfy their needs. A leader, therefore, must be able to recognize the needs of each of his subordinates in order to motivate them.

The word ‘Leadership’ is a modern concept and relatively recent addition to the English language. It has only been in use for around two hundred years, although the term ‘leader’ from which it was derived appeared as early as in 1300 AD (Stogdill, 1974). In earlier times word leadership viewed as ‘head of state’, ‘military commander’, ‘princes’ ‘proconsul’, ‘chief’ or ‘king’ which were common in most societies and these words differentiated the ruler from other members of society. A preoccupation with leadership, as opposed to headship based on inheritance, usurpation or appointment, occurred predominantly in countries with an Anglo-Saxon heritage. Although, the Oxford English Dictionary (1933) noted the appearance of the word leader in the English language as early as in the year 1300, but the word leadership was not in use until the first half of the nineteenth century in writings about the political influence and central of British Parliament.

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Every theorist, scientists, political orator, business executive, social worker and educator has defined leadership in his own way. All agree that leadership is important but no one defined it to the satisfaction of everyone. Katz and Kahn (1970) have observed that descriptions of organizations no word is more
often used that leadership and perhaps no word is used with such varied meanings. The term leadership is sometimes used to indicate an attribute of personality, sometimes it is used as if it were a characteristic of certain positions and sometimes as an attribute of behaviour. Stogdill (1974) defines leadership in various ways, using such terms as group processes, or inducing compliance, or include of influence, or a power relation, or an instrument of goal achievement, or an effect of interaction or a different role, or the initiation structure.

Bass (1995) critically analyze the definition of leadership on various dimensions as the focus of group processes, as a personality attribute, as the art of inducing compliance, as an exercise of influence, as a particular kind of act, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument in the attainment of goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role and as the initiation of structure.

Every definitions of the leadership tended to view the leader as a focus of group change, activity and process. Cooley (1902) maintained that the leader is always the nucleus of a tendency and that all social movements, closely examined, will be found to consists of tendencies having such nuclei. Mumford (1906-07) observed that leadership is the preeminence of one or a few individuals in a group in the process of control of societal phenomena. Blackman (1911) saw leadership as the centralization of effect in one person as an expression of the power of all. Chapin (1924b) viewed leadership as a point of polarization for group cooperation. According to L.L. Bernard (1927), leaders are influenced by the needs and wishes of the group members' in turn; they focus the attention and release the energies of group members in a desired direction. Regarding the dominance of the leader’s personality. ForRedl (1942), the leader s a central or focal person who integrates the group.

J.F. Brown (1936) maintained that the leader may not be separated from the group, but may be treated as a position of high potential in the field. Following the same tradition, Kreech and Crutchfield (1948) observed that by virtue of his special position in the group, he serves as primary agent for the determination of group structure, group
atmosphere, group ideology and group activity. According to Knickerbocker (1948), when conceived in terms of the dynamics of human social behaviour, leadership is a function of needs existing within a given situation and consists of a relationship between an individual and a group. The above definitions emphasize on the leader as the center or focus of group activity directs attention to group structure and group process in studying leadership on the one hand and some of the earliest theorists, such as Cooley and Mumford were sophisticated in their concept of leadership on the other hand.

The concept of personality appealed to leadership to explain why some persons are better able than are others to exercise leadership? A.O. Bowden (1926) defined leadership with the strength of personality. Indeed the amount of personality attributed to an individual may be unfairly estimated by the degree of influence he can exert upon others. Binghan (1927) defined a leader as a person who possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character. According to L.L. Bernarn (1926), any person who is more than ordinarily efficient in carrying psychosocial stimuli to others and is thus, effective in conditioning collective responses may be, called a leader”.

According to him the leader must be possess prestige and must know what stimuli will condition adequate responses for his purposes and develop a technique for presenting there stimuli. “Similarly, Tead (1929) regarded leadership as a combination of traits that enables an individual to induce others to accomplish a given task. Thus, the personality theorists tried to differentiate leadership on the basis of qualities posse by the leaders.

According to Munson (1921) leadership is the creative and directive force of morale which makes the leader able to handle men so as to achieve the most with least friction and the greatest cooperation. B.V. Moore (1927) reported the results of a conference – at which leadership was defined as the ability to impress the will of the leader on those led and induce obedience, respect, loyalty and cooperation. Similarly, for Bundel (1930) leadership is the art of inducing others to do what one wants them to do. According to T.R. Phillips (1939), leadership is the imposition, maintenance and direction of moral unity to our ends. Warriner (1955) suggested that leadership as a form
of relationship between persons requires that one or several persons act in conformance with the request of another. For Bennis (1959) leadership is defined as the process by which an agent induces a subordinate to behave in a desired manner. Thus, the compliance-indication theorists tended to regard leadership as a unidirectional exertion of influence and as an instrument for molding the group to the leader's will. They expressed little recognition of the rights, desires and necessities of the group members or of the group's tradition and norms.

Defining leadership J.B. Nash (1929) suggested that leadership implies influencing change in the conduct of people. Tead (1935) defined it as the activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable. Stogdill (1950) termed it as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its effects toward goal setting and goal achievements. Shortle (1951a, 1951b) proposed that the leader be considered an individual who exercise positive influence acts upon others or who exercises more important influence acts upon others or who exercises more important influence acts than any other members of the group or organization. ‘Similarly, Tannenbum, Weschler and Massarik (1961) considered leadership as interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals. This definition was expanded by Ferris and Rowland (1981), who conceived the leadership influence process as a contextual influence that has an impact on subordinates’ attitudes and performance through effects on the subordinates’ perceptions of their job characteristics. Haiman (1951) explained that directly leadership is an interaction process in which an individual usually through the medium of speech influences the behaviour of others toward a particular end. According to Gerth and Mills (1953), Leadership – is a relation between leaders and led in which the leader influence more than he is influenced; because of the leader, those who are led act or feel differently than they otherwise would. Katz and Kahn (1966) considered the essence of organizational leadership to be the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directions of the organization in the same way. Hollander and Julian (1969) suggested particular influence.
relationship between two or more persons. The concept of influence recognizes the fact that individuals differ in the extent to which their behaviours affect the activities of group. It also states that leadership exercises determining effect on the behaviours of group members and on activities of the group. The definition of influence also recognizes that leaders can influence group members by their own examples. Leaders serve as models for the followers in a way Military Commanders lead with the call fellow me.

One school of theorists preferred to define leadership in terms of acts or behaviours. For L.F. Carter (1953) leadership behaviours are any behaviours the experimenter wishes to so designate or more generally, any behaviours which experts in this area wish to consider as leadership behaviours. Shartle (1956) defined a leadership act as one which results in others acting or responding in a shared direction.

Hemphill (1949a) suggested that leadership may be defined as the behaviour of an individual which he is involved in directing group activities. Fielder (1967) proposed a somewhat similar definition. By leadership behaviour we generally mean the particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating the work of his group members. This may involves such acts as structuring the work relations praising or criticizing group members and showing consideration for their welfare and feeling.

According to Eisenhower, leadership the ability to decide what is to be done and then to get others to want to do it. According to Truman (1958) too described leader as a man who has the ability to get other people to do what they don't want to do and like it. Neustadt (1960) concluded from his study of U.S. Presidents that presidential leadership stems from the power to persuade. Schenck (1928) suggested that leadership is the management of men by persuasion and inspiration rather than by the direct or implied threat of coercion. According to Cleeton and Mason (1934) leadership indicates the ability to influence men and secure results through emotional appeals rather than through the exercise of authority. Copeland (1942) maintained that leadership is the art of dealing with human nature...It is the art of influencing a body of people by persuasion or
example to follow a line of action. It must never be confused with leadership — which is the art of compelling a body of people by intimidation or force of follow a line of action. Kootz and O'Donnell (1955) regarded leadership as the activity of persuading people to cooperate in the achievement of a common objectives persuasion is a powerful instrument for shaping expectations and beliefs — particularly in political, social and religious affairs. The definition of leadership as a form of persuasion tended to be favoured by students of politics and social movements and by military and industrial theorists who were opposed to authoritarian concepts. As pointed out by W. Weiss (1958) persuasion can be seen as one form of leadership and for him it is also an important tool for understanding leadership.

Social Psychologists J.R.P. French (1956) and Revan and French (158a, 1959b) defined leadership in terms of differential power relationships among members of a group. For the later, interpersonal power-referent expert, reward-based, coercive, or legitimate is conceived as resultant of the maximum force which A can induce on B minus the maximum resisting force which B can mobilize in the opposite direction. Similarly J and (1960) viewed leadership as a particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to prescribe behaviour patterns of the former regarding his activity as a member of a particular group. M. Smith (1948) equated leadership with control of the interaction process. Thus, the initiator of an interaction gives a stimulus to the second participant and asserts his control by interfering with participant's original course of action. Therefore, as discussed above, power is regarded as a form of influence relationship and this relationship may be subtle or obscure but leadership is related to both. As described by Denhardt (1978) for instance, myths and symbols about the master-slave relationship may unconsciously influence superior-subordinate relationship in modern organizations.

Numerous theorists have included the idea of good achievement in their definitions. Several have defined leadership in terms of its instrumental value of accomplishing a group's goals and satisfying its needs. According to Cowley (1928), a leader is moving towards an objective with his group in a definite manner. Bellows
(1959) considered leadership as the process of arranging a situation so that various members of a group including the leader can achieve common goals with maximum economy.

For Knickerbacker (1948) the functional relation which is perceived by a group as controlling means for the satisfaction of their needs. The classical organizational theorists defined leadership in terms of achieving a group's objectives. R.C. Davis (1942) referred to leadership as the principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the organization in the accomplishment of its objectives. Similar to Davis, Urwick (1953) stated that the leader is the personal representation of the personification of common purpose not only to all who work in the undertaking, but to everyone outside it. K. Davis (1962) defined leadership as the human factor which bends a group together and motivates it towards goals accomplishment. Cattell (1951) took the extreme position that leadership is whatever or whosoever contributes to the group's performance; it is the group's sytality resulting from its members and the relations among them. To measure each member's leadership he has suggested that remove members from the group one by one and observe what happens to the group's performance.

Several academicians have viewed leadership not as a cause or control of group action but as an effect of it. Bogardus (1929) stated that as a social process leadership is that social inter stimulation which causes a number of people to set out toward an old goal with new zest or a new goal with hopeful courage-with different persons keeping different places. For Pigors (1935), leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which by the successful interplay of individual differences, controls human energy in the pursuit of a common cause. H.W. Anderson (1940) a true leader is one who can make the most of individual differences, who can bring out the most of differences in the group, and, therefore, reveals to the group a sounder boss for divining common purpose. This group of theorists called attention to the fact that emergent leadership grows out of the interaction process itself. It can be observed that leadership truly exists only when it is acknowledged and conferred by others members of the group.
According to role theory, each member of a society occupies a position in the community, as well as in various groups; organizations and institutions. In each position, the individual is expected to play more or less well-defined role. Different members occupying different positions play different roles. Birth and class may force the differentiation of roles. Some persons are born to rule while others are born to serve and thus, leadership may be regarded as an aspect of role differentiation. H.H. Jenning (1944) observed that leadership...appears as a manner of interaction involving behaviour by and toward the individual ‘lifted’ to a leadership role by the individuals. For T. Gorden (1955) leadership was an interaction between a person and a group or more accurately, between a person and the group members. Each participant in this interaction played a role and these roles differed from each other on the basis of degree of influence that is one person, the leader, influenced and the other persons responded. Sherif and Sherif (1956) suggested that leadership is a role within the scheme of relations and is defined by reciprocal expectations between the leader and other members. The leadership role is defined, as are other roles by stabilized norms that in most matters and situations of consequence of the group are more exacting and require greater obligations from the leader than do those for other members of the group. Newcomb, Turner and Converse (1965) observed that members of group make different contributions to the achievement of goals. In-so-far as any member’s contributions are particularly indispensable, they may be regarded as leader like; and in so far as any member is recognized by others as a dependable source of such contributions, he or she is leader like. To be so recognized is equivalent to having a role relationship to others members.

Several theorist viewed leadership not as the passive occupancy of a position or as acquisition of a role but as a process of originating and maintaining the role structure—the pattern of role relationships. Gouldner (1950) explained that there is a difference in effect between a stimulus from a follower and are from a leader. The difference is in probability that the stimulus will be structuring a group’s behaviour and the stimulus from a leader has a higher probability of structuring a group’s behaviour because of the group-endowed belief that the leader is a legitimate source of such stimuli. Bavelas
defined organizational leadership as the function of maintaining the operational effectiveness of decision-making systems which comprise the management of the organization. Homans (1950) identified the leader of a group as a member who originates interaction. Likewise Hemphill (1954) and Stogdill (1959) defined leadership is the initiation and maintenance of structure and interaction for the process of solving a mutual problem. To conclude this group of theorists attempted to define leadership in terms of variables that give rise to the differentiation and maintenance of role structures in groups.

Another group of scholars combine several definitions of leadership to cover a large set of meaning. Bogardus (1934) defined leadership as personality in action under group conditions, not only is leadership both a personality and a group phenomenon it is also a social process involving a number of persons in mental contacts in which one person assumes dominance over the others. Previously, Bogardus (1929) described leadership as the creation and setting for the exceptional behavioural patterns in such a way that other person respond to them. For Jago (1982), leadership is the exercise of non-cooperative influence to coordinate the members of an organized group to accomplish the group’s objectives. Leadership is also a set of properties attributed to those who are perceived to use such influence successfully. Borrow’s (1977) combine interpersonal influence and collective efforts to active goals into the definition of leadership. Dupty and Dupty (1959) add to this combination of definitions that leadership also involves obedience, confidence, respect and loyal cooperation from followers. For Tichy and Devanna (1986), the combination of power with personality defines the transformational leader as a skilled, knowledgeable change with power legitimacy and energy. Such a leader is courageous, considerate, value driven and able to deal with ambiguity and complexity. Bernard M. Bass (1995) explained that the search for one and only proper and true definition of leadership seems to be fruitless, since the appropriate choice of definition should depend on the methodological and substantive aspects of leadership in which one is interested. For instance, if one is to make extensive use of observation then it would seen important to define leadership in terms of acts, behaviour or roles played; its centrality to group process; and compliance with the
observed performance rather than in terms of personality traits, perceived power relations or perceived influence. Contrarily, if extensive examination of the impact of the leadership was the focus of attention, then it would seem more important to define leadership in terms of perceived influence and power relations.

A review of the different definitions given above will indicate that they are very similar. The common thing between these definitions is that leadership is a process whereby one individual exerts influence over others through five different types of power as pointed out by French and Raven-viz, coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, export power and referent power. Katz and Kahn added one more factor incremental influential factor i.e. the act of influencing or leading others depends on the organization system and on the perceptions, which people hold of their leaders among other things.

After the careful screening of the various definitions it could be specified that: key to Leadership in Influence: Cartwright (1965) found three major elements in process of influence, (a) the agent exerting the influence, (b) the method of exerting influence, and (c) the agent subjected to influence.

It involves the leader and his followers, a specific goal, situation and communication of what is wanted and feedback. According to Benne and Seats (1948) leader play more than one role in influencing the activities of a group in setting goal and making efforts process toward achieving these goals, viz: Group task roles: initiator-contributor, information seeker, opinion seeker, information giver, opinion giver, elaborate, coordinator, orienteer, evaluator-critic, engineer, procedural technician, and recorder. Group building and maintenance role: encourage, harmonizer, compromiser, gatekeeper and expediter, standard setter or ego ideal, group observer and commentator and follower. Individual roles: aggressor, blocker, recognition seeker, self-confessor playboy, dominator, help seeker, special help pleader.
There is a reciprocal relationship between the leader and his followers. Follette (1942) founded in his study that a leader not only influences his group but it is also influence of by it and thus, it is a reciprocal relation.

Followers must accept his as a leader. Bernard (1939) explained that when an individual is accepted by the people as their leader and given the right to guide, his followers grant authority because they have personal respect for or admiration to the individual or become the individual appears to represent values important to them. People follow his willing and cooperatively.

Leaders' speech behaviours or effective communication. Bales (1960) found that the person who consistently speaks first builds a reputation. Someone who proves successful at solving problems will attempt to solve more problems and in this way, assumes a leadership position.

Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995) explain managerial leadership as the process of directing and influencing the task-related activities of group members. These are four implications of our definitions-First, leadership involves other people-employees or followers. By their willingness to accept directions from the leader, group members help define the leader’s status and make the leadership process possible; without people to all the leadership qualities of a manager would be irrelevant. Second, leadership envelopes an unequal distribution of power between leaders and group members. Group members are not powerless; they can do shame group activities in a number of ways. Still, the leader will usually have more power. There are five bases of managers’ power; reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power. Third aspect of leadership is the ability to use the different forms of power to influence followers’ behaviour in a member of ways. The fourth aspect combines the first three and acknowledges that leadership is about values.
Weed & Mitchell (1976), studied Subordinates' Personality, Task type, Managerial behaviour approach as IV' Output as dependent variable and found no influence of subordinates’ own personality and tasks type has been obtained on the group performance. It is the only high human relational approach of manager which influences the output. Joseph & Kesavon (1977) in case of Sector (Public & Private) as independent variable. Prevalence of leaders orientation and revealed a Comparative analysis of leaders in two sectors. Leaders in private sector are production oriented while employee orientation is much more prevalent in public sector. Ishie (1978), studied subordinate’s sense of responsibility, satisfaction and employee turnover as dependent variable in relation to leadership style and found that performance-maintenance leader and non-performance maintenance leader were studied. The subordinates of first group showed higher satisfaction and low employee turnover. On the other hand, the subordinates of second group had diminished sense of responsibility, poor satisfaction and high turnover rate.

In the same way Sinha (1979) studied preference and effectiveness of leadership styles, work values and characteristics of subordinates as moderators and told that comparative analysis between Nurturant Task (NT), Authoritarian (F) & Participative (P) leadership style. Authoritarian leadership style was ineffective and only Nurturant Task (NT) style was effective and preferred depending upon the characteristics and work values of subordinates. Habbibullah & Sinha (1980), studied motivational climate and leadership style as independent variables. Effectiveness of organization as dependent variables and told that leadership style is not a matter of personality disposition rather a reciprocal balance is to be there between leadership style delegated and motivational climate for the effectiveness of an organization. Orphen (1980), researched to see relationship between subordinate’s satisfaction and leadership style. Degree of structure as moderator variable and dealt with no leadership styles- initiating structure and consideration in relation to satisfaction under two degrees of structure. Positive Correlation was found between consideration and satisfaction irrespective of structure while initiating structure has been found positively related to satisfaction under
unstructured conditions. Sayeed & Mehta (1981) in case of Belief in managerial values. Innovativeness and involvement of employees found that if the authority delegated by a leader believes in equalitarianism and individualized consideration would lead to high innovativeness and involvement on the part of employees. Sinha (1981) studied effectiveness of styles by subordinate's satisfaction and a comparison was made between Nurturant Task (NT), Authoritarian (F) and Participative (P) leadership styles. Participative leadership style was neither correlated with subordinates' satisfaction nor with group efficiency. While Nurturant Task (NT) was highly correlated to subordinate's satisfaction and vice versa in case of Authoritarian (F) leadership style. Ansari & Rub (1982) studied executive success in relation to Organizational climate and leadership style congruence and found that the executive success is a vivid function of proper congruence between leadership style and organizational climate of a set up. Sinha (1984) studied Stress as independent variable and leadership as dependant variable and reported high significant interaction between stress and leadership style. It was found that the stress decreases the salience of participative style while increases the salience of authoritarian style. But it has not been reported in case of Nurturant Task (NT) leadership style, as it is interpolated between these two styles. Sharma & Rajan (1984) took leadership style as independent variable and Organizational climate as dependant variable and found participative leadership style as most important determinant in maintaining congenial organizational climate in terms of grievance handling, safety, security on the job. Hinger (1984) studied socio-economic level and training as correlates of leadership style found no correlation between leadership style and socio-economic level. It is the only nature of training imparted to a manager. Shukla, Singh & Sinha (1987), studied leadership style and tenure as independent variables and Job satisfaction dependant variable. Use of coercive power as moderator and found that Nurturant Task (NT) type leaders use significantly less amount coercive power and total work experience. Use of coercive power and tenure on the resent position were found to be the significant predictors of job satisfaction. Sinha (1987) studied Prevalence of Leadership Styles and found that Authoritarian (F) and democratic styles of leadership were dominant amongst Indian Branch Managers in banks. Delunga(1991) also studied
approach and style of leader as independent variables. Organizational effectiveness as 
dependant variable and found the significant impact of rational, soft and hard approaches 
of leader on the organizational effectiveness. Transformational leadership style was 
found more closely related with subordinates' rationale influencing behaviour than was 
transactional leadership style. Mcclave (1992) studied Leader's attitude as correlate of 
subordinates' satisfaction and revealed that more the subordinates had experienced the 
liberal attitude on the part of leader the more the satisfaction with boss, task and co­ 
workers has been reported by the subordinates. Putti (1992) studied Subordinate's 
perception of a satisfactory leadership style and reported that the most important 
parameters by subordinates on the part of leader are Role Assumption, Consideration, 
style as correlate of Organizational climate and reported that the perceived organizational 
climate was found positive where authority was delegated by High Quality-High Relation 
Oriented leader (NT).

J O B S A T I S F A C T I O N

The job situation is a well regulated and highly organized cultural reality. It is 
neither a happenstance nor an appendage of the cultural environment where a person 
spends some fixed hours daily and then re-enters high real culture for gratification of his 
various needs. A major part of man's working life is spent on his work. His job, 
therefore, represents an important cultural segment. It is natural that men seek to satisfy 
many of their needs in and through their work. It becomes necessary, therefore, to know 
the relative contribution of the job situation to overall dissatisfaction in an individual life. 
The individual is a unified organism and not merely multiple of diverse need, through his 
job life he may be able to achieve a satisfactory way of life itself.

Dream jobs are not available in silver platter. Nor are they secured merely by 
being a good professional. It also involves a process of identifying the right kind of 
opportunities; looking for an organization that hires winners and bring a pioneer at work.
Men work to satisfy their needs. The extent to which their needs are satisfied or not satisfied is related to their behaviour on the job. Job satisfaction is generated by an individual's perception of how well his job, on the whole, is satisfying his various needs.

Work, in one form or the other occupies so much of human beings life period that it induces people to begin investigating with their sons why men and women spend half of their working hours working and what keeps them rooted to a particular job for many years. Going to work every day is not merely a means of earning a living. Even the man leaves his meal capable for the shake of job as he has a fear that his salary or wages may be deducted if he reaches late on the job. Men work to satisfy their needs to the extent to which their needs are satisfied or not satisfied is related to their behaviour on the job. Job satisfaction is generated by an individual's perception on how will his job, on the whole is satisfying his various needs.

The most general definition on term 'job' as also given in the Coline English Dictionary (1980) is a place of work. Burbar (1986) define a job a complex of interrelationship of tasks, rules, responsibilities, interaction, incentives and rewards. The operational definition of the term 'job' implies that it is a place of work or activity performed for payment received in view of its. It involves a contractual agreement between employer and employees and donates not only the specific responsibilities assigned to the employees but also totaling of his responsibilities towards the firm or authorities that have employed of him.

Every individual have a dream about a job where he can get reasonable of security, a decent environment to worm, a chance to grow as a professional and a monitor base. A dream job is expected to give a reasonable sense of self esteem, self fulfillment and has a greater satisfaction and to get a benefit adequately.

The job situation is well regulated and highly organized cultural reality. It is a place where a person spends some fixed hours daily then re-enters his real culture for
gratification of his various needs. His job, therefore, represents important cultural segments. It is natural that men seek to satisfy many of their needs in and through their work. It becomes necessary therefore to know relative contribution of the job situation to overall dissatisfaction in an individual life. So through his job life he may be able to achieve a satisfactory way of life itself.

Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job or job experience”. He further considered that job satisfaction of attributes of individual not of any collective depends upon the individual values.

Davies (1977) stated satisfaction as favorable or un-favorable which employees view their work. They content that job satisfaction results when there is a fit between the job characteristics and the want of employees and that it expresses the amount of congruence between one's exception and the job and regards that the job provides.

In the fast changing society, the concept of coaching and training or sports and physical education has also changed. Considerably, it is no more confined to throwing the ball or blowing the whistle. It has acquired scientific dimension and scientific foundations has also taken place to meet the competitive and record breaking spirit of games and sports. With these objectives the responsibilities of coaches, trainers or teachers have increased many folds. The expectations of the society and nation towards training of sports persons are very high in the sense that they are the only who can protest and save the interest of the sportsman to meet the challenge in this competitive age. Although the trainers and coaches have not given due place and recognitions at par with other trainers of academic discipline. It is very difficult to have justification of their responsibilities unless they get full justice from Government machinery as well from society. Though there are number of factors, which may be considered important in the discharge of duties and responsibilities by coaches and physical education teachers at
various levels. Yet some of them may be considered extremely important. On the basis of personally experience and related studies the present investigation has considered job stress and job satisfaction of coaches assume of very important areas to be focused on. Many empirical investigation carried on factors influencing job satisfaction at job have revealed numerous internal external factors. French et. al., (1946) compiled a list and classified these factors as follows:

Factors in the individual ability, health, age temperament, desires and expectations neurotic tendencies and unconscious conflicts etc.

To define job satisfaction is a difficult task, because there are various definitions depicting different dimensions, but on frequently used is that job satisfaction is favorable or unfavorable with which two employees view their work. It results when there is an agreement between job characteristics and want of an employee. It expresses the amount of congruence between one's exceptions as compared to rewards. A comprehensive approach to the understanding of job satisfaction requires the consideration of factors such as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment conditions of work, advancement opportunities etc. Apart from such factors as employee's age, health, temperature desire and level of aspiration, family relations and serial status have to be taken into consideration in order to have a complete understanding of the term.

According to Sinha (1986) job satisfaction covers the satisfaction derived being engaged in a place work, or in any pursuit of higher order. It is essentially related to human needs and their fulfillment through work. Infect, job satisfaction is generated by individual's perception of how well he is on the whole to satisfying to his various needs.

Job satisfaction is the total body feeling that an individual has about his job. This total body of feeling involves in fact, weighing up the sum total of influences on the job and nature of the job. Hoppock in the epilogue to his study enumerates the following six major factors of job satisfaction: (i) The way the individual reacts to unpleasant situation,
(ii) the facility with which he adjusts himself to other persons, (iii) his relative status in social and economic group with which he identifies himself, (iv) the nature of work in relation to his abilities, interests and preparations, (v) security and (vi) loyalty.

A comprehensive approach to the understanding of job satisfaction requires the consideration of factors such as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement opportunities etc. Apart from such factors as employee's age, health, desire and level of aspiration, family relations and social status have to be taken into consideration in order to have a complete understanding of them.

Kornhouser (1923) found in cases of highly intelligent persons dissatisfaction was higher and there were greater turnover.

Hoppock (1933) conducted the earliest community wise study a job satisfaction in the town of New Hope, Pennsylvania; eighty percent (80%) of 351 employed adults answered a lengthy questionnaire. An index of job satisfaction was computed and the result indicated that only fifteen percent (15%) of the sample had negative attitude towards their job.

Young (1950) concluded that there is a definite relationship between mentality and dissatisfaction. The person whose mentality is too low, for the job might become discouraged while intelligent person might become restless and impatient and Mantia (1970) studied relationship between innovation, adaptation, organization climate and job satisfaction and perceived by high school teacher. He concluded that there was difference in the level of job satisfaction between teachers in innovation schools and teachers in non-innovation school. He also found that experience not sex was related significantly with job satisfaction.

Hafen (1971) studied job satisfaction among health educators. He found that the following variables were significantly related to job satisfaction:(i) salary; (ii) academic rank; (iii) reasons for entering in the field of health education;(iv) professional designation;(v) length of time in the present job;(vi) sex; (vii) geographic location;(viii)
membership of professional organizations; (ix) amount of time devoted to research; (x) population size of community; (xi) student body size; (xii) amount of time devoted to consultation; (xiii) length of time in the field of education and (xiv) type of institution.

Hallum (1975) in his study found no significant relationship existing between salary and job satisfaction. Female teachers scored higher than male teachers on the job satisfaction scale in his study and geographical variables had no significant relationship with job satisfaction scores.

Findley (1976) in his study perceived a positive relationship between job satisfaction and age, salary, marital status and years of experience in present job.

Srivastava A.K. (1978) of Punjab University indicated that life satisfaction improves upon the employee’s position in the organizational and hierarchy and improves upper status of Supervisors where more satisfied with their lives than Supervisors. Supervisors were more satisfied with their lives than supervisors in lower position in the hierarchy. Life satisfaction also important as income increased and this was true even when occupational level was kept constant. Top level executives those in the middle category the least.

Ecker (1979) reported relationship between leadership style and teacher job satisfaction, by selecting 79 teachers of five schools of districts using the teacher behaviour description questionnaire and the pursue teacher opinionative. He found that correlation between leadership style and teacher job satisfaction was not affected by ethnic balance of school, district and there was greater correlation between leadership style measured by consideration and teacher satisfaction.

Elbaz’s (1979) study on job satisfaction and dissatisfaction of administrators of Jewish Schools by using a three part questionnaire personal, Professional and job attitude aspects of the job revealed that short term contacts and frequent turn over cause sever job insecurity, expressed by one third of the administrators who did not see their future of remaining of Jewish education.
Bamindo and Koppleman (1980) examined the moderating effects of seven variables related to occupation, age and urbanization. He hypothesized education and income positively and strongly moderated the job-satisfaction, life satisfaction relationship. Self employment also had a significant impact, occupation had only modest effect. Age and job longevity exhibited strong effects. Urbanization did not attenuate the relationship. In view of the National Work Force trends towards increased education professionalisation, income and age, the relationship between job and life satisfaction will become stronger.

A study was conducted by Masser (1980) on job satisfaction and selected variables which affect the job satisfaction of Public High School Principals in Mississple. His findings were (i) Way oxity of the Principals are white male educated requirements for their position, have an average work week exceeding fifty hours (ii) Chi-square test yielded their significant demographic variables at the 0.5 level namely number of students, length of work, work and regional accreditation.

Horrington (1980) investigated aimed at examining the influence of present characteristics of job satisfaction. He explored race, sex and age, but found no significant relationship.

Flannery (1980) investigated teachers’ decision involvement and job satisfaction in 22 Winsconsin High Schools by using decision - involvement analysis questionnaire. He found (i) job satisfaction was positively and significantly related to decision condition ;(ii) Teacher interest and expertise were highly correlated; (iii) significant and positive relationship existed between perceived teacher interest and decision condition between interest and job satisfaction;(iv) No significant inter-relationship between and among pre-perceived interest, decision condition and job satisfaction;(v) there were significant relationship between perceived teacher influence, job satisfaction and decision condition.

Khun (1982) examined the relationship between teachers' personality type and job satisfaction. He found that extroverts gave importance to helping students where as introverts to salary policies and work conditions.
Oades (1983) examined relationship of teacher motivation and job satisfaction. Major findings of the study were, teachers motivation was significantly co-related with satisfaction with work, promotion, supervision, co-workers. Motivation was significantly correlated with relationship between motivation and five factors of job satisfaction. Teachers were highly satisfied with co-workers and supervision, work and pay and dissatisfied with opportunities of promotion.

Winklers (1983) in his attempt to measure the perception of job satisfaction of university faculty members in their present job, found that pay was the primary source of dissatisfaction among all faculty members as compared to female members with their present job.

Donehut (1983) examined the perception of faculty members on organization climate in relation to job satisfaction. His findings indicated that as age and rank increased, satisfaction with pay decreased. Longer the employment lesser the satisfaction with rank, promotion opportunities, supervision and co-workers.

Lovett (1993) studied job satisfaction in relation to job performance. She found that job was determined according to teaching assignments. The special teacher obtained high mean score followed by elementary school teachers recorded the lowest mean scores.

Crook et al (1984) obtained that self-esteem influenced career attitudes and work achievement directly.

Tharenous and Harker (1989) in an analysis found that global self esteem and sense of competence did not moderate the relationship between (i) job satisfaction and job performance; (ii) job complexity and job performance.

Poling (1991) determined level of job satisfaction, professional self esteem, perceptions of job performance and perceptions of organizational/personal value match of faculty in four colleges in Ohio State University. The study also described these faculties on the following demographic characteristics; type of appointment, main budgetary
source, tenure in attempted to describe the relationship that existed between these variables that were the best predictors of job satisfaction. The findings suggested that the faculty members had high level of professional self-esteem, job performance and job satisfaction and perceived organizational/personal values match substantial relationship were found between professional self-esteem and organizational/personal value match and job performance and job satisfaction. The best predictor of job satisfaction was perceived organizational/personal value match.

Green (1992) investigated with the purpose to determine the relationship between high school athletic administrators, job satisfaction and job related stress. In addition, differences in the level of administrators job satisfaction and job related stress according to gender, 5 years of experience and school size were determined. Data were obtained from 371 High School athletic administrators employed in Public Schools, from North Florida and South Georgia. Specifically the subjects were head coaches. People (1992) studied “the relationship between gender and job satisfaction/dissatisfaction”. The study was conducted in one of the country's largest companies, pacific bell, but confined to one district, the diablo district. The sample consisted of 171 males and 108 females. Data were collected via the 100 items MS job satisfaction, survey. Data were analyzed primarily through a multivariate analysis, test on each as the test items. 20- Hotelling's test of significance was performed along with F test on covariate items. Findings revealed significant differences on several of the sub-scales between males and females within this district with respect to job.

Vozquez (1992) conducted his study to investigate the difference in job satisfaction and leadership behaviour of athletic directors in the NCAA and NAIA Athletic organizations, forty eight percent (48%) form the original sample (N =400) returned useable instruments and participated in the study, thirty three percent (33%) had tenure status an averaged 47 years if age and 22 years of working experience. The study found that athletic directors of NCAA were more satisfied than dissatisfied with their job and that their job attitudes did not influence their leadership behaviour.
Joyanti (1993) conducted a study of achievement motivation and relationship of job satisfaction among high and low achieving working women. She hypothesized that (i) there would be a positive relationship between achievement, motivation and job satisfaction and (ii) high and low achieving supervisors would differ significantly with regards to job satisfaction. The results supported hypothesis No. 1. Findings indicated that no true relationship existed between high and low achievement with regard to job satisfaction. Supervisors' job satisfaction and associated with positive feeling of task accomplishment. It was suggested that opportunities should be provided in female employment for job enrichment and self-actualization which provides for personal growth and increased job satisfaction.

Amirtash (1993) investigated the relationship between job satisfactions. The criterion variables, with the selected predictor variables of demographic factors, leadership style organizational climate. It was hypothesized that no statistically significant relationship exists between job satisfactions with any of the variables involved. As perceived by the subjects, data collection instrument, Pea Kages were distributed among 253 male physical educators in the 82 randomly selected male of high schools in the city of Tehran. From 137 returned instruments 119 were considered to be useable for the study. The presidium correlation computed revealed that (i) most of the sub scales included in each of the instruments used were inter correlated(ii) there of the organizational climate description as questionnaire sub scales namely esprit intimacy and conservation were significantly related to job satisfaction (positively) and experience (positively) were significantly related to job satisfaction.

Patak (1993) conducted a study of job involvement and needed satisfaction of Bank Officers in India. The important findings that emerged out of the research work were that supervisor regardless of job involvement would have more decision making authority, opportunity for personal growth and development and recognition for good work done. One factor for job involvement appeared to be satisfaction.
Habashi (1996) found a positive significant relationship between Principals' considerate behaviour and teacher job satisfaction. Satisfaction in his study on “teachers job satisfaction of iron relationship between dimension of teachers job satisfaction and pattern principals' managerial behaviour as perceived by teachers.

Amar Singh (1985) found that the job intrinsic variable correlated positively and significantly with job satisfaction of professional, viz. teachers, advocates and doctors, job concrete and job abstract dimensions of this variable were also found to positively and significantly correlate with satisfaction.

Sinilansky (1984) in order to examine the nature of feelings of work satisfaction and reports of job satisfaction related stress, teachers were asked to rate themselves regarding various aspects of their work functioning. Data regarding these teachers were also collected from Principals, parents and pupils.

**Indian Studies**

The editorial note on leadership research in ICSSR survey of Research in Psychology (1972) puts the current status in netshell as research in leadership and supervision in industry and government organizations has been significant and the primary question is whether Indian researchers on patterns of effective supervision and its impact on worker behaviour yield similar or different findings from those obtained elsewhere. While reports show some conflicting results, there is ample evidence that they generally support western studies on behaviour characteristics of effective supervision.

Chowdhary and Newcomb (1952) in their paper ‘The Relative Abilities of Leaders and Non-Leaders’ to estimate opinions of their own groups attempted to test the hypothesis that chosen leader of a group are superior to non-leaders in estimating group opinion on issues of high relevance to that group, but not superior to them on issues of little relevance. In this study, four groups were chosen for investigation. Each group was administered in a different attitude questionnaire. It was found that chosen leaders of a group are significantly superior to non-leader.
Ganguli (1955) reported on empirical study of supervision in a government engineering firm, and discussed the characteristics of good and bad supervisors. In a study, Melikian (1956) found the authoritarianism of Asians and Africans to be higher. Similarly, in a study on top managers, Myers (1960) found that their attitude was authoritarian in dealing with labour and management. In contrast to Myers, Chatterjee (1961) abstained high positive correlation between democratic leadership and productivity.

Ganguli (1961 and 1964) showed that a higher degree of control was prevalent in leadership behaviour of Indian managers from an engineering factory. According to him majority of managers’ preferred autocratic style of supervision and the interesting finding was that the subordinates also seemed to like autocratic style of leadership. Styles were autocratic, bureaucratic, and paternalistic or all the shades of these three styles. Ganguli has also reported that 46.9 percent of the managers and 31.0 percent of workers of a factory preferred autocratic organizational climate while only 12.3 percent of the managers preferred democratic climate. The existing environment was perceived to be autocratic by 51 percent of managers and 43.6 percent of the workers.

Kappor, B.D. (1963) in his paper ‘Dynamic Leadership in Management’ observes that the success of a manager as a leader depends on his personal qualities. A dynamic leader is one who has the ability to undertake challenging task, ability to organize and inspire confidence, to plan for the future he is open to new ideas and shows up in any organization, if he is given the opportunity to lead.

Sinha and Kumar (1966) found student leadership to be related to anxiety and dominance and not to extroversion, neuroticism adjustment, rigidity, ambiguity and tolerance. Meadle (1967) in an experimental study on Indian School boys more or less on the pattern of classical study by Lippitt and others found contrasting results. The authoritarian style of leadership resulted in not only more output but also in higher satisfaction and better morale. Bhushan (1968) concluded in field study to examine the
effect of personal factors on the determination of leadership choice. A Likert-type five-point, Leadership Preference Scale was developed to access the individual’s preference for authoritarian or democratic form of leadership. It was found that persons of middle age and higher education and those coming from urban area had significantly greater preference for democratic style of leadership. Sex of the person was not found to be important in this regard.

Punekar and Sevar (1969) in their study found a large majority of the superiors from different organizations believed that subordinates were not capable of sharing decision-making, 70 percent of superiors believed that subordinates had no sense of responsibility and could not work under the supervision of superiors.

Thiagarajan and Deep (1970) found authoritarian leaders as more influential than the persuasive, and the persuasive more than the participative. However, according to the workers perceptions, Desai (1969) found that they preferred good relations with supervisors.

Elhance and Agarwal (1973) in a study of leadership styles alongwith delegation of authority of 123 executive at various levels of management from two private and two public sector companies, concluded that 67 percent executive in private sector and 57 percent of them in public sector units are adopting democratic leadership style. Sinha (1973) found that task-oriented management was prevalent in private sector whereas political interference and bureaucratic system prevailed in public sector. Dolke (1975) found that Indian textile managers believe in traditional autocratic management.

Elhance and Agarwal (1975) have analyzed the leadership behaviour taking different variables affecting leadership styles alongwith delegation of authority of 102 executives at various levels of management from two private and two public sector undertaking. They concluded that 67 percent executives in private sectors and 57 percent of them in public sector units have employed democratic leadership styles.

In a study of Krishnaswamy (1976) on middle and senior managers found that both types of executives preferred 5, 5 style of managerial grid and ignored 1, 1 style.
Sinha (1976) in his research explains a conceptual framework before an organization achieves moderate degree of productivity, it required authoritative style of leadership which can mould employees towards harder efforts and work commitment. Once at least a moderate level of productivity is achieved and the normative structure of the organization is interjected in employees, the organization is ready for the participative style.

Rangaswami and Helmick (1976) in their study of leadership behaviour of 56 top level managers have found that Indian managers are more employee-oriented as compared to their American counterparts. Though, this result is quite unexpected but due to the impact of Indian culture and religion, these types of results are found.

Khandwalilah’s (1977) study on top management styles found that styles which were quasi-scientific and wishy-washy were low performers whereas neo-scientific management styles were outstanding performers.

Sinha and Sinha (1977) examined the effects of the authoritarian, authoritative and participative leadership on ground out puts and members satisfaction. While authoritarian leadership was defined mainly as self-oriented, the results indicated that authoritarian leadership was least effective in terms of outputs as well as satisfaction. The authoritative and participative leadership were significantly more effective, latter having an edge over the formed concept in case of appropriateness of the solutions to the problems where the former was significantly more effective.

Singh and Dass (1977) in their study of 280 managers from two public sector and four private sector units found that bureaucratic style is the most predominant followed by the benevolent autocrat developer and democratic styles of leadership. They have also highlighted that leadership style is associated with the type of organization, executives age group, their level in the organization and their exposure to management programmes.

More importantly, according to them, in public sector leadership styles are in order of compromiser developer and autocratic styles. In private sector benevolent autocracy is followed by bureaucratic, democratic and developer styles. Hierarchywise, top level
managers are more benevolent autocrats followed by democratic and developer in behaviour. While middle and lower level managers are more bureaucratic followed by the benevolent autocrat category. Age-wise, aged managers are more benevolent autocratic followed by developer, bureaucratic and democratic leaders, younger executives are more democratic followed by benevolent, autocratic and bureaucratic. The executives who are exposed to some formal management education are more democratic as compared to those who do not have such exposure.

The findings of Sinha and Sinha (1977a) indicated that the Nuturant-task (NT) leaders were close to the authoritarian leaders in being strict in pushing their ideas through and controlling other ideas and activities. The NT leaders were close to the participative ones in encouraging the members, giving due share to their ideas, any yet maintaining control over them. Further Sinha and Sinha (1977b) used a semantic differential scale having 20 bipolar adjectives to know the patterns of perceptual set of college students for authoritarian (F), nuturant task (NT) and participative (P) style of a leader. Besides, they also aim to know the extent to which the subordinates attach stronger evaluative meanings to the three styles. In their findings they have stated that the authoritarian leader was perceived to be autocratic, influential and brave, yet he was reported to be relatively insecure, impractical, unsuccessful, unskillful, dissatisfying, disrespected and unpleasant. The NT leader was perceived to be active, strong, dominant, independent, alert, encouraging, extrovert and on the whole good. The participative leader was rated to be democratic, respected and satisfying, secured, skillful, practical and successful. He was also perceived to be relatively weak, a coward, slack and uninfluential.'

Verma (1977) constructed a Likert-type scale to measure authoritarian (F), nuturant task (NT) and participative (P) styles of student leaders while the coefficient of correlation between F and NT 0.31, NT and P 0.39, and F and P 0.11.
According to Gupta's (1978) study on Indian executives, style 2 (high task and high relationship) was found to be predominant among executives of all groups, style 1 (high task and low relationship) and style 3 (low task and high relationship) were supporting styles and style 3 was found to be positively related to the effectiveness dimension. The study also hinted at the possible success of participative style in the times to come.

The study of 120 managers by Jaggi (1978) concludes that prevailing leadership styles appear to be between benevolent autocracy and consultative type. The study further indicates that the leadership style is associated with various factors such as age of the executives, their positions and functions and the size of the organizations. Thus, younger managers, and managers in bigger sized companies are less authoritarian whereas the managers in production and technical areas are more authoritarian.

Pathak and Dewan (1978) studied the leadership styles and job satisfaction among middle level managers with the sample of 70 middle level managers in H.M.T., Pinjore. A self-administered questionnaire was prepared to measure the leadership style and job involvement of the respondents and it was found that the most of the managers (42.81 percent) having effectiveness across between −6 and +6.

Punj (1978) studies the leadership styles and their effectiveness in bank executives. His finding are that the high task and high relationship (selling) was the dominating style with high task and low relationship (telling) and low task and high relationship (participating) as supportive styles. However, the effectiveness of leadership was found to be quite low as a result of wrong choice by the executives.

Bass and Bergen (1979) in an international study in 13 countries including India, Germany, Austria, Scandinavia, Britain, United States, Netherlands, Japan and France found that salient for Indian managers, compared with the rest of the sample, was their concern for rules and their dependence on higher authority. Indian managers saw
themselves as least cooperative with peers. They relied more on authority than persuasion. Indian managers were described more autocratic as compared to managers in other countries.

Kaushik (1979) study indicated that the three styles of S1, S2 and S3 showed positive correlation with managerial effectiveness as well as leadership effectiveness. But all the correlation was insignificant except that of S3 with leadership effectiveness. As the bank workmen are generally slightly matured to moderately matured, these managers are expected to do with their S2 as the dominant style and S1 and S3 as supportive styles. However, some kind of training in this area is required to move them from S1 to S3 which is significantly and positively correlated with the effective dimension. As these managers move in the organization, they may need to be developed from S2 to S4 as they would be dealing with highly matured group at higher levels.

Pathak and Bhanot (1979) studied the leadership styles and management assumptions among bank officers in a Nationalized Bank. A self-administered questionnaire was prepared to measure the leadership style and job-involvement of the respondents. Having the sample of 20 bank officers of United Commercial banks (posted in the states of H.P., Haryana, Punjab, J&K, U.P. and Rajasthan). It was found that 19 out of 20 bank officers had a three style profile of leadership and only one officer was having the two style profile.

Habibullah and Sinha (1980) studied five hundred and twenty three executives of the BHEL to find out various factors of leadership behaviour. The responses of the executives to the leadership style scales factors, were factor analyzed by the principal component method and varimax rotation method. Resultantly, they found the following ten usable factors: subordinate based participation; leader centered nuturance; authoritarianism; guidance and encouragement; direction; task-orientation; friendly-orientation; power; role performance; and distance and discipline.
Pathak and Singh (1981) studied that all supervisors except 2 were having a combination of task and relationship behaviour in their leadership style rather then exclusively having either task or relationship behaviour. Most of the supervisors do not believe in delegation, though they themselves have flexible leadership style. Training in delegation seems to be necessary for them as they were having diagnostic ability to adjust their leadership behaviours appropriately to different situations.

Sinha and Choudhary (1981) studied of 165 male executives in India tested the contention that the sue and effectiveness of a leadership style is contingent on the leader’s perception to subordinates. If the subordinates are perceived to be less prepared for participation, a nurturant-task k (NT) leader is expected to be used more often and with greater effectiveness. For better prepared subordinates, a participative leader ($P$) is anticipated to be effectively employed as authoritarian leader ($F$) is considered to be ineffective. The findings confirmed an inverse relationship between subordinates preparedness and the use of NT leadership. The NT leader was rated to be effective and somewhat satisfying to less prepared subordinates. The P leadership was unrelated to either subordinates preparedness or groups’ efficiency, but was positively associated with subordinates satisfaction and his own effectiveness in conditions of less prepared subordinates. The F leadership was employed for less prepared subordinates but was detrimental to groups’ efficiency and subordinate’s satisfaction.

Bose (1982) in his study has revealed that the basic style and style range of the civilian and service officers in the same. Their basic style is $S_2$ that is high task-high relationship, the supporting styles are $S_1$ and $S_3$ and style $S_4$ is almost absent. The managers do not feel safe if they delegate authority to their subordinates and their subordinates’ maturity level is not high. Some of the managers whose overall effectiveness is below mean tending to adopt style 1 that is high task-low relationship. Managers in the civilian category though have scored marginally higher than their counterparts in effectiveness dimension, yet statistically the difference between their mean effectiveness is not significant, that is to say, both managers are equally effective/ineffective.
Hinger, Asha (1982) studied the leadership style effectiveness and job satisfaction among the managers of Rajasthan State Electricity Board, Jaipur. It consists of 151 engineers and administrators working in various divisions. To measure the leadership styles, two questionnaires LSS and LBS were used and to measure the effectiveness and job satisfaction another two questionnaires (developed by Sinha) were used with certain variations. Through her analysis it was inferred that some of the variables of effectiveness are positively influenced by bureaucratic, nurturant, participative and task orientation styles whereas authoritarian style having negative impact.

Manna (1982) investigated leadership style and effectiveness of executives belonging to two functional groups viz. line and staff functions in a public sector organization. The results indicated that there was not much difference in leadership effectiveness and styles across the two groups. Style 2 (high task and high relationship) behaviour was found to be predominant among executives of both the groups. Style 3 (high relationship and low task) behaviour and Style 1 (high task and low relationship) behaviour were supporting. This shows that executives in public sector have started thinking on the lines of concern for the people, but many of them still like to be benevolent autocratic rather than participation.

In a separate study Sinha (1984) concluded that there was no best style of leadership. Successful leaders adopt their leader behaviour to meet the needs of the groups and of the particular environment and effectiveness depends upon the leader, the followers, and other situational variables that make up the environment. Therefore, people who are interested in increasing their own success as leaders must give serious thought to these behavioural and environmental considerations.

In 1984 Sinha and Sinha designed another study to see the relationship between stressful conditions and non-stressful conditions with that of leadership styles. And it was found that the stressful condition had a significantly higher score than the non-stressful condition and the stress leadership style interaction was highly significant. It
was also found that the stress decreases the salience of participative style and increases the salience authoritarian leadership irrespective of the position and the same was not true with the nurtent leader (NT). The evidence failed to support Fiddler's contention regarding the salience of the primary goal under stressful and secondary goal under non-stressful situations. Instead it seems stress causes one to regress from a higher order (i.e. participative) style of leadership towards a lower order (i.e. authoritarian) leadership. Because the nurtent task leadership is postulated to be interpolated between the two, the depletion in the strength of P is likely to add, to some extent, to the strength of NT. Simultaneously, NT is losing some of its salience in favour of F under a stressful condition. The differences in the relative strength of the styles were not so pronounced.

Srivastava and Kumar (1984) while working on leadership styles found that the pattern of leadership style followed by junior and middle level officers was more or less similar and majority of government officers (70 percent) adopted style 2 viz. high task and high relationship (selling) as their basic style. The study also revealed that the middle level officers were significantly more effective as compared to the junior level officers. Pratap and Srivastava (1985) study reveals that there is not much difference in leadership effectiveness and styles across different types of organizations. Style 2 (high task and low relationship) was found to be predominant among executives of all the organizations. Results on style 1 (high task and low relationship) and style 3 (low task and higher relationship) show that Indian executives do think on the lines of concern for the people, but many of them still like to be benevolent autocrats rather than participating managers. The positive correlation of style 3 with effectiveness dimension makes it obvious that efforts in the direction of participation may be successful and thus, the efforts to increase participation and decrease 'direction or telling' must be made according to the maturity level of workers.

Ansari (1986) study aims at providing empirical evidence in support of the nurturant task (NT) style of leadership which is hypothesized to be conducive to Indian organizations. 189 male executives in middle position representing about 15 organizations in northern Indian participated in the study. The results indicated that the
NT style was perceived as distinctly different from other styles, and it had a positive impact on several indicators of effectiveness, commitment facets of job satisfaction and perceived effectiveness.

Hinger (1986) reported that the bureaucratic style was found to be significantly correlated with the effectiveness of superior, efficiency of superior and the efficiency of the organization. The nurturant style was not related to any indicator of effectiveness, however, the nurturant and the task-orientation styles of leadership were found to be correlated with the effectiveness of superior, and the efficiency of the organization. Participative style was found to be significantly correlated with effectiveness of subordinates, whereas, the authoritarian style was found to be significantly but negatively correlated with effectiveness of subordinates.

Sinha and Kumar (1986) studied the interrelationship among leadership styles, interpersonal need structure and organizational climate in case of middle level executives. For the purpose of the questionnaires measuring each of these variables was administered and it was found that dimensions of interpersonal need structure like ‘expressed control’ and ‘wanted controls were found to be positively related and ‘expressed affection’ and ‘wanted affection’ were negatively related with task-orientation. Expressed affection and wanted affection were positively related, and wanted control was negatively related with people orientation.

Singh (1987) concludes that the nurturant-task leadership is the best leader behaviour for supervising the workmen and participative-task leadership is the best leader behaviour for supervising the executives. The study also indicates towards the facts that organization, its objectives, culture and values shall to a large extent decide the type of leader behaviour that executives shall learn and practice i.e. whether they should give NT and PT leadership or give a self-conflicting and ineffective leadership.
WELL BEING

Well being as a construct refers to the harmonious functioning of the physical as well as psychological aspects of the personality, giving satisfaction to the self and benefit to the society. Operationally, well being deals with the various components of adjustment like freedom from health concern, worry, distress, energy level, cheerful relaxed emotional behaviour control etc. Although there are many factors which influence well being of a person e.g. person related variables, family related variables, work related variables etc. But above all, the workplace is an important setting, affecting the physical, mental, economic and social well being of employees, and in turn, their families. Health of employees has many determinants and a multidisciplinary, integrated approach is important. An overview of trends in workplace health promotion shows that current thinking has changed from a narrowly based risk-factors approach aimed at individual behaviour changes, to an integrative approach aimed at creating health promoting workplaces. The health promoting workplace has 'an all encompassing approach that empowers employees and employers to improve all facets of their health. Number of research studies focusing well being as an independent variable has been given below.

Marshall & Barnett (1993) studied nature of occupation and found that well being is influenced by the nature of occupation the employee is having. Because the occupational specialties vary in their level of overload, decision, authority, challenge and helping others etc. dimension. Colbry (1995) studied Correlates of well being and informed that Social support systems, self, family environment bear a significant relationship with the general well being of an employee (especially in the females. Like this Sulatana (1996) took Well being as a moderating variable and found that well being has a moderating effect on the performance and employees morale relationship. Sullivan(1996) studied Co-workers' Well being as independent variable and found that Well being of an individual is highly influenced by one's colleague's well being and type of couple relationship one is having in the family. Lightsey (1996), studied Psychological Resources and Personality Traits as correlates and revealed that personality
traits and four psychological resources i.e. positive thoughts, hardiness generalized self efficacy and optimism play a vital role in the determination of subjective well being of an individual. Wann (1996) studied Interaction oriented personality as a correlate and found that individuals with interaction oriented personality disposition have been found and reported psychologically healthy (i.e. in terms of self-esteem, loneliness and positive affect). McCake (1996) studied Impact of Relationship quality of mental health and found relationship quality as a most critical factor in mediating personal well being. Feldt (1997) studied Role of Sense of Coherence (SOC) as a dimension of organizational climate as independent variable and reported that employees have high SOC reports low level of psychosomatic symptoms and low mental exhaustion. Moreover, employees’ positive perception to work characteristics, good social relationship at works lead to higher well being.

Social support in family and work have been empirically studied in relation to Well-being (Larocco & French, 1980).

The Well-being in men and women has been found to increase with the number of roles undertaken (Pietromonaco and Frohardt, 1980).

Women’s primary responsibility for children has been suggested as a factor that may account for poor Well-being of mothers compared to fathers (Rosenfield, 1989). Goldstein (1990) also found that having children did not generally improve the psychological Well-being of parents. Ross and Mirowstey (1988) contended that the effect of a women’s employment status on psychological Well-being depended on the presence of children, the type of child care and husband’s participation in child care.

JOB WITHDRAWAL

The concept of ‘job withdrawal’ in the modern era is in vogue. Withdrawal behaviours relate to absenteeism, turn over, attendance or leave behaviour and lateness. Turn over relates two intentions: a) Intention to search for job alternative; b) Intention to leave one’s job (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).
Elizabeth, (1987) reported that employee-consideration leadership style is related to low grievance and turnover rate. An overview of trends in workplace, health, promotion shows that current thinking has changed from a narrowly based risk-factors approach aimed at individual behaviour changes, to an integrative approach aimed at creating health promoting workplace. The promoting workplace has 'an overall encompassing approach to improve all facets of their health (Warr, 1993). Well being is influenced by the nature of occupation the employee is having. Because the occupational specialties vary in their level of overload, decision etc.

Landeweerd J.A., Boumans, (1994) studied the effect of work dimensions and need for autonomy on nurses' work satisfaction health and reported that job satisfaction experienced job significance Psychological and Psychosomatic health complaints and sickness absenteeism. Hackman &n Oldham's job characteristics Model was an important starting point in the study. The relationship of characteristics of nursing jobs, leadership style and type of nursing care system to such relations of nurses to their work are analyzed and the possible moderating role of preference for autonomy is investigated. Subjects are 561 trained staff nurses from 36 nursing units in 16 Dutch hospitals. Variables are assessed by means of questionnaire subjects. Stepwise regression analysis reveals that variances in the form dependent variables to a certain extent can be explained by the nine predictors.

William L.Koh, Richard, Steers, M. (1995) studied the effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and students' performance in Singapore. According to this study they examined the transformational leadership style in 89 schools by using a split sample technique. The study sought to examine the influence of transformational leader behavior by school Principals as in related to organizational commitments, organizational citizenship behavior, and teacher satisfaction with leader and students academic performance. Attitudinal data were collected from both teachers and principals; students' academic performance was collected from school records. School level analysis showed that transformational leadership and significant add-on effects to transactional leadership
in the prediction of organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviour and teacher satisfaction. Moreover, transformational leadership was found to have indirect effects on students’ academic achievement. Finally it was found that transformational leadership had a little add-on effect on transformational leadership in predicting outcomes.

Silverthorne, C., Wang T.(2001) studied the situational leadership style as a predictor of success and productivity among Taiwanese business organizations. This study was an evaluation of the impact of Taiwanese leadership style on the productivity of Taiwanese business organizations. Especially it looked at the impact that both adaptive and non-adaptive leaders have on 6 measures of productivity, absenteeism, and turnover, quality of work, reject rate, probability and units produced. The results indicated that greater the level of adaptability, the more productive the organization is likely to be. Although not for all the computed correlations were statistically significant, they were all in the predicted directions. In particular, the findings for units produced and reject rate were consistently statistically significant. The study was also an examination of the usefulness of the leadership, effectiveness and adaptability description(LEAD) questionnaire(P.Hersey & K.Blanchard, 1988), which appeared to be an accurate predictor of adaptability and valid for use in Taiwan. The final part of this study was an investigation of whether successful companies were more likely to have greater percentage of adaptive leaders than unsuccessful companies. The data supported this expectation, although it is suggested that caution be used ion the interpretation of this particular findings because it have several different explanations. Overall the evidence supported the value of adaptive leadership styles in high technology industries in Taiwan.

Lok, P.Crawford J (2004), studied the effect of organizational culture and leadership style, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In this study sample of Hongkong and Australian managers were taken into consideration and found statistically significant differences between the two samples were found more measures of innovative and supportive organizational culture, job satisfaction and organizational commitment,
with the Australian sample having high mean scores on all these variables. However, differences between the two samples for job satisfaction and commitment were removed after statistically controlling for organizational culture, leadership and respondents' demographic characteristics. For the combined samples, innovative and supportive cultures and a consideration leadership style had positive effects on both job satisfaction and organizational commitments.

Phyllis Tharenou (1993), studied a test of reciprocal casualty for absenteeism. The aim of this study was to test reciprocal casualty hypotheses for absence, investigating self and supervisor attitudes and behaviour as consequences, as well as antecedents of absence. Reciprocal relationships were proposed between absence and each of job satisfaction, performance training achievement and supervisory style. Questionnaire data on job satisfaction and supervisory style and organizational data on employee performance and absence were collected at time 1 from the 262 apprentices of electricity authority and a year later at time 2 from the 241 then employed apprentices. The repeated data collection consisted of the time 1 first, second and third year apprentices, who became the second, their and fourth years at time 2. Casual tests indicated that uncertified frequency absence and time lost but no certified absence were more likely to lead to lower job satisfaction, training achievement and supervisor-rated performance and attendance than the reverse. Supervisory style, especially support, led to less uncertified but not certified absence. Absence did not influence supervisory style. The reasons for the direction of the significant casual effects and the alternative explanations for such effects were discussed.

Boumans N.P., Landeweerd (1993), studied the leadership and nurses' well being relationship. They reported that the head nurse occupied an important position in the nursing unit. Concerning leadership style, a distinction is traditionally made between consideration and initiating structure. Sometimes a third style is distinguished as well, namely 'production-oriented' leadership. In a study of 561 nurses from general hospital in The Netherlands, the influence of two leadership styles upon the reactions of nurses(}
job satisfaction, experienced meaningfulness, health complaints and absenteeism) to their work situations was examined, namely the styles of social (i.e. consideration) and instrumental leadership (a combination of the styles initiating structure and production oriented). The separate effects of the two styles were studied as well as the connection between combination of leadership styles and reactions. The results indicated that social leadership contributes positively to nurses’ reactions to their job. Instrumental leadership, on the other hand leads to health complaints. From the analysis of combinations of leadership styles, it appears that nurses are most satisfied if the head nurse pays much attention to both dimensions of leadership. For health complaints a tendency in this direction is also found. Finally it becomes clear that nurses with a great need for autonomy prefer a different type of leadership from nurses with little need for autonomy.

John J. Sosik, Veronica M. Godshalk (2000) studied the leadership styles, mentoring functions received and job related stress as a conceptual model and preliminary study. They reported a linkage between mentor leadership behaviour (laissez-faire, transactional contingent reward, transformational) protege perception of mentoring functions received (career development & Psychological support) and job related stress of 204 mentor-portage dyads. Results of practical least squares analysis revealed that mentor transformational behaviour was more positively related to mentoring functions received than transactional contingent reward behaviour, while mentor. Laissez-faire behaviour was negatively related to mentoring functions received. Both mentor transformational behaviour and mentoring functions received were negatively related to protégé job-related stress. The relationship between mentor transformational behaviour and protégé job related stress was moderated by level of mentor functions received. Results are discussed as they relate to researchers and practitioners who are becoming interested in finding ways to develop organizational members and allay job related stress.
After scrutinizing the review of related variables of present research, the trends and notable gaps, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested in the present research:

1. There would be positive relationship between Participative (P), Nurturant Task (NT) and Nurturant (N) leadership styles and job satisfaction and negative relationship between Authoritarian (F), Bureaucratic (B) and Task oriented (T) leadership styles with job satisfaction.

2. (a) There would be positive relationship between Participative (P), Nurturant Task (NT) and Nurturant (N) leadership styles and Well being and negative relationship between Authoritative (F), Bureaucratic (B) and Task oriented leadership styles and Well being of non-teaching employees.

(b) There would be positive relationship between Participative (P), Nurturant Task (NT) and Nurturant (N) leadership styles and General Health and negative relationship between Authoritative (F), Bureaucratic (B) and Task oriented leadership styles and General health of non-teaching employees.

(c) There would be a positive relationship between Authoritarian (F), Bureaucratic (B) and Task oriented leadership styles and Depression and Anxiety amongst non-teaching employees.

(d) There would be a positive relationship between Authoritarian (F), Bureaucratic (B) and Task oriented (T) Leadership styles and Job withdrawal behaviour amongst clerical level non-teaching employees.

3. There would be a differential relationship between Leadership styles, Job satisfaction, Job withdrawal and Well being of clerical level non-teaching employees.