CHAPTER II

Review of Literature
The present investigation is aimed at studying "the effect of superior-subordinate perceptions among clerical employees on their job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement in three different organizations viz., commonweal, service and business organizations". In every organization, especially in the administrative side, clerical employees hold a pivotal position. Without their involvement, the administration cannot move further. Several researchers have classified superior-subordinate perceptions, on the basis of functions. Krech and Crutchfield (1948) proposed a number of functions to the superior. These are executive, planner, policy maker, expert, external group representative, controller of internal relationships and working conditions, purveyor of rewards and punishments, arbitrator and mediator, exemplary, symbol of the group, surrogate for individual responsibility, idealist, father figure and scapegoat.

Stogdill (1965) found in 27 organizations that the leader structure was related to follower satisfaction with consideration, while consideration was associated with satisfaction with freedom of action.

Korman (1966) reviewed the research in which consideration and structure scores of industrial supervisors were related to various criteria of supervisory effectiveness and work group performance. It was found that ratings made by peers of supervisory and group performance were not related to the supervisors' consideration and initiation of structure. However, evaluation by supervisors and subordinates, as well as various objective criteria were related significantly to the supervisors' leader behaviour as described by subordinates. These findings appear reasonable in that a supervisor's peers, in the industrial organization, are not as well placed as are his superiors to evaluate his performance accurately.
Skinner (1969) found as did Fleishman and Harris (1962) that supervisory consideration bears a curvilinear relationship to employee turnover and grievances. As consideration increases, grievances decrease to a point and then levels off.

In their study, Sims and Szilagyi (1975) found that as higher occupational level initiating structure would be negatively related to the role ambiguity and positively related to expectancy and subordinate satisfaction. Stinson and Jhonson (1975) supported the path goal theory with respect to consideration but tended to counter the theory regarding initiating structure.

Siegal (1969) found that neither consideration nor structure was related to personality measures, but those managers described high in consideration and structure report higher degrees of need satisfaction.

Leader consideration and work satisfaction was shown to vary for group of subordinates reporting that at different levels of need for independence in Herold (1974) study. He found that relationship between consideration and three facets of satisfaction were significantly positive for these subordinates low in independence who had supervisors low in influence and for subordinates high in independence who had supervisors high in influences. No significant relationships were found for the low independence-high influence and high independence low influence groups.

Durand and Nord (1976) reported that the subordinate perceptions of supervisory initiation of structure and consideration were a function of locus of control and Machiavellianism. Personality was found to be a major factor in predicting leader behaviour as perceived by subordinates. Locus of control may be an important personality dimension influencing the leadership process in organizations.

Valenzi and Dessler (1978) studied 284 employees of two electronic firms and found that leader consideration and subordinate role ambiguity, singly and jointly, were associated with subordinate job satisfaction. On the other hand, Sheridan and Vredenburgh (1978) found that the leader
consideration was inversely associated with tension and terminations but also with job performance. Initiating structure had a positive relationship with terminations. Social power variables, particularly, reward and expert power were useful in predicting job tension. The subordinates' personality attribute of locus of control did not appear to moderate any relationships, but task-structure had a significant interactive effect with expert and coercive power in predicting terminations.

Geller (1985) found that the teachers who perceived their quasi-administrators as being high in both initiating structure and consideration would have a greater degree of job satisfaction than those leaders who would perceive their quasi-administrators as having any other leadership style.

Gauigian (1990) found that there was a significant correlation between the leadership behaviour characteristics of “consideration” and the three job satisfaction dimensions of supervision on present job; pay and people on present job. Another significant correlation was found between perceived leadership behaviour characteristics of “initiating structure” and “supervision on present job”. Overall job satisfaction dimensions of supervision on present job appeared to have higher correlation with perceived school superintendents' leader behaviour that with any of the other satisfaction characteristics. Finally, a tendency for the leader behaviour characteristic of “consideration” had an impact on more aspects of job satisfaction for males and the leader behaviour characteristics of initiating structure” had a stronger impact of female. Job tenure had significant impact on job satisfaction. On the other hand Oldham (1976) found the motivational strategies to be better predictors of effectiveness than “consideration” and “structure”.

In a study of nursing supervisors, Anderson (1964) found that those who preferred nursing care activities were described high in consideration. Those supervisors who preferred coordinating activities were not described high in structure.
Rambo (1958) found that executives in different department of an organization differed in consideration and structure. However, no significant differences were found between executives in different echelons of the vertical structure.

It would appear that the significance of consideration and initiation is to be explained, not in terms of leadership but it terms of follower ship. The two patterns of behaviour emerge as important not because they are exhibited by the leader, but because they produce differential effects on the behaviour and expectations of followers.

In Japan, Misuni (1972) and his co-workers conducted a number of studies comparing P (standing for performance oriented), M (for maintaining and strengthening group processes), PM (high on both) and pm (low on both) types of leadership. When he took into account the level of achievement motivation of his subjects, it was found that regarding the productivity index in the high motivation for achievement group, the PM type came out on top, followed by pm. In terms of the degree of satisfaction with situation, PM came first, followed by M, P and pm in that order.

Hill (1973) examined the subordinates’ perceptions of their leaders’ ability among 124 middle and first level supervisors from Accounting and R & D. departments in the U.K. The results indicated that subjects did not believe their supervisors would either use the same style or randomly employ styles to deal with four typical, but hypothetical problems. But these results persisted when respondents were subdivided on the basis of both organizational level and functional area. Mc Fillen and Randolph’s (1979) study reported that subordinates performance affected consistently the supervisors’ perceptions of subordinate performance and the allocator of incentives and subsequent supervision.

Michaelsen (1973) studied that leader interpersonal relations orientation, leader behaviour, work group effectiveness and situational favourability among 119 workers of metal fabricating plant and found that: 1.
in a unfavourable situation supervisors directed most of their behaviour toward the achievement of their primary goals, which in favourable situations, they concentrated less on the achievement of primary goals and more on the secondary goals, 2. groups supervised by task oriented leaders were more effective in situations of either high or low favourability, while groups supervised by interpersonal relations oriented leaders were more effective in situations of immediate favourability. Rice and Chemers (1975), found that leaders who scored high on LPC, (least preferred co-worker) showed greater variability in their behaviour as a function of situational differences than did low LPC leaders. On the other hand, Sheridan and Vredenburgh (1978) estimated the importance of different situational factors predicting the leadership behaviour of head-nurses in a hospital organization. Turnover among staff members of the leadership behaviour of supervisor nurses and administrative climate variables explained significant proportion of variance in the measures of the head nurse's consideration and initiating structure behaviour.

Organ (1974) found that social exchange and psychological reactance were essential factors to improve the reciprocal relationships between the supervisors and subordinates. Greene (1975) examined the reciprocal nature of influence between the leader and subordinate. The results strongly found that: 1. consideration caused subordinate satisfaction. 2. subordinate performance caused changes in leader emphasis on both consideration and structure and 3. consideration moderate the initiating structure-performance relationship with that of highly considerate leaders emphasis on structure caused higher subordinate performance. Schrieshein (1980) studied 308 managerial and clerical employees in 43 work groups and found that group cohesiveness negatively moderated the relationship between leader initiating structure and subordinate role clarity, satisfaction and self-rated performance and positively moderated the relationship leader consideration, etc. In the low cohesiveness sub-group, leader initiating structure was positively related to all the three criterion variables, whereas in the high cohesiveness sub-group, leader consideration was related to all the three variables.
Ansari et al., (1989) found the influence strategies of leader was a function of the interaction between the subordinate performance and leaders' relationship. Yammarino (1990) reported that a network of relationship between superior and subordinate was based on primarily, individual differences in subordinates' perceptions of leadership and outcomes. On the other hand, Moore (1974) examined that the supervisor, self and subordinate differences in perceptions of managerial learning times and found that the process of managerial learning suggested that acquisition did not occur in a continuous fashion and was influenced by intra-organizational conflicts, situational stress and organizational demands.

Butler and Jaffee (1974) studied the effect of incentive, feedback and manner of presenting the feedback on leader behaviour. It was found that (a) positive feedback made the leaders task-oriented, whereas, negative feedback increased negative social-emotional behaviour, (b) incentive decreased the number of questions asked, and (c) manner of presenting the feedback (publicly or privately) produced no changes in verbal behaviour when analyzed as a main effect but significant interactions were found.

Sims and Szilagyi (1975) studied the relationship between the two components, i.e., leader reward behaviour and punitive reward behaviour and subordinate satisfaction performed on four main classifications of occupational skills: administrative, professional, technical and service. The significant differences were found between them.

Keller and Szilagyi (1976) studied employees' reactions to leader reward behaviour and found that positive leader rewards were more strongly related to the role and satisfaction variables and the punitive leader rewards were strongly related to effort-to-performance expectancy. In the Mc Fillen's (1978), study, subjects were randomly assigned to a supervisory role in either a reward only, penalty only or reward and penalty power condition. The subjects then supervised both successful and unsuccessful subordinates. Subordinates' performance but not supervisory power consistently affected a subject's reactions.
Oldham (1975) found that supervisory characteristics affected subordinates' stated acceptance of supervisor-assigned goals, but not the quantity and quality of subordinates' task performance, nor did subordinates who accepted the assigned goal performed at a higher level than those who rejected it.

Bartol and Wortman (1975) found that the extent to which leader behaviour as perceived by subordinates differed from female and male leaders. The extent to which the subordinates of male vs female differed in satisfaction with various aspects of their jobs and the relationship between perceptions of male vs female leader behaviour and subordinate satisfactions with supervision. Patricia and Renwick (1977) studied the influence of sex differences on the perception and management of superior-subordinate conflict. Kevin, et al., (1988) studied the influence of sex on communication rules co-ordination and communication satisfaction in superior-subordinate relationships, and found that the forms of interaction were mixed. Rules co-orientation was higher in different sex than in same sex relationships, but communication satisfaction was lower. Sex composition of superior-subordinate dyad appeared to mediate the relationship in paradoxical way. Komives (1991) found that whether men and women resident assistants reported to Hall directors of sense of different gender made no differences in their view of supervision, leadership, satisfaction with the leader overall job satisfaction or motivation to extra efforts.

Bass, et al., (1975) studied that management styles associated with organizational task, personal and interpersonal contingencies among 78 managers and 407 of their subordinates. It was found that the five management styles, viz., direction, negotiation, consultation, participation and delegation differentially correlated with organizational task, intra-personal inter-personal-variables as well as with measures of work-unit effectiveness and satisfaction.
Green, et al., (1976) examined the Fiedler's proposed relationship between leader behaviour and two variables, i.e., personality and situational variables related to contingency model. The evidence strongly suggested that under stress in a threatening situation, leaders with high least preferred co-worker scores were more interpersonally oriented while low least preferred co-worker leaders had more task oriented.

Jogo and Vroom (1977) investigated the relationship between hierarchical level of managerial personnel and individual differences in their leadership styles, i.e., participative, Vs autocratic decision-making and found significant differences in their relationships. Jannaee (1990) found that: 1. leaders in public sectors, where more associated with two different leadership styles i.e., transformational and non-sanctional than private organizations' leaders, 2. public organization individuals' motivation was more associated with the two different leadership styles than private organizations' employees, 3. public organization subordinates were dissatisfied with transactional leadership style but not subordinates of private sector, 4. individuals in public organization reported their leaders were more associated with effectiveness (transformational style of leadership) than the private organizations' leaders and finally 5 employees under transformational leadership reported higher levels of motivation and satisfaction with their leaders. Individuals rated transformational leaders more effective than transactional leaders.

Graham (1991) studied leaders with charismatic, authority, celebrity, charisma, transformational leadership, and servant leadership differed in the passivity. Charismatic authority and celebrity, charisma leaders had sheep like, highly motivated followers who passively obeyed directions. Transformational leaders' encouraged charismatically led followers to develop their skills, so they could demonstrate, initiate in working for the leaders' goals. Servant leadership encouraged followers' intellectual and skill development and enhance moral reasoning capacity, so followers became autonomous moral agents. In the work place, servant leaders were sensitive to
the needs and desires of organizational stakeholders and held themselves accountable and encouraged the intellectual and moral development of all around them.

Kerr and Jermier (1978) said that certain individual task and organizational variables acted as 'substitutes for leadership', regarding the hierarchical supervisor's ability to exert either positive or negative influence over subordinate attitudes and effectiveness.

In a longitudinal study, Greene and Schriesheim (1980) examined the relationships among subordinate perceptions of instrumental and supportive leader behaviour and group arousal and cohesiveness. The results indicated that the leader behaviour were positively influenced group arousal and cohesion. Also, as predicted, instrumental leadership had particularly strong effects on arousal and cohesiveness in both large and new groups. Supportive leadership, on the other hand, exerted its greatest influence in small as well as new groups.

Yoshihiko (1981) indicated that when subordinates with high growth needs worked on a job with high cooperation requirements, a positive relationship was found between group maintenance of the leader and subordinate satisfaction, when subordinates with high growth needs worked on a job with low cooperation requirements, no significant relationship was found. Positive relationships were found irrespective of their job characteristics for subordinates with low growth needs.

Smircich and Chesser (1981) studied 83 subordinates and 58 of their superiors in two organizations and found that positively correlated superiors and subordinates disagreed (misunderstanding) on the issue of subordinate job performance.

Buckner (1985) found that: (a) middle school principals and their teachers agreed upon the ideal leadership behaviour that middle school administrators should exhibit, (b) middle school teachers tended to rate their principals lower in actual leadership behaviour than the principals rated
themselves, (c) there was no significant relationship between leadership style of middle school principals and the management style fostered by their superintendents, (d) curricular offerings within the middle schools had no relationship with the leadership behaviour of their principals.

Atwater (1988) found that the subordinates’ levels of trust and loyalty toward their leaders were most predictive of supportive leader behaviour whereas personality traits of the leader were most predictive of demanding of leader behaviour, Posner and Koozes (1988) examined the relationship between leadership and credibility from 998 subordinates and of their 146 senior managers, participating in residential management development workshops. The results indicated that three dimension of credibility, viz., trustworthiness, expertise and dynamism were significantly correlated with five behavioural practices of leader, viz., challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart identified. On the other hand, Orpen and Gerard (1989) found that there were significantly affected interactions between superior and subordinates but were relatively unaffected by superiors’ credibility and expertise.

Meglino et al., (1989) found that the workers were more satisfied and committed when their values were congruent with the values of their supervisors. Value congruence between workers and their supervisors was not significantly correlated with work, tenure, however, its effect on organizational commitment was more pronounced for longer tenured employees.

Finkelstein (1992) studied 1,763 top managers in three different industries, such as, computer, chemical and natural gas distribution industrials and found that the proposed power dimensions, viz., structural, ownership and prestige power, expert power received only moderate support. Tjosvold, et al., (1992) studied 47 superior work groups and 143 subordinates and found that manager with cooperative influence and power relied on collaborative influence, influenced effectively and contributed to employ work
and commitment. Findings support theories that successful managers empower their employees and are consistent with the contingency perspective in that the success of leader influence strategies depends on the relationship between managers and employees.

Palich and Horn (1992) studied 202 undergraduate business majors and found that leader behaviour had direct effect on perceptions of prototypical leadership behaviour and power attributions. Manipulated leader power induced power attributions which then reinforced perceived prototypical behaviours. In turn, perceptions of prototypical leader actions promoted leadership impression.

Indian Studies

Kakar (1974) has found that though both the assertive and nurturant superior models exist in other areas of social relations in India. It is the nurturant superior who is held to be the most effective and besides "under highly controlling superiors, the organizational commitment of subordinates with high dependence is positive." Bayati (1969) investigated into the leader behaviour characteristics of school pupils. He found significant relationships of children’s age, parents' income and occupations to observe patterns of nursery school behaviour. Further, Sinha and Kumar (1966), found that student leadership to be related to anxiety and dominance and not to extraversion, neuroticism, adjustment, rigidity and ambiguity tolerance.

Govindarajan (1964) found significant difference between leaders and non-leaders with regard to vocational preference. Ganguli (1957: 1957: 1961) and Ganguli, Goswami and Ghosh (1957) have made detailed studies on the pattern of effective supervision. Ganguli (1964) reported that 46.9% of the managers and 31.0% of workers of a factory preferred autocratic organizational climate while only 12.3% of the managers preferred democratic climate. The existing environment was perceived to be autocratic by 51.0% of the managers and 43.6% of the workers.
Choudhry (1953) in her study, on difference in worker behaviour associated with low and high tension mills has yielded interesting results regarding the nature of supervisory role. The low tension mills had supervisors of the understanding type who tended to take work through persuasion and felt that workers understand the supervisors' message well when addressed in a sweet tongue. The supervisors of high tension mills used fear to motivate the workers and often observed that he had to give suspension notices in order to warn others to be careful.

Thiagarajan and Deep (1970) found authoritarian leaders as more influential than the persuasive, and the persuasive more than participative. In addition, kumar and Singh (1976), reported that authoritarian leadership was no less preferred than the participative style. Sequeira (1962, 1962), who worked with Ganguli, has outlined the characteristics of the effective supervision. He has come to the conclusion that effective supervisory practice is less ambiguous and less relative. The main criterion seems to be the level of supervisor in the hierarchy.

The findings of Sinha and Sinha (1977) indicated that the nurturant-task (NT) leaders were close to the authoritarian leaders in being strict, in pushing their ideas through and in controlling other ideas and activities. The NT leaders were close to the participative ones in encouraging the members, giving due share to their ideas, and yet maintaining, control over them.

In the first instance, Indian management is, generally, believed to be autocratic with subordinates, closely supervised by their supervisors and only a limited degree of participation is allowed to the subordinates. However, the real situation in this context can be appreciated only when a detailed account of various practices is taken into consideration. Fortunately, some empirical studies are available in this context which does not necessarily support the traditional view, rather they present a mixed note. Myers (1960) from his interview with industrialists, government officials, labour leaders, and managers in both Indian and foreign owned organizations, concludes that,
barring a few, most top Indian managers are authoritarian in their relationship with lower management and labour. Similar results were also reported by Ganguli (1964) in his study of leadership behaviour in a state owned engineering company. Rangaswamy (1976) in his study of leadership behaviour of 56 top level managers found that Indian managers were more employee-oriented as compared to their American counter part.

The study by Joseph and Kesavan (1977) of 45 supervisors from public sector and 38 from private sector shows that in private sector the emphasis is on production which is meaningful since total wages are tide-up to the amount produced, whereas in public sector, superior orientation is prevalent which can be explained by the fact that superiors are given complete authority in recommending their subordinates for promotion along with increase in pay. The study of 120 managers by Jaggi (1978) concluded that prevailing leadership styles appeared to be between ‘benevolent autocracy’ and consultative type. The study further indicated that the leadership style was associated with various factors, such as, age of executives, their positions and functions and the size of the organizations. Thus, younger managers and managers in bigger sized companies were less authoritarian, whereas, the managers in production and technical areas were more authoritarian.

Elance and Agarwal (1975) have analyzed the leadership behaviour taking different variables affecting leadership styles along with delegation of authority of 123 executives at various levels of management from two private and two public sector undertaking. They concluded that 67 per cent executives in private sector and 57 per cent in public sector units had employed democratic leadership styles.

Singh and Das (1977) in a study of 280 managers in public and private sectors found that bureaucratic style was the most predominant followed by the “benevolent autocrat”, “developer” and “democratic” styles of leadership. Further, Singh and Das highlighted the leadership style as associated with the type of organization, executive age group, their level in the organization and
their exposure to management programmes. More importantly, according to Singh and Das, in public sector, leadership styles were in the order of 'compromiser', 'developer' and 'autocratic' style. In the private sector 'benevolent autocracy' was followed by the 'bureaucratic', 'democratic' and 'developer' styles. Hierarchy-wise, top level managers were more 'benevolent autocrats' followed by 'democratic' and 'developer' in behaviour. While the middle and the lower level managers were more bureaucratic followed by the 'benevolent autocrat' category.

Age-wise, aged managers were more 'benevolent autocratic' followed by developer, bureaucratic and democratic leaders; younger executives were more democratic followed by benevolent autocratic and bureaucratic. The executives who were exposed to some formal management education were more democratic as compared to those who did not have such exposure. Sinha (1976) hypothesized that before an organization achieves moderate degree of productivity, it requires nurturant-task orientation style of leadership which can move employees towards harder efforts and work commitment. Once, at least, when 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 of management.

In a cross-cultural study, Indiresen. (1982) studied 158 teachers from a higher technological institution in India and 50 teachers from 4 British institutions and found a significant correlation between job satisfaction and bureaucratic orientation and significant correlation between bureaucratic orientation and job involvement. Indian teachers reported more of bureaucratic orientation and greater involvement than British teachers. Verma (1982) examined differences between the three categories of banks on a number of variables, i.e., leadership styles, efficiency, effectiveness, and job satisfaction among 217 respondents of nationalized banks, recently
nationalized and private banks. It was found that the three categories of banks had significant differences on three leadership styles and the interaction effect was also significant. Except in job satisfaction, none of the indicators of efficiency was significant. Ansari and Kapoor (1987) found that: 1. influence strategies used by subordinates varied as a function of goals from superiors, 2. influence strategies were significantly affected by the superiors' leadership styles and 3. Only one significant interaction between the leadership behaviour and influence attempt goals, i.e., on blocking strategy was noted.

Singh (1988) found that the need for power (NFP) emerged as a significant factor in deciding almost all power strategies followed by the basis power. Coercive power was found to be a potent determinant for the use of power strategies. On the other hand Ansari (1988) found that climate did appear to represent an important moderator of these relationships. Participative managers reported greater use of influence tactics like coalition and manipulation for their subordinates and ingratiation and exchange of their boss on an unfavourable climate, whereas they reported greater use of personalized help for their subordinates and less use of blocking and defiance for their boss in a favourable climate. Task-oriented managers reported greater use of expertise and reasons with both the targets in a favourable climate, but they reported less use of blocking and defiance with their boss in an unfavourable climate and exchange and challenge in favourable climate. For the boss, they used tactics like ingratiation, exchange and diplomacy in an unfavourable climate and ingratiation exchange in favourable climate. Ansari, et al. (1989) found the influence strategies of leader was a function of the interaction between subordinate performance and leaders' relationships.
Job satisfaction

It is axiomatic to state that people differ in regard to the extent to which they are satisfied with their jobs. Among the factors influencing job satisfaction, the most widely examined are supervision, the work group, job content, wages, promotional opportunities and hours of work.

The term job satisfaction or work satisfaction has been given different connotations since their inception. Blum and Naylor (1968) are of the view that job satisfaction is the result of various attitudes possessed by an employee. In a narrow sense, they observed “these attitudes are related to job and are concerned with such specific factors as wages, supervision, steadiness of employment, conditions of work, advancement of opportunities, recognition ability, fair evaluation of work, social relations on the job, prompt settlement of grievances, fair treatment of employer, and other similar items” (P.364).

Ketzell et al., (1961) investigated relationship between job satisfaction and job performance of individual workers. The results indicated that positive relationship between employee’s job satisfaction and job performance. Situational characteristics revealed significant difference in their job satisfaction and job performance. Intended level of achievement and actual level of performance was examined by Locke (1966). A significant linear relationship was obtained in all the three experiments. The higher the level of intension, the higher was the level of performance. The findings hold good both for between and within subjects and across different tasks. Doll and Gunderson (1969) found that occupational group was a moderator of the job satisfaction, job performance relationships and that relationship was more pronounced for the scientist group than for the Navy enlisted group. In this study of Ronan (1970) a little positive relationship between job satisfaction and individual and situational variables was observed. Slocum (1971) found that satisfaction of higher order needs was closely related to top manager’s performance than satisfaction of higher order needs for lower managerial personnel. It partially supported Porter and Lawler’s model.
Pritchard and Karasick (1973) said that organizational climate was fairly, strongly related to sub-unit performance and individual job satisfaction. Again Pritchard (1973) found that in a test of the Lawler and Porter model, performance, satisfaction correlations, under incentive systems were not positive and were not larger than correlations under the hourly systems. Christopher (1974) found that there was no inherent relationship between satisfaction and performance. Wanous (1974) found that the overall relationship between satisfaction and performance was slightly positive and suggested that the performance caused intrinsic satisfaction and that extrinsic satisfaction caused performance. Kesselman et al., (1974) reported performance related to job satisfaction with the work itself, pay and promotions in the contingent sample.

London and Oldham (1976) found that relationships of satisfaction and performance were a function of the level of minimum acceptable performance, attainment and difficulty of the high performance goal. Gould and Howkins (1978) found that relationship of job performance and dimensions of job satisfaction might be a function of an individual's career stage within the organization. Christopher (1981) studied 64 clerical employees in a federal agency and found that flexi-time caused a significant increase in satisfaction but had negligible effects on performance whether assessed by ratings or output. Spencer and Ostreers (1981) reported employee performance rating significantly moderated the job satisfaction and turnover relationships. In the views of Spencer and steers (1981), satisfaction level represented greater influences for low performers than for high performers on the decision to stay in a job. Futrell and Parasuraman (1984) said satisfaction had a greater influence on propensity to leave for low performing subjects than for high performing subjects.
In order to test James Worthy's theory of organizational structure, Meltzer and Salter (1962) used three sets of variables: (a) independent variables, viz., size of organization, number of supervisory levels and combinations of these, (b) intervening variables, i.e., freedom, job opportunities, funds, facilities of scientists, type of situation-academic, Governmental or industrial and (c) dependent variables, viz., productivity and job satisfaction. In general the theory was not supported.

Herzberg (1965) attempted to study the attitude of industrial workers in Leningrad. The results yielded rather similar to those in American studies, greater importance of the nature of the worker rather than context factors, highest satisfaction in workers with the highest skills, social relationships of relatively low influence.

Average satisfaction scores and climate and job satisfaction were unrelated to productivity (Hulin, 1966; Schneider and Snyder, 1975). Job satisfaction scores significantly increased for each level of the hierarchical positions (Miller 1966; Amiya 1976; Voydnaoff 1978; Pestonjee 1979; Burtl, 1987).

Locke (1967) examined the relationship of task success to linking for the task and personal satisfaction. The results indicated that they were correlated significantly with numbers of successes achieved on the task. The correlation for personal satisfaction was not significantly higher than that for task linking. In addition, Locke and Judith (1967) examined the relationship between performance goals to level of performance and the degree of boredom or interest in the task, and found that no consistent relationship between changes in boredom or interest and changes in performance. On the other hand, Locke (1973) found that white-collar employees mentioned task events significantly more often and reward and context events significantly less often than blue-collar employees as sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Hulin (1968) found that when the level of job satisfaction increased, the level of turnover automatically decreased. On the other hand, Hunt and Saul (1975) said that age had a stronger relationship with satisfaction in males than job tenure, the reverse held for females.
Beer (1968) examined the need, need satisfaction and motivational level among clerical personnel in jobs of differing content at the same organizational level. There was no substantial difference in need satisfaction patterns between clerical employees in routine jobs and those in more complex clerical jobs. Similarly, no difference was found in the motivation of these two groups. It was concluded that jobs which appeared to management as higher in responsibility and complexity, and which were commonly viewed as promotions may not always provide additional satisfaction in self-actualization, autonomy or esteem. Gren et al., (1968) studied 113 industrial scientists and found that need-type moderated the relationship between performance (need) for an outcome and satisfaction with that outcome only on those outcomes most closely related to company it self.

Blunt (1973) studied 3500 managers in fourteen countries and found that England, U.S.A., Australia, Denmark, Germany, France, Italy were considered that South African managers were more dissatisfied in almost every need category. The only exceptions were France and Italy, whose managers were dissatisfied with social needs than were South African managers. In slight mitigation, however, developing countries, such as, Argentina, Chile and India seemed to have more dissatisfied managers in all respects. On the other hand, Form (1973) found that there were significant differences in job satisfaction among autoworkers in four countries regarding their working conditions.

Bernard and Gerhard (1981) found that older workers had a lower need growth and were more satisfied than younger workers. Amount of education correlated positively with need for growth but had no influence on extrinsic aspiration. Sex-specific differences were gradual, and the relationship between age and education was less strict for female than for male workers. Job enrichment and satisfaction were not desired by all workers to the same extent.
Owens (1969) found that there was a positive relationship of satisfaction to reengagement intensity, the proportion of dissatisfied soldiers intending discharge was greater than the proportion of satisfied soldiers intending reengagement.

Armstrong (1971) studied 200 engineers and 153 assemblers and found that satisfaction with the content factors made the greatest contribution to overall job satisfaction regardless of occupational level. Conversely, ratings of job factor importance were a function of occupational level, content aspects were most important for engineers and content for assemblers. Several demographic variables failed to influence in the study. Korman (1971) found that environmental ambiguity and locus of control positively associated with job satisfaction.

Herzberg's two factor theory approach was substantiated by Basu and Pestonjee (1972), by studying 50 senior executives from public sector manufacturing industries. The results indicated that satisfiers and dissatisfiers differently contributed to imagined satisfaction, the contribution of the former being greater.

Stuart (1973) studied a comparison of pay variables suggested by reinforcement, expectancy and equity theories as predictors to a measures of global satisfaction. Equity and expectancy variables provided predictive capabilities though equity seemed somewhat more powerful. Reinforcement provided no predictive capability by itself.

Alutto and Franklin (1974) tested Alutto and Belasco (1972) model of decisional participation by administering measures of decision-making, satisfaction, attitudes towards company, commitment, job tension, interpersonal trust and authoritarianism to 80 workers in a manufacturing firm. Data confirmed the importance of decisional participation in job related attitudes and behaviour.

Carrel and Norbert (1974) studied 397 Mid-Western Postal clerks. Results indicated significant main effects for the factors of age, education and
home environment and significant interaction between home environment and location and home environment and job category. McDonald and Gunderson (1974) studied 5,851 Navy enlisted men and found that demographic, military status, job related and health related variables were correlated with job satisfaction.

Fred and Allan (1975), found that the state executives were more satisfied with their jobs than either federal or business executives.

Hisataka (1977) found that the prediction of external variables, viz., evaluation concerning the future of the job, mental health and feeling of job accomplishment on the basis of job satisfaction measurement can be improved by weighting with job importance rating. A significant interaction was also found between job satisfaction and job performance ratings among 297 Japanese rail-road workers.

Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) studied 411 university employees and found that life satisfaction and job satisfaction strongly differentiated in both male and female employees. Furnham and Goddard (1986) found that for both sexes, variables that were rated as most important to job satisfaction were being able to use one's skills and abilities, pleasantness of work place, liking one's co-workers, pay and variation in work tasks. It was also found that no differences existed in overall job satisfaction. But McNeely (1986) in his study showed that work satisfaction levels were similar, variables predictive of male and female satisfaction turn out to be different. Kathleen and Brockopp (1986) studied 11 male and 49 female teachers from sixty parochial and public schools in New York state, and found a significant relationship between perceived autonomy in classroom and job satisfaction. Compared to public school teachers, parochial teachers perceived themselves as significantly more autonomous inside the classroom, within the school and overall. On the other hand, Korman (1971) found no consistence evidence for the differences between the sexes with regard to job satisfaction.
Dalton and Marcis (1987) investigated gender differences in job satisfaction among male and female high school diploma holders. The results indicated that possession of a high school diploma led to increase in job satisfaction for females and decrease for males. As against the above, Kuhlen (1963) found carries were more central to men but not to women. A decline in job satisfaction with age among continuously employed women was observed by Andrisani (1978).

Weaver (1977) found evidence that pay race, occupation prestige, supervisory status, work autonomy were associated with job satisfaction but not sex. On the other hand, Northcott and Lowe (1987) found that gender differences influenced significantly subjective experience of work and job satisfaction.

Miles and Petty (1975) and Hisataka (1977) found that the degree of role clarity was directly related to job satisfaction and inversely related to job-related tension.

Gordon and Arvey (1975), Frances (1986) and Nancy, et al. (1987) found that higher educated employees were less satisfied than lower educated employees. Spreitzer and Snyder (1987) found that women were more likely to perceive a lack of fit between their education and job, age education were inversely related to a perceived lack of job fit. Leisure involvement served as a partial compensation for deficits in job satisfaction.

Schwartz et al., (1975), Gilbert et al., (1976) and Muchinsky (1977) found that organizational climate positively associated with job satisfaction and job related variables. Christopher and Jonathan (1975) studied 100 insurance clerks and found that: 1. job context elements were more strongly related to general findings of job satisfaction among subjects whose lower order needs are ungratified, 2. job content elements are more strongly related to job satisfaction among subjects whose lower order needs are well gratified.
Vanmaanen and Katz (1976) concluded the degree of satisfaction differed from career to career. Szilagyi (1977) found that role ambiguity was a source of causal inference with satisfaction, with work at the higher organizational level. The source and direction of causal influence with respect to role perceptions and performance was supported only at the higher organizational level.

Muchinsky (1978) studied 18-29 years old 246, 30-39 years old 156, 40-49 years old 168, and 96 were 50+ years old and found that the youngest group was least satisfied with the work. There was decreasing satisfaction in pay and promotion with age, and the oldest group was least satisfied with their co-workers. Gordon and Dowling (1981) studied age and job satisfaction among 1,383 employees and found that age was positively correlated with job satisfaction. Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) said age was positively related with job satisfaction but Clifford (1987) reported age had an indirect positive effect on job satisfaction.

Christopher (1978) studied discrimination, alienation and job satisfaction among 55 black coloured and 60 white coloured clerks in South Africa and found negative correlations between alienation and satisfaction and between perception of discrimination and alienation in both sample.

Near et al (1978) Schmitt and Bedeian (1982) found that the work related and extra work were positively associated with job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

Motowidlo and Borman (1978) found that the military morale, motivation and unit effectiveness were strongly positively associated with job satisfaction.

Voydanoff and Particia (1978) analyzed the relationship between perceived job characteristics and job satisfaction among national probability sample of 1,533 workers in five occupational status groups. It was found that self-expression, role strain, financial rewards and promotions were related to job satisfaction in all occupational groups, although their relative importance varied among groups. The results also indicated that both intrinsic and extrinsic job characteristics contributed to overall job satisfaction.
Dierickx (1979) found that the size of salary strongly affected job satisfaction. On the other hand, Mullis et al. (1986) found salary was only factor with which 98 female child care workers reported job dissatisfaction. Weaver (1980) investigated job satisfaction in the U.S.A. in the 1970's among 4,709 subjects in annual national survey and found that job satisfaction remained more or less the same over two decades and several correlates of job satisfaction remained unchanged. Blacks were less satisfied than whites with their jobs and there was positive association between job satisfaction and education, age, income and occupation.

Porat (1981) evaluated a theory of job satisfaction based on two facts 'event and agent' which were derived from a study by Schneider and Locke (1971). Event and agent facets were conceptualized as two dominant facets of contents universe of job satisfaction, among 104 employees from eight different industrial organizations in Israel and found that when job satisfaction defined by two dominant facets.

Loher et al., (1985) found a moderate relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. This relationship was stronger for employees in high growth need strength. Situational characteristics appeared to be more important in determining satisfaction for employees low in growth need strength.

Mullis et al., (1986) examined 98 female child-care workers aged 17-65 years and found that they were positively satisfied with their jobs, having good relationships with parents and other teachers and having above average success in their jobs. Callahan and Kidd (1986) studied 73 working women and found that subjects scoring high on a job satisfaction questionnaire scored significantly higher on self-esteem scales of the adjective check-list than subjects scoring low in job satisfaction. Subjects high in job satisfaction were high achievement-oriented, cooperative, tactful, social, self-confident and comfortable with sex appropriate roles. Subjects low in job satisfaction scores were self-critical suffered from inferiority feelings and displayed maladaptive tendencies.
Howell et al., (1987) investigated 226 sales managers, 220 advertising managers and 22 unclassifiable managerial personnel and found that: 1. role stress is inversely related to job satisfaction, 2. high self-esteem reduces role stress, indirectly affects job satisfaction and 3. self-esteem neither relates directly to job satisfaction nor moderates the relationship between role stress and job satisfaction. In addition, Christopher and Bernath (1987) found that role conflict and ambiguity did not produce high levels of dissatisfaction, whereas, they interfered with effective performance.

Indian Studies

Sinha and Sharma (1962) investigated the relationship between attitude towards union and job satisfaction on a sample of 100 workers in a light engineering factory. The results indicated that there was a significantly negative association between attitude towards union and job satisfaction and age, marital status and length of union membership were significantly related to job satisfaction.

Sarkar and Patnaik (1967) examined the dimensions of jobs rated in order by 30 village level workers. Opportunity for promotion, salary according to work, achievement and recognition for good work done were rated high. Participation in decision-making had a low rank.

Sarla (1971) examined the relationship between anxiety and job satisfaction from 70 semi-skilled workers. The results indicated significant differences between low Vs high, middle Vs high anxious group, except low Vs middle anxious group.

Sarveswara Rao and Ganguly (1971) found that occupational level was an important variable in determining employees' job satisfaction. Both motivators and hygiene needs contributed to satisfaction and dissatisfaction of both occupational groups. It was concluded that the two factor-plus-importance theory was an over simplification of facts and was unable to account for the dynamic nature of work motivation.
Rajamanikyam and Bharathi (1972) found that job satisfaction was determined by 18 factors. Personal factors and job related factors controlled by management, influenced the job satisfaction of the employees.

Sarveswara Rao (1972) studied 60 male bank clerical employees and found that extrinsic and intrinsic factors were not positively associated with job satisfaction. Sarveswara Rao (1974) studied 113 supervisors, 137 clerks and 250 skilled workers and found that there was no advantage in weighting components of job satisfaction with that of importance, in as much as the two dimensions were found to be unrelated. Findings indicated that unless and until the superiority of weighted combination of satisfaction with importance was clearly established, more use of importance scale was not warranted. Job satisfaction scales of Likert type were sufficient indicators of importance of an attitude.

Singh and Srivastava (1975) administering S-D employees' inventory to 70 supervisors and 70 rank and file workers found that the status of job and job satisfaction were positively correlated and that the two occupational groups significantly differed in their level of job satisfaction.

Neeraja and Pesstonjee (1975) found that there was a significant difference between personal, social factors and job satisfaction. On the other hand, Saiyadain (1977) found that organizational levels and job satisfaction were positively associated but not in social aspects.

Anand (1977) studied 320 men and 271 women teachers and found that for 30 percent of the teachers with extraversion have job satisfaction. Length of service had no effect on job satisfaction. Neuroticism was negatively associated with job satisfaction. Gupta and Badarum (1979) studied 45 male and 55 female school teachers and found that age, teaching aptitude and experience affected job satisfaction but not sex. Prathap and Gupta (1986) found that the females were more satisfied with their jobs than were the males.
Anantharaman and Srinivasan (1986) found no consistent evidence for the differences between the sexes with regard to job satisfaction. Reddy (1989) investigated the effect of age, sex, work experience and locus of control on job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement and found that lower job involvement among women than among men. However, the differences between them were statistically not significant. Bharathi (1989) found that women's life satisfaction and job satisfaction were higher than men. Rajasekhar et al (1991) found that men and women and higher and lower age groups men and women also did not differ in their job satisfaction. Although the higher and lower age groups did not differ in their job satisfaction, the higher age group men and women had higher job satisfaction than lower age group men and women.

Dwivedhi and Neeraja (1977) administered Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI) to an experimental group of 240 blue collar workers who received financial incentives for increased production and to a control group of 400 who did not receive search incentives. The results indicated that experimental group was highly satisfied not only with job as a whole but also with the various items of the JSI.

Pramodkumar and Chandrakala (1979) found that organizational climate tended to significantly affect the job satisfaction of the workers. The workers who perceived the existing organizational climate as democratic were found to be higher job-satisfied, overall, and area wise than workers perceiving the same climate as autocratic or undecided.

Sharma and Chaudhary (1980) investigated 26-32 years old engineers and found that externality was significantly and negatively correlated with pay, promotion, opportunities, supervision and the work itself but not with satisfaction with co-workers. So, subjects who believed they could influence their environment to a greater degree might be more likely to perceive job satisfaction.
Singh and Singh (1980) studied the effects of certain social and personnel factors on job satisfaction of 1090 supervisors. They reported that subjects below 30 years of age had high job satisfaction as did subjects over 40: low income subjects had the least job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was found to be greater during the first two years of employment declined in the middle and an increase again with experience.

Rajasekhar (1989) found that: 1. age and length of service had no influence on job satisfaction, and 2. Promotes were more satisfied with their jobs than directly appointed clerical employees.

Ramalingam et al., (1980) investigated creativity and job satisfaction among 110 blue collar workers and found that job satisfaction scores of the high moderate and low creativity groups was not significant.

Kalanidhi and Devasenapathy (1982) investigated the self-employment workers and found that differences in the aspiration level of those who scored high and low on job satisfaction and self-concept.

Bhushan and Jagdish (1983) found that the overall job satisfaction in the public collieries was significantly better than in the private collieries regarding their pay, co-workers, job conditions and management. Prathap and Srivatsava (1985) found significant differences between private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction and organizational climate. In addition, Srivatsava (1985) found that both public and private employees differed significantly in the areas of achievement motivation and job satisfaction. Sinha (1986) investigated 60 government and 50 private organization employees and found that quality dimensions correlated positively with satisfaction and some differences were detected between government and private organizational employees.

Pandey and Prakash (1984) studied 100 railway supervisors and found that the satisfaction levels were higher for employees with high achievement motivation than for employees with low achievement motivation. Contrary to the above finding, Kumar (1986) found that achievement motivation was negatively correlated with job satisfaction the latter was higher among younger subjects.
Prakash and Sandhya (1986) investigated 120 officers and non-officers in different branches of nationalized banking organization and found that personal values, viz., personal enhancement, conformity, and dharma had a low to moderate relationship with personal and organizational outcomes. Srivastava (1986) found that technical employees were satisfied than non-technical employees.

Vikas and Kishore (1986) investigated 100 police personnel and found that higher job status was associated with job satisfaction. Jagdish (1986) studied 400 randomly selected first level supervisors from diesel locomotive works, Varansi, and found positive relationship between job satisfaction and mental health. In this aspect, Srivastava (1987) found that supervisors' perceived occupational stress negatively correlated with their job satisfaction and mental health.

Bhattacharya and Verma (1987) found that organizational commitment, need satisfaction and managerial respect were significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Irfan and Shankar (1987) studied 200 marketing executives of 89 business organizations and found that ego-strength and occupational stress independently made a significant difference and change in the perception of job conditions as satisfying or dissatisfying.

Nagarathnamma (1988) studied 100 nurses, working in government hospitals and found that internal locus of control and neuroticism was not significantly related to job satisfaction.

Verma and Rumna (1988) found that need satisfaction, i.e., work motivation and job satisfaction had positive effects on organizational commitment.

Reddy and Rajasekhar (1988) found that job satisfaction of men who were promoted to a higher cadres was higher than non-promoted men.
Kalpana and Reddy (1989) found that single and dual working families did not significantly influence job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement.

Fakirsahoo and Tripathy (1990) found that personal helplessness was positively related to non-contingency and motivational deficits and was negatively related to satisfaction.

Leadership and job Satisfaction

Beer (1964) tested the hypothesis that leader consideration would result in satisfaction of employee's needs for esteem, autonomy and self-actualization and that satisfaction of these needs would in turn lead to high employee motivation. It was found contrary to the hypothesis, that initiating structure rather than consideration was significantly related to motivation. Individuals high in need for self-esteem, self-actualization, autonomy, production emphasis and consideration were positively motivated by such supervision.

Pheysey, Payne and Pugh (1971) in a study of manufacture firms found that formality and rule orientation were related to employee satisfaction with promotion and workers and greater involvement of managers with groups. Sirota (1959) found that medium amounts of information about management philosophy, goals and operation procedures were more highly associated with employee satisfaction and advancement than were the large or small amount of information. The results were interpreted as casting doubt on the assumption that maximum satisfaction of ego needs results in the highest degree of employee management harmony.

Friedlander and Pickle (1968) studying the extent to which small business firms were able to satisfy the needs of owners, customers, employees and the public, concluded that it was difficult for an organization to satisfy all the demands made upon it. Hollander and Bair (1954) reported that highly motivated members of a group tended to identify more strongly with authority figures than the members who were low in motivation.
Follower satisfaction, group productivity and group cohesiveness are all positively related to the structuring behaviour of the group leader. If the leader fails to provide structure, some other group member tends to emerge as an informal leader to fulfill the role that the formal leader is expected to perform.

This is now a well recognized fact that people differ in their satisfaction with their jobs. There are various factors, viz., pay, job content, hours of work, supervision liberal fringe benefits, opportunity for practices and decision influenced job satisfaction. The supervision factor has more influence on job satisfaction of employees than other factors. (Bell and French, 1950; French and Israel, 1960; Herzberg et al., 1957; Herzberg et al., 1959; Jenkins, 1947; Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1974).

The early researchers in the field of leadership emphasized on the traits of the leader as an influencing agent on the organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction. But it has been found that the leaders do not possess a universal trait (Stogdill, 1948). It has been observed that different traits are required by a leader to deal with different parts of the organization (Porter, 1962; Vroom, 1960). In this analysis, Smith (1972) emphasized that leadership was a phenomenon to use interpersonal influence to achieve given goals.

Dubin (1970) and Baumgartel (1956) found that productivity and effectiveness of work groups were with leadership styles. Besides, Coch and French (1948), Dubin (1970), Morse and Reimer (1956) found that the subordinates who were involved in decision-making process were more productive than those who were not involved in the decision-making process.

Shaw (1955) found that speed and accuracy of group performance were significantly higher under autocratic than under democratic leadership. However, Spector and Suttell (1956) found no difference in group performance under democratic and autocratic leadership. However Zweig (1966) found the the democratic supervisors were rated by higher management as more effective than were the supervisors exhibiting less democratic style of
behaviour. Mullan (1965, 1966) found employee satisfaction associated with
democratic leadership in work groups but personnel turnover and productivity
was not related to the style of supervision. Mahoney (1967) found no
relationship between democratic supervision and measures of organizational
effectiveness in a study of industrial organizations. Supervisory control,
however, was positively related to group effectiveness.

Aspegren (1963) compared laissez faire, directive, and participative
patterns and found that participative leadership was associated with higher
task motivation and satisfaction with supervisor than laissez faire or directive
leadership. Meltzer (1956) reported that scientists are most productive when
they have freedom to control their own research activities. Pelz and Andrews
(1966) studied scientists and engineers in several laboratories. It was found
that the most effective scientists were self-directed and they valued freedom,
but at the same time welcomed coordination as well as guidance from other
members of the organization. They were not necessarily better satisfied than
were the less effective scientists.

Trow (1957) reported that experimental groups with high degrees of
autonomy provided greater member satisfaction than that of those in which
members were depended upon a centralized group structure. Weschler,
Kahane, and Tannenbaum (1952), Tennanbaum, Weschler and Massarik
(1961), surveyed a research laboratory. One division operated under
permissive leadership and the second under restrictive leadership. It was
found that productivity, job satisfaction and morale were higher in the
permissive than in the restrictive division. Indik (1965) studied 96
organizations of three types. Worker freedom to set their own work pace was
loaded on the same factor with high productivity and job satisfaction.

Maier and Thurber (1969) observed that the mere granting of freedom
was not sufficient to change problem-solving behaviour of individuals.
Productivity was not higher under permissive than under than under
restrictive leadership. Solem (1958) found full delegation (permissiveness)
results in decisions of better quality and higher satisfaction than more restrictive form of discussion leadership. Pelz (1956) reported that both laissez fairs and directive patterns of leadership were negatively related to productivity in research organization.

Hoppock (1935) analyzed the early literature on job satisfaction. Results indicated that workers tended to feel more satisfied when supervisors understood their problems and helped when needed. Ronan (1970) in a survey of more than 10,000 managerial, supervisory and hourly personnel obtained similar findings. Herzberg, Mausner and Synderman (1959) in an analysis of published research, found little relation between job satisfaction and employee-centered supervision. Roberts, Miles and Blankenship (1968) found that both member satisfaction and group performance were higher in an employee oriented style than under a more disinterested style of supervision. Boss (1955) observed that workers under employee centered supervisors had more group pride than did those under work-centered supervisors.

Weitz and Nuckols (1953) found that supervisors’ scores on a test measuring human relations orientation were not related to group productivity and turnover. Philipsen (1965) found that human relations and leadership correlated positively with group effectiveness.

Kaczka and Kirk (1967) studied simulated management groups. An employee-oriented leadership style was associated with higher average levels of profit, lower average levels of group cohesiveness and lower pressure toward task accomplishment.

Medalia and Miller (1955) observed results which suggest that human relations, leaderships and employee satisfaction tend to influence group effectiveness. Mackinney, Kavanagh, Wolins and Rapparlie (1970) found both production-oriented and employee-oriented management were unrelated to employee satisfaction. Calvin, Hoffman and Harden (1957), in a study of problem solving groups found that bright followers performed better under a group centered style of leadership, while dull followers performed better under a leader-oriented style. Employee satisfaction tends to be high under an employee-centered style of leadership.
Job Involvement

Wickert (1961) found that telephone operations and service representatives who had quit were less ego involved in their work than those who were on force. The on force personnel tended to feel they had a chance to make decisions on the job, and their contribution to the success of the company was very important.

Hearan (1962) found that job involvement was related to the perceptual skills. He also found that team operators were more job involved than people working alone, but he ascribed this to the greater perceptual skills required on teams.

Lodahl’s (1964) study of auto assembly line workers concluded that job involvement as an independent attitude factor. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) reported that job involvement was relatively unaffected by changes in the work environment.

Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) investigated the relationship between motivator and hygiene satisfaction variables to job involvement. Subjects were included 96 civil service supervisors, who completed the Wernimount’s job satisfaction scale and job involvement measure developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). The results of the study were that motivator, but not hygiene variables, correlated with job involvement.

Lawler and Hall (1970) found that job involvement had a significant relationship to certain job characteristics and positive relationship to self rated efforts. Schwyhart and Smith (1972) studied the nature of job involvement and its relationship among 149 middle managers (male) and found a significant linear relationship between job involvement and company satisfaction.

Siegal and Ruh (1973) studied 2,530 employees of sex mid-western manufacturing concerns and found no direct relationship between education and job involvement. However, education was found to moderate the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision-making. Job involvement correlated negatively with turnover whereas no relationship was demonstrated between absenteeism and involvement.
Hamner and Tosi (1974) examined the role of conflict role ambiguity and job involvement from 61 high level managers and found that the role conflict was negatively related to the amount of reported influence and positively related to the amount of perceived threat and anxiety. While role ambiguity was negatively correlated with job satisfaction and influence was positively related to job threat and anxiety.

Jones and Burni (1975) examined the relationship of job involvement to age by administering questionnaire to a sample of 112 civil service and military engineering employees and found that job involvement related to age. Lorence and Mortimer (1985) investigated the inter-relationships of work experience and subjective job involvement among the three age groups and found that work experience and job involvement negatively supported to differentiate between the three age groups.

Kimmons and Greebaus (1976) found a positive relationship between job involvement and internal locus of control. On the other hand Dialley and Morgan (1978) found that locus of control and age was significant with job involvement. Reitz and Linda (1979) found that locus of control was significantly related job involvement, i.e., that internals were more involved in their jobs than externals. The relationship was stronger for males than for females in five of the six countries. Cummings and Bigelow (1976) found job attitudes, i.e., satisfaction, involvement and intrinsic motivation were conceptually distinct and empirically independent.

Rabinowitz, et al (1977) examined the relative importance of job score and individual differences in explaining job involvement. The results indicated that job scope and three individual differences measures all had about equal importance in explaining the variance in job involvement.

Saal (1978) studied 218 workers in a medium-size manufacturing company and analyzed job involvement variables and suggested that both the situational characteristics and personal psychological variables shared more common variance with job involvement than did personal demographic
variables. In addition, Litinger (1984) studied correlation relationship among job involvement, personal and situational characteristics using a sample of 131 managers, from a mid-Atlantic State Telephone Company. A hypothesized interaction of a personal characteristics, intrinsic values, with work quality in the prediction of job involvement was not supported. Positive correlation between job satisfaction and job involvement, work quality and role clarity were found.

Vosburgh (1979) studied 240 nurses and found the moderating effect of job involvement on the satisfaction/performance relationship. Axelard (1979) worked with professional and administrative employees and found a positive linear relationship between job involvement and self-esteem and a negative relationship between life satisfaction and job involvement. On the other hand, Rush (1981) studied a sample of 138 workers employed by a large steel mill in the Ohio valley and found that a moderating influence of job involvement on the job satisfaction, life satisfaction and non-work satisfaction.

Gorn and Kanungo's (1980) study revealed that managers with salient extrinsic needs were as likely to be involved in their jobs as managers with salient intrinsic needs, provided their salient extrinsic needs were met.

Moch (1980) studied 522 employees of an assembly and packing plant and concluded that internal motivation and job involvement could be alternative source of meaning and identity, particularly for people who were isolated from work relationships and therefore were unlikely to be highly involved with the organization.

Wiener and Vardi (1980) found that organizational commitment was strongly related to attachment to the organization, while job commitment was strongly associated with indices of effort and performance effectiveness. Jans (1982) found that three attitudes of job involvement are distinct in their working conditions.
Giscombe (1983) investigated the relationship between family involvement and job involvement with 549 full-time working married parents and found that while there was no relationship between family involvement and job involvement for some groups, there was a significantly negative relationship between family involvement and job involvement. Passion (1984) gathered data from a cross-section of 282 working adults and found significant negative relationship between job involvement and job alienation.

Werbal (1983) studied dual wage earner and single wage earner job involvement and organizational identification among 286 municipal employees in a large southern city. Both job involvement and organizational identification were found to be lower among male subjects, whose spouses were employed than among male subjects whose spouses were not employed. Further, for subjects whose spouses were employed, job involvement and organizational identification were found to be higher for subjects with children than it was for childless subjects. The results of the study supported that a financial need hypothesis that predicted that work involvement would be higher in cases where financial requirements were greater.

Schneider (1984) found that administrators should attempt to determine the level of decision involvement of their staff members by assessing teachers actual and desired levels of involvement in the decision-making process and should adjust decision-making process to avoid low levels of involvement.

Lorence (1987) found the women to be involved with their jobs than men after controlling differences in work autonomy.
Indian Studies

Kanungo, et al. (1975) found that the employee's attitude of job involvement could act as a moderator variable and could influence the employees' cognitive evaluation of the importance of various job factors.

Kulkarni (1976) perceived importance of job factors among 92 Indian white collar workers and found that the high job involvement group would assign greater importance to motivator variables than the low job involvement group. Similarly job involvement and each of the rating categories of perceived importance were independent of each other.

Neelam (1978) examined job involvement of 40 government school teachers, 25 private school teachers, 30 office clerical employees and 25 nurses, all of them females. Results indicated that the nurses were significantly more involved than the other groups.

Sharma and Sharma (1978) investigated the relationship among measures of job involvement, satisfaction and general anxiety in 40 high job level and 80 low job level white collar employees. The results indicated that job involvement and job satisfaction were positively related and job involvement was negatively related to general anxiety, job satisfaction and general anxiety were negatively related.

Prabhakar (1979) examined the personality pattern of high Vs low job involved individuals and found that the high job involved individuals differed significantly from the low job involved group in four out of the sixteen personality factors Viz., A, F, I and M. in addition, Kamalanabhan and Nirmal (1986) examined the relationship between personality factors, job involvement and adjustment in 81 bank employees who were direct recruit (DR) and promotes (PROs). The results indicated that there were no differences in manifest needs, adjustment patterns or job involvement between DRs and PROs of the bank employees.
Agarwala (1980) describes job involved person as ‘regular’, ‘punctual’ and absents himself only after giving prior notice. He sticks to work and never wastes his sold time excess of work load does not irritate him. He emphasizes meeting deadlines. He is a willing worker. He neither keeps his works pending nor incomplete. He is a perfectionist about his work. He studies at home, is technically sound, is innovative, adheres to rules and regulations and is mindful of company’s interests and has immense sense of responsibility and for him the work is very center of his life. The characteristics of the least involved person are just the opposite.

Singh et al., (1981) found that job involvement was higher among the married and among male subjects in the study. Pestonjee et al., (1981) found that high morale was not to be accompanied by high attitude toward union; workers with lower morale tended to have a high attitude toward the union. Morale and job involvement are co-extensive. In addition, Singh and Srivastava (1984) found that pro-union workers had lower job involvement, whereas, workers having a less favourable attitude towards trade union were highly involved in their job. No difference was found between the white and blue collar workers.

Sasi and Amar (1981) studied 76 intrinsically or extrinsically motivated managers and found that the attitudes of job involvement would be positively correlated with the satisfaction of salient needs only and both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated subjects would be equally job involved, provided their salient needs were met and more job involved than those whose salient needs were not meet.

In a cross-cultural study, Sekharan et al., (1981) studied 569 American and 1,123 Indian government employees and found a greater percentage of variance in job involvement was due to demographic and job characteristics for American subjects than for Indian subjects. It is also said that religious values and philosophy exerted a greater influence on the work orientation and job involvement of Indians.
Singh, et al (1982) studied 150 blue collar industrial workers and found that the performance of high ego-strength subjects was significantly better than the low ego-strength subjects and less alienated subjects showed performance superior to more alienated subjects. So it is indicated that performance was affected by ego-strength and alienation but rather that the level of performance itself affected strength and alienation.

Anantharaman and Shamsbad (1982) studied 10 managers, 50 officers and 100 clerical employees (aged 24-55 years) at a large Indian bank institution and found that there was no difference in job involvement among subjects; all showed high level of involvement Their working conditions, salaries, nature of work were similar for all subjects.

Anantharaman and Kaliappan (1982) investigated the relationship among age, income, tenure, anxiety and job involvement of 46 nurses. The results indicated that age, tenure, anxiety and trait anxiety were positively correlated with job involvement. Santhamani (1982) found with a sample of 65 R & D personnel, evidence of job involvement increasing with increasing levels of satisfaction with motivator variables.

Srivastava and Sinha (1983) studied the effect of employee’s ego-strength and job involvement on their experience of role stress from 120 supervisory and managerial personnel at a large automobile industry. The results indicated that a high level of ego-strength and job involvement minimizes the employees’ experience of role-stress. Ego-strength and job involvement interact to moderate, to marked extent, the effect of three role stressors, viz., role load, role ambiguity and role conflict. In addition, Singh and Mishra (1984) found that there were significant differences between ego-strength of job involvement and job satisfaction.

Preetham (1986) studied 300 supervisors and managers from four industries and found that job involvement was positively correlated with both
age and tenure on the job. Knoop (1986) found that four job factors, viz., satisfaction, motivation, participation in decision-making and satisfaction with supervision collectively accounted for 25 per cent of the variance in job involvement. Job related variables, but not personal, psychological factors, influenced job involvement.

Mehra and Mathur (1986) found that a positive correlation between job involvement, income, number of dependents and tenure. Sex, marital status and organizational level variables had negative relationship with job involvement. Ansari (1986) found that job involvement significantly related to work performance. Singh and Singh (1986) found a positive correlation between job involvement and employee training.

Srinivasan and Kamalanaban (1986) found that no significant relationship was seen between job involvement and leadership behaviour. Singh (1987) found that no significant differences were found between the job involvement scores of supervisors and of their workers.

Rajendran (1987) studied 40 assistants and 40 lower level management personnel and found that organization structure had little effect on job satisfaction and job involvement within levels of the two different organization types but job satisfaction was higher follower level management than for assistants and that managers in quasi-government organizations exercised more control than their government counterparts. Pathak and Pathak (1987) found that managers and engineers showed the greatest job involvement and the variables of age, tenure, and professional education correlated positively with job involvement. Income correlated positively for job involvement for workers. Mishra (1987) found that job involvement scores were related only to job satisfaction, and occupational stress and job satisfaction had a significant negative relationship. Happali and Mallappa (1988) found no significant relationship between job involvement and age, tenure, salary, education, marital status, etc.
Satyachoudary (1988) found that employees working for 1. public and private sectors did not significantly differ on the level of job involvement, 2. no significant differences was seen in the level of job involvement of managers, supervisors and workers of the public sectors, and 3. significant difference was found in the level of job involvement of managers, supervisors and workers of the private sectors.

Reddy and Rajasekhar (1988) used the new measures of Kanungo (1982) to assess the job involvement, work involvement and job satisfaction. The effect of acquisition of additional professional / educational qualifications was also investigated. It is observed that the acquisition of higher professional/educational qualifications do not lead to frustration and less job involvement. Another significant observation was that the clerical aptitude of these employees was very much low.

Premachand Babu and Sivasankara Reddy (1989) found that; 1. the religiosity of employees working for the religious management was higher than that of the employees working for a secular government, 2. working for a religious or for a secular management did not change the protestant work ethic attitude of employees and 3. job involvement of employees working for a religious or for a secular management was more or less the same. Rajasekhar (1989) found that: 1. age and length of service had no influence on the job involvement of clerical employees, 2. acquisition or additional educational qualification had its effect on the job involvement, and 3. men appointed directly as clerical employees were more job involved than promotes.

Kalpana Rani and Reddy (1989) found that single and dual working family males did not significantly differ on job involvement. Vijayalakshmi and Dharnendraiah (1982) found a significant difference between the group of professional men and the group of professional women. Professional men were found to be higher on job involvement than professional women.
Job Involvement and Job Satisfaction

Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) studied 69 working wives and found that job involvement related positively and significantly to job satisfaction, the relative importance of work, the family was not.

Kimmons and Greenhaus (1976) studied that locus of control moderated the relationship between several work characteristics, i.e., autonomy, feedback, performance, reward connections, job involvement and job satisfaction for 193 managers in a large utility company. The results indicated that work characteristics and job satisfaction positively correlated both internals and externals but to small extent.

Gechmen and Wiener (1975) investigated the relationship between job involvement and mental health by studying 54 female elementary school teachers. The results indicated that devoting personal time to work related activities was positively associated with job involvement but not unrelated to job satisfaction and mental health positively related to job satisfaction, but did not correlated significantly with job involvement.

Ruh et al., (1975) found that job involvement was affected by both individual differences and characteristics of the job satisfaction. It may be a poor moderator of relationships between job characteristics and attitudes.

Seal (1977) studied 218 employees of manufacturing company and found modest positive correlations between job involvement and job satisfaction, achievement motivation, etc. small negative relationship between job involvement and level of formal education and absenteeism emerged. Females were slightly more involved in their jobs than males.

Robinowitz and Hall (1977) studied that work outcomes, i.e., satisfaction and performance were closely related to job involvement as were personal and situational variables. Porat (1979) found that supervisory
behaviour affected on job involvement and job satisfaction. In addition, Porat (1980) found a moderate correlation between job involvement, central life interest and job satisfaction.

Chelora and Farr (1980) worked on state government employees and found that job satisfaction and job involvement were inversely related to absenteeism but job involvement was more consistently related to absence behaviour.

Work Involvement

Wahba (1980) stated that self-estrangement in work and no significant correlation with any from of alienation in society. Subjects who viewed work as expressive showed a significant correlation between work alienation and alienation in society. Results showed that the relationship between work alienation and alienation in society was moderated by the magnitude of work alienation.

Korman et al., (1981) presented a theoretical framework that proposes that expectancy did confirmation, contradictory role demands, sense of external control, loss affiliative satisfactions and developmental life changes were significant factors in the personal and social alienation among professional managers.

Hanlon (1986) investigated the relationship between age and commitment to work and job. Items measured were job involvement, work role involvement, non-economic orientation towards work and work effort. Findings show that age had little independent effect on work commitment, job satisfaction and occupational prestige.

Loscocco and Kalleberg (1988) examined the age differences in work commitment and work values as well as their work and non-work determinants in the US and in Japan. Data from managers and workers, aged 21-61 years, showed that older men were more committed to work than younger men in both Japan and US.
Rajasekhar (1989) studied clerical aptitude, job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement of clerical employees and found that work involvement of clerical employees was not influenced by age and length of service. Kalpana Rani and Reddy (1989) examined the impact of locus of control and adjustment of males in single and dual working families in job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement and found that single and dual working families' males did not significantly differ on work involvement.

Reddy (1989) found no significant differences between the age, sex, work experience and locus of control and work involvement. Babu Rao (1993) found that work involvement, organizational climate, emotional adjustment and age of the worker contributed to the work output of older workers in varying degrees.

Gopikumar (1993) studied 330 industrial employees and found that work involvement, job involvement and job satisfaction were inter-related.

Appraisal

The foregoing review of literature indicates the importance of many factors in relation to job satisfaction, job involvement and work involvement. A variety of situations are explored the attention bestowed on the superior-subordinate perceptions and their consequences in relation to job related variables are scanty.

Clerical employees are important in the administrative set-up in any type of organization. It is considered that their perceptions of each other should be studied to understand the dynamics of their functioning and the present study is aimed in this direction.