Chapter - II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

As mentioned in Chapter I, the present investigation was undertaken to study the influence of organizational culture, dependence proneness, rigidity-flexibility on need satisfaction. More specifically, the present research investigates the influence of different degrees of these independent variables i.e. (organization culture, dependence proneness, and rigidity flexibility) on the dependent variable i.e. (need satisfaction).

In this chapter an attempt has been made to review some of the relevant studies which bear directly or indirectly on the problem. The chapter is divided into three sections.

The first section reviews those studies which focus on some of the researches showing direct or indirect relations of organizational culture with need-satisfaction. The second section of this chapter is devoted to the review of those studies that demonstrate a direct or indirect relation between dependent proneness and need-satisfaction. The third section reviews those studies which focus on some of the relevant investigations showing direct or indirect relationship between rigidity flexibility and need satisfaction.

Section-I

Maier (1946) studied different groups of employees having attitudes towards various incentives in the work situation. The findings revealed that security was the most important incentive for all groups, and opportunity for advancement was found second in the hierarchy of
relative importance of various incentives. Good hours and easy work on the other hand has been given relatively less importance.

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957) reviewed the literature on a variety of variables, which they subsumed under the heading of "job attitude" and came to the conclusion that there was a difference in the primacy of factors, depending upon whether the investigator was looking for things the worker liked about his job or things he disliked. This finding suggests that there were some factors that were "satisfiers" and others were "dissatisfiers".

Robinson and Hoppock (1951, 1952) collected data on 191 assorted studies reporting percentage of job dissatisfaction. A summary of many previous studies on job satisfaction suggested that two-third of the studies revealed that less than one-third of the workers were dissatisfied. This may be attributed to poor working condition, lack of opportunity to use ideas, and to learn job.

Ganguli (1964) has compiled results from three studies on Indian workers with the objective to determine the ranking of various job factors, that could contribute to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of employees in their work. It was found that Indian workers consistently ranked adequate earnings at number one. Job security and opportunity for advancement were other factors which were ranked high by Indian workers, where as job status and prestige were ranked low as motivators in the work situation.
Srivastava and Pratap (1964) studied job satisfaction and organizational climate among executives and supervisors. They reported a significant positive relationship between the overall climate and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was also found related to various individual dimensions of organizational climate such as leadership, communication interaction influence in decision making, goal-setting and control.

Slocum (1971) Hochwarter et al. (1999) compared the need satisfaction of first line supervisors with top and middle managers and related need satisfaction to job-performance. The findings provided support to Porter and Lawler's model relating need-satisfaction to performance but partially supported the hypothesis that satisfaction of higher order needs is more closely related to top managers performance than satisfaction of higher order needs for lower managerial personnel.

Irris and Bartlett (1972) remarked that job satisfaction is contributing factor for overall life satisfaction of the workers. Pritichard and Kararick (1973) have studied job satisfaction with several dimensions of climate. They reported co-operation, the social relations structure, level of reward, achievement, performance-reward, dependency flexibility, innovation and supportiveness as positively related while status polarization and centralization of decision making are negatively related with job satisfaction. Moreover, autonomy and satisfaction have not been found related.
Pathak (1977) has observed that among public sector bank employees' job satisfaction increased with age and education. However, positive relationship between education and job satisfaction was observed only among lower level employees.

Sharma and Kappoor (1978) observed that job level, age, salary and experience were found to be positively related to job involvement while education was negatively related with the same.

Kumar and Bohra (1979) reported higher job satisfaction among employee who perceived the organizational climate as democratic than those who perceived the same climate as autocratic.

Anantharaman & Subha (1980) made an attempt to find out the relationship between job involvement and need satisfaction and also between job-involvement and organizational climate. They found that there is no relationship between job involvement and satisfaction of various needs except self-actualization need. Moreover they found no relationship between job involvement and the various dimensions of organizational climate.

Sen's (1981) findings were different as far as job satisfaction and climate were concerned. In his study on bank employees; he found that climate has negative correlation with job satisfaction.

Subha & Anantharaman (1981) made an attempt to find out the relationship between satisfaction of needs and perception of organizational climate among 75 managers. It was found that there was
a feeling of deficiency in fulfilment of needs. The correlations between need satisfaction and organizational climate variables were all negative. This shows that when needs are not satisfied the perception of organizational climate becomes negative.

Job satisfaction has also been studied in relation to organizational climate. The studies reviewed revealed that autonomy and participation have been positively related to general satisfaction and satisfaction with work, pay, supervision, co-workers, promotion and growth (Spector 1982).

Anantharaman & Subha (1982) investigated the influence of personal factors such as age, education, income and tenure on need-satisfaction and need importance in 75 managers (27-45 yrs). The findings revealed that there were discrepancy between perceived need-satisfaction and need importance among subjects. Younger subjects were more dissatisfied with security and autonomy and older subjects were more dissatisfied with self-esteem. All subjects were dissatisfied with self-actualization needs.

Janak and Diwani (1983) undertook a study on "satisfaction among Bank employees". The results revealed that job-satisfaction and official hierarchy were positively related in which managers were most satisfied with their job, accountants came next and clerks, who were lowest in the hierarchy were least satisfied.
Khandelwal (1986) measured the importance of need satisfaction among supervisors and managers. The findings indicated greater deficiency in the fulfilment of all higher order needs as compared to lower order needs for both the groups. However, significant differences were found between these two groups regarding felt deficiency in three needs area viz. social, esteem and autonomy. No difference between these two groups regarding perceived need importance in any of the need areas were found. Greatest importance was placed on higher order needs by both the groups.

Rajendra (1987) reported significant correlation between organizational climate and job satisfaction, a public sector industry in Tamil Nadu.

Sagar and Devender (1989) examined the relationship of organizational climate with job satisfaction and job anxiety on groups of 50 officers and 50 subordinates working in different units of an institution. They found that organizational climate was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to job anxiety in both officers and their subordinates. Their correlations were stronger for subordinate in the leadership and communication dimensions and stronger for officers in the interaction influence decision making, and goal-setting dimensions of organizational climate.

Hemalatha and Radhai (1990) in their study made an attempt to find out the extent of job satisfaction among executive and
supervisors and also to identify the factors that promote job-satisfaction. The results revealed that supervisors have greater job satisfaction than the executives. Majority of the executives have low level of job satisfaction while, majority of supervisors have moderate level of job satisfaction. Salary, opportunity for advancement, security of job and working conditions are regarded as the important factors of job satisfaction by most of the executives while, security of job, salary, working conditions and co-workers behaviour are the important factors of job satisfaction for the supervisors.

Singh and Prestonjee (1990) made an investigation to assess job satisfaction, job involvement and participation among officers and clerical cadre of a nationalised bank. The result of their investigation clearly indicated that occupational level has influenced the two categories of bank employees. Clerks have shown more satisfaction in comparison to officers of the bank. This result clearly supported the findings obtained by Elding, King and Rogers (1979) who demonstrated that satisfaction does not increase linearly from worker to chiefs.

Mathew (1992) identified the relative frequency of various activities actually performed by managers in different type of organizations, and how their satisfaction is determined by these activities. Findings suggested that the reliability of manager's work has significant impact on their satisfaction with job.
Sheridon (1992) investigated the relation rates of 904 college graduates hired in six public accounting firms over a six-year period. Organizational culture values varied significantly among the firms. The variation in cultural values had a significant effect on the rates at which the newly hired employees voluntarily terminated employment. Subjects voluntarily stayed 14 month longer in the culture emphasising interpersonal relationship values than in the culture emphasising work task values. The relationship between the employees job performance and their retention also varied significantly with organizational culture values. The cultural effects were stronger than the combined exogenous influences of the labour market and the new employees demographic characteristics.

Kalliopuska (1993) studied the relationship of need satisfaction and desire to improve need satisfaction. Ratings of satisfaction by 275 university students of Maslow's (1954) need correlated moderately and negatively with their rated desire to improve need-satisfaction. These estimates confirmed earlier work by Graham and Balloun (1973).

Hakim (1993) reported satisfaction performance relationship in variable associated with the adjustment of worker with their colleagues and supervisory staff.

Kumar and Achamamba (1993) made a comparative study of job satisfaction and job involvement among public and private sector
employees. The results suggested a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job involvement public sector administrative staff had greater job satisfaction than private sector administrative staff. There were no significant differences between public and private sector employees with regard to job involvement.

Rubaii-Barrett and Beck (1993) examined the similarities and differences in work climate perceptions and levels of job-satisfaction among Anglo-American and Mexican-American employees of a general purpose local government. Mexican Americans comprised a majority of the workforce studied, thus, the observed differences in their work attitudes relative to the Anglo employees can be attributed to cultural differences rather than a numerical minority status. Mexican-American Ss on an average reported higher level of satisfaction with the personnel department and its procedures than did Anglo employees. As a group Mexican-American Ss viewed the quality of supervision, degree of challenge in their job, relations with their co-workers less positive than did the Anglos. Hence, they contended that organizational culture dimensions are highly related to job satisfaction.

Mishra and Gupta (1994) examined the effects of motivation and job performance among industrial workers. Job experience ranged from 4 to 17 yrs; high and low group were identified on the basis of median, scores obtained on each independent variable, motivation and job involvement in a 2x2 factorial design. Results revealed that
motivation and job involvement both were significantly related to performance, as mean performance scores for the high motivated group was higher than that of the low motivated group. Performance scores were also higher in the high job involvement group than in the low group.

Mathur and Mehta (1994) have reported a significant difference between organizational climate of family and non-family controlled organisations, the former being higher on control and affliction and the latter on achievement, extension and expert-influence.

Christopher (1994) studied the effects of work motivation and personal control on employee job performance and satisfaction. The results indicated that personal control moderated the effects of work motivation on job satisfaction and performance and highly motivated Ss were more adversely affected by low personal control.

Srivastava (1994) studied groups of executives and supervisors and reported that overall organisational climate is positively related with job involvement and higher order needs (self esteem, autonomy, and self actualization) are related with job involvement.

Zamanon et al. (1994) described communication intervention program designed to change the culture shift, and was measured through a triangulation approach. Specially, questionnaires, interview data and direct observation were combined to study the areas of organisation culture scale (OCS) before the intervention and a representative sample
was interviewed. Then, the entire organisation participated in an organisation development program. Two years later, subjects again completed the OCS they were interviewed, and subjects were also directly observed. They noted that the dimensions viz., information flow, involvement morale and meetings are significantly important aspects of organizational culture.

Klein et al. (1995) tested a model linking and integrating the following constituents: normative aspects of organization culture, the distribution and the total account of control, employee performance and perceived quality of service. They found significant relationship between organization culture and control distribution culture and total amount of control, culture and service quality, culture and employee performance and total control and service quality. Results found supported the model.

Petty et al. (1995) examined the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance. 832 employees from 12 firms of the electric utility industry completed a survey. Results significantly related objective measure of performance. Also teamwork was strongly associated with organizational performance.

Burke (1996) again examined the sources and level of job satisfaction among employees of professional services firm and found the subjects were only moderately satisfied. The men, who were at significantly higher organisational levels than the women, reported
significantly greater job-satisfaction. When hierarchical level was controlled, these differences disappeared. Women and men at higher organizational levels were more satisfied than those at the lower level.

Burke (1997) investigated the relationship of organisational hierarchy and aspects of cultural values within a single large professional services firm. The importance, presence and gap between importance and presence of ten cultural values served as dependent variables. The highest and lowest hierarchical levels had more favourable opinions on the importance and presence of the cultural values.

Alam (1997) found that there was no significant difference between private and public sectors executives on the dimensions of job-satisfaction like management, personal adjustment and serial relation.

Singh and Priya (1997) studied the sample of bank employees and explored that the employees who are satisfied with their job are found to differ in certain aspect of personalities than those who are not satisfied.

In 1998 Johnson & McIntye studied organizational culture and climate correlates of job satisfaction. Correlation indicated positive and significant associations for the measures. The measure of climate most strongly associated with scores on job-satisfaction were communicated, followed by goals, creativity and innovation and decision making.
Results are discussed in terms of their practical and meaningful relevance to organizational effectiveness.

Agarwal (1998) studied job satisfaction and job stress in three hierarchical ranks of employees working in two private organizations. A total of 60 employees, 20 from each rank, was administered the job satisfaction scale (Singh & Sharma, 1990). Results revealed that those who perceived themselves to be close to management were more satisfied and less stressed than those who did not perceive themselves to be close to the top management.

Kristopher and Roy (1998) examined the relationship between an organization's culture and the decision made within that organization. The authors had 2 goals, first, to provide a theoretical link between culture and organizational decision making, and second, to test some of the implications of this link. The authors conducted four studies with employees and managers from commercial organizations. In their first study they found that different organizations have different degrees of cultural fragmentation and that this could be measured by the organizational culture survey designed by Beach (1993). The findings of second study revealed that the decision of an organization's members are influenced by the degree to which the features of the options are compatible with the features of the organization's own culture. In their third study they found that an organization members are more likely to endorse a management decision if the features of the decision are
compatible with the features of the organization's culture. In their final study it was found that the greater the difference between Ss assessments of an organization's culture as they perceived it to be now and as they thought it actually ought to be, the less satisfied they reported themselves to be with their jobs.

Reyhan (1998) made a study on relationship between job satisfaction and personal characteristics of 249 Turkish workers in different occupations and job positions. The results indicated that monthly payment was the best predictor of overall satisfaction. Moreover, age, sex, education, number of children and different measures of tenure were significant predictors of different aspects of job satisfaction as measured with 2 different scales. Marital status was not related to any of the measures of job satisfaction.

Bhatnagar and Bhandari (1998) studied perception of organizational culture. It was argued that organizational culture is a crucial organizational variable in facilitating or impeding the change process. Results revealed that hierarchy was the predominant cultural form.

Anjali (1998) made a study to see whether there is any perceived difference in the need satisfaction of middle and lower level executives. It was observed that deficiency in need fulfilment is more pronounced in lower level executives than in middle level executives, specially in the area of esteem, autonomy and self-actualization. The
two areas of greatest importance were a higher order need, self-actualization and a lower-order need security. In general, both in lower and middle management positions the most critical need hierarchy area was observed to be the area of self-actualization both with respect to prime importance and deficiency in need fulfilment. It was also observed that the psychological needs are not so much adequate to predict the managerial success of an executive.

Joshi (1998) compared private and public sector employees in terms of job satisfaction, job involvement, and work involvement. Results revealed that the employees of public and private sectors differed significantly in their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. Demographic variables such as age, length of service, monthly income, and work experience in the present job also affected their job satisfaction, job and work involvement. However, gender of the employees did not influence these variables.

Bendixaen and Burger (1998) examined the influence of management philosophy on management and organizational effectiveness - 338 managers from 41 different countries completed questionnaires. Results indicated that there were five different management philosophies: rational management, entrepreneurial management, elegant management, market-oriented management and educated vs experienced management. These philosophies had varying degrees of influences on management and organizational effectiveness.
Rational, market-oriented and entrepreneurial management was positively correlated to management effectiveness. Only market-oriented management was positively correlated to organizational effectiveness. The prevailing combinations of the way in which their philosophies were embraced by managers. Clausmin developmental managers, tolistic managers, free marketers and professional managers. Results support the proposition that management and organizational effectiveness are dependent on management philosophies.

In our view the contentions of Bendixaen, et al. are, of course very significant as organisational culture basically is determined by the management philosophies in making strategies for running organisations with utmost efficiency.

Patel (1999) studied the sample of bank employee and explored that nationalized bank employees exhibited higher job satisfaction then co-operative bank workers.

Joshi (1999) reported that employees monthly income was found to be significantly correlated with job satisfaction. He also explored that employees work involvement and job satisfaction were not significantly related but they have inverse relationship.

Rastogi & Verma (1999) examined the effectiveness of bureaucracy of organizations on need-satisfaction. Results revealed significant difference in the mean scores of bureaucracy of teachers and scientists. The teaching organisation was more conducive for the
satisfaction which was characterised by strict bureaucracy. In contrast to the strict bureaucratic model (Weber), a less bureaucratic model contributed to greater self-improvement.

Pradhan (1999) assessed the impact of organisational culture on leadership and bases of power in service and industrial organisations. The sample consisted of 120 executives, 60 each from service and industrial sectors. The organisational culture questionnaire (Kolb, Russin & Osland, 1991), measure for Bases of power (Singh & Sunita 1990) and the leadership style scale (Sinha, 1980, 1984, 1990) were administered to each respondent. Findings indicated that there were significant differences between managers of banks and industries with regards to their perception about different styles of leadership. The organisational climate was found to moderate the relationship between leadership styles and power strategies. In the service sector, the leaders were participative, bureaucratic, and task oriented whereas in the industrial sector leadership was dominant and effective. An in-depth analysis of the psychodynamics of the different perceptions between organisations and different work cultures has been emphasised. The need for further research on these variables to achieve organisational health and personal effectiveness has been highlighted.

Bhargava and Kelkar (2000) examined the hypothesis that organizational structure as well as corporate culture predict job involvement, job satisfaction and empowerment. The participants were
managers, officers, and supporting staff of successful business organization. Job satisfaction and empowerment were positively related but were unrelated to job involvement, centralization was positively related to job involvement but negatively to job satisfaction and empowerment. Negative correlation of centralization with job satisfaction and empowerment indicated the importance of decentralization for managing people in organizations. The measures of HRD could be predicted by corporate culture. This means people could work even without having satisfaction with their job and getting a feeling of empowerment in the organization, which showed that motivating people at the workplace is a challenging task. Thus organizations have to opt for the strategies that could take into account the all-round development of their members through strategic human resource management.

Wharton, Rotolo and Bird (2000) explored the effects of social context on workers job-satisfaction by analyzing employees through hierarchical linear models. Specifically, the effects of department level sex and race heterogeneity on worker's feelings about their jobs were examined. The results showed that satisfaction levels were lower in sex and race heterogeneous departments. Satisfaction was higher in departments with higher average levels of job tenure, though the individual level effect of tenure on job satisfaction was not statistically significant. The results provided support for a social-relational view of
work and demonstrated the usefulness of multilevel models as an analytic strategy for examining these issues.

The above review of studies reveals that some studies were undertaken to demonstrate a relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction. However no study has been carried out to demonstrate relationship between organization culture and personality variables with job satisfaction. Hence there is a gap of knowledge in this important aspect. The present study is therefore, undertaken to fill up this gap of knowledge. Thus another consideration that motivated the present investigator was to explore relationship between certain personality variables such as dependence proneness and rigidity flexibility and need satisfaction of the workers. The next two sections of this chapter are devoted to the review of studies on dependence proneness and rigidity-flexibility.

**Section-II**

As mentioned earlier section II of this present chapter is devoted to the review of those studies that demonstrate a direct or indirect relation between dependence proneness and need satisfaction.

Hagen (1962) observed that under-developed countries show a greater need of dependency. Murphy (1953), Rath (1964, 1965); Sinha (1966) and Harper (1967) have considered long period of infancy as the main contributory factor for the development of dependency among Indians. According to them this longer period of infancy is probably
sustained even during the adulthood by the authoritarian culture, joint family system and other Indian values.

Sinha (1969) investigated the perception of high and low dependence prone subjects about self, sociocultural expectations and reinforcements. Results indicated that (a) dependence proneness is a stable disposition; (b) dependence pronness is related to only a few of adjectives. A high dependent prone person is happy but not assertive; not attractive and not so optimistic; (c) dependence proneness is influenced by sociocultural expectations; and finally, (d) punishment is more effective in deterring initiative than a comparable reward for dependency.

A number of researchers investigated the relationships between decision making and dependence proneness. It was pointed out that highly dependent prone persons are anxious and avoid all delay in decision making (Appleby, 1956, Murphy, 1953; Myrdal, 1968, and Sara, 1969). Similarly, Ruch (1970) observed that people differ in their reaction times where the element of choice or decision is involved. He also pointed out that dependent persons beside other characteristics, has the characteristics of not taking interest in their work, feel anxious in making a choice and delay reactions, they do not exert for their betterment and depend on guardians and teachers for help of judgement, decision and guidance without exhausting their own resources, even in situations, where dependency is not entirely essential. If such a
dependent prone person is put in a choice making situation, he delays decisions and seeks more support from others. Sinha & Pandey (1972) studied the process of decision making in dependence prone persons. They found that higher dependent prone person needed more informational bits, more time, and he plays safe in choosing an alternative in a risky situation. He also experiences more anxiety and required feedback more frequently. Similarly, Ojha (1978) investigated the reaction time as a function of dependence proneness. The aim of this study was to measure choice reaction time of high and low dependent prone subjects. Results showed that mean choice reaction time of high dependent prone subjects differed significantly from low dependence prone subjects. The reaction time of low dependent prone subjects was significantly less than high dependence prone subjects. The higher dependence proneness, the more time they needed for making a choice.

Ojha (1972) investigated the relation of prestige suggestion with rigidity and dependence proneness. The findings showed that correlation between prestige suggestion and rigidity for male group was negative and significant. The same negative relationship existed for female group too, but was not significant. However, on the contrary, the correlation between prestige suggestion and dependence proneness for male and female groups were positive and significant. Results also revealed significant difference between high and low groups of two sexes with regard to rigidity. In case of male subjects the low
suggestible group obtained significantly higher mean score on rigidity scale as compared to the mean scores obtained by high suggestable group. However, in case of female subjects although the mean score of low suggestible group as compared to the mean score of high suggestible group was greater but the difference was not significant. Hence, it was concluded that prestige suggestion and rigidity on the whole were inversely related but this relationship was beyond doubt only for male subjects. Moreover, significant difference was also found between high and low groups with respect to dependence proneness.

Moreover, Jakubezak and Walters (1959) studied suggestibility as a form of dependence behaviour. The result revealed marked difference between high dependent and low-dependent subjects in their suggestibility to adult, on the other hand, the difference between high-dependent and low-dependent subjects in their suggestibility to peers was much smaller and failed to reach significance.

Perrez, Kramis et al. (1982) studied independence and dependence as factors in mother's educational style. Results indicated that the children's behaviour was more controlling when independence provoking situations. If the mothers interacted with boys other than their own sons, the effects were more intensive.

Some investigators have studied academic performance as a function of dependence proneness. Alam (1985), for instance, observed that dependence proneness inhibits learning performance and impaires
retention. He also assumed that dependent prone persons should show poor academic performance than their counterparts. Chadha and his associates (1985) support this finding.

Saeeduzzafar and Alam (1987) investigated the influence of dependence proneness and sex on academic performance. Findings revealed that dependence proneness has detrimental effect on academic performance. It was also found that dependence proneness has inhibitory effect on academic performance, ignoring the dependence proneness, it was observed that female subjects show poor academic performance than male subjects.

A number of psychologists investigated the personality and social correlates of dependence proneness (Heather 1955; Sinha, 1968; Pandey and Sinha, 1968; Tripathi, 1981; 1983 and Alam, 1985).

Sinha (1968) investigated the relationship between dependence proneness and fatalism, and need for approval. He hypothesized that (1) subjects who have a high need for approval are more dependent prone than subjects having weaker need for approval (ii) subjects who are fatalists are more dependent prone (iii) subjects who are highly fatalists and have at the same time a heightened need for approval, will show the greatest magnitude of dependence on the external sources, because, the two forces may operate together to intensify the desire of our dependence. The results showed that fatalism and hightend approval need taken together facilitated Dependence Proneness. It was also
demonstrated that a weak need for approval amounted to indifference and insensibility to the social world that resulted into less dependency.

In another study, Pandey and Sinha (1968) investigated the relationship between dependence proneness and perceived problems of adjustment. The findings showed that dependence proneness was negatively related with subjects perceived adjustment problems. It was also found that families of high occupational groups such as doctors, lawyers, etc. were more exposed to the forces of social change, and therefore, the typical norms of our culture, which foster dependence proneness were also operative in such families. Similarly instead of a curvilinear relationship subjects from lower occupational families were found to have more adjustment problems.

Singh and Sengupta (1997) made a replicative study. The dependence proneness scale developed by Sinha (1968) was used to examine the dependence proneness of the Indian students studying at Indian Institute of Management of Calcutta. A total number of 66 students coming from different parts of the country participated in the study. The result strikingly suggested a deviation from Sinha's findings. Contrary to the former's conclusion. Indian youths have initiative and independent decision making as dominant behavioural patterns. The dependence proneness scale developed and used by Sinha (1968) concluded that Indian youths are dependent prone. The present author came up with a markably different set of findings after 30 years. The
respondents seemed to prefer individual decision making and initiative, over the years indicating social change.

India is passing through a state of transitions. There seems to be a fine mixture of collectivism and individualism. Indian want to grow and develop themselves by being individualistic in their approach, however, they still care for their family and own group members. This is clearly manifested in the findings of the study.

The above review of studies on dependence proneness makes it crystal clear that dependent prone individuals are anxious, cognitively deficient, hesitate to take decisions. maladjusted and non-assertive. In view of these characteristics of dependent prone individuals, it is highly logical as well as reasonable to assume that persons with such personality disposition are likely to experience less need-satisfaction in any organisation which in turn may cause frustration and conflicts that may be gravely detrimental for the growth and development of that organizations. One of the objective of the present research is to address this highly important issue.

Section III

The third section reviews those studies which focus on some of the relevant correlates of rigidity-flexibility.

Ramamurti and Ganakannan (1972) made an attempt to relate rigidity flexibility to feeling of security insecurity. It was hypothesised that insecure individuals are more rigid than secure individuals. A
random sample of three hundred students of the total sample of an Arts and science college of mean age 18.4 were administered the test of Behavioural Rigidity (TBR) and Security-Insecurity (SI) in groups of 30-40. Results indicated that insecure individuals were significantly more rigid than secure individuals with regard to personality-perceptual rigidity component of the TBR. The secure group was not significantly different from the insecure group in the case of Motor-cognitive rigidity and psychomotor speed components of TBR.

Cordery, et al. (1993) correlates of employee attitude toward functional flexibility. Public service employees completed a questionnaire seeking information on their expectations regarding a proposal to increase their functional flexibility. It was proposed that beliefs concerning the unfavourability of outcomes of the intervention would be correlated with a range of biographical, affective and job content variables. Measures included the job diagnostic survey, skill utilization, and job rotation. Multivariate analyses revealed that the scope of an employee's existing job and biographical variables (apart from age) were not generally predictive of attitudes towards functional flexibility. Rather, unfavourable attitudes were weakly associated with low levels of extrinsic satisfaction perceived rewards equity aspiration, organizational commitment, and age.

Deepa (1996) investigated the relationship between behavioural rigidity and perception of job pressure and satisfaction.
Significant relations emerged between behavioural rigidity scores and both job pressure and satisfaction scores. For the high rigidity group, the mean pressure score was significantly higher while the mean satisfaction score was significantly lower as compared to the low rigidity group.

The exhaustive review of studies on rigidity flexibility, as discussed above, makes it crystal clear that no study has been carried out so far to demonstrate a relationship between rigidity flexibility and need satisfaction. In view of various different characteristics of rigid and flexible individuals the present researcher assumed that rigid and flexible individuals are likely to differ with respect to their need satisfaction. The present study was carried out to test this assumption. The findings of the present study may have far reaching implications not only for workers of an organization but also for managerial staff of that organization.