CHAPTER II

SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATE RELATION IN AN ORGANIZATION AND ITS IMPACT ON VARIOUS JOB RELATED ATTITUDES IS THE MUCH TALKED ABOUT AREA OF RESEARCH IN ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN THE RECENT TIMES. IT IS AN ESTABLISHED FACT THAT THE NATURE OF ORGANIZATIONAL SETTING HAS A LOT OF SAY IN ITS PERSONNEL'S BEHAVIOUR. NOT ONLY THE PHYSICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL SETTING, BUT ALSO ITS PSYCHOLOGICAL FRAMING AND MAKE-UP EXERTS A SIGNIFICANT IMPACT ON THE INTERACTIONS OF SUPERIORS WITH THEIR SUBORDINATES WORKING IN IT. THE FOLLOWING ARE A FEW OF THE STUDIES WHICH FOCUSED THEIR ATTENTION MORE CLOSELY ON DIFFERENT JOB ATTITUDES AND OTHER ORGANIZATIONAL VARIABLES WHICH INFLUENCE THE SUPERIOR-SUBORDINATE RELATIONS.

JOB SATISFACTION

Chronologically, Hoppock (1935) was the first industrial psychologist to provide a logical definition to the concept of job satisfaction. For him, "job satisfaction is a combination of psychological, physiological and environmental
circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job.' Job satisfaction indicates the satisfaction derived from being engaged in a piece of work. It is essentially related to human needs and their fulfilment through work." In fact, job satisfaction is generated by the individual's perception of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs (Sinha, 1972).

Wernimont (1966) investigated the intrinsic and extrinsic factors in job satisfaction and concluded that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors could be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but intrinsic factors were found to be stronger in both cases. Satisfaction variables were not unidirectional in their effects and expectations had a strong influence on the extent of satisfaction with job factors.

Investigating the relation between work values and job satisfaction by employing two groups of airmen, Blood (1969), found that a consistent relationship existing between these two variables and are independent of other variables which influence job satisfaction.

In a study of relationship between job satisfaction and personality characteristics between block development officers in IADP and non-IADP districts, Gnanakannan (1973) found no significant difference between them with regard to
job satisfaction and significant differences were found between job satisfaction and personality characteristics.

Job satisfaction in relation to age of the young blue collar workers was studied by Altemus and Tersine (1973) and found significantly lower satisfaction with work itself, esteem, self-actualisation and total work satisfaction. The perceptions and satisfaction level of young blue collar workers were quite different from older counterparts.

Correlates of job satisfaction in Naval environments were studied by Mc Donald and Gunderson (1974). Demographic, Military status, job and health related variables of 5051 Navy men were correlated with job satisfaction measures. Health related variables were most highly correlated with job satisfaction followed by type of job and seniority.

In a study of job satisfaction among State Executives in the U.S. by Fred and Allan (1975), among executives in 10 state governments, the federal governments and private industry it was found that the state executives were more satisfied with their jobs than either federal governments and business executives.

The relationship between organizational levels and job satisfaction was examined by Saiyadain (1977) by using Porter's Need Satisfaction Questionnaire (PNSQ) and job satisfaction
inventory among 84 employees from 4 organizationally adjacent levels from the same unit of an organization. The results suggest homogeneity of satisfaction scores among 4 levels on all components of the PNSQ except social. Findings are explained in terms of ecological constraints.

The culture and social background to which one belongs to was also found to be influencing his level of job satisfaction. Jorapur (1977) found that Indian workers are more satisfied with work and working conditions than wages or opportunity for advancement than Western workers. Occupational hierarchy and job satisfaction were positively related both for Indian and Western workers. The less educated appear to be more satisfied than the more educated.

Glenn, Taylor and Weaver (1977) in a national sample survey of White male and female respondents observed a moderate but consistent positive correlation between age and job satisfaction for both sexes.

Andrisani (1978) investigated the job satisfaction of 5000 women in the age group of 30-40 years and found a decline in their job satisfaction, especially among continuously employed.

Weaver (1977) found effect of work autonomy, sex and education on job satisfaction of the blacks and whites, but family
income, supervisory position and occupational prestige correlated with job satisfaction among Whites only. In another longitudinal study Weaver (1980) found that Blacks were less satisfied than Whites with their jobs.

Singh and Singh (1980) studied the effect of certain social and personal factors on job satisfaction of supervisors. They reported that subjects below 30 years of age, had high job satisfaction (which dipped between 30-40 years of age) as did subjects over 40 years age. Low income subjects had the least job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was found to be greater during the first two years of employment with a decline in the middle and an increase again with experience. Hunt and Saul (1977) and Srivastava (1978) found age and length of service to be positively related with job satisfaction. Age, teaching aptitude and experience affect job satisfaction was noticed by Gupta and Nisha (1979).

Bergmann's (1981) study of multidimensional approach to job satisfaction among 1158 managers from three organizations using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Results revealed that structural characteristics of hierarchical level had the most significant pervasive effect on Managers' job satisfaction and indicated a very strong relationship between satisfaction with personal progress and development and overall job satisfaction.
Tandon and Dhawan (1981) examined the relationship between age and job satisfaction among employees engaged in two different occupations. The analyses of data revealed that the sources of satisfaction were different for Blue collar and White collar employees for the same age group. Moreover, in both groups the younger and older employees differed significantly on their job satisfaction.

Bernard and Gerhard (1981) investigated the relationship between motivational factors and job satisfaction and found that older workers had a lower need for growth and were more satisfied than younger workers. Education was positively correlated with need for growth but had no difference on extrinsic aspiration.

Ann and his associates (1986) examined aspects of job satisfaction as reported by 98 female child care workers (aged 17-65 years). Results indicated that most of the subjects are satisfied with their jobs, having good relations with parents, and teachers and having above average success in their jobs. Subjects with higher levels of education and experience are more satisfied.

A positive relationship between the job level or status of the worker's job and his job satisfaction has been reported by a large number of investigators (Uhrbrock, 1934; Hoppock,
1935; Thorndike, 1935; Super, 1939; Miller, 1941; Paterson and Stone, 1942; Heron, 1948; Centers, 1948; Katz, 1949; Morse, 1953; Gurin, Veroff and Feld, 1960; Kornhauser, 1964).

The relationship among job level, educational level, salary, future prospects, age, seniority and job satisfaction were studied by Frances (1986) with 233 company managers. The results revealed that education levels in similar proportion in all job levels and job satisfaction decreased with an increase in job level. More educated staff were significantly more senior than the less educated staff. Specific areas of relative dissatisfaction in the less educated staff are reported.

A study of job satisfaction of 504 female principals and 331 Vice-principals in Texas Public schools by Mary (1987) found that both viewed themselves as more satisfied with their jobs, principals significantly more satisfied than vice-principals. Both groups assigned greater importance to intrinsic job characteristics than extrinsic. It was found that personal characteristics age, marital status, number of children, race and aspiration level had significant effects on job satisfaction, whereas, education level, tenure and job level did not show significant effects.

The findings of path analyses by Chang (1989) on the
effects of education on job satisfaction of women in Taiwan were: (1) women with more education were non-motivated and were more satisfied with their jobs, because they were more egalitarian oriented, (2) older women with more children, earning less were less satisfied with their jobs, (3) women whose income were not necessary to support their families were more satisfied with their jobs than those whose incomes were necessary to support their families.

A cross cultural study of Bureaucratic orientation and job satisfaction was conducted by Jayalakshmi (1982). By administering Job Satisfaction Index and Work Environment Preference Schedule to 158 teachers from 9 higher technological institutions in India and to 50 teachers from 4 British Institutions, she found no significant correlation between job satisfaction and bureaucratic orientation in either culture. However, a significant correlation was found between bureaucratic orientation and job involvement. Indian subjects reported more of a bureaucratic orientation and greater job involvement than their British counterparts.

Testing attribution model, Jain and Preetam (1986) studied perceived causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, with 50 supervisors and operators of a telephone exchange and 35 supervisors and workers in a plastic industry. The results
showed that both supervisors and operators were satisfied with work, co-workers and supervision and dissatisfied with pay and promotion. Job satisfaction was attributed to be stable, internal and controllable.

Work Involvement and Job Involvement

The idea of viewing job involvement as a performance self-esteem contingency can be traced back to the work of Allport (1947) on the psychology of participation and ego involvement. The process of ego involvement in work has been a concern of both psychologists such as a Allport (1947) and sociologists such as Huges (1958) and Dubin (1958). The psychologists have tended to focus on organizational conditions that lead to job involvement. The sociologists have been more concerned with the aspects of the socialization process that lead to the incorporation of work relevant norms and values in the person.

After an exhaustive review of all definitions of job involvement in psychological literature, Rabinowizt and Hall (1977) concluded that the definitions of job involvement should be grouped into two categories, each representing a distinct way of conceptualizing the constructs. One category of definitions views job involvement as a 'performance-self-esteem contingency.' According to these definitions, job involvement is the extent to which the self-esteem of
individuals is affected by their level of performance at work. Thus the higher or lower job involvement means higher or lower self-esteem derived from work behaviour. The other category of definitions views job involvement as a 'component of self-image'. According to this category of definitions job involvement refers to the degree to which individuals identify psychologically with their jobs.

The length of time that a person has been on a job has something to do with job involvement. Schneider, Hall and Nygren (1971) using a sample of 141 U.S. Forest Service professionals found no relationship between length of service and job related variables.

On one hand, Jones, James and Bruni (1975) found a relation between job involvement and age and on the other hand Lodahl and Keiger (1965) found no relationship between age and involvement. Working for an organization over a period of time may lead to loyalty towards that organization. Usually, a senior employee in an organisation will have a better understanding of the problems faced by the management and will go with the management. This perhaps leads to more job involvement. Theoretically it is true but in reality it may or may not borne out to be true.

Sharma and Kapoor (1978) studied demographic variables in
relation to job involvement in a sample of White collar workers, clerks and office assistants employed in public service department. The findings showed that job level, age, salary and length of service were positively associated with job involvement.

Several researchers studied the relationship between demographic variables and job involvement and reported a positive relationship (Aldag and Brief, 1975; Newman, 1975; Steers, 1975; Cherrington, et al, 1979). Some studies reported no relationship (Gechman and Weiner, 1975; Mitchell, et al, 1975; Ivancevich and Mc Mahon, 1977; Bigoness, 1978), and yet some others reported a negative relationship (Lefkowitz, 1974; Taylor and Thompson, 1976).

Age, tenure, state anxiety and trait anxiety were positively correlated with job involvement in Anantharaman and Kalippan's (1982) study. Various demographic variables were found to be influencing a person's involvement in his job. Several studies have reported a positive relation between job involvement and personal variables, such as, age, length of service, education, salary, etc. (Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Anantharaman, 1980; Khandelwal, 1986; and Pathak, et al, 1987). However, Happli and Mallappa (1988) obtained no significant correlation between job involvement, age, length of service,
salary, education, marital status among bank employees. Job involvement was positively related to age according to Lorence and Mortimes (1985).

Das (1983) reported that employees who had experience in between 10 to 15 years in the middle management level, had significantly lower job involvement than those at the higher and junior levels.

Knoop (1986) studied the relationship of 7 personal (e.g., age, sex, marital status) and 7 job (e.g., satisfaction, motivation, closeness of supervision) factors on job involvement of 926 secondary school teachers. Analyses gave 4 job predictors - satisfaction, motivation, participation in decision-making and satisfaction with supervision that collectively accounted for 28% of the variance in job involvement. Job related variables but not personal psychological factors influenced job involvement. Premchand Babu (1986) investigated the contribution of age, education, marital status, number of dependents, salary, length of service to job involvement and found none of them significantly contributing to job involvement.

While looking for the age differences in work involvement using a cross-sectional and panel data of the quality of employment surveys, Lorence (1987) found that job characteristi
determine the psychological involvement of job, whereas, the developmental aging influences the overall subjective commitment to the job. However, it is suggested that the effects of age on the general work role may vary by gender and occupation.

With a sample of 80 professional subjects (40 men and 40 women) Vijayalakshmi and Dharnendraiah (1992) studied the job involvement in relation to length of service and socio-economic status. The results revealed a significant difference between the two groups. Professional men were found to have higher job involvement than professional women.

Siegel and Ruh (1973) studied 2530 employees of six midwestern manufacturing concerns and found no significant relationship between education and job involvement.

The study of job involvement in four occupational groups by Neelam (1978) with 40 government school teachers, 25 private school teachers, 30 office clerks and 25 nurses showed that nurses were significantly more involved than the other groups and the effects of religion and educational background and the needs for autonomy, responsibility and status achievements were not significant.

Gerald and Kanungo (1980) study revealed that managers with salient extrinsic needs are as likely to be involved in
their jobs as managers with salient extrinsic needs, provided their salient extrinsic needs are met. The managers with sa-
lient extrinsic needs seem to experience greater satisfaction and consequently more job involved than managers with salient
intrinsic needs.

Rabinowitz and Hall (1981) found that career stages, i.e.
early, middle and late careers moderate the relationship of
job involvement with job characteristics, situational vari-
ables and individual differences. Anantharaman and Begum (1982)
found no differences among bank employees, i.e., managers
(N = 10), officers (N = 50) and clerks (N = 100) with regard
to the job involvement. All of them showed high job involve-
ment.

Singh (1987) examined the effect of occupational level
on job involvement in industrial personnel (100 supervisors
and 100 workers) and indicated that there was no significant
difference between job involvement scores of supervisors and
those of workers.

Chowdhry (1988) studied 120 managers, supervisors and
workers of public and private organizations on job involve-
ment. Significant differences in the level of job involve-
ment of managers, supervisors and workers of the private sec-
tor were noticed.
Need satisfaction and job involvement among 25 supervisors and 50 workers in a private sector organization were investigated by Agarwala and Chadha (1989). It was found that the supervisors were higher as compared to workers in their need satisfaction and job involvement. They had significantly higher strength on security, social, ego and self-actualisation needs as compared to workers. However, the workers were found to be significantly more job involved than the supervisors.

Gechman and Weiner (1975) studied 54 female elementary school teachers and concluded that devoting personal time to work related activities was positively associated with job involvement, unrelated to job satisfaction but did not correlate significantly with involvement leading to the assumption that job satisfaction and job involvement are separate and distinct job attitudes.

By using different scales, several investigators reported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement among different populations (Gannon and Hendrickson, 1973; Batlis, 1978; Sharma and Sharma, 1978; Porat, 1979 and 1980; Santhamani, 1983; Verma and Upadhyay, 1986).

Misra, et al. (1985) tested the cross-cultural implications of the Kanungo's (1982) motivational formulation and
measurement of job and work involvement constructs. During 1981 data on job instrumentation, satisfaction, involvement and work involvement were obtained from West German managers, bureaucrats and technocrats. In 1982-83, same data was obtained from Indian executives and bureaucrats. Results suggest that the reliability and validity of new job and work involvement measures obtained in West German and Indian contexts generally supported the results reported in Canadian context by Kanungo (1982). The cross-national generalizability of predictions derived from the motivational formulation was also supported.

Kanungo, Misra & Dayal (1975) in their study among industrial employees in India proposed that employees' attitude of job involvement can act as a moderator variable and can influence the employees' cognitive evaluation of the importance of various job factors. Job involvement influences neither actual satisfaction on the job nor the strength of the employees' various needs.

Kanungo (1982) examined the relationships of job satisfaction to job and work involvement and reported that job satisfaction measures have a stronger relationship to job involvement measures than to work involvement measures.
Organizational Climate

Much research effort has been expanded in assessing the construct 'organizational climate' from as early as 1970's. The idea of organizational climate appears to refer to an attribute or set of attributes of work environment. But serious doubts were raised about the ambiguity of the idea of 'perceived organizational climate'. Guion (1973) in his study of organizational climate, doubts whether it implies an attribute of the organization or of the perceiving individual. If it refers to the organization then measures of perceived organizational climate should be evaluated in terms of the accuracy of the perceptions. If it refers to individual, then perceived organizational climate may simply be a different name for job satisfaction on employee attitude. The following study supports the second assumption. Whether this construct is independent from work attitudes was studied by Johannesson (1973) using perceptual self-report questionnaire. Employing the work attitude measures and 90 organizational climate items on 499 employees, the author found substantial redundancy of climate factors with regard to work attitude factors. He further suggested that assessing climate via perceptual self-report measures may result in the replication of the work attitude literature. In this case a high positive correlation could be expected between perception of organization
climate and work attitudes.

While investigating the relationship of organizational climate to organization structure, process and performance, employing 117 directors and 291 scientists from 21 organizations, Lawler, Hall and Oldham (1974) found that several organizational process variables were significantly related to the climate of the organization as perceived by scientists. Perceived climate in turn was shown to be significantly related to measures of organization performance and to the job satisfaction. These results are in support with the findings of the foregoing study. While studying some correlates of perception of organizational climate among teachers Jayalaxmi (1981) found a positive significant correlation with the overall perception of organizational climate and overall need satisfaction and perception of supervisory style.

William and John (1982) investigated the impact of climate discrepancy on performance and satisfaction correlates employing 178 foremen. It was found that climate discrepancy was the better predictor of work satisfaction, whereas, membership in aggregate organization climates were identified on the basis of similarity of multidimensional psychological climates. The authors discussed implications for refining the concept of psychological and organizational climate.
How workers with different levels of productivity perceive their organizational climate was examined by Narayanan and Venkatachalam (1982). Employing two groups of 15 workers each with high and low productivity levels, the authors found that perception of climate by workers of different productivity levels would differ and such differences would be mediated through the vulnerability of the items of climate described emotionally.

The moderating flow of work context in job design research was examined by Geerald (1984) using 94 female nurses. Results support the notion that organizational climate moderate the relationship between job complexity and satisfaction. Srivastava and Pratap (1984) found significant relationship between organizational climate and job satisfaction of 35 executives and 65 supervisors. Sagar and Devendar (1989) with 50 officers and 50 subordinates found that organizational climate was positively related to job satisfaction.

The influence of different organizational variables—structure, personality and climate on interpersonal relations was investigated by Mohan and Anita (1986). Employing 83 middle managers the authors found a significant relationship between climate characteristics and personality and between climate and interpersonal relations.
A comparative study of organizational climate by Srivas-
tava (1986) reveals that civil servants possessed a stronger belief than bank employees that their organizations were democratic.

Rajendran (1987) studied the job satisfaction, job invol-
vement and perceived organizational climate among the 40 assistants and 40 lower level managerial personnel in govern-
ment and quasi government agencies. Results indicate that organization structure had little effect on job satisfaction within the levels of the two different organizational types, but job satisfaction was higher for lower level management than for assistants and that managers in quasi government organizations exercised more control than their government counterparts.

Sharma & Sharma (1989) examined the relationships of organizational climate, job satisfaction and job anxiety with 50 officers and 50 subordinates. The findings revealed that: 1. officers and their subordinates do not differ in their perceptions of overall organizational climate as well as on five out of its six dimensions. 2. overall organizational climate is positively related to job satisfaction.

The climate of an organization is determined, at least partially, by the belief structure of the culture was studied
by Mc Intyre-Ray & Barbara (1990). Hierarchial level appeared to affect one's perception of organization climate, while age had no apparent affect on perception. Employee satisfaction with supervision, co-workers' task, promotional opportunities and work in general, affected the perception of climate while results of satisfaction with pay were mixed. Tenure affected perception negatively.

Organization climate plays a role in the performance of the employees was recognised in the study of Barry and Dennis (1987) among public and private sector managers.

Bassou (1989) concluded from his study that: 1. a difference exists between the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding school climate in Indiana high schools. 2. in some schools principals and teachers tended to perceive the school climate as being different (close/open), 3. the school climate as perceived by principals and teachers did not indicate significant differences regarding the size of school and 4. the school climate as perceived by principals and teachers did not indicate significant differences regarding the population make up of the school.

Rengstorff (1990) studied the relationship of organizational climate to the demographic characteristics of teachers. The results revealed that the climates of all five junior
high schools were perceived as closed by their staff, number of years of teaching in building, total experience, sex, marital status and spouse employment as a public school teacher had no significant relation to the climate perception of teachers. Subject area, age, level of education were significant.

Laharia (1992) studied the organizational climate and productivity of farm scientists and stated that dominant climate of the organization was 'dependency' type. There was no influence of macro climate but the departmental climate has an impact on the productivity. Achievement type climate had significantly higher productivity. However, they preferred 'power' type climate.

Ahalya and Rama (1984) with 238 American and 247 Indian employees studied the relation between organizational variables and job satisfaction. Regression analyses showed that leadership style, tenure, communication, pay, security and participation in decision making were significant components of job satisfaction for American subjects, whereas, recognition and advancement, innovation and change, age and absence of inter- and intra-departmental conflicts were found to be the significant correlates of job satisfaction in Indian subjects.
Influence Strategies - Leadership Styles

The concept of superior-subordinate relations is not in an easy reach of empirical examination. The nature and extent of their interactions and relations can only be inferred from their organizational behaviour and performance. Different organizational settings with different organizational climates will pave way for different types of relations among the employees of different job levels. These relations exert significant impact on the job aspects like - work involvement, job involvement, job satisfaction and the perception of organizational climate. Some related studies conducted on these lines are presented in the following pages.

With 124 middle and first level supervisors, Hill (1973) measured subordinate's perception of their leaders' ability to use different leadership styles. 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. These results persisted when respondents were subdivided on the basis of both organizational level and functional area.

Downey, John and John (1975) tested two propositions: 1. the more unstructured the task, the more positive the relationships between leader initiating structure and
subordinate job satisfaction and performance and 2. the more unconstrued the task, the less positive the relationship between leader consideration and subordinate job satisfaction and performance. The correlations did not support the first proposition. Measures of leader behaviour, task structure, subordinate performance, expectancies and satisfaction provided weak support for the path goal theory of leader effectiveness in the study of Downey, Sheridan & Slocum (1976).

Mc Fillen (1978) with 90 subjects tested the influence of supervisory power on supervisor-subordinate relations and found subordinate performance, but not supervisory power, consistently affected a subject's actions.

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 organisations as studied by Durand and Nord (1976).

Keller and Szilagyi (1975) studied relationship between positive leader rewards and employee role conflict and ambiguity, expectancies and job satisfaction. The results showed positive leader rewards to be more strongly related to role and satisfaction variables, whereas, punitive leader rewards were strongly related to performance expectancy.
The relationship between self and superior ratings of performance was investigated by Baird (1977) and found that the difference between the two ratings was found to be related to the subordinates' self-esteem and his satisfaction with his supervision.

Leader consideration and subordinate role ambiguity, singly or jointly are associated with subordinate job satisfaction. Valenzi and Dessler (1978) found strong correlations between some of the leadership scales and saloon profits, sales increase, performance ratings, subordinate satisfaction and role ambiguity.

Anne and Charles (1989) conducted a field study with 272 superior-subordinate dyads and produced the results supporting the notion that increasing dissimilarity in superior-subordinate demographic characteristics is associated with lower effectiveness as perceived by superiors, less personal attraction on the part of superiors for subordinates and increased role ambiguity experienced by subordinates. Leadership behaviour was strongly related to subordinates' job satisfaction (Petty and Nealia, 1980; Klimoski and Hayes, 1980; Yoshihiko, 1981; Ayman and Chamos, 1983; Mathew, 1988).

Situational determinants of supervisor attributions and behaviour was studied by Mc Fillen (1979), and found only
subordinate performance was found to affect consistently the supervisors' perceptions of subordinate performance and the allocation of incentives and subsequent supervision.

Wexley, et al. (1980) examined the relationship of both actual similarity and perceptual congruence with job satisfaction and performance evaluations of 194 manager–subordinate dyads and found that congruence between the subordinates' description of manager and the manager's self-description was significantly correlated to manager's evaluation of subordinate's job performance. The relation between the reward and punishment strategies used by the leaders and the subordinate's performance and satisfaction was investigated by Philip, et al. (1982). Only performance contingent behaviour was found to affect subordinate performance significantly. Positive relationships were found between leader contingent reward behaviour and employee satisfaction. Punishment had no effect on subordinate performance or satisfaction.

Job satisfaction as mediated by the value congruity of supervisors and their subordinates was studied by Bruce (1982) using 48 supervisors and 337 subordinates who indicated higher job satisfaction in terms of work and supervision, but not in terms of pay and co-workers. The subordinates had value structures significantly more similar to those of supervisors than those evidencing lower satisfaction.
While studying conformity to communication in supervisor-subordinate dyads Michael (1985) found that subordinates who perceived their supervisor to be conforming and also perceived their communication with supervision to be more satisfying and reported more job satisfaction.

The role of perceived supervisory influence in subordinate satisfaction on male and female managers was examined by Trempe, et al. (1985). The results showed that the degree of influence had a significant impact on the dependent variable, whereas the gender based variables did not.

Finger (1985) studied the relationship between the leadership style of the quasi-administrator and teacher job satisfaction employing 131 elementary teachers and found that teachers who perceived their quasi administrators as being high in both initiating structure and consideration would have greater degree of job satisfaction than those teachers who perceived their quasi administrators as having any other leadership style. Age was not found to be related to teacher job satisfaction.

The relation between leadership style and job satisfaction among human service workers was studied by Shirley (1985) employing 62 administrators and 233 line workers. The major findings were, democratic leadership tended to promote higher job satisfaction and was related to extrinsic aspects such as
salary, career progress and advancement, collegial environment and attitude toward supervisors. Intrinsic job satisfaction which meets psychological needs such as self-actualisation was not affected by leadership style or leader control. Leader control influenced extrinsic job satisfaction. As leader control increased extrinsic job satisfaction decreased. Personal attributes such as age, level of education, years of professional experience, years in organization and present position did not influence job satisfaction. Further as age and level of education increased extrinsic job satisfaction decreased.

Louise (1987) with 393 management personnel, supervisors and personnel managers found no significant relationship between effectiveness and satisfaction and between style and satisfaction of entire sample. But he found significant relationship between the effectiveness and satisfaction of the relationship oriented and task oriented leaders.

The relationship between supervisor-subordinate learning style difference and subordinate's satisfaction with supervision was studied by Herbert (1989). He found no significant relationship between the degree of difference in learning style between supervisor and subordinate and the subordinates' satisfaction with supervision, but indicated a significant relationship between one learning style type and satisfaction with the job in general.
Charles (1989) emphasized the effect of leadership style and work setting on the job satisfaction of teachers of the 133 trainable mentally impaired subjects. The results of factorial analysis of variance comparing the variables of leadership style, work setting and job satisfaction found significant differences between leadership styles and satisfaction with the more adaptable administrators, resulting in higher job satisfaction. There were no significant interaction effects between leadership style and work setting.

Byron (1989) with 627 teachers and principals indicated that teacher job satisfaction was highest in large schools. High consideration leadership styles were related to the development of high levels of teacher job satisfaction and teacher rapport with the principal and high consideration and high initiating structure leadership styles were related to the highest levels of teacher rapport with the principal.

Hall (1987) focussed his study on how 16 public school principals perceived their relationship style as related to the perceptions of their teachers, superintendents and principals with whom they worked. The principals identified their dominant style of leadership as high task/high relationship. The superintendents and peer principals identified the dominant leadership style of the principals as high task/high relationship.
Henry's (1990) study on leadership styles of principals and teacher job satisfaction revealed that the majority of the principals (79%) perceived themselves as having multiple styles of leadership with a high relationship orientation while 86% of the teachers perceived their principals as exhibiting multiple styles of leadership with a high relationship orientation. Teachers overwhelmingly expressed satisfaction with the leadership styles of their principal.

The role of modelling in organizational socialisation in subordinate initiation of supervisor behaviours was studied by Weiss (1977) with 141 pairs of superiors and subordinates in seven organizations and results provided support for the social learning theory predictions. The degree of behaviour similarity displayed by subordinates and their direct superiors was positively correlated with subordinate's perceptions of their superior's success and competence. Behaviour similarity was unrelated to perceptions of superior reward power.

Buckner's (1985) leadership behaviour of selected middle school principals in Ohio study concluded that: 1. middle school principals and their teachers agreed upon the ideal leadership behaviour that middle school administrators should exhibit, 2. middle school teachers tended to rate their principals lower in actual leadership behaviour than the principals rated themselves, 3. there was no significant relationship
between leadership style of middle school principals and the management style fostered by superintendents, 4. curricular offerings within the middle schools had no relationships to the leadership behaviour of their principals.

Supervisory styles and psychological well-being of managers in work situations by Singh (1992) with 200 managers, revealed significant difference in their well-being scores in two different organizational settings. Perceived supervisory styles, especially authoritarian and nurturant-task, emerged as definite contributors to the well-being of managers in either of the situation. Hierarchial level did not matter much.

Ansari and Kapoor (1987) studied organizational context and influence tactics using 69 male undergraduates. Subjects participated in role playing situations, and were assigned to superiors with particular leadership styles as well as given influence attempt goals. Results showed that: a. influence strategies used by subjects varied as a function of goals sought from superiors, b. influence strategies were significantly affected by the superiors' leadership styles and c. only one significant interaction between the leadership behaviour and influence attempt goals, i.e., on blocking strategy was noted.

Porter (1987) studied school climate and teachers'
perceptions of principals' uses of power strategies and found that the principals were perceived to use a combination of power strategies but not all equal. Rationality was the most frequently used power strategy followed by ingratiation, upward appeal, coalition, exchange, assertiveness and sanctions. There were significant differences between the principals' use of rationality, ingratiation, assertiveness and sanctions and the school climate profiles. The pattern of using these power strategies appeared to affect teachers' perceptions of the schools' climate. The more open teachers perceived schools' organizational climates the more teachers perceived principals to use rationality, ingratiation, coalition and exchange. The more closed teachers perceived the schools' climates the more often teachers perceived principals to use assertiveness and sanctions. Principals' trust and consideration behaviours were related to perceptions of principals' use of rationality, ingratiation, coalitions, exchange, assertiveness and sanctions. Principals' aloofness and production emphasis behaviours were related to their use of upward appeal, assertiveness and sanctions.

Thomas, et al. (1988) studied how managers influence superiors through upward influence tactics with 145 successful and 126 unsuccessful attempts by superiors, middle managers and top managers revealed that successful attempts were more
likely to include supporting data and documentation that were failures. Persistence and repetition were also likely to find success. It is suggested that successful attempts at upward influence involve a combination of several tactics including thorough preparation and gathering support from other employees, while unsuccessful attempts involve only a single tactic.

The relationship between upward influence and job satisfaction among sport management personnel in Saudi Arabia was studied by Abdulkader (1988). Data from 186 managers and their subordinates revealed that when the degree of use of assertiveness, bargaining, coalition and frindliness, increased the job satisfaction of the influence agent decreased and the personal goals, organizational goals and evaluation of superiors have a significant effect on the relationship between the degree of use of the reason strategy and job satisfaction.

Barry and James (1988) examined the relationship between leadership and credibility using the responses of 998 subordinates of 148 senior managers and found three dimensions of credibility trust worthiness, expertise and dynamism were significantly correlated with 5 behavioural practices of leaders - challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modelling the way and encouraging the heart.
Ansari (1988) studied the moderating effect of organisational climate on leadership styles and influence strategies using 440 managers. The results indicated that climate did appear to represent an important moderator of relationship. Participative managers reported greater use of influence strategies like coalition and manipulation for their subordinates and ingratiation and exchange of their boss in an unfavourable climate. They reported greater use of personalised 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. While influencing the subordinates, bureaucrats used assertiveness in an unfavourable climate.

Singh (1988) examined the behavioural strategies for influencing immediate superiors using 198 managers. Most of the power strategies that they opted for were soft and subtle. The need for power emerged as a significant factor in deciding almost all power strategies, followed by the basis of power. Coercive power was found to be a potent determinant for the use of power strategies.

Ronald (1988) investigated the political nature of leadership by examining the association of the 'task–people
leadership' approach with strategies used by subordinates to influence their superiors with 48 faculty members of a school. As perceived 'task-centered leadership' increased, subjects reported significantly greater use of bargaining, assertiveness, higher authority and coalition as strategies to influence their superiors. As the perceived level of people-centered leadership behaviour rose, subordinates reported a significantly decreased use of bargaining and higher authority as influence strategies during the 1st influence attempts.

Kochar and Kochar (1988) studied the patterns of upward communication among managers of organizational hierarchies with 104 managers (52 superiors and their 52 respective subordinates). The results indicated that in organizational hierarchies, the stronger the mobility needs among managers the less accurately they communicate work related information. And the less trust they hold for their immediate superiors, the greater is the tendency toward inaccurate communication.

Ansari, Kanika and Uma (1989) studied organizational context and leader's use of influence strategies. He found, while climate had little or no impact, subordinate performance influenced significantly two of the nine influence strategies - positive sanctions and withdrawal. Further, the data indicated that the use of strategies was a function of the interaction between subordinates' performance and leader-member relationship
Bruce, Elizabeth and Cheryl (1989) made use of data from 191 production workers, their 17 supervisors and 13 managers and found that 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 worker's tenure. However, its effect on organization commitment was more pronounced for longer tenured employees.

Mary (1990) found significant correlation between the leadership behaviour characteristics of supervision, pay and people on present job and found significant relation between perceived leadership behaviour characteristics of initiating structure and supervision on present job. Overall, the job satisfaction dimension of supervision on present job appeared to have higher correlation with perceived school superintendents leader behaviour than with any of the other job satisfaction characteristics. Results also indicated a tendency for the leader behaviour characteristics of consideration to have an impact on more aspects of job satisfaction for males and the leader behaviour characteristics of initiating structure to have strong impact on job satisfaction.

In a cross-cultural investigation of Sivasankara Reddy, Peterson (1992) found that Indian managers use more written rules, and superiors' opinions than do US or Japanese managers.
Most of the research studies reviewed, reported that job satisfaction, job performance of the employees are significantly influenced by the superior or leader behaviour. Further, there is evidence to believe that these variables depend on the organizational climate and power strategies employed by the top managers. A positive relationship is observed by many of the researchers between the variables of employees' job satisfaction and their job level. Eventhough, literature related to these organizational and job attitudes is exhaustive, many of the studies portray the controversy and limitations that the majority of them were subjected to. Moreover, many of the job attitudes were studied individually. It appears that significant efforts have not been made by many researchers to findout the cumulative effect of leadership styles and strategies on different job related and organizational dimensions. Hence, in the present investigation a modest attempt is made in this direction to fill this gap.