Advance Research method

FINAL assignment

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**I choose a topic for my research which will be done in privet university of Peshawar it is following.**

**TOPIC**

**THE INFLUENCE OF MANAGERIAL**

**LEADERSHIP**

**STYLE ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN**

**PRIVATE UNIVERSITIES AT KPK DISTRIC**

**PESHAWAR**

**Literature review**

**Literature review of leadership styles**

Bass (1990) defined leadership as a process of interaction among individuals and groups that includes a structured or restructured situation, members’ expectations and perceptions. Leadership can be explained as the ability of an individual to have power that focuses on how to establish directions by adapting forces (Go et al., 1996).From an organizational perspective, Schermerhorn (1999) believed that leading is a process used to motivate and to influence others to work hard in order to realize and support organizational goals, while Hersey et al. (2001) believed that leadership influences individuals’ behavior based on both individuals’ and organizational goals. Robbins (2001) defined leadership as the ability of an individual to influence the behavior of a group to achieve organizational goals. It is possible to conclude from these discussions that leadership is a group of phenomena, whereby leaders are distinctive from their followers, and can influence individuals’ activities to achieve set goals in their organizations. Leadership style is defined as the pattern of behaviors that leaders display during their work with and through others (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). Miller et al.(2002) view leadership style as the pattern of interactions between leaders and subordinates. It includes controlling, directing, indeed all techniques and methods used by leaders to motivate subordinates to follow their instructions. According to Kavanaugh and Ninemeier (2001), there are three factors that determine the type of leadership style: leaders’ characteristics, subordinates’ characteristics and the organization environment. More specifically, the personal

background of leaders such as personality, knowledge, values, and experiences shapes their feelings about appropriate leadership that determine their specific leadership style; employees also have different personalities, backgrounds, expectations and experiences, for example, employees who are more knowledgeable and experienced may work well under a democratic leadership style, while employees with different experiences and expectations require a autocratic leadership style. Some factors in the organization environment such as organizational climate, organization values, composition of work group and type of work can also influence leadership style. However, leaders can adapt their leadership style to the perceived preferences of their subordinates (Wood, 1994).Leadership styles can be classified according to the leaders’ power and behavior as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire, where styles are distinguished by the influence leaders have on subordinates (Mullins, 1998; Rollinson, 2005).More specifically, power has been considered as: the potential of a process to influence people (Hersey et al., 2001); a part of the influence process at the core of leadership (Northouse, 2004); and the rights that allow individuals to take decisions about specific matters (Rollinson, 2005). The influence of leadership will differ according to the type of power used by a leader over their subordinates (Mullins, 1998). Hence, leaders will be more effective when they know and understand the appropriate usage of power (Hersey et al., 2001). According to Kavanaugh and Ninemeier (2001) an autocratic style is embedded in leaders who have full organizational power and authority for decision making without sharing it with their subordinates, while a democratic style implies that leaders share their authority of decision making with employees and delegate, and finally a laissez-faire or free-rein style exists where leaders give their employees most of the authority over decision making. Centralized organizations seem to favor an autocratic style, while decentralized organizations seem to prefer a democratic style (Woods and King, 2002), and organizational culture can therefore be strongly influenced by national culture which may determine the prevalent leadership style

(Rollinson, 2005). However, in Jordan, the style of leadership appears inconsistent. For example, Al-Hajjeh (1984) assumed that Middle Eastern managers encouraged autocratic leadership, as they had a negative impression about the ability of subordinates to carry out instructions. In support, Jar-Allah (2000) indicated that autocratic leadership was the most common style in industrial organizations in Jordan. In contrast, Yousef (1998) assumed that a consultative style prevailed in non-Western countries particularly in Arab countries, and indeed found (Yousef, 2000) that participative or consultative leadership behavior, as perceived by employees, was prevalent in Arab countries. According to Wood (1994) management in the hospitality industry is characterized as a ‘being there’ style which provides stress, intervention, and control of operations and interactions between members at all levels in the organization. Mullins (1998) also suggests that a ‘being there’ or ‘hands-on’ leadership style is considered as prevalent in the hospitality industry. The argument is that this style could be more effective than other styles to obtain employees’ job satisfaction, since the managers work all the time with their employees and therefore show more concern for employees’ problems at work. He further suggests that adopting a participative leadership style would be difficult. This does not mean that the autocratic style is preferable, but it is claimed to be necessary in the hospitality industry (Wood, 1994). Indeed research by Okumus and Hemmington (1998) indicated that the prevalent leadership style in the hospitality industry was the autocratic leadership style. In Jordan, however, Nour (2004) found that the most common leadership style among managers in hotels was a democratic style based on power sharing.

**Leadership definition**

Gary Yukl (2006) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (p. 8). Similarly, Peter Northouse

(2007) defines leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.” Bass (1990) defined leadership as a process of interaction among individuals and groups that includes a structured or restructured situation, members’ expectations and perceptions. Leadership can be explained as the ability of an individual to have power that focuses on how to establish directions by adapting forces (Go et al., 1996).From an organizational perspective, Schermerhorn (1999) believed that leading is a process used to motivate and to influence others to work hard in order to realize and support organizational goals, while Hersey et al.

**Types of leadership style**

* Autocratic style
* Democratic style
* Laissez- faire style

**Autocratic leadership style**

**Definition of Autocratic leadership style**

In an autocratic leadership style, the person in charge has total authority and control over decision making. By virtue of their position and job responsibilities, they not only control the efforts of the team, but monitor them for completion –often under close scrutiny This style is reminiscent of the earliest tribes and empires. Obviously, our historical movement toward democracy brings a negative connotation to autocracy, but in some situations, it is the most appropriate type of leadership. That, of course, doesn’t mean a blank check to ignore the wellbeing of his subordinate.

**Literature review of Autocratic leadership style**

Moreover, leaders may exhibit self-sacrifice to pursue important goals and visions, but in order to increase our understanding of the effects of self-sacrifice, it is also important to examine whether these goals and visions have been forced upon by the leader itself or not. In other words, it is important to examine the effect of whether the leader makes decisions in a pushy and autocratic manner or not before actually exhibiting self-sacrifice. The leadership literature (Bass, 1990; Lewin, Lippit, & White, 1939; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 1999) generally identifies autocratic leadership as not taking care of the socio-emotional dimensions of groups such as maintaining group cohesion and promoting the group as a viable social entity (Bass, 1990; Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Hackman, 1990), although circumstances softening these negative effects exist (Foels, Driskell, Mullen, &Salas, 2000).1 More precisely, autocratic leaders score particularly low on the factor of consideration as identified by the Ohio State studies (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). This factor of consideration is strongly related to satisfaction, motivation, and effectiveness (see Judge et al., 2004), which is particularly interesting because it points out the relatively negative effects on the dependent variables under investigation in the present research: followers’ emotions and motivation. Empirical evidence indeed shows that autocratic leaders negatively influence group stability and effectiveness (Van Vugt, Jepson, Hart, & De

Cremer, 2004), group climate, and feelings of being content and happy (Bass, 1990).Followers are thus negatively aroused, which holds that people do not favor autocratic leaders because these leader types do not motivate followers to exhibit loyalty and dedication toward the leader and the group. This conclusion is in line with a motivational account suggesting that followers’ dedication and connectedness to the leader is only promoted if they are positively aroused (Bass, 1998), which is not the case for autocratic leaders. In fact, under such circumstances as autocratic leadership, recent research has shown that subsequent actions by these leaders will be attended to less by the group and its members, because they are no longer motivated to connect to the leader (see De Cremer, 2004). Thus, if a leader is not autocratic, group members will feel attachment toward the group, and followers will therefore be focused on the subsequent behavior that the group leader displays. Conversely, if a leader is seen as autocratic, subsequent self-sacrificial behavior is believed to influence followers’ reactions much less.The reason for the above is that autocratic leaders are often seen as limiting group members’ control and voice over the decision-making processes within the group and as displaying a dominating and pushy leader style in which they show little respect towards followers’ opinions and values (Bass, 1990; Russell & Stone, 2002; see also Peterson, 1997). In the present study, autocratic leadership is thus defined in terms of how dominant and controlling the leader is in the process of discussing opinions and ideas leading to the actual decision taken in the group. In this situation, a pushy and controlling leader style is expected to discourage followers’ loyalty and dedication to the leader. This perspective has also been put forward by Peterson (1997), who argued that, following Lewin’s studies (e.g.,Lewin et al., 1939), autocratic leadership has mainly been described in terms of the leader making all the decisions. However, Peterson argued that autocratic leadership is also defined in terms of how the leader directs and behaves during the process leading up to the decision. That is, Peterson argues that autocratic leadership often reveals negative consequences because these leaders, in the process of making a decision, do not allow discussions of all alternatives and are determined to push their followers to accept the leaders’ solutions. In line with this line of reasoning, Peterson’s results showed indeed that mainly leaders pushing their ideas during a group discussion were particularly seen as negative and autocratic. As such, here, I will operationalize autocratic leadership by defining it as a leadership style focused on not providing any latitude for the group members to discuss and think about their own ideas. Rather, these leaders push their ideas and opinions during discussions leading to a decision, thus, not giving much voice, control and respect to others.

**Democratic leadership style**

**Meaning of Democratic leadership style:**

The democratic leadership style is a very open and collegial style of running a team. Ideas move freely amongst the group and are discussed openly. Everyone is given a seat at the table, and discussion is relatively free-flowing. Democratic leadership, also known as participative leadership, is a type of leadership style in which members of the group take a more participative role in the decision-making process. Researchers have found that this learning style is usually one of the most effective and leads to higher productivity, better contributions from group members and increased group morale. Democratic leadership works best in situations where group members are skilled and eager to share their knowledge. It is also important to have plenty of time to allow people to contribute, develop a plan and then vote on the best course of action. This style is needed in dynamic and rapidly changing environments where very little can be taken as a constant. In these fast moving organizations, every option for improvement has to be considered to keep the group from falling out of date. The democratic leadership style means facilitating the conversation, encouraging people to share their ideas, and then synthesizing all the available information into the best possible decision. The democratic leader must also be able to communicate that decision back to the group to bring unity the plan is chosen. Because group members are encouraged to share their thoughts, democratic leadership can leader to better ideas and more creative solutions to problems. Group members also feel more involved and committed to projects, making them more likely to care about the end results. Research on leadership styles has also show that democratic leadership leads to higher productivity among group members. When situations change frequently, democratic leadership offers a great deal of flexibility to adapt to better ways of doing things. Unfortunately, it is also somewhat slow to make a decision in this structure, so while it may embrace newer and better methods; it might not do so very quickly. Democratic leadership style can bring the best out of an experienced and professional team. It capitalizes on their skills and talents by letting them share their views, rather than simply expecting them to conform. If a decision is very complex and broad, it is important to have the different areas of expertise represented and contributing input – this is where democratic leader shines.

.**Literature review of Democratic leadership style:**

Anderson (1959) identified the democratic leader as one who shares decision making with the other members and therefore, democratic leadership is connected with higher morale in the majority of the situations. He denied that democratic leadership is associated with low productivity and high morale and that authoritarian leadership is associated with high productivity and low morale. Hackman and Johnson (1996) supported Anderson’s explanation of the relationship between democratic leadership and productivity. Democratic leadership is related with increased followers’ productivity, satisfaction, involvement, and commitment (Hackman & Johnson, 1996). Member satisfaction and nominations for leadership are greater under democratic leadership (Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974). Although the significant drawbacks to democratic leadership are time consuming activities and lengthy debate over policy, participation plays a key role for increasing the productivity of leadership (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2003; Hackman & Johnson).Consequently, the primary characteristics of democratic leadership signifies that group members are encouraged to share ideas and opinions, even though the leader retains the final say over decisions and members of the group feel more engaged in the process leading to encouragement of creativity . Participation is a core characteristic of democratic leadership; and the ideal of democratic leadership is friendly, helpful, and encouraging participation (Luthar, 1996). Again, Wilson, George, Wellins, and Byham (1994) categorized autocratic leadership, participative leadership, and high involvement leadership by the level of participation encouraged by the leader. Chemers (1984) also defined democratic leadership as emphasizing group participation. Thus, participation is the major characteristic of democratic leadership (Bass, 1990).On the other hand, Kuczmarski and Kuczmarski (1995) talked about the distinctiveness of a democratic leader as erudite, influential, motivating, a winner of cooperation, a provider of logical consequences, encouraging, permitting of self-determination, guiding, a good listener and respecting, and situation-centered. Gastil (1994) defined the characteristics of democratic leadership as distributing responsibility among the membership, empowering group members, and aiding the group’s decision-making process.The varied characteristics of democratic leadership contribute to the fact that there has been no clear definition of democratic leadership. Gastil (1994) argued that “the absence of a clear definition may have also contributed to the decreased amount of research on democratic leadership” (p. 956).

**Laissez- faire leadership style**

**Meaning of laissez- faire leadership style:**

Also known as **delegative leadership** is a type of leadership style in which leaders are hands-off and allow group members to make the decisions. Researchers have found that this is generally the leadership style that leads to the lowest productivity among group members.Laissez-faire leadership are characterized by:

•Very little guidance from leaders

•Complete freedom for followers to make decisions

•Leaders provide the tools and resources needed

•Group members are expected to solve problems on their own

Laissez-faire leadership can be effective in situations where group members are highly skilled, motivated and capable of working on their own. While the conventional term for this style is 'laissez-faire' and implies a completely hands-off approach, many leaders still remain open and available to group members for consultation and feedback.

**Downsides of Laissez-Faire Leadership**

Laissez-faire leadership is not ideal in situations where group members lack the knowledge or experience they need to complete tasks and make decisions. Some people are not good at setting their own deadlines, managing their own projects and solving problems on their own. In such situations, projects can go off-track and deadlines can be missed when team members do not get enough guidance or feedback from leaders.

**Literature review of Laissez-Faire Leadership style:**

True laissez-faire is in fact “non-leadership” because the leader has almost no influence over the group (Bass, 1999). This makes it difficult to distinguish the leader from the followers. According to Yukl (1994) laissez-faire leadership style is probably a descriptive ideal that does not really exist. This is an effective style to use when: Employees are highly skilled, experienced, and educated. When employees have pride in their work and the drive to do it successfully on their own. When outside experts, such as staff specialists or consultants are being used and finally when employees are trustworthy and experienced. The philosophical assumption underlying laissez-faire style is that naturally human beings are unpredictable and uncontrollable and trying to understand people is a waste of time and energy. Under the style, the leader tries to maintain a low profile, respects all divisions within the organization, tries not to create waves of disturbance, and relies on the few available loyalists to get the job done (Northouse, 2007). Laissez-faire leader lives and work with whatever structure put in place without any suggestions or criticisms. Goals and objectives are established only when necessary and required. Such leader shuns decision-making as much as possible, and would like to avoid communication but communicates only when needed. Thus, the business of employee development is not a concern to the laissez faire leader who believes that employees can take care of themselves (Rowe, 2007)

**Job satisfaction**

**Definition of job satisfaction**

The definition of job satisfaction as been defined in many ways. However the most use full job satisfaction definition in the organization research. Locke (1976) who describes the job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal form one’s job or job experiences. Hulin and Judge (2003) noted that job satisfaction includes multidimensional psychological responses to one’s job and that such responses have the cognitive (evaluative), affective (or emotional), and the behavioral components.

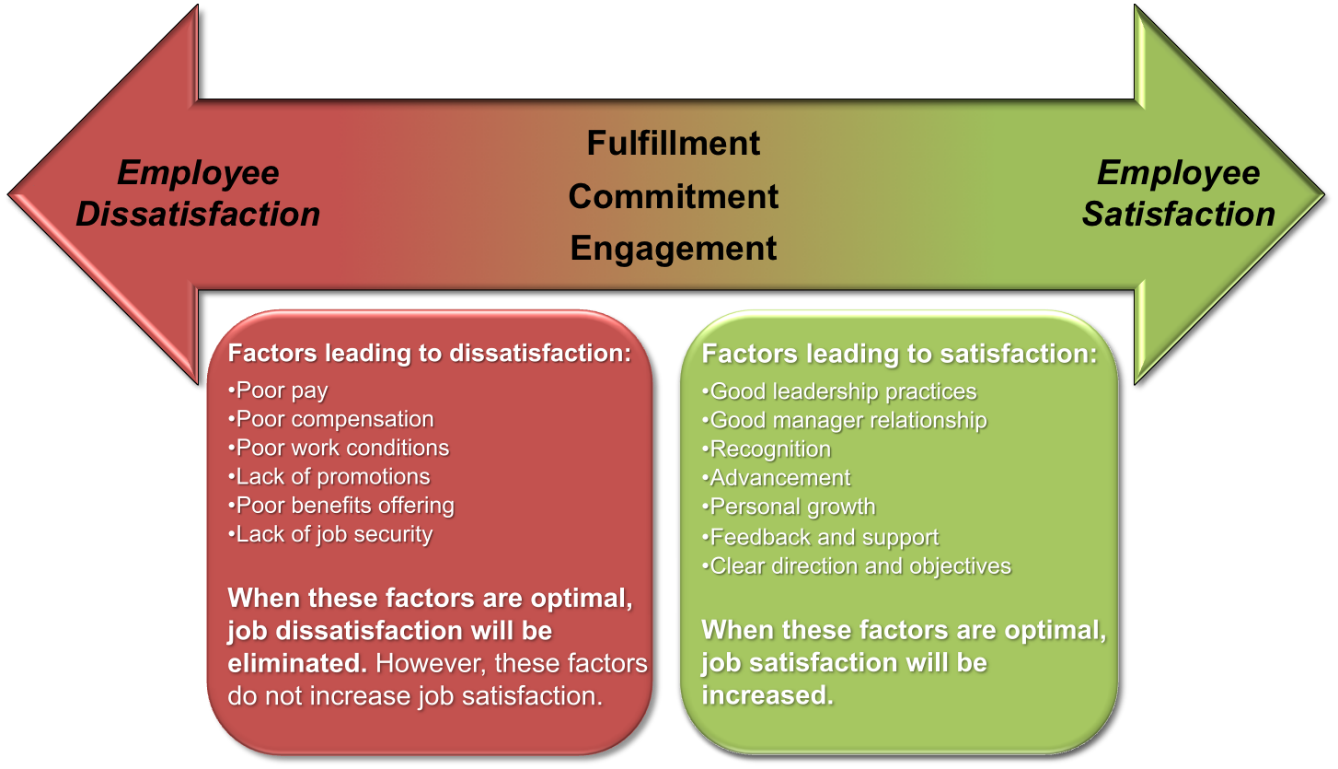
# Causes of Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction

Since people tend to evaluate their work experiences in terms of liking or disliking and develop feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding their job, as well as the organization in which they work (Jex, 2002).  There are many probable influences that affect how favorably an individual appraises his or her job.  Through years of extensive research, I/O psychologists have identified numerous variables that seem to contribute to either job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988).  To explain the development of job satisfaction, researchers have taken three common approaches: job characteristics, social information processing (organizational characteristics), and dispositional (worker characteristics) (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Jex, 2002).

**Job Characteristics**

In relation to the job characteristics approach, research has revealed that the nature of an individual’s job or the characteristics of the organization that the individual works for predominantly determines job satisfaction (Jex, 2002).  According to Hackman and Oldham (1980), a job characteristic is an aspect of a job that generates ideal conditions for high levels of motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Furthermore, Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed five core job characteristics that all jobs should contain: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback.  Hackman and Oldham (1980), also defined four personal and work outcomes: internal work motivation, growth satisfaction, general satisfaction, and work effectiveness.  These characteristics have been added to the more popular dimensions of job satisfaction assessment: the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervision, and co-worker relations (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). A common premise in research of the effects of job circumstances on job satisfaction is that individuals determine job satisfaction by comparing what they are currently receiving from the job and what they would like to or believe that they should receive (Jex, 2002).  For example, if an employee is receiving an annual salary of $45,000 and believes that he or she should be receiving a salary of $43,000, then he or she will experience satisfaction; however, if the employee believes that he or she should be receiving $53,000, then he or she will feel dissatisfaction.  This comparison would apply to each job facet including: skill level, seniority, promotional opportunities, supervision, etc. (Jex, 2002). According to Locke (1976), this process becomes complex since the importance of work facets differs for each individual.  For example, one employee may feel that pay rate is extremely important while another may feel that social relationships are more important.  To explain the effects of these differences, Locke (1976) put forward the ideas of the range of affect theory.  The hypothesis of this theory is that employees weigh facets differently when assessing job

satisfaction (Locke, 1976).  Consequently, this leads to an individual measure of satisfaction or dissatisfaction when expectations are met or not.  For example, the job satisfaction of an employee who places extreme importance on pay would be positively impacted if he or she receives a salary within expectation.  Conversely, his or her level of pay would minimally impact the job satisfaction of an employee who places little importance on pay.



(Agho and Mueller, 1992) designed a 6- item range for job fulfillment to evaluate job satisfaction on the whole. Leader consistencies was recorded in earlier analysis were recorded between 0 .83- 0 .90. The explanations of the products involved in set of questions were “I discover actual entertainment in my work” and for example opposite known as product which is used to evaluate job satisfaction on the whole which consist of, “I often get tired of my job”. The stability of job fulfillment in this analysis is (0.70).

Job fulfillment has its profound origins in Taylor’s medical control view, Hawthorne research and the theoretical origins can be found in concepts of needs (e.g Maslow’s concept and Herzberg theory regarding needs) and its practice concepts. Until 1976 above 3000 researches were performed up on this build (Locke, 1976).

From the previous analysis on job fulfillment, about three significant traditional styles had been known. First, the real economic ways of thinking has highlighted more on real physical factors of job like settlement and job atmosphere. Second, the individual regards or social approach mentioned the concept of good HR control and better employer-employee relationship. Third, the growth or work connection approach has targeted more on the process of interest with its work, the success of task effectiveness and intellectual organization regarding job (Locke, 1976). Whereas referring to an outcome of job fulfillment in the traditional editorial of him, Locke (1976) discovered that it can affect person's mind-set for job, family and person itself, mental and health altogether and laid an important cause of absence and revenues. According to Ferris *et al*. (1989), finding regarding the existence of state policies in the company is the significant reason behind worker turnover intentions. Some of the college students have discovered contrary results between job fulfillment and understanding of business state policies. Some scientists have discovered unimportant connection (Randall *et al*., 1999), while most of them discovered direct connection between job fulfillment and understanding of business state policies (Vigoda, 2000; Ferris *et al.* 1996; Ferris and Kacmar, 1992)

Job routine is the most considerably explained job actions in business actions and work-related mindset analysis. The connection between character as well as organization has been clearly established in medical analysis (Barrick and Install, 1991). Ferris *et al.* (1989) expected negative effects of recognized state policies on individual's performance. Although Vigoda (2000) found a good connection among understanding of state policies and job performance, others discovered unimportant connection in these two variables (Hochwarter, *et al*., 2000; Randall *et al.*, 1999). Some other college students (Ferris *et al*., 2002,) have also discovered that job performance and recognized state policies have inverse relation with each other.

Job pressure is the term for the emotional reaction to stimulating elements that may have structural emotional or real physical repercussions (Parker and Decotiis, 1983). There is an agreement among scientists that job pressure is the result of stresses, which stimulate adverse emotional or real physical responses (Kahn and Byosiere, 1993). Pressure of job handled often as both a separate and a reliant varying in business actions. Most of the analysis targeted connection with act and somewhat with drawback habits. Some progress has been seen in learning dispositional base of pressure of job (Penley and Tomaka, 2002). There is still a space unfilled for more analysis to relate visibly character to stress of job or regulate away any risk of such type. Ferris *et al*. (1989) suggested a good connection among views of state policies and pressure of job. Apparently business state policies books to adverse mental states like stress of job (Kacmar *et al*. 1999). Vigoda (2002) from his research of three special areas discovered tough forecast of problems of job by understanding of business state policies. Many studies have discovered that views of business state policies are favorably relevant to job stress (Ferris, et al. 1994) According to Snow (1987) as a means of preventing governmental actions workers may take out from company. One form of drawback is revenues, either it is real or planned. Those having exterior flexibility, left the company (i.e., real convert over) can be as a choice (Mobley *et al*., 1979). On the other hand, those having restricted flexibility of job, emotional revenues might be the choice. Mental convert includes thoughts regarding giving up and possibly referring to it with others. Turnover is likely to demonstrate good connection with understanding of business state policies (Kacmar *et al*., 1999).

**Literature review of job satisfaction:**

Job satisfaction is defined by Locke (1976) as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from one’s job or job experiences” (p.1300). Later, Armstrong (2003) defined job satisfaction as the feelings and attitudes of people toward their job. He mentioned that if people have favorable and positive attitudes towards their job, this means job satisfaction, but if they have unfavorable and negative attitudes towards their job, this means job dissatisfaction. Spector (1997) stated that the antecedents of job satisfaction can be categorized into two groups. The first group includes the job environment itself and some factors related to the job. The second group includes individual factors related to the person, who will bring these factors to the job including previous experiences and personality. Often both groups of antecedents work together to influence job satisfaction. According to Mullins (1998), the level of job satisfaction is affected by social, personal, cultural, environmental, and organizational factors.Moreover, Armstrong (2003) suggested a classification into extrinsic factors, intrinsic factors, social relationships in work place, individuals’ abilities to do their work, and the quality of supervision.The content theories of motivation can be seen as more related to satisfaction than to motivation. For example, Herzberg’s theory is considered as a theory of job satisfaction related to motivation at work (Mullins, 1998).The content theories suggest unsatisfied needs lead to an unstable situation and state of tension. Herzberg’s (1959) theory argued that hygiene factors include working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, job security, benefits, company policies and management, and salary. When the level of these factors is unacceptable for employees, job dissatisfaction occurs, but an acceptable level does not lead automatically to job satisfaction and but simply prevents dissatisfaction and poor performance. Motivating factors which included recognition, advancement, achievement, autonomy, work itself and responsibility lead to job satisfaction. The theory argues that satisfaction factors and dissatisfaction factors are distinct and separate. In the hospitality industry, hygiene factors appear more important than in some other industries because employees have low expectations of satisfying their higher level needs and so rely more on the hygiene factors (Mullins, 1998). In support, Chitiris (1988) found that employees in Greek hotels were more concerned with hygiene factors than motivating factors. Lam et al. (2001) indicated that almost all employees in Chinese restaurants were satisfied with their jobs. Furthermore, Hancer and George (2003) found that a high level of job satisfaction among employees in a regional restaurant chain was moderately supported. They also found that the highest level of job satisfaction was achieved by intrinsic factors, while the lowest level was achieved by extrinsic factors.

**Leadership style and employee job satisfaction**

The importance of leadership was first researched in the 1920s with studies using surveys reporting that favorable attitudes toward supervision helped to achieve employee job satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Several studies were conducted during the 1950s and 1960s to investigate how managers could use their leadership behaviors to increase employees’ level of job satisfaction (Northouse, 2004) These studies confirmed the significance of leadership in making differences in employees’ job satisfaction (Bass, 1990). Furthermore, Yousef (2000) showed that leadership behavior was positively related to job satisfaction and therefore managers needed to adopt appropriate leadership behavior in order to improve it. Leadership style affects a range of factors such as job satisfaction, performance, turnover intention, and stress (Chen and Silverthorne, 2005) and so contribute to organizational success (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006). Yousef (2000) argued that theories developed and tested in Western organizations are still valid for non-Western countries. Hence, the significant impact of leadership style on job satisfaction does not differ between west and east and can be considered an important factor in the success or failure of any organization (Lok and Crawford, 2004).Specifically, it is suggested that the autocratic leadership leads to lower levels of job satisfaction, while democratic leadership leads to higher level of job satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction under laissez-faire leadership is also less than under democratic leadership (Bass, 1990). Savery (1994) found that democratic leadership style related positively to employees’ job satisfaction and commitment in federal organizations in Western Australian, while in contrast, Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006) found no relationship between leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction in Isfahan University Hospitals in Iran, where a participative leadership style was prevalent. Furthermore, Erkutlu and Chafra (2006) found that laissez-faire leadership style in a boutique hotel led to negative results in organizational performance such as low satisfaction, high stress, and low commitment by followers.

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**Dear sir I choose this topic and working on it since 4 months for my knowledge if any suggestion you would like to give ME I am will be very thankful to you dear sir .**