RESULTS

The results have been divided into two sections, based on the objectives of the study.

Section one describes the findings of the analyses performed on the responses of 400 employees, which is considered as the quantitative analyses of the study. The analysis comprises of descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics, which included t-test, One-way ANOVA, Two-way ANOVA, correlation, and regression analysis.

Section two describes the findings of the analyses performed on the multiple responses to the attribute checklist, of 400 employees. The data was subjected to multiple set analyses to find out the variation in attribution of effective male leaders and effective female leaders by male and female employees across the organizational sectors.

Section One

The analysis comprises of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics including t-test, One-way ANOVA, Two-way ANOVA, correlation and regression analysis.

3.1 Mean difference of male and female leaders on perception of organizational variables

3.1.1 Mean difference between perceived leadership effectiveness of male and female leaders.

The data was subjected to independent t test to find out mean differences between male and female leaders on their perceived leadership effectiveness.

Table 3.1 Showing mean differences, S.D values and‘t’ score of male and female leaders on perception of leadership effectiveness

Leadership Effectiveness Dimensions	Male leaders (n=310)		Female leaders (n=90)		‘t’ values
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	
Interpersonal Relations	45.00	7.83	45.46	6.67	0.51
Intellectual Operations	18.81	3.82	18.90	3.90	0.18
Behavior and Emotional Stability	29.11	5.00	29.31	3.94	0.33
Moral and Ethic Strength	39.64	7.13	40.06	6.14	0.50
Adequacy of Communication	28.36	5.30	28.56	4.18	0.32
Operations as Citizen	29.29	5.41	28.95	4.67	0.53

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

As indicated in table 3.1 no significant difference was observed in perception of leadership effectiveness of male and female leaders. This implies that male and female leaders did not differ in their perceived effectiveness to lead on the stated leadership effectiveness dimensions.

3.1.2 Mean difference between perceived use of downward influence tactics of male and female leaders.

The data was subjected to independent t test to find out mean differences between male and female leaders on their perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Table 3.2 Showing mean differences, S.D values and't' score of male and female employees on downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactics	Male employees (n=310)		Female employees (n=90)		't' values
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D**	
Assertion	16.46	4.17	15.44	4.03	2.04*
Exchange of benefit	8.60	4.32	8.26	3.70	0.68*
Expertise	13.02	3.76	12.08	3.19	2.13
Rationality	17.93	4.09	17.22	3.94	1.47
Ingratiation	19.10	4.11	19.51	3.37	0.86
Personalized Relations	5.37	2.24	5.38	2.12	0.04
Use of sanctions-negative	7.84	3.77	7.27	3.09	1.31
Use of sanctions-positive	11.10	2.74	10.56	2.70	1.62

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

As seen in table 3.2, significant difference was observed in perception of assertion and expertise ($p<0.05$). As indicated by the mean differences, male leaders are perceived as employing assertion as a downward influence tactic to a greater degree as compared to their female counterparts. Also, male leaders as compared to female leaders are perceived as using expertise as a downward influence tactic more frequently.

3.2. Effect of gender of the employee on perception of organizational variables.

3.2.1 Effect of gender of the employee on perception of organizational health.

The data was subjected to 2x4 (gender of the employees x organizational sectors) analysis of the variance to find out the main effects of the gender of the employees and organizational sectors, as well as their interaction effect on perception

of organizational health dimensions. Table 3.3 presents the results of the main effects of gender of the employees on the perception of organizational health dimensions.

As seen in Table 3.3, female and male employees significantly differ only in the perception of organizational health dimension of resource utilization (P<0.05). No significant differences are observed in perception of other organizational health dimensions by male and female employees.

Resource Utilization

As indicated in Table 3.3, male employees significantly differ from female employees in perception of resource utilization as an organizational health dimension (F=3.63, P<0.05). The mean difference indicates that female employees perceive resource utilization in their organizations at a lower end as compared to their male counterparts.

Table 3.3 Mean, S.D. and F ratio of male and female employees on perception on organizational health dimensions.

Organizational Health Dimensions	Male Employees		Female Employees		F ratio
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
Goal Focus	11.81	2.38	11.03	2.27	1.16
Communication Adequacy	12.66	2.29	12.36	2.21	0.01
Optimal Power Equalization	11.96	2.68	11.53	2.67	0.00
Resource Utilization	11.42	2.52	11.20	2.77	3.63*
Cohesiveness	12.13	2.18	11.92	2.19	0.21
Morale	11.29	2.33	11.24	2.30	0.01
Innovativeness	12.44	2.55	12.25	2.58	0.24
Autonomy	12.10	2.49	12.08	2.49	0.19
Adaptation	11.11	2.41	11.12	2.46	0.14
Problem Solving Adequacy	11.11	2.82	10.80	3.11	0.07

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

3.2.2 Effect of gender of the employee on perception of leadership effectiveness.

The data was subjected to 2x4 (gender of employee X organizational sector) analysis of variance, to find out main effects of gender of the employees and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness, as well as their interaction effect on perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions. Table 3.4 presents the results of the main effects of gender of employees on perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions.

Table 3.4 Mean, S.D. and F ratio of male and female employees on perception of dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

Leadership Effectiveness Dimensions	Male employees (n=277)		Female employees (n=123)		F ratio
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	
Interpersonal Relations	44.89	7.38	45.56	8.03	0.39
Intellectual Operations	18.81	3.74	18.86	4.06	0.02
Behavior and Emotional Stability	28.63	4.89	30.34	4.30	4.71*
Moral and Ethic Strength	39.61	7.06	40.02	6.59	0.20
Adequacy of Communication	28.30	4.28	28.65	6.50	0.74
Operations as Citizen	29.48	5.10	28.61	5.54	0.29

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

As seen in Table 3.4, male and female employees significantly differ in the perception of leadership effectiveness dimension of behavioral and emotional stability (F= 4.71, P<0.05). The mean differences in Table 3.4 indicate that female employees attribute their leaders' effectiveness more in terms of their behavioral and emotional stability as compared to their male counterparts. No significant differences are observed in male and female employees' perception of other leadership effectiveness dimensions.

3.2.3 Effect of gender of the employee on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to a 2x4 (gender of the employee X organizational sector) analysis of variance to find out the main effects of the gender of the employees and organizational sector as well as their interaction effect on perceived use of downward influence tactics by the leaders. Table 3.5 presents the results of the main effects of gender of employees on perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Table 3.5 Mean, S.D and F ratio of female and male employees on perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactics	Male employees (n=277)		Female employees (n=123)		F ratio
	Mean	**S.D**	**Mean**	**S.D**	
Assertion	16.97	3.98	14.57	4.08	5.26*
Exchange of benefit	9.03	4.37	7.39	3.49	4.09*
Expertise	13.20	3.67	11.93	3.48	3.13
Rationality	18.05	4.17	17.15	3.76	2.28
Ingratiation	19.48	4.07	18.53	3.59	1.63
Personalized Relations	5.46	2.27	5.18	2.07	2.86
Use of sanctions-negative	8.12	3.78	6.80	3.09	4.25*
Use of sanctions-positive	11.18	2.84	10.51	2.44	1.31

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

As seen in Table 3.5, male and female employees significantly differ in the perception of downward influence tactics of assertion, exchange of benefits and use of sanctions – negative (P<0.05). The trend shows that differences are also observed in perception of expertise (at .07 level) and personalized relations (at .09 level). The mean differences indicate that male employees perceive a greater use of the downward influence tactics of assertion, exchange of benefits and use of sanctions-negative.

3.3 Effect of organizational sectors on the perception of organizational variables

3.3.1. Effect of organizational sectors on perception of organizational health.

In order to find out the difference in the employees perception of Organizational Health across the four organizational sectors, the data was subjected to one way ANOVA. For multiple comparisons of means, Tukey's post-hoc analysis was used.

Table 3.6 Multiple comparison of means of organizational sectors on perception of organizational health dimensions from Tukey's post-hoc.

Organizational Health Dimensions	Education (n=100)		Development (n=100)		Corporate (n=100)		Law Enforcement (n=100)		F Ratio
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
Goal Focus	10.44^{a}	2.46	11.80^{bc}	2.08	11.59^{b}	1.96	12.47^{c}	2.50	6.63**
Communication Adequacy	11.91^{a}	2.44	12.80^{b}	2.08	12.47^{ab}	1.98	13.12^{b}	2.39	2.47**
Optimal Power Equalization	10.72^{a}	3.23	12.21^{bc}	2.43	11.48^{b}	2.12	12.91^{c}	2.35	5.84**
Resource Utilization	11.17	2.70	11.75	2.79	10.89	2.10	11.63	2.72	1.73
Cohesiveness	12.09	2.23	12.22	2.12	11.54	1.81	12.43	2.46	1.83
Morale	10.71^{a}	2.55	11.76^{b}	2.03	11.00^{ab}	1.68	11.66^{b}	2.74	2.15**
Innovativeness	11.22^{a}	2.96	13.23^{b}	2.15	11.99^{a}	1.88	13.09^{b}	2.57	6.95**
Autonomy	11.45^{a}	2.76	12.91^{b}	2.08	11.25^{a}	2.09	12.78^{b}	2.52	6.29**
Adaptation	11.20^{ab}	2.56	11.57^{b}	2.32	10.40^{a}	2.11	11.31^{b}	2.55	3.18*
Problem Solving Adequacy	10.03^{a}	3.33	11.45^{b}	2.94	10.98^{ab}	2.30	11.63^{b}	2.76	2.88**

**P < 0.01, *P < 0.05

Table 3.6 indicates that the employees from the four organizational sectors varied significantly in their perception of organizational health dimensions of goal focus , communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, morale, innovativeness, autonomy and problem solving adequacy ($P<0.01$). Significant differences were also observed in employees' perception of the organizational health dimension of adaptation ($P<0.05$). No significant difference was observed in the perception of cohesiveness as the dimension of organizational health by employees across the four organizational sectors.

Goal Focus

Table 3.6 shows a significant difference ($P<0.01$) in the perception of goal focus dimension of organizational health by employees across different organizational sectors. The mean differences indicate that employees of law enforcement sector perceive a higher degree of goal focus in their organization (m=12.47), as compared to their counterparts in development sector (m=11.80) and corporate sector (m=11.59). With the lowest mean score (m=10.44), employees of the education sector perceive a relatively lesser degree of goal focus in their organizations as compared to their counterparts in other sectors.

Communication Adequacy

The mean differences in Table 3.6 indicate significant differences in employees' perception of communication adequacy dimension of organizational health ($P<0.01$). The employees of education sector significantly differ from employees of development sector and law enforcement sector in perception of communication adequacy. The employees of corporate sector do not differ significantly from employees of all three sectors in perception of communication adequacy. The lowest mean score (m=11.91) of the education sector indicates that the employees of the education sector perceive their organizations as relatively scoring low on the communication adequacy dimension, as compared to their counterparts in the law enforcement sector, which has the highest mean score (m=13.12) on this dimension.

Optimal Power Equalization

In perception of this dimension of organizational health, employees of education sector significantly differ from employees of development sector and law enforcement

sector; employees of corporate sector do not differ significantly from employees of development sector and employees of education sector; employees of development sector do not significantly differ from employees of corporate sector and law enforcement sector. The highest mean score (m=12.91) of the law enforcement sector indicates that employees of this sector relatively perceive a greater degree of optimal power equalization in their organizations, as opposed to the employees of the education sector with the lowest mean score (m=10.72).

Resource Utilization

Table 3.6 indicates toward no significant difference across employees' of all four sectors in the perception of resource utilization dimension of organizational health.

Cohesiveness

There is no significant difference observed among employees of all four sectors in their perception of organizational health dimension of cohesiveness.

Morale

Table 3.6 indicates towards a significant difference in employees' perception of morale across all four sectors. The employees of development sector do not significantly differ from employees of law enforcement sector in perception of morale dimension of organizational health. Employees of corporate sector do not differ from their counterparts in education, development and law enforcement sector in perception of morale. Employees of education sector differ significantly from their counterparts in development and law enforcement sector. The lowest mean score (m=10.71) of education sector indicates toward the employee perception of the organizations being low on the morale dimension of organizational health, as compared to the employee counterparts in the development sector, with the highest mean score (m=11.76).

Innovativeness

As seen in Table 3.6, there is a significant difference in employees' perception of innovativeness dimension across different sectors ($P<0.01$). Employees of education sector do not significantly differ from employees of corporate sector in perception of innovativeness dimension. Employees of development sector do not significantly differ from employees of law enforcement sector in their perception of innovativeness dimension. However, employees of education and corporate sector significantly differ

from employees of development and law enforcement sector, in perception of innovativeness dimension.

Autonomy

Employees of all sectors differ significantly in perception of autonomy dimension of organizational health ($P<0.01$). Mean differences in Table 3.6 indicate that employees of education sector and corporate sector significantly differ from employees of development sector and law enforcement sector in their perception of autonomy.

Adaptation

As seen in Table 3.6, employees of all sectors differ significantly in their perception of adaptation dimension of organizational health ($P<0.05$). Employees of corporate sector significantly differ from their counterparts in law enforcement sector and development sector in perception of adaptation dimension. Employees of education sector do not significantly differ from their counterparts in all three sectors in perception of adaptation. Employees of development sector do not significantly differ from employees of law enforcement sector in perception of adaptation dimension of organizational health. The lowest mean score ($m=10.40$) of corporate sector indicates that the employees perceive their organization as being less effective in adapting to the surrounding environment. In contrast, the highest mean score ($m=11.57$) of development sector indicates that the employees perceive their organization as scoring high on the adaptation dimension of organizational health.

Problem Solving Adequacy

Table 3.6 shows a significant difference in employees' perception of problem solving adequacy dimension across different sectors ($P<0.01$). Employees of education sector differ significantly from their counterparts in development and law enforcement sector in the perception of this dimension. Employees of corporate sector do not differ significantly in the perception of problem solving adequacy from their counterparts in the other three sectors. Employees of development sector do not significantly differ from employees of law enforcement sector in perception of problem solving adequacy. The lowest mean score ($m=10.03$) of education sector indicates that employees of education sector perceive their organization as relatively less efficient in solving problems, as opposed to their counterparts in law enforcement sectors with the highest mean score ($m=11.63$).

3.3.2. Effect of organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness

In order to find out the differences in the employees perception of leadership effectiveness across the four organizational sectors, the data was subjected to One way ANOVA. For multiple comparison of means, Tukey's post-hoc analysis was used.

Table 3.7 indicates that the employees from the four different organizational contexts differed significantly in their perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions of behavioral and emotional stability, ethical and moral strength and operations as a citizen (P<0.01). Also significantly differences were observed in leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations and adequacy of communications (P<0.05). No significant difference was observed in the perception of intellectual operations as a dimension of leadership effectiveness by employees across the four organizational sectors.

TABLE 3.7 Multiple comparison of means of organizational sectors on perceived leadership effectiveness from Tukey's post-hoc.

Leadership Effectiveness Dimensions	Education (n=100)		Development (n=100)		Corporate (n=100)		Law Enforcement (n=100)		F ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Interpersonal Relations	43.61[a]	9.44	45.98[ab]	6.77	46.98[b]	6.69	43.85[a]	6.62	2.84*
Intellectual Operations	18.33	4.42	19.15	4.11	19.02	3.30	18.83	3.40	0.43
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	29.06[b]	5.41	29.37[b]	3.74	31.17[c]	4.31	27.05[a]	4.63	5.14**
Ethical & Moral Strength	37.73[a]	7.86	40.63[b]	6.21	40.85[b]	6.92	39.76[ab]	6.17	3.65**
Adequacy of Communication	27.19[a]	5.08	29.27[b]	6.67	28.41[ab]	3.64	28.78[ab]	4.18	2.97*
Operations as a Citizen	26.84[a]	6.43	29.61[b]	4.44	30.29[b]	4.64	30.12[b]	4.54	7.79**

*P<0.01, **P<0.05

Interpersonal Relations

Table 3.7 shows a significant difference ($P<0.05$) in the perception of interpersonal relations as a dimension of leadership effectiveness by employees across different organizational contexts. The employees of education sector do not significantly differ from employees of law enforcement sector in perception of interpersonal relations. The employees of development sector do not differ significantly from their counterparts in the other three sectors in perception of interpersonal relations. However, the employees of corporate sector significantly differ from their counterparts in law enforcement and education sector. The highest mean score ($m=46.98$) of corporate sector indicates that employees perceive their leader as being capable of guiding the group activities and taking interest in the group members and their activities. On the other hand, the employees of law enforcement and education sector relatively perceive a lower involvement of their leader toward group activities and group members.

Behavioral and Emotional Stability

The employees of four different sectors differ significantly in their perception of leadership effectiveness dimension of behavioral and emotional stability as shown in Table 3.7 ($P<0.01$). The employees of law enforcement sector significantly differ from their counterparts in other three sectors. Also, employees of corporate sector significantly differ from their counterparts in other three sectors. Employees of education sector do not significantly differ from employees of development sector in perception of behavioral and emotional. The highest mean score ($m=31.17$) of corporate sector indicates that leaders in these organizations are perceived as being calm, confident, dependable and consistent in their words and actions. On the other hand, lowest mean score ($m=27.05$) of law enforcement sector indicates that the employees perceive their leaders as relatively being less predictable and stable in their emotions and behaviors.

Operations as a Citizen

As seen in table 3.7, in perception of the leadership effectiveness dimension of operations as a citizen, significant differences are observed across different sectors ($P<0.01$). Employees of education sector significantly differ from their counterparts in

other three sectors in perception of this dimension. Employees of development sector, corporate sector and law enforcement sector do not differ significantly from each other in perception of operations as a citizen dimension. The lowest mean score (m=26.84) of education sector indicates that leaders in these organizations are perceived as relatively less effective in functioning as a liaison officer between the organization and the community.

3.3.3. Effect of organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics

In order to find out the difference in the employees' perception of downward influence tactics across the four organizational sectors, the data was subjected to one way ANOVA. For multiple comparison of means, Tukey's post-hoc analysis was used.

TABLE 3.8 Multiple comparison of means of organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics from Tukey's post-hoc.

Downward Influence Tactic	Education (n=100)		Development (n=100)		Corporate (n=100)		Law Enforcement (n=100)		F ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Assertion	15.38^{a}	4.12	15.34^{a}	4.16	16.46^{ab}	3.80	17.75^{b}	4.14	2.27
Exchange of Benefits	7.63^{a}	4.09	8.86^{ab}	3.94	7.90^{a}	4.08	9.74^{b}	4.34	3.11*
Expertise	12.27^{a}	3.68	12.33^{a}	3.51	13.5^{a}	3.66	13.1^{a}	3.68	1.45
Rationality	17.48^{a}	4.56	17.15^{a}	3.80	18.61^{a}	3.34	17.87^{a}	4.35	1.99
Ingratiation	17.52^{a}	4.16	20.17^{b}	3.70	18.89^{ab}	3.45	20.19^{b}	3.89	9.61**
Personalized Relations	5.42^{ab}	2.31	5.65^{b}	2.07	4.68^{a}	2.23	5.77^{b}	2.11	3.39**
Use of Sanctions-Positive	7.67^{ab}	4.00	7.58^{ab}	3.33	6.88^{a}	2.74	8.75^{b}	4.09	1.95
Use Of Sanctions-Negative	10.94^{a}	2.66	10.92^{a}	2.90	10.54^{a}	2.07	11.52^{a}	3.16	0.70

*P<0.01, **P<0.05

Table 3.8 indicates that the employees from the different organizational sectors varied significantly in their perception of downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits, ingratiation, and personalized relations. Difference in Perception of Assertion as an influence tactic was observed at 0.07 level of significance. A high mean score (m=17.75) of law enforcement sector indicates that leaders in these organizations are perceived as using, more of assertion tactics to influence the subordinates.

Exchange of Benefits

Table 3.8 shows a significant difference in the perception of exchange of benefits by employees across different sectors ($P<0.05$). The employees of development sector do not significantly differ from their counterparts in other three sectors. The employees of education sector do not significantly differ from their counterparts in corporate sector in perceived use of exchange of benefits. The employees of law enforcement sector significantly differ from their counterparts in education and corporate sector. As indicated by the mean scores in Table 3.8, the employees of the law enforcement sector perceive a greater use of this tactic as compared to their counterparts in the three sectors.

Ingratiation

The mean differences in table 3.8 indicate toward a significant difference in employees' perception of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic across different sectors ($P<0.01$). The employees of corporate sector do not significantly differ from their counterparts in other three sectors. The employees of development sector do not differ significantly from employees of law enforcement sector in perceived use of ingratiation. The employees of education sector significantly differ from their counterparts in development sector and law enforcement sector. As indicated by the mean score in table 3.8, ingratiation as a downward influence tactic is more frequently employed in the development and law enforcement sector and least employed in the education sector.

Personalized Relations

Table 3.8 indicates toward a significant difference in employees' perception of personalized relations, across different sectors (P<0.01). The employees of education sector do not differ significantly from their counterparts in other three sectors. The employees of development sector and law enforcement sector do not significantly differ in leader's perceived use of personalized relations. Employees of corporate sector significantly differ from employees of development sector and law enforcement sector in perceived use of personalized relations. The lowest mean score (m=4.68) of corporate sector indicates toward a lesser perceived use of personalized relations.

3.4. Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of organizational variables

3.4.1 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of organizational health

In order to study the interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors in the perception of organizational health, the data was subjected to 2 x 4 (gender of the employee X organizational sectors) analysis of variance. For multiple comparisons of means, Tukey's post-hoc analysis was used.

As seen Table 3.9, there is a significant difference ($F = 2.60$, $p < 0.05$) in the perception of adaptation dimension of organizational health between male and female employees across different organizational sectors. No significant interaction effects were observed in perception of other organizational health dimensions between male and female employees across the sectors.

Table 3.9: Interaction effects of gender of the employee and the organizational sectors on perception of organizational health dimensions.

Organizational Health Dimensions	Education sector (n=100)		Development sector (n=100)		Corporate sector (n=100)		Law enforcement sector (n=100)		F ratio
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Goal Focus	10.85	9.93	12.00	11.65	11.61	11.46	12.47	12.40	0.48
	(2.39)	(2.47)	(2.44)	(1.78)	(2.03)	(1.59)	(2.45)	(3.71)	
Communication	12.01	11.77	13.02	12.63	12.41	12.80	13.11	13.20	0.36
Adequacy	(2.46)	(2.43)	(1.93)	(2.19)	(2.06)	(1.47)	(2.44)	(1.30)	
Optimal Power	10.72	10.71	12.40	12.06	11.51	11.26	12.87	13.60	0.25
Equalization	(3.16)	(3.35)	(2.86)	(2.09)	(2.14)	(2.01)	(2.40)	(0.89)	
Resource	11.45	10.82	11.69	11.79	10.94	10.60	11.73	9.60	1.085
utilization	(2.80)	(2.55)	(2.68)	(2.88)	(2.06)	(2.35)	(2.63)	(3.78)	
Cohesiveness	12.45	11.64	12.23	12.20	11.56	11.40	12.41	12.80	0.75
	(2.18)	(2.23)	(2.16)	(2.10)	(1.82)	(1.84)	(2.42)	(3.49)	
Morale	10.83	10.55	11.71	11.79	10.98	11.06	11.66	11.60	0.12
	(2.55)	(2.56)	(2.23)	(1.88)	(1.78)	(1.03)	(2.61)	(5.07)	
Innovativeness	11.43	10.95	13.38	13.12	11.97	12.06	13.02	14.40	0.83
	(2.96)	(2.98)	(2.31)	(2.05)	(1.93)	(1.62)	(2.61)	(0.89)	
Autonomy	11.81	11.00	12.92	12.89	11.18	11.60	12.72	13.80	1.319
	(2.76)	(2.73)	(2.21)	(2.00)	(2.10)	(2.09)	(2.51)	(2.68)	
Adaptation	11.25^{b}	11.13^{b}	12.28^{b}	11.05^{b}	10.31^{a}	10.86^{a}	11.24^{b}	12.60^{b}	2.60*
	(2.66)	(2.45)	(1.86)	(0.49)	(2.13)	(2.03)	(2.49)	(3.57)	
Problem	10.07	9.97	11.76	11.22	10.96	11.06	11.57	12.60	0.44
Solving	(3.32)	(3.38)	(3.22)	(2.74)	(2.20)	(2.89)	(2.68)	(4.33)	
Adequacy									

**P< 0.01, *P < 0.05

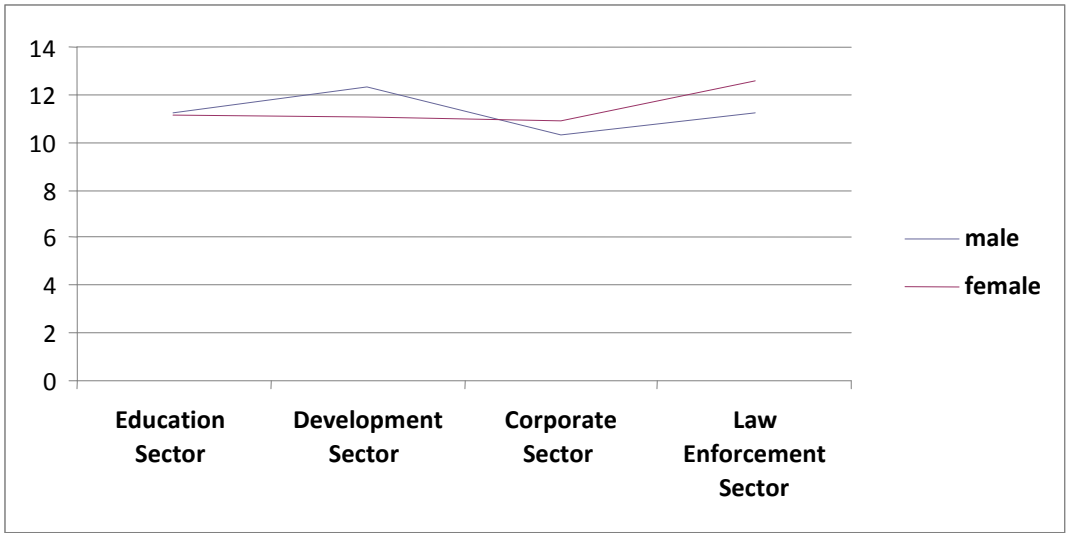

Figure 3.1The mean scores of male and female employees on adaptation dimension across the four organizational sectors

As seen in the figure 3.1, male and female employees of the law enforcement sector perceive their organizations as higher on the adaptation dimension as compared to their counterparts in other three sectors. Male and female employees of the corporate sector perceive their organizations as law on the adaptation dimension as compared to their counterparts in other three sectors. Female employees of the law enforcement sector perceive a greater degree of adaptation dimensions as compared to their counterparts of the sector. Female employees of education, development and corporate sector do not significantly differ in their perception of adaptation dimension of organizational health. However, the female employees of these three significantly differ from the female employees of law enforcement sector in perception of adaptation dimension. Male and female employees of education sector do not significantly differ in the perception of adaptation dimension. Significant difference is observed between male and female employees of development sector and law enforcement sector in the perception of organizational health dimension of adaptation.

3.4.2 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness

The data was subjected to 2 x 4 (gender of the employee X organizational sectors) analysis of variance in order to find out their interaction effect on perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions.

As shown in table 3.10, no significant interaction effects of gender of the employees and organizational sectors are observed on any of the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. This implies that male and female employees from varied organizational sectors do not differ significantly in perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions.

Table 3.10: Interaction effects of gender of the employee and the organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions.

Leadership Effectiveness Dimensions.	Education sector		Development sector		Corporate sector		Law Enforcement sector		F ratio
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Interpersonal	43.20	44.11	45.45	46.36	46.94	47.20	43.81	44.60	0.02
Relations	(9.26)	(9.74)	(7.21)	(6.47)	(6.56)	(7.63)	(6.54)	(8.90)	
Intellectual	18.05	18.66	19.38	18.98	18.97	19.26	18.87	18.00	0.39
Operations	(4.57)	(4.26)	(4.46)	(3.86)	(3.25)	(3.67)	(3.22)	(6.36)	
Behavioural &	27.87	30.51	28.54	29.96	31.00	32.13	27.01	27.80	0.51
Emotional	(5.18)	(5.39)	(4.03)	(3.42)	(4.48)	(3.15)	(4.66)	(4.54)	
Stability									
Ethical & Moral	36.85	38.80	40.47	40.74	40.77	41.26	39.80	39.00	0.37
Strength	(8.59)	(6.81)	(6.86)	(5.76)	(6.83)	(7.66)	(5.97)	(10.19)	
Adequacy of	27.05	27.35	28.90	29.53	28.37	28.60	28.70	30.20	0.09
Communication	(5.18)	(5.00)	(4.70)	(7.82)	(3.60)	(3.97)	(3.99)	(7.46)	
Operations as a	26.81	26.86	29.88	29.41	30.17	30.93	30.22	28.20	0.39
citizen	(6.69)	(6.18)	(4.86)	(4.14)	(4.51)	(5.47)	(4.13)	(10.23)	

**P< 0.01, *P < 0.05

3.4.3 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to 2 X 4 (gender of the employee X organizational sectors) analysis of variance in order to find out their interaction effect on perceived use of downward influence tactics by leaders.

As seen in Table 3.11, no significant interaction effects of gender of the employee and organizational sector are observed in perception of leader's use of downward influence tactics. This means that male and female employees across varied organizational sectors do not significantly differ in perception of their leader's use of downward influence tactics.

Table 3.11: Interaction effects of gender of the employee and the organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics by the leaders.

Downward Influence Tactics	Education sector		Development sector		Corporate sector		Law Enforcement sector		F ratio
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Assertion	16.38 (4.28)	14.15 (3.59)	16.78 (3.61)	14.29 (4.25)	16.56 (3.65)	15.86 (4.65)	17.75 (4.18)	17.60 (3.50)	0.92
Exchange of Benefits	8.72 (4.60)	6.28 (2.91)	10.07 (4.12)	7.98 (3.59)	7.91 (4.05)	7.80 (4.41)	9.75 (4.44)	9.40 (1.81)	1.16
Expertise	12.45 (3.78)	12.04 (3.57)	13.54 (3.40)	11.44 (3.34)	13.51 (3.65)	13.53 (3.87)	13.20 (3.73)	11.80 (2.28)	1.32
Rationality	17.40 (5.10)	17.57 (3.86)	18.00 (4.07)	16.53 (3.49)	18.55 (3.30)	18.93 (3.67)	18.01 (4.31)	15.20 (4.71)	1.40
Ingratiation	17.96 (4.52)	16.97 (3.66)	20.80 (4.22)	19.70 (3.23)	19.02 (3.44)	18.13 (3.56)	20.18 (3.98)	20.20 (1.30)	0.11
Personalized Relations	5.67 (2.47)	5.11 (2.08)	5.83 (2.22)	5.51 (1.95)	4.76 (2.19)	4.20 (2.48)	5.81 (2.14)	5.00 (1.41)	0.09
Use of sanctions-negative	8.65 (4.49)	6.46 (2.92)	8.26 (3.24)	7.08 (3.33)	7.01 (2.76)	6.13 (2.55)	8.75 (4.16)	8.60 (2.79)	0.72
Use of sanctions-positive	11.45 (2.92)	10.31 (2.18)	11.40 (3.11)	10.56 (2.70)	10.54 (2.06)	10.53 (2.19)	11.51 (3.21)	11.60 (2.40)	0.64

**P < 0.01, * P < 0.05

3.5 Effect of age of the leader on perception of organizational variables

3.5.1. Effect of age of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness

The data was subjected to one way ANOVA to find out differences in employee respondents' perception of leadership effectiveness between leaders of different age groups. The leader sample was divided into three age groups – age group 1 (25-45 years), age group 2 (46-55 years) and age group 3 (56 years and above).

Table 3.12: Mean, S.D., and F ratio of leaders across different age groups on their perceived leadership effectiveness by employee respondents.

Leadership Effectiveness Dimensions	(1) (25-45 years) (n=37)		(2) (46-55 years) (n=20)		(3) (56 –above) (n=23)		F Ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Interpersonal Relations	45.35	6.91	44.95	7.66	44.84	8.54	0.18
Intellectual Operations	19.18	3.54	18.71	3.78	18.36	4.28	1.70
Behavioral and Emotional Stability	29.52	4.72	29.31	4.95	28.45	4.67	1.85
Moral and Ethical Strength	40.43	6.66	39.52	7.09	38.81	7.09	2.02
Adequacy of Communication	28.83	4.14	27.97	4.23	28.11	6.78	1.23
Operations as a Citizen	29.97b	4.63	28.91ab	5.24	28.26a	6.01	4.04**

**P<0.01, *P<0.005

As seen in table 3.12, age of the leader does not significantly affect the perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, emotional stability, moral and ethical strength and adequacy of communications. However, there is a significant difference between leaders across varied age groups in perception of the operations as a citizen dimensions of leadership effectiveness (F=4.04, P<0.01).

As seen from the mean differences in table 3.12, the young leaders, ages ranging from 25-45 years are perceived as relatively more effective on the operations as a citizen dimension of leadership effectiveness as compared to the leader counterparts in other age groups. The leaders of the age group 1 (25-45 years) significantly differ from leaders of the age group 3 (56 years and above) in perception of operations as a citizen dimension of leadership effectiveness. The leaders of the age group 2 (46-55

years) do not significantly differ from the leaders of the age group 1 (25-45 years) and age group 3 (56 years and above) in the operations as a citizen dimension of leadership effectiveness.

3.5.2. Effect of age of the leader on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to one way ANOVA to find out differences in perceived use of downward tactics between leaders of different age groups. The leader sample was divided into three age groups – age group 1 (25-45 years), age group 2 (46-55 years) and age group 3 (56 years and above).

Table 3.13 Mean, S.D and F ratio of leaders across different age groups on their perceived use of downward influence tactics by employee respondents.

Downward Influence Tactics	(1) (25-45 years) n=37		(2) (46-55 years) n=20		(3) (56 years-above) n=23		F ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Assertion	16.51a	4.16	16.64a	3.81	15.41a	4.36	3.15*
Exchange of Benefit	8.86	4.30	7.93	3.74	8.52	4.33	1.62
Expert Knowledge	13.07	3.79	12.64	3.58	12.54	3.49	0.86
Rationality	18.06	3.85	17.23	4.29	17.79	4.18	1.37
Ingratiation	19.84b	3.81	19.04ab	3.52	18.27a	4.34	5.78**
Personalized Relations	5.51	2.11	5.33	2.03	5.20	2.51	0.76
Use of Sanctions	7.73	3.64	7.78	3.74	7.64	3.53	0.04
Negative Use of Sanctions	11.07	2.85	10.96	2.79	10.84	2.52	0.25
Positive							

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

As seen in table 3.13, age of the leader significantly affects the leader's perceived use of downward influence tactics of assertion ($F=3.15$, $p<0.05$) and ingratiation ($F=5.78$, $p<0.01$). Leaders of the age ranging from 46-55 years are perceived to be using assertion as a downward influence tactic to a greater degree as compared to the leader counterparts of the age range 25-45 years and 56 years and above age range. In the perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic, leaders of the age ranging from 25-45 years with the highest mean score ($m=19.84$) significantly differ from leaders of the age group 56 years and above. Leaders of the age ranging from 46-55 years do not significantly differ from leaders of the age group 1 (25-45 years) and age group 2 (56 years and above) in their perceived use of downward influence tactic of ingratiation.

3.6. Effect of work experience of the leader on perception of organizational variables

3.6.1. Effect of work experience of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness

The data was subjected to one way ANOVA to find out differences in employee respondents' perception of leadership effectiveness between leaders with varied work experience (in years).

Table 3.14 Mean, S.D., and F ratio of years of work experience of leaders on perception of leadership effectiveness.

Leadership Effectiveness dimensions	(1) (1 – 10 years)		(2) (11 –20 years)		(3) (21 – 30 years)		(4) (31 – 50 years)		F Ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Interpersonal Relations	45.84	7.63	45.14	6.48	44.96	8.14	44.74	8.24	0.29
Intellectual Operations	19.43	3.87	18.99	3.41	18.69	4.28	18.40	3.82	1.06
Behavioral and Emotional Stability	28.90	5.39	29.79	4.34	28.95	5.01	28.78	4.62	1.07
Ethical and Moral Strength	39.95	7.16	40.72	6.43	39.05	7.31	39.12	6.85	1.49
Adequacy of Communication	28.26	4.48	29.19	3.80	27.76	4.65	28.22	6.78	1.63
Operations as a citizen	29.41	4.93	30.01	4.53	28.83	5.78	28.51	5.61	1.81

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

The number of years of work experience of leaders was divided into four groups – group 1 (1-10 years), group 2 (11-20 years), group 3 (21-30 years), group 4 (31-50 years). As seen in table 3.14, the number of years of work experience of the leader does not significantly affect the perception of any of the leadership effectiveness dimensions.

3.6.2. Effect of work experience of the leader on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to one way ANOVA to find out differences in employee respondents' perception of downward influence tactics by leaders with varied work experience (in years).

Table 3.15 Mean, S.D., and F ratio of years of work experience of leaders on perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactic	(1) (1 – 10 years)		(2) (11 –20 years)		(3) (21 – 30 years)		(4) (31 – 50 years)		F Ratio
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Assertion	16.76	3.68	16.16	4.49	16.26	3.91	15.94	4.30	0.54
Exchange of Benefit	9.56^{b}	4.34	8.71^{ab}	4.39	7.77^{a}	3.84	8.43^{ab}	4.07	2.60*
Expert Knowledge	13.50	3.57	13.17	3.72	12.60	3.70	12.16	3.51	2.44
Rationality	18.98^{b}	3.87	17.89^{ab}	3.50	17.29^{a}	4.45	17.37^{a}	4.49	2.82*
Ingratiation	20.20^{b}	3.93	19.52^{ab}	3.76	19.12^{ab}	3.89	18.24^{a}	4.08	3.77**
Personalized Relations	6.27^{b}	2.00	5.37^{a}	2.23	5.14^{a}	2.12	5.06^{a}	2.29	4.77**
Sanction Negative	8.41	4.28	7.48	3.32	7.80	4.04	7.47	3.05	1.14
Sanction Positive	11.81^{b}	3.27	10.92^{ab}	2.53	10.70^{a}	2.88	10.80^{ab}	2.39	2.55*

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

As seen in table 3.15, we observe a significant difference in the perception of downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits, rationality, ingratiation, personalized relations and use of sanctions – positive.

Exchange of Benefits

Table 3.15 indicates a significant difference (F=2.60, p<0.05) in the perceived use of downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits across leaders differing in number of years of work experience.

The lowest mean score of leaders in group 3 (21-30 years) communicates to us that leaders with work experience of 21 through 30 years are perceived to engage in a relatively lesser use of exchange of benefit as a tactic to influence subordinates. The leaders of group 2 (11 – 20 years) do not differ significantly from leaders of group 4 (31 – 50 years) in their perceived use of exchange of benefits as a downward

influence tactic. The highest mean score (mean = 9.56) of group 1 indicates that leaders with work experience of 1 – 10 years are perceived to be using exchange of benefits to a greater extent as compared to leaders with different levels of work experience. The leaders having 1 – 10 years of work experience, and 21 – 30 years of work experience do not significantly differ from leaders having 11 – 20 years of work experience and 31 – 50 years of work experience. However, a significant difference in perceived use of exchange of benefits is observed between leaders having 1 – 10 years of work experience and leaders having 21- 30 years of work experience.

Rationality

There is a significant difference in the perceived use of downward influence tactic of rationality across leaders with respect to the number of years of their work experience. ($F=2.82$, $P<0.05$). The highest mean score (mean =18.98) implies that leaders with work experience of 1 – 10 years are perceives as using rationality to influence their subordinates to a greater extent as compared to leaders at other levels of work experience. The leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience do not significantly differ from leaders with 11 – 20 years of work experience in their perceived use of rationality as an influence tactic. However, the leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience significantly differ from leaders with 21 – 30 years and 31 – 50 years of work experience in the perceived use of rationality.

The leaders with work experience of 21 – 30 years and 31 – 50 years do not significantly differ from leaders with 11- 20 years of work experience in the perceived use of rationality as a downward influence tactic.

Use of Sanctions-Positive

A significant difference is observed in the perception of use of sanctions-positive between leaders at different levels of work experience ($F=2.55$, $p<0.05$). The highest mean score (mean =11.81) of group 1 indicates that leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience are perceived as employing a relatively greater degree of positive sanctions as an influence tactic when compared to their counterparts at other levels of work experience. The lowest mean score (mean =10.70) of group 3 indicates that leaders with 21-30 years of work experience are perceived as engaging in a relatively lesser degree of use of positive sanctions as an influence tactic when compared to

their counterparts at other levels of work experience. The leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience significantly differ from leaders with 21 – 30 years of work experience in the perceived use of positive sanctions as a downward influence tactic. The leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience and leaders with 21 – 30 years of work experience do not significantly differ from leaders with 31 – 50 years of work experience.

Ingratiation

Table 3.15 shows a significant difference in the perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic across leaders at different levels of work experience ($F=3.77$, $p<0.01$). The highest mean score (mean = 20.20) of leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience indicates towards a relative increase in the perception of their use of ingratiation as a tactic to influence subordinates, as compared to the leader counterparts at other levels of work experience. The lowest mean score (mean = 18.24) of leaders with 31 – 50 years of work experience indicates towards the perception of their lesser use of ingratiation tactic as compared to the leader counterparts at other levels of work experience. The leaders with work experience of 1 – 10 years do not significantly differ from leaders with work experience of 11 – 20 years and 21 – 30 years in their perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic. The leaders with work experience of 31 – 50 years do not significantly differ from leaders with work experience of 11 – 20 years and 21 – 30 years in their perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic. The leaders with work experience of 11 – 20 years do not significantly differ from leaders with work experience of 21 – 30 years in their perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic. The leaders with 1 – 10 years of work experience significantly differ from leaders with 31 – 50 years of work experience in their perceived use of ingratiation as a downward influence tactic.

3.7 Interaction effect of age and work experience of the leaders on perception of organizational variables

3.7.1 Interaction effect of age and work experience of the leaders on perception of leadership effectiveness

In order to study the interaction effect of age of the leader and work experience of the leader in the perception of leadership effectiveness, the data was

subjected to 3x4 (age of leader x work experience of leader) analysis of variance. For multiple comparisons of means, Tukey's post-hoc analysis was used.

The age of the leader was divided into three age groups- group 1 (25-45 years), group 2 (46-55 years) and group 3 (56 and above). The work experience of leader was divided on the basis of number of years- 1-10 years, 11-20 years, 21-30 years and 31-50 years.

As seen in the table 3.16, significant interaction effect is observed in the perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions of Operations as a Citizen ($P<0.05$), Interpersonal Relations, Intellectual Operations and Emotional and Behavioral Stability ($P<0.01$). No interaction effect is observed in the perception of Ethical and Moral Strength and Adequacy of Communication.

Table 3.16: Showing interaction effects of age of the leader and years of work experience of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness.

Leadership Effectiveness	1-10 years			11-20 years			21-30 years			31-50 years			F ratio
	1 (n=65)	2 (n=0)	3 (n=0)	1 (n=110)	2 (n=5)	3 (n=10)	1 (n=10)	2 (n=70)	3 (n=25)	1 (n=0)	2 (n=25)	3 (n=80)	
Interpersonal Relations	45.84 (7.63)	a	a	45.00 (6.42)	39.80 (4.20)	49.40 (5.98)	46.00 (7.76)	45.88 (7.37)	41.96 (9.81)	a	43.36 (8.51)	45.17 (8.16)	4.00**
Intellectual Operations	19.43 (3.87)	a	a	18.99 (3.28)	15.80 (1.78)	20.60 (4.50)	19.80 (4.43)	19.17 (3.85)	16.92 (5.00)	a	18.00 (3.57)	18.53 (3.91)	4.15**
Behavioral and Emotional Stability	28.90 (5.39)	a	a	29.82 (4.47)	29.60 (3.78)	29.50 (3.34)	30.20 (1.39)	29.95 (5.05)	25.64 (4.44)	a	27.44 (4.54)	29.20 (4.59)	5.47**
Ethical and Moral Strength	39.95 (7.16)	a	a	40.76 (6.36)	36.40 (6.98)	42.50 (6.67)	40.00 (6.97)	39.84 (7.36)	36.48 (6.95)	a	39.24 (6.43)	39.08 (7.01)	2.05
Adequacy of Communication	28.26 (4.48)	a	a	29.17 (3.77)	26.60 (3.84)	30.70 (3.74)	28.90 (5.56)	28.10 (4.11)	26.36 (5.55)	a	27.88 (4.74)	28.33 (7.32)	1.63
Operations as a citizen	29.41 (4.93)	a	a	30.28 (4.41)	24.00 (4.12)	30.10 (4.43)	30.20 (5.20)	29.42 (5.25)	26.64 (6.98)	a	28.44 (5.03)	28.53 (5.81)	3.06*

** P< 0.01,* P<0.05

a. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimated.

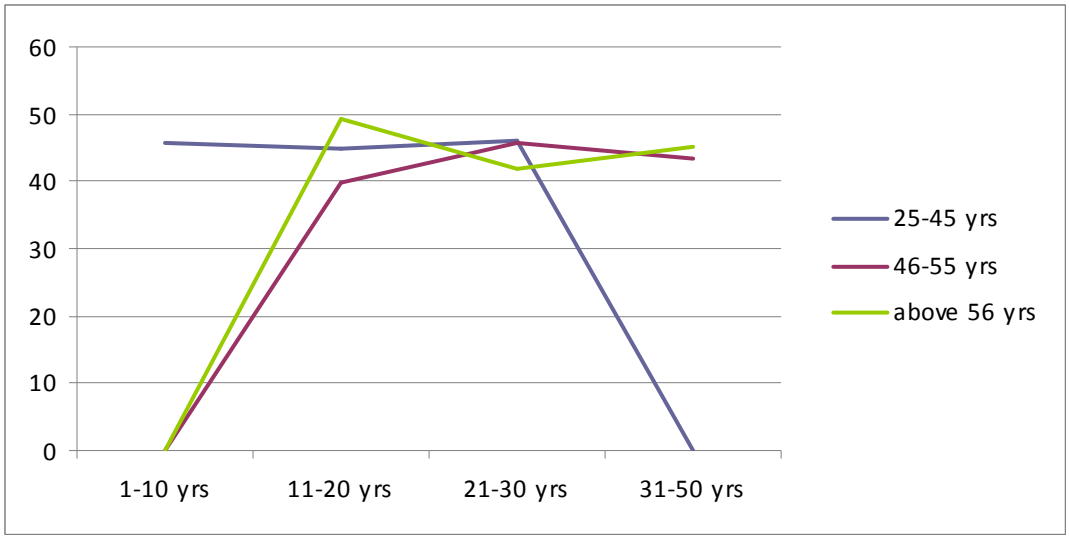

Figure 3.2 Mean scores on perception of interpersonal relations of leaders of different age groups and years of work experience.

There are no leaders in the category of 25-45 years of age group having work experience of 31-50 years, and no leaders in the category of 46-55 years and 56 years & above with 1-10 years of work experience.

As seen in the figure 3.2, the leaders in the age group 25-45 years do not significantly differ in their perceived effectiveness on interpersonal relations across the work experience groups. Leaders of age group 46-55 years significantly differ in their perceived interpersonal relations across the work experience groups. Leaders of this age group having work experience of 11-20 years, have a mean score of 39.8 on the interpersonal relations dimension. As this age group of leaders enters the work experience group of 21-30 years, there is an increase in their perceived interpersonal relations mean score (45.88), beyond which with leaders having work experience of 31-50 years show a slight decline in perception of interpersonal relations (mean score = 43.36).Leaders of the age group 56 years and above exhibit significant differences in their perception of interpersonal relations across the work experience groups. Highest degree of effectiveness on interpersonal relations is observed in leaders of this age group with 11-20 years of work experience (mean score = 49.4). There is a sharp decline in perception of this dimension of leaders of age group 56 years & above with work experience of 21-30 years. Beyond this, leaders of this age group having work experience of 31-50 years, show a slight increase in the mean score on interpersonal relations dimension.

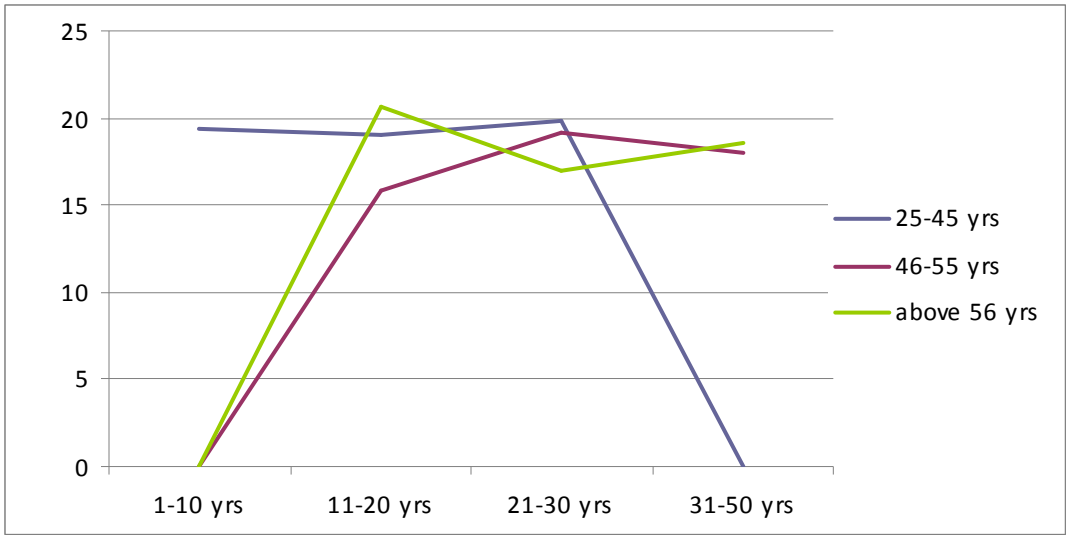

Figure 3.3 Mean score on perception of intellectual operations of leaders of different age groups and years of work experience.

There are no leaders in the category of 25-45 years of age group having work experience of 31-50 years, and no leaders in the category of 46-55 years and 56 years & above with 1-10 years of work experience. As seen in the figure 3.3, leaders of age group 25-45 years do not differ significantly in their perceived effectiveness on the dimension of intellectual operations across the work experience groups. Significant differences are observed in leaders of the age group 46-55 years in the perception of intellectual operations, across the work experience groups. Leaders of this age group having work experience of 11-20 years are perceived as comparatively less effective on the intellectual operations. Highest degree of effectiveness on this dimension is observed in leaders of this age group having work experience of 21-30 years. Beyond this, leaders of this age group show a slight decline in the perception of this dimension as they fall in the work experience group of 31-50 years. Leaders in the age group of 56 years and above significantly differ across the varied work experience groups on the leadership effectiveness dimension of intellectual operations. The highest degree of effectiveness on this dimension is observed in leaders of this age group having 11-20 years of work experience. There is a sharp decline in perception of this dimension in leaders of this age group having 21-30 years of work experience. There is a slight decline in perceived effectiveness on this dimension of leaders of this age group in 31-50 years of work experience.

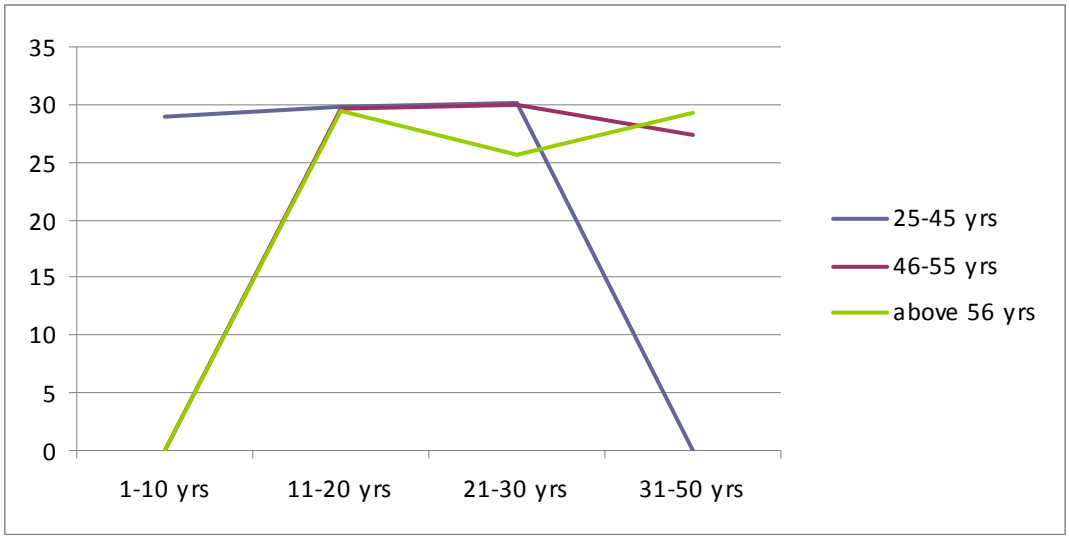

Figure 3.4 Mean scores on behavioral & emotional stability of leaders of different age groups and years of work experiences.

There are no leaders in the category of 25-45 years of age group having work experience of 31-50 years, and no leaders in the category of 46-55 years and 56 years & above with 1-10 years of work experience.

As seen in the figure 3.4, leaders of the age group 25-45 years do not significantly differ across varied work experience groups on the dimension of behavioral & emotional stability. Leaders in the age group of 46-55 years having work experience of 11-20 years do not significantly differ from the same age group leaders having 21-30 years of work experience. However, leaders in this age group are perceived as lower on this dimension as they move to the work experience slot of 31-50 years. There is a significant difference in perception of behavioral & emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness in leaders of 56 years and above age across varied work experience groups. Leaders of this age group having work experience of 11-20 years and 31-50 years do not significantly differ in their perception of behavioral & emotional stability. However, leaders of this age group having work experience of 21-30 years significantly differ from leaders having 11-20 years and 31-50 years of work experience.

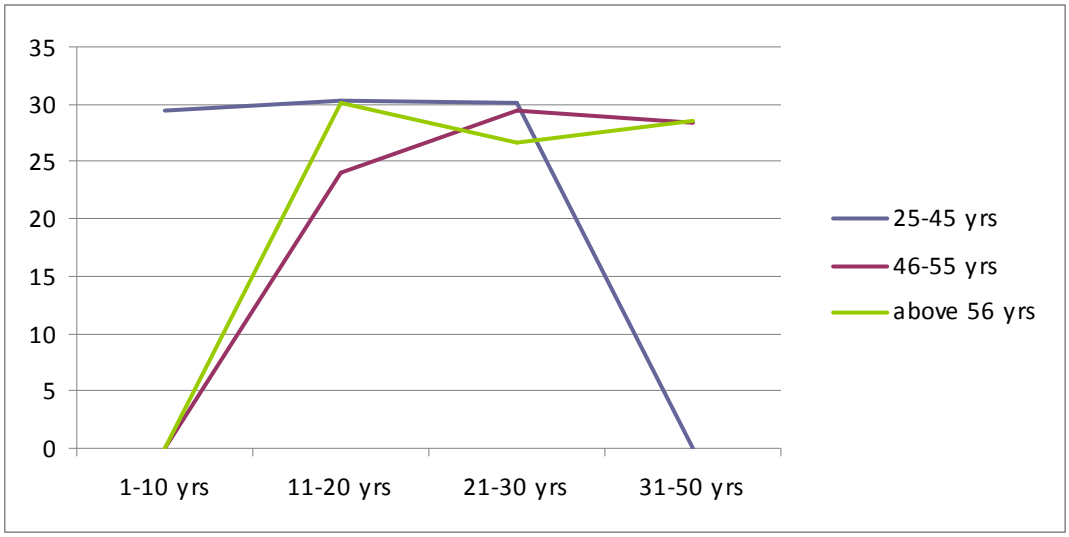

Figure 3.5 Mean scores of operations as a citizen of leaders of different age groups and years of work experiences.

There are no leaders in the category of 25-45 years of age group having work experience of 31-50 years, and no leaders in the category of 46-55 years and 56 years & above with 1-10 years of work experience.

As seen in the figure 3.5, the leaders of age group 25-45 years do not significantly differ in their perceived effectiveness on the dimension of operations as a citizen across varied work experience groups. Significant differences are observed between leaders in the age group of 46-55 years and 56 years and above, on the dimension of operations as a citizen. In the age group of 46-55 years, leaders having 11-20 years of work experience are perceived as comparatively lower on the operations as a citizen dimension. There is an increase in perception of this dimension of leaders of this age group, as they advance into the work experience slot of 21-30 years; beyond which there is a slight decline observed in leaders of this age group on operations as a citizen as they advance toward the work experience group of 31-50 years. Highest degree of effectiveness on this dimension in age group of 56 years and above is perceived in leaders having 11-20 years of work experience. There is a slight decrease in perception of operations as a citizen as leaders of age group 56 years and above advance into the work experience group of 21-30 years. Beyond this, leaders of this age group are perceived as relatively higher on this dimension as they enter the work experience group of 31-50 years.

3.7.2 Interaction effect of age and years of work experience of the leaders on perceived use of downward influence tactics

As seen in table 3.17, no significant interaction effect of age of leader and work experience of leader is observed on perception of leader's use of downward influence tactics. However, the trend shows that an interaction is observed of age and work experience of the leader on the perception of use of negative sanctions ($P<0.07$)

Table 3.17: Interaction effect of age of the leader and years of work experience of the leader on perception of leader's use of downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactics	1-10 years			11-20 years			21-30 years			31-50 years			F ratio
	1 n=65	2 n=0	3 n=0	1 n=110	2 n=5	3 n=10	1 n=10	2 n=70	3 n=25	1 n=0	2 n=25	3 n=80	
Assertion	16.76 (3.68)	a	a	16.47 (4.48)	14.40 (3.36)	13.70 (4.39)	15.40 (3.59)	16.80 (3.82)	15.12 (4.11)	a	16.64 (3.86)	15.72 (4.42)	1.04
Exchange of Benefits	9.56 (4.34)	a	a	8.61 (4.29)	11.20 (5.26)	8.50 (5.16)	7.00 (3.68)	7.78 (3.67)	8.04 (4.44)	a	7.68 (3.86)	8.67 (4.23)	1.04
Expertise	13.50 (3.57)	a	a	13.13 (3.87)	13.20 (2.86)	13.60 (2.45)	9.50 (2.67)	12.91 (3.77)	12.96 (3.38)	a	11.76 (3.11)	12.28 (3.63)	1.43
Rationality	18.98 (3.87)	a	a	17.78 (3.59)	17.80 (1.78)	19.20 (3.01)	15.20 (4.93)	17.65 (4.37)	17.12 (4.43)	a	15.92 (4.25)	17.82 (4.22)	1.48
Ingratiation	20.20 (3.93)	a	a	19.55 (3.79)	18.00 (2.44)	19.90 (4.09)	20.70 (3.26)	19.20 (3.58)	18.28 (4.81)	a	18.80 (3.59)	18.07 (4.23)	0.82
Personalized Relations	6.27 (2.00)	a	a	5.14 (2.10)	6.60 (2.40)	7.30 (2.62)	4.70 (1.56)	5.18 (2.05)	5.20 (2.53)	a	5.48 (1.89)	4.93 (2.40)	1.25
Use of Sanctions Negative	8.41 (4.28)	a	a	7.40 (3.18)	11.40 (4.33)	6.50 (3.34)	7.00 (3.59)	7.70 (3.97)	8.44 (4.48)	a	7.28 (2.54)	7.53 (3.20)	2.33 (0.07)
Use of Sanction Positives	11.81 (3.27)	a	a	10.82 (2.52)	11.60 (3.78)	11.70 (2.00)	9.00 (1.88)	11.08 (2.82)	10.32 (3.15)	a	10.48 (2.53)	10.90 (2.35)	0.83

** P< 0.01,* P<0.05

a. This level combination of factors is not observed, thus the corresponding population marginal mean is not estimated.

3.8 Effect of gender of the leader and gender of the employee on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to 2x2 (gender of the leader X gender of the employee) analysis of variance to find out whether male and female leaders, differ in perceived use of downward influence tactics toward male employees and female employees.

Table 3.18 Interaction effects of gender of the leader and gender of the employees on perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactics	Male Leaders				Female Leaders				F ratio
	Male employees		Female employees		Male employees		Female employees		
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
Assertion	17.05	3.97	14.4	4.16	16.25	4.11	15.08	3.97	2.89
Exchange of benefits	9.02	4.45	6.90	3.21	9.10	3.62	7.88	3.71	0.66
Expertise	13.19	3.73	12.32	3.85	13.28	3.19	11.54	3.07	0.80
Rationality	18.02	4.18	17.59	3.72	18.32	4.12	16.72	3.79	1.13
Ingratiation	19.36	4.11	18.01	3.95	20.53	3.65	19.04	3.15	0.01
Personalized Relations	5.48	2.27	4.93	2.08	5.28	2.32	5.43	2.05	1.38
Use of Sanctions-Negative	8.19	3.88	6.44	2.87	7.53	2.68	7.16	3.27	2.03
Use of Sanctions-Positive	11.24	2.87	10.52	2.08	10.71	2.60	10.50	2.76	0.46

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

The mean differences in Table 3.18 show no significant interaction effect between gender of the leader and gender of the employee. This indicates that male leaders do not significantly differ in the use of downward influence tactics toward male employees and female employees. Similarly, female leaders do no significantly differ in their use of downward influence tactics toward male employees and female employees.

The trend goes that a statistical difference has been noted in the use of assertion as a downward influence tactic (P<0.09). The mean differences indicate that male leaders are perceived as using assertion as an influence tactic more frequently on male employees as compared to their female counterparts. Surprisingly, female leaders are also perceived as using assertion more frequently to influence male employees as compared to their female counterparts.

3.9 Two-way ANOVA for gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of organizational variables

3.9.1 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness

The data was subjected to 2 x 4 (gender of the leader x organizational sectors) analysis of variance to find out whether there is a significant interaction of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions.

As seen in table 3.19, there is a significant interaction effect of male and female leaders and different organizational sectors in the perception of behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. However, no significant interaction effects of gender of the leader and organizational sectors are observed in the other dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

Table 3.19 Interaction effects of gender of the leader and the organizational sectors in perception of leadership effectiveness dimensions

Leadership effectiveness Dimensions	Education Sector		Development Sector		Corporate Sector		Law Enforcement Sector		F Ratio
	Male (n=17)	Female (n=3)	Male (n=8)	Female (n=12)	Male (n=19)	Female (n=1)	Male (n=18)	Female (n=2)	
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	
Interpersonal	43.10	46.46	46.82	45.41	46.96	47.20	43.90	43.40	1.15
Relations	(9.76)	(6.97)	(6.92)	(6.67)	(6.73)	(6.41)	(6.63)	(6.85)	
Intellectual	18.09	19.66	19.95	18.61	18.91	21.00	18.87	18.40	2.18
Operations	(4.60)	(3.03)	(4.15)	(4.02)	(3.32)	(2.23)	(3.23)	(4.88)	
Behavioral	28.67	31.26	30.32	28.73	31.15	31.40	26.85	28.80	2.87*
&emotional	(5.48)	(4.52)	(3.64)	(3.70)	(4.33)	(4.33)	(4.71)	(3.58)	
stability									
Moral and	37.43	39.40	41.80	39.85	40.72	43.20	39.64	40.80	1.29
ethical strength	(8.15)	(5.88)	(6.34)	(6.05)	(6.98)	(5.80)	(6.04)	(7.52)	
Adequacy of	26.98	28.33	30.65	28.35	28.33	29.80	28.68	29.60	2.08
communications	(5.31)	(3.43)	(9.09)	(4.22)	(3.70)	(1.92)	(4.00)	(5.77)	
Operations as a	26.64	27.93	30.45	29.05	30.21	31.80	30.30	28.50	1.24
citizen	(6.70)	(4.66)	(4.56)	(4.30)	(4.70)	(3.56)	(4.21)	(6.94)	

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

Note: S.D in Parentheses

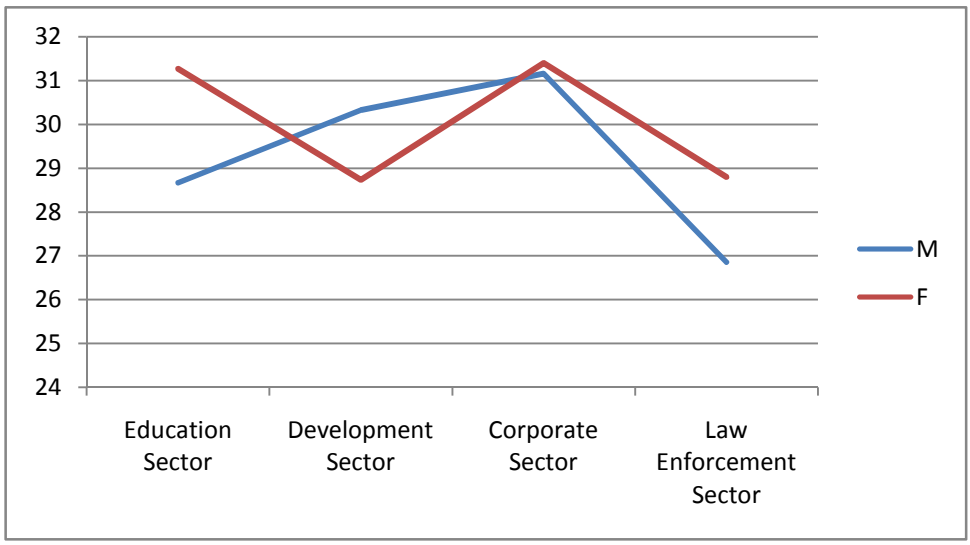

Figure 3.6 Mean scores and interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sector on perception of behavioral and emotional stability dimension.

As seen in figure 3.6, the male and female leaders of corporate sector do not significantly differ in their perceived effectiveness on behavioral and emotional stability dimension. The gap between male and female leaders of the education sector is very wide, in their perceived effectiveness on this dimension, with the female leaders perceived as higher than their male counterparts. With a slight reduction in the gap between male and female leaders of the development sector, the male leaders are perceived as higher on this dimension as compared to their female counterparts. Significant differences are also observed between male and female leaders of the law enforcement sector, with the female leaders perceived as higher on this dimension as compared to their male counterparts.

3.9.2 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics

The data was subjected to 2x4 (gender of the leader X organizational sectors) analysis of variance to find out whether male and female leaders differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics across different organizational sectors.

Results in Table 3.20 indicate that male and female leaders across different organizational sectors are not perceived as differing in their use of downward influence tactics. This implies that male and female leaders across varied organizational contexts are not differentially perceived in their use of downward influence tactics.

Table 3.20 Interaction effects of gender on the leader and organizational context on perception of downward influence tactics

Downward Influence Tactics	Education Sector		Development Sector		Corporate Sector		Law Enforcement Sector		F ratio
	Male (n-17)	Female (n=3)	Male (n=8)	Female (n=12)	Male (n=19)	Female (n=1)	Male (n=18)	Female (n=2)	
	Mean	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**	**Mean**	
Assertion	15.63	13.93	14.82	15.68	16.50	15.60	17.92	16.20	1.55
	(4.18)	(3.49)	(4.22)	(4.12)	(3.78)	(4.44)	(4.13)	(4.04)	
Exchange of	7.92	5.93	8.82	8.88	8.00	6.00	9.80	9.20	0.84
Benefit	(4.22)	(2.86)	(4.03)	(3.91)	(4.14)	(2.00)	(4.52)	(2.29)	
Expert	12.36	11.73	12.57	12.16	13.52	13.40	13.31	11.50	0.37
Knowledge	(3.75)	(3.30)	(3.75)	(3.36)	(3.74)	(1.34)	(3.73)	(2.79)	
Rationality	17.38	18.00	17.22	17.10	18.51	20.40	18.16	15.20	2.00
	(4.73)	(3.56)	(3.45)	(4.04)	(3.35)	(2.79)	(4.35)	(3.48)	
Ingratiation	17.50	17.60	20.60	19.88	18.91	18.40	20.13	20.70	0.29
	(4.38)	(2.74)	(3.82)	(3.62)	(3.49)	(2.88)	(4.07)	(1.33)	
Personalized	5.47	5.13	5.90	5.48	4.66	5.00	5.81	5.40	0.16
Relations	(2.29)	(2.50)	(1.90)	(2.17)	(2.27)	(1.41)	(2.15)	(1.71)	
Sanction	8.08	5.33	7.42	7.68	6.83	7.80	8.88	7.50	2.44
Negative	(4.14)	(1.75)	(3.40)	(3.30)	(2.77)	(2.04)	(4.19)	(2.91)	
Sanction Positive	11.09	10.06	11.45	10.56	10.47	11.80	11.61	10.70	0.99
	(2.74)	(2.01)	(2.74)	(2.97)	(2.10)	(0.83)	(3.22)	(2.54)	

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

Note: S.D in parentheses

3.10 Mean difference between high and low effective leaders across perceived use of downward influence tactics

In order to test the proposed relationship between leaders' perceived effectiveness and his/her use of downward influence tactics, the first step was to identify the high and low effective leaders. The six dimensions of leadership effectiveness – Interpersonal Relations, Intellectual Operations, Behavioral and Emotional Stability, Moral and Ethical Strength, Adequacy of communication and Operations as a Citizen; were summated to provide a total score on perceived leadership effectiveness. This total

score on leadership effectiveness was subjected to SPSS package to derive the mean score (190.47) and the standard deviation score (28.35).

The high and low effective leader scores were derived from the formula – mean ± S.D. The high effective leader scores were derived by addition of S.D score and mean score, i.e. 190.47 + 28.35 = 218.82. Total leadership effectiveness score falling in the range of 218.82 through 300 (maximum score) fall under the category of high effective leaders. The low effective leader scores were derived by subtraction of SD score from the mean score, i.e. 190.47 – 28.35 = 162.12. Total leadership effectiveness score falling in the range of 30 (minimum score) through 162.12 fall under the category of low effective leaders.

In order to find out whether high and low effective leaders differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics, t test was performed. The results are displayed in Table 3.21.

As seen in table 3.21, high and low effective leaders significantly differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics of assertion and expertise ($P<0.05$) and downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits rationality, ingratiation, personalized relations and use of sanctions – negative ($P<0.01$).

However no significant differences between high and low effective leaders have been observed in their use of positive sanctions as an influence tactic.

Table 3.21 Mean differences, S.D and 't' score of high and low effective leader on perceived use of downward influence tactics.

Downward Influence Tactics	High effective leaders (n=59)		Low effective leaders (n=67)		't' values
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D	
Assertion	14.67	3.58	16.08	4.19	2.01*
Exchange of benefit	6.71	3.65	8.70	3.87	2.95**
Expert knowledge	13.38	3.53	11.85	3.24	2.54*
Rationality	19.71	3.36	15.13	4.28	6.61**
Ingratiation	21.81	2.44	14.49	2.94	15.05**
Personalized Relations	5.84	1.97	4.74	2.16	2.96**
Use of Sanctions-Negative	4.94	1.50	10.02	3.61	10.04**
Use of Sanctions-Positive	10.93	1.89	10.37	3.00	1.23

**P < 0.01, *P<0.05

3.11 Correlation

3.11.1 Inter-correlation between dimensions of perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness.

The data was subjected to SPSS package and bivariate correlation was performed between dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness and organizational health. All the dimensions of organizational health were found to be correlated with all the leadership effectiveness dimensions, except the goal focus dimension of organizational health with behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. In general, the behavioral and emotional stability dimension was found to show low correlation with all the dimensions of organizational health.

Organizational Health dimensions

i. Goal focus

Results of the correlation matrix in table 3.22 reveals that goal focus dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .32$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .31$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .33$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communication ($r= .36$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .43$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employee respondents who perceive their organizations as higher on goal focus are more likely to perceive their leaders as higher on the effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, ethical & moral strength, adequacy of communications and operations as a citizen. The goal focus was found to be not correlated with the behavioral & emotional stability dimension, which implies that employee respondents, who perceive their organizations as higher on goal focus, are not likely to perceive their leaders as high on the behavioral & emotional stability dimension.

ii. Communication Adequacy

The communication adequacy dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with all the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .47$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .38$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .27$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .44$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communications ($r = .52$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .51$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employee respondents who perceive their organization as higher on communication adequacy are more likely to perceive their leaders as effective on all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

iii. Optimal Power Equalization

The correlation matrix in table 3.22 indicates that the optimal power equalization dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated to all the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .55$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .46$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .50$, $p<0.01$), adequacy if communication ($r = .56$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a

citizen (r = .59, p<0.01). This indicates that employee respondents who perceive their organization as higher on optimal power equalization are more likely to perceive their leaders as effective on all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

iv. Resource Utilization

Table 3.22 shows that the resource utilization dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with all the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations (r = .54, p<0.01), intellectual operations (r = .50, p<0.01), behavioral & emotional stability (r = .20, p<0.01), ethical & moral strength (r = .47, p<0.01), adequacy of communication (r = .55, p<0.01), and operations as a citizen (r = .57, p<0.01).This implies that employee respondents who perceive their organization as higher on resource utilization are more likely to perceive their leaders as effective on the leadership effectiveness dimension of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, behavioral & emotional stability, ethical & moral strength, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen.

v. Cohesiveness

The cohesiveness dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations (r = .43, p<0.01), intellectual operations (r = .45, p<0.01), behavioral & emotional stability (r = .15, p<0.01), ethical & moral strength (r = .40, p<0.01), adequacy of communication (r = .62, p<0.01), and operations as a citizen (r = .49, p<0.01). This implies that employee respondents that perceive their organization as highly cohesive are more likely to perceive their leaders as high on the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, behavioral & emotional stability, ethical & moral strength, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen.

vi. Morale

The morale dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations (r = .43, p<0.01), intellectual operations (r = .41, p<0.01), behavioral & emotional stability (r = .12, p<0.05), ethical & moral strength (r = .40, p<0.01), adequacy of communication (r = .43, p<0.01), and operations as a citizen (r = .52, p<0.01). This implies that employee respondents that perceive

their organization as higher on the morale dimension are more likely to perceive their leaders as effective on the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, behavioral & emotional stability, ethical & moral strength, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen.

vii. Innovativeness

The innovativeness dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .54$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .49$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .27$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .54$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communication ($r = .52$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .59$, $p<0.01$).

viii. Autonomy

The autonomy dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .47$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .42$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .15$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .42$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communication ($r = .48$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .50$, $p<0.01$).

ix. Adaptation

The adaptation dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .38$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .44$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .16$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .39$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communication ($r = .36$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .45$, $p<0.01$).

x. Problem Solving Adequacy

The problem solving adequacy dimension of organizational health was found to be positively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations ($r = .50$, $p<0.01$), intellectual operations ($r = .49$, $p<0.01$), behavioral & emotional stability ($r = .19$, $p<0.01$), ethical & moral strength ($r = .45$, $p<0.01$), adequacy of communication ($r = .48$, $p<0.01$), and operations as a citizen ($r = .61$, $p<0.01$).

Table 3.22: Inter-correlation between dimensions of perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness

Dimensions of Organizational Health →	Goal focus	Communication adequacy	Optimal power equalization	Resource utilization	Cohesiveness	Morale	Innovativeness	Autonomy	Adaptation	Problem solving adequacy
Dimensions of Leadership Effectiveness↓										
Interpersonal relations	.32**	.47**	.55**	.54**	.43**	.43**	.54**	.47**	.38**	.50**
Intellectual operations	.31**	.38**	.46**	.50**	.45**	.41**	.49**	.42**	.44**	.49**
Behavioral & emotional stability	.09	.27**	.23**	.20**	.15**	.12*	.27**	.15**	.16**	.19**
Ethical & moral strength	.33**	.44**	.50**	.47**	.40**	.40**	.54**	.42**	.39**	.45**
Adequacy of communication	.36**	.52**	.56**	.55**	.62**	.43**	.52**	.48**	.36**	.48**
Operations as a citizen	.43**	.51**	.59**	.57**	.49**	.52**	.59**	.50**	.45**	.61**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

3.11.2 Inter-correlation between dimensions of perceived organizational health and downward influence tactics.

The data was subjected to SPSS package and bivariate correlation was carried out between dimensions of organizational health and downward influence tactics. The downward influence tactics of expertise, rationality and ingratiation were found to be positively correlated with all the dimensions of organizational health. Assertion as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with only the goal focus dimension of organizational health. Use of sanction-negative as a downward influence tactic was found to be negatively correlated with the organizational health dimensions of communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, and innovativeness. The communication adequacy dimension of organizational health was found to be correlated with expertise, rationality and ingratiation, and negatively correlated with use of sanctions- negative. Except communication adequacy, the downward influence tactics of personalized relations and use of sanction-positive was found to be correlated with all the dimensions of organizational health.

Downward Influence Tactics

i. Assertion

Assertion as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with only the goal focus dimension of organizational health ($r = .14$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as engaging in more assertion behaviors are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the goal focus dimension. Assertion was not found to be correlated with any other dimension of organizational health.

ii. Exchange of Benefit

The correlation matrix in table 3.23 shows that exchange of benefits as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r = .21$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = .13$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = . 16$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r = .15$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .10$, $p<0.05$). This implies that employee respondents, who perceive their leaders as employing exchange of benefit to a greater degree, are more likely to perceive their organization as

higher on goal focus, optimal power equalization, morale, autonomy, and problem solving adequacy.

iii. Expertise

The expertise as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated to organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r = .21$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r = .15$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = .15$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r = .18$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r = .11$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = .19$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r = .14$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r = .10$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r = .21$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .18$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employee respondents, who perceive their leaders as displaying expertise to a greater extent to influence their subordinates, are more likely to perceive their organization as higher on all dimensions of organizational health.

iv. Rationality

Rationality as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with all the organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r = .31$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r = .29$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = .36$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r = .35$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r = .24$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = .33$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r = .22$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r = .20$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r = .29$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .26$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employee respondents, who perceive their leaders as employing rationality to a greater extent, are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimension of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation and problem solving adequacy.

v. Ingratiation

Ingratiation as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with dimensions of organizational health of goal focus ($r = .43$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r = .53$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = .61$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r = .57$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r = .52$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = .53$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r = .84$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r = .62$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r = .47$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .54$, $p<0.01$).

vi. Personalized Relations

Personalized Relations as a downward influence tactic was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r = .12$, $p<0.05$), optimal power equalization ($r = .18$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r = .18$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r = .17$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r = .17$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .12$, $p<0.05$). Personalized Relation was not found to be correlated with communication adequacy dimension of organizational health.

vii. Use of Sanctions – Negative

As seen in the correlation table 3.23, the downward influence tactic of use of negative sanctions, was found to be negatively correlated with organizational health dimensions of communication adequacy ($r = -.13$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = -.10$, $p<0.05$), resource utilization ($r = -.10$, $p<0.05$), cohesiveness ($r = -.38$, $p<0.01$), and innovativeness ($r = -.13$, $p<0.01$). Use of negative sanctions was not found to be correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus, morale, autonomy, adaptation and problem solving adequacy.

viii. Use of Sanctions- Positive

The downward influence tactic of use of positive sanctions was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r = .20$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r = .29$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r = .19$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r = .23$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r = .12$, $p<0.05$), autonomy ($r = .13$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r = .19$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r = .21$, $p<0.01$). The use of positive sanctions was not found to be correlated with organizational health dimension of communication adequacy.

Table 3.23: Inter-correlation between dimensions of perceived organizational health and downward influence tactics

Downward Influence Tactics→ / Organizational Health dimensions↓	Assertion	Exchange of benefits	Expertise	Rationality	Ingratiation	Personalized relations	Use of sanctions-negative	Use of sanction-positive
Goal focus	0.14**	0.21**	0.21**	0.31**	0.43**	0.12*	0.04	0.23**
Communication adequacy	-0.03	0.08	0.15**	0.29**	0.53**	0.08	-0.13**	0.07
Optimal power equalization	0.05	0.13**	0.15**	0.36**	0.61**	0.18**	-0.10*	0.20**
Resource utilization	0.00	0.11	0.18**	0.35**	0.57**	0.23**	-0.10*	0.29**
Cohesiveness	0.01	0.06	0.11**	0.24**	0.52**	0.18**	-0.38**	0.19**
Morale	0.04	0.16**	0.19**	0.33**	0.53**	0.23**	-0.06	0.23**
Innovativeness	0.01	0.08	0.14**	0.22**	0.84**	0.17**	-0.13**	0.12*
Autonomy	0.01	0.15**	0.10**	0.20**	0.62**	0.17**	-0.05	0.13**
Adaptation	0.01	0.04	0.21**	0.29**	0.47**	0.23**	-0.05	0.19**
Problem solving adequacy	0.00	0.10*	0.18**	0.26**	0.54**	0.12*	-0.09	0.21**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

3.11.3 Inter-correlation between dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics

Leadership Effectiveness dimensions

i. Interpersonal relations

As observed in table 3.24, the interpersonal relations dimension of leadership effectiveness was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r= 0.47$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r=0.55$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r=0.54$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r= 0.43$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r=0.43$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r=0.54$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.47$, $p<0.01$), adaptation($r=0.38$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.50$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of interpersonal relations are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving.

ii. Intellectual operations

The intellectual operations dimension of leadership effectiveness was found to be positively correlated with the organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r=0.31$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r= 0.38$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r= 0.46$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r= 0.50$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r=0.45$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r= 0.41$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r=0.49$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.42$,$p<0.01$), adaptation ($r=0.44$,$p<0.0.1$), and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.49$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of intellectual operations are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

iii. Behavioral and emotional stability

The leadership effectiveness dimension of behavioral and emotional stability was found to be positively correlated with the organizational health dimensions of communication adequacy ($r=0.27$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r=0.23$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r=0.20$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r=0.15$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r=0.12$, $p<0.05$), innovativeness ($r=0.28$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.15$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r=0.16$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.19$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of behavioral and emotional stability are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy. Behavioral and emotional stability was not found to be correlated with the goal focus dimensions of organizational health.

iv. Ethical and moral strength

The leadership effectiveness dimension of ethical and moral strength was found to be positively correlated with the organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r=0.33$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r=0.44$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r=0.50$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r=0.47$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r=0.40$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r=0.40$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r=0.54$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.42$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r=0.39$, $p<0.01$) and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.45$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of ethical and moral strength are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

v. Adequacy of communications

The leadership effectiveness dimension of adequacy of communication was found to be positively correlated with the organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r= 0.36$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r=0.52$, $p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r=0.56$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r=0.55$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r=0.62$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r=0.43$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($r=0.52$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.48$,$p<0.01$), adaptation ($r=0.36$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.48$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of adequacy of communication are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

vi. Operations as a citizen

The leadership effectiveness dimension of operations as a citizen was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions of goal focus ($r=0.43$, $p<0.01$), communication adequacy ($r=0.51$,$p<0.01$), optimal power equalization ($r=0.59$, $p<0.01$), resource utilization ($r=0.57$, $p<0.01$), cohesiveness ($r=0.49$, $p<0.01$), morale ($r=0.52$, $p<0.01$), innovativeness ($=0.59$, $p<0.01$), autonomy ($r=0.50$, $p<0.01$), adaptation ($r=0.45$, $p<0.01$), and problem solving adequacy ($r=0.61$, $p<0.01$). This implies that employees who perceive their leaders as high on the effectiveness dimension of operations as a citizen are more likely to perceive their organizations as higher on the organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation, and problem solving adequacy.

Table 3.24: Inter-correlation between dimensions of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics

Leadership Effectiveness dimensions→	Interpersonal relations	Intellectual operations	Behavioral & emotional stability	Ethical & moral strength	Adequacy of communications	Operations as a citizen
Downward Influence Tactics ↓						
Assertion	-0.05	0.04	-0.17**	-0.06	-0.06	0.12*
Exchange of benefits	-0.06	-0.00	-0.25**	-0.08	-0.05	0.13**
Expertise	0.17**	0.28**	0.05	0.19**	0.09	0.30**
Rationality	0.42**	0.43**	0.22**	0.42**	0.31**	0.50**
Ingratiation	0.62**	0.58**	0.30**	0.61**	0.54**	0.68**
Personalized relations	0.15**	0.22**	-0.00	0.18**	0.12*	0.23**
Use of sanctions-negative	-0.35**	-0.29**	-0.50**	-0.42**	-0.35	-0.16**
Use of sanctions-positive	0.09	0.16**	-0.15**	0.05	0.03	0.27**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

3.12 Regression Analysis

In order to test the proposed hypothesis to study the relationship between test variables, Multiple Regression Analysis was carried out. In multiple regression analysis, we are studying the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent variables (called predictors). The regression equation takes the form

$Y= b_o+b_1x_1+ b_2x_2….+b_p+e,$

Where Y is the dependent variable, the b's are the regression coefficients for the corresponding x (independent) terms, b_o is a constant or intercept, and e is the error term reflected in the residuals. In the following section, the results of multiple regression analysis done through the SPSS 20 package have been summarized in a tabular form. The statistical notations presented in the table are understood as follows:

R	R is the correlation coefficient between the observed and predicted values. The value indicates the magnitude of relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variable.
R^2	R^2 is the percentage of variance in the dependent variable explained by the independent variable. It is also called the coefficient of multiple determinations.
Adj. R^2	When there are a large number of independent variables, it is possible that the R^2 becomes artificially large because some independent variables' chance variations explain some parts of the variance of the dependent variables. It is therefore important to adjust the value of R^2 as the number of independent variables increases and to reduce the artificially inflated R^2.
B	B is the unstandardized regression coefficient.
Beta	Beta is the standardized regression coefficient that indicates the amount of variation explained by the predictor/criterion variable in the predicted variable.
F Ratio	Significant F Ratio suggests that all the independent variables together significantly explain the variation in the dependent variable.
t	A significant 't' value indicates significant independent contribution of the independent variables to the dependent variable in the predictive relationship.

3.12.1 Leadership Effectiveness as predictors of perceived Organizational Health dimensions

At this stage of analysis, regression analysis was performed on 400 employees to examine the predictive relationship of dimensions of leadership effectiveness on dimensions of perceived organizational health. The dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness were used as the predictor variables and the dimensions of perceived organizational health as the criterion variables. The dimensions are listed as follows:

Sr. No.	Dimensions of Leadership Effectiveness as Independent Variables	Sr. No.	Dimensions of Organizational Health as Dependent Variables
1.	Interpersonal Relations	1.	Goal Focus
2.	Intellectual Operations	2.	Communication Adequacy
3.	Behavioral & Emotional Stability	3.	Optimal Power Equalization
4.	Ethical & Moral Strength	4.	Resource Utilization
5.	Adequacy of Communications	5.	Cohesiveness
6.	Operations as a Citizen	6.	Morale
		7.	Innovativeness
		8.	Autonomy
		9.	Adaptation
		10.	Problem Solving Adequacy

Figure 3.7 Dimensions of leadership effectiveness and organizational health

Table 3.25 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Goal Focus Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Goal Focus			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	-.03	-.09	-1.01
Intellectual Operations	-.00	-.00	-0.07
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.07	-.15	-2.66**
Ethical & Moral Strength	.02	-.05	0.55
Adequacy of Communications	.09	.21	3.29**
Operations as a Citizen	.19	.41	4.97**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .47; Adj. R^2= .21; R^2= .22; F= 18.84**

In order to identify the leadership effectiveness dimensions which have significantly contributed to the perception of organizational health dimension of goal focus, regression analysis was performed. All the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in goal focus (F=18.84**). The leadership effectiveness dimensions contribute to 21% of variance

in the goal focus dimension of organizational health. The behavioral and emotional stability, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen have emerged as significant predictors of goal focus, with the behavioral and emotional stability dimension negatively related to goal focus, which means that leaders, who are perceived as high on behavioral and emotional stability dimension, contribute to low level of goal focus.

Table 3.26 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Communication Adequacy Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Communication Adequacy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	.18	.06	0.69
Intellectual Operations	-.06	-.10	-1.54
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.00	-.00	-0.02
Ethical & Moral Strength	.00	-.02	-0.19
Adequacy of Communications	.16	.35	6.07**
Operations as a Citizen	.14	.33	4.36**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .58; Adj. R^2= .33; R^2= .34; F= 33.51**

Regression Model Presented in Table 3.26 indicates that all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in communication adequacy (F=33.51**). The leadership effectiveness dimensions contribute to 33% of variance in the communication adequacy dimension of organizational health. The adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen have emerged as significant predictors of communication adequacy, which means that leaders who are perceived as higher on the dimensions of adequacy of communications and operations as a citizen, contribute to a higher level of communication adequacy within their organizations.

Table 3.27 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Optimal Power Equalization Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Optimal Power Equalization			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	.06	.16	1.99*
Intellectual Operations	-.04	-.06	-0.99
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.07	-.13	-2.60**
Ethical & Moral Strength	-.00	-.00	-0.04
Adequacy of Communications	.17	.32	5.84**
Operations as a Citizen	.19	.37	5.25**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .65; Adj. R^2= .42; R^2= .43; F= 49.04**

As seen in Table 3.27, all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in communication adequacy (F=49.04**). The dimensions of leadership effectiveness explain 42% of the variance in the organizational health dimensions of optimal power equalization. The interpersonal relations, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen have emerged as significant predictors of optimal power equalization, which means that leaders who are perceived as higher on the dimensions of interpersonal relations, adequacy of communications and operations as a citizen, contribute to a higher level of optimal power equalization within their organizations. The behavioral and emotional stability dimension also significantly predicts the optimal power equalization dimension, though the negative relation indicates that leaders who are perceived as high on behavioral and emotional stability dimension contribute to low levels of optimal power equalization within the organizations.

Table 3.28 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Resource Utilization Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Resource Utilization			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	.05	.15	1.91**
Intellectual Operations	-.06	.09	1.55
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.09	-.16	-3.21**
Ethical & Moral Strength	-.02	-.06	-0.78
Adequacy of Communications	.16	.32	5.93**
Operations as a Citizen	.14	.29	4.05**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .65; Adj. R^2= .41; R^2= .42; F= 47.28**

As seen in Table 3.26, all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in communication adequacy (F=47.28**). The dimensions of leadership effectiveness explain 41% of the variance in the organizational health dimensions of resource utilization. The interpersonal relations, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen have emerged as significant predictors of resource utilization, which means that leaders who are perceived as higher on the dimensions of interpersonal relations, adequacy of communications and operations as a citizen, contribute to a higher level of resource utilization within their organizations. The behavioral and emotional stability dimension also significantly predicts the optimal power equalization dimension, though the negative relation indicates that leaders who are perceived as high on behavioral and emotional stability dimension contribute to low levels of resource utilization within the organizations.

Table 3.29 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Cohesiveness Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Cohesiveness			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	-.02	-.10	-1.28
Intellectual Operations	.07	.13	2.06*
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.07	-.17	-3.51**
Ethical & Moral Strength	-.02	-.06	-0.79
Adequacy of Communications	.25	.57	10.75**
Operations as a Citizen	.10	.24	3.43**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .66; Adj. R^2= .43; R^2= .44; F= 51.71**

The Regression Model shown in Table 3.29 indicates that all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in cohesiveness (F=51.71**). 43% of variance in the cohesiveness dimension of organizational health is explained by the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. The dimension of intellectual operations of leadership effectiveness significantly predicts the cohesiveness dimension at 0.05 level. The behavioral and emotional stability, adequacy of communications, and operations as citizen dimensions of leadership effectiveness emerged as significant predictors of cohesiveness, with the behavioral and emotional stability dimension negatively related to cohesiveness, which means that leaders who are perceived as high on behavioral and emotional stability, contribute to lower levels of cohesiveness in their organizations.

Table 3.30 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Morale Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Morale			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	-.01	.04	0.44
Intellectual Operations	.02	.03	0.47
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-.09	-.18	-3.54
Ethical & Moral Strength	-.00	-.01	-018
Adequacy of Communications	.09	.21	3.64
Operations as a Citizen	.19	.43	5.61

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .57; Adj. R^2= .31; R^2= .32; F= 31.42**

The Regression Model shown in Table 3.30 indicates that all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in morale (F=31.42**). But none of the dimensions of leadership effectiveness individually contribute to explaining the variance in the dependent variable, morale. The leadership effectiveness dimensions contribute to 31% of variance in the morale dimension of organizational health.

Table 3.31 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Innovativeness Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Innovativeness			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	0.02	0.05	0.59
Intellectual Operations	0.02	0.02	0.39
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-0.04	0.08	-1.67
Ethical & Moral Strength	0.05	0.13	1.67
Adequacy of Communications	0.12	0.21	3.87**
Operations as a Citizen	0.17	0.34	4.76**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= .63; Adj. R^2= .39 R^2= .40; F= 44.32**

The Regression Model shown in Table 3.31 indicates that all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the

variance in innovativeness (F=44.32**). The leadership effectiveness dimensions contribute to 39% of variance in the innovativeness dimension of organizational health. The adequacy of communications, and operations as citizen dimensions of leadership effectiveness emerged as significant predictors of innovativeness.

Table 3.32 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Autonomy Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Autonomy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	0.05	0.16	1.86
Intellectual Operations	0.01	0.01	0.29
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-0.09	-0.18	-3.37**
Ethical & Moral Strength	0.00	0.00	0.06
Adequacy of Communications	0.14	0.28	4.74**
Operations as a Citizen	0.12	0.26	3.32**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.57; Adj. R^2= 0.31 R^2= 0.32; F= 31.32**

As seen in table 3.32, all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in autonomy (F=31.32**). 31% of variance in the autonomy dimension of organizational health is explained by the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. The adequacy of communications, and operations as citizen dimensions of leadership effectiveness showed a positive relation with autonomy and emerged as significant predictors of autonomy. The behavioral and emotional stability dimension also significantly predicts the dimension of autonomy, but has a negative relation with the autonomy dimension. This means that leaders who are perceived as high on the behavioral and emotional stability dimension contribute to low level of autonomy in their organizations.

Table 3.33 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Adaptation Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Adaptation			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	-0.02	-0.08	-0.85
Intellectual Operations	0.14	0.23	3.19
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-0.04	-0.09	-1.73
Ethical & Moral Strength	0.02	0.07	0.89
Adequacy of Communications	0.05	0.09	1.59
Operations as a Citizen	0.12	0.27	3.37

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.49; Adj. R^2= 0.23; R2= 0.24; F= 21.31**

The Regression Model shown in Table 3.33 indicates that all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in Adaptation (F=21.31**). However, none of the dimensions of leadership effectiveness individually contribute to explaining any variance in the adaptation dimension of organizational health. The dimensions of leadership effectiveness contribute to 23% of variance in the adaptation dimension of organizational health.

Table 3.34 Leadership Effectiveness Predicting Problem Solving Adequacy Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Problem Solving Adequacy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Interpersonal Relations	0.00	0.02	0.30
Intellectual Operations	0.07	0.09	1.56
Behavioral & Emotional Stability	-0.07	-0.12	-2.35**
Ethical & Moral Strength	-0.04	-0.09	-1.29
Adequacy of Communications	0.11	0.19	3.61**
Operations as a Citizen	0.29	0.52	7.19**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.64; Adj. R^2= 0.39; R2= 0.41; F= 45.16**

As seen in table 3.34, all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in problem solving adequacy

(F=45.16**). 39% of variance in the problem solving adequacy dimension of organizational health is explained by the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. The adequacy of communications, and operations as citizen dimensions of leadership effectiveness showed a positive relation with problem solving adequacy and emerged as significant predictors of problem solving adequacy. The behavioral and emotional stability dimension also significantly predicts the dimension of problem solving adequacy, but has a negative relation with the problem solving adequacy dimension. This means that leaders who are perceived as high on the behavioral and emotional stability dimension contribute to low level of problem solving adequacy in their organizations.

3.12.2 Downward Influence Tactics as predictors of perceived Leadership Effectiveness dimensions

Regression analysis was performed on 400 employees to examine the predictive relationship of downward influence tactics on dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness. The downward influence tactics were used as the predictor variables and the dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness as the criterion variables. The dimensions are listed as follows:

Sr. No.	**Dimensions of Leadership Effectiveness as Dependent Variables**	**Sr. No.**	**Downward Influence Tactics as Independent Variables**
1.	Interpersonal Relations	1.	Assertion
2.	Intellectual Operations	2.	Exchange of Benefits
3.	Behavioral & Emotional Stability	3.	Expertise
4.	Ethical & Moral Strength	4.	Rationality
5.	Adequacy of Communications	5.	Ingratiation
6.	Operations as a Citizen	6.	Personalized Relations
		7.	Sanctions Negative
		8.	Sanctions Positive

Figure 3.8 Downward influence tactics and dimensions of leadership effectiveness

Table 3.35 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Interpersonal Relations Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Relations			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.13	-0.07	-1.76
Exchange of Benefits	-0.41	-0.23	-4.43**
Expertise	-0.12	-0.06	-1.28
Rationality	0.59	0.32	6.72**
Ingratiation	1.03	0.54	13.15**
Personalized Relations	0.08	0.24	0.56
Sanctions Negative	-0.43	-0.21	-4.28**
Sanctions Positive	0.19	0.07	1.46

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.75; Adj. R^2= 0.55; R^2= 0.56; F= 63.28**

In order to identify the downward influence tactics which have significantly contributed to the interpersonal relations dimension of leadership effectiveness, regression analysis was performed. All the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in interpersonal relations (F=63.28**). Rationality and ingratiation as an influence tactic emerged as a significant predictor of the interpersonal relations dimension. This indicates that leader perceived as using rationality and ingratiation to influence the subordinates, is perceived as higher on the interpersonal relations of leadership effectiveness. The influence tactics of exchange of benefits and use of sanctions-negative emerged as significant predictors of the interpersonal relations. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and interpersonal relations. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions and exchange of benefits, are perceived as lower on the interpersonal relations of the leadership effectiveness dimension.

Table 3.36 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Intellectual Operations Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Intellectual Operations			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	0.00	0.00	0.10
Exchange of Benefits	-0.20	-0.22	-4.00**
Expertise	0.09	0.08	1.70
Rationality	0.21	0.22	4.41**
Ingratiation	0.42	0.44	9.96**
Personalized Relations	0.12	0.07	1.51
Sanctions Negative	-0.26	-0.25	-4.80**
Sanctions Positive	0.14	0.10	1.96*

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.69; Adj. R^2= 0.48; R^2= 0.49; F= 46.66**

As seen in the Regression Table 3.36 all the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in intellectual operations (F=46.66**). Rationality, ingratiation and sanctions positive as influence tactic emerged as significant predictors of the intellectual operations dimension. This indicates that leader perceived as using rationality, ingratiation and positive sanctions to influence the subordinates, is perceived as higher on the intellectual operations of leader effectiveness. The influence tactics of exchange of benefits and sanctions negative emerged as significant predictors of the intellectual operations. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and intellectual operations. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions and exchange of benefits, are perceived as lower on the intellectual operations of the leadership effectiveness dimension.

Table 3.37 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Behavioral & Emotional Stability Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Behavioral & Emotional Stability			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.03	-0.03	-0.56
Exchange of Benefits	-0.22	-0.19	-3.16**
Expertise	-0.10	0.08	1.42
Rationality	0.28	0.23	4.20**
Ingratiation	0.24	0.20	4.12**
Personalized Relations	0.12	0.05	1.06
Sanctions Negative	-0.52	-0.39	-6.87**
Sanctions Positive	-0.13	-0.08	-1.36

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.62; Adj. R^2= 0.37; R^2= 0.38; F= 30.52**

As seen in the Regression Model 3.37, all the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in behavioral and emotional stability (F=30.52**). Rationality and ingratiation as influence tactics emerged as significant predictors of the behavioral and emotional stability dimension. This indicates that leader perceived as using rationality and ingratiation to influence the subordinates, is perceived as higher on the behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leader effectiveness. The influence tactics of exchange of benefits and sanctions negative emerged as significant predictors of the behavioral and emotional stability dimension. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and behavioral and emotional stability dimension. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions and exchange of benefits, are perceived as lower on the behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. 37% of the variance in the behavioral and emotional stability dimension is explained by the downward influence tactics.

Table 3.38 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Ethical & Moral Strength Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Ethical & Moral Strength			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.08	-0.04	-1.15
Exchange of Benefits	-0.31	-0.18	-3.76**
Expertise	0.01	0.00	0.18
Rationality	0.48	0.28	6.18**
Ingratiation	0.84	0.48	12.13**
Personalized Relations	0.28	0.92	2.23*
Sanctions Negative	-0.61	-0.32	-6.84 **
Sanctions Positive	0.03	0.01	0.24

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.76; Adj. R^2= 0.58; R^2= 0.58; F= 69.74**

As seen in Table 3.38, the regression analysis reveals that all the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in the ethical and moral strength dimension (F=69.74**). Rationality and ingratiation as influence tactics emerged as significant predictors of the ethical and moral strength dimension at 0.01 level and personalized relations emerged as a significant predictor of the ethical and moral strength dimension at 0.05 level. This indicates that leaders perceived as using personalized relations, rationality and ingratiation to influence the subordinates are perceived as higher on the ethical and moral strength dimension of leader effectiveness. The influence tactics of exchange of benefits and sanctions negative emerged as significant predictors of the ethical and moral strength dimension. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and ethical and moral strength dimension. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions and exchange of benefits, are perceived as lower on the ethical and moral strength dimension of leadership effectiveness. 58% of the variance in the ethical and moral strength dimension is explained by the downward influence tactics.

Table 3.39 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Adequacy of Communication Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Adequacy of Communication			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.04	-0.04	-0.74
Exchange of Benefits	-0.10	-0.09	-1.48
Expertise	-0.13	-0.09	-1.72
Rationality	0.24	0.19	3.57**
Ingratiation	0.61	0.47	10.21**
Personalized Relations	0.06	0.03	0.59
Sanctions Negative	-0.38	-0.27	-4.93**
Sanctions Positive	0.07	0.04	0.68

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

R= 0.65; Adj. R^2= 0.41; R^2= 0.42; F= 35.72**

As seen in the Regression Model 3.39, all the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in adequacy of communications (F=35.72**). Rationality and ingratiation as influence tactics emerged as significant predictors of the adequacy of communications dimension. This indicates that leader perceived as using rationality and ingratiation to influence the subordinates, is perceived as higher on the adequacy of communications dimension of leader effectiveness. The influence tactics of sanctions negative emerged as significant predictors of the adequacy of communications dimension. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and adequacy of communications dimension. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions, are perceived as lower on the adequacy of communications dimension of leadership effectiveness. 41% of the variance in the adequacy of communications dimension is explained by the downward influence tactics.

Table 3.40 Downward Influence Tactics Predicting Operations as a Citizen Dimension of Leadership Effectiveness

Dependent Variable: Operations as a Citizen			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.01	-0.01	-0.14
Exchange of Benefits	-0.13	-0.11	-2.05*
Expertise	-0.03	-0.02	-0.38
Rationality	0.32	0.25	5.26**
Ingratiation	0.75	0.57	13.85**
Personalized Relations	-0.10	-0.04	-0.98
Sanctions Negative	-0.22	-0.15	-3.07**
Sanctions Positive	0.30	0.16	3.27**

R= 0.75; Adj. R^2= 0.55; R^2= 0.56; F= 61.17**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

As seen in Table 3.40, the regression analysis reveals that all the downward influence tactics put together significantly contribute to explain the variance in the operations as a citizen dimension (F=61.17**). Rationality, ingratiation and sanctions positive as influence tactics emerged as significant predictors of the operations as a citizen dimension at 0.01 level. This indicates that leaders perceived as using sanctions positive, rationality and ingratiation to influence the subordinates are perceived as higher on the operations as a citizen dimension of leader effectiveness. The influence tactics of exchange of benefits and sanctions negative emerged as significant predictors of the operations as a citizen dimension. However, the negative values indicate toward an inverse relation between the influence tactics and operations as a citizen dimension. This means that leaders, who are perceived as using negative sanctions and exchange of benefits, are perceived as lower on the operations as a citizen dimension of leadership effectiveness. 55% of the variance in the operations as a citizen dimension is explained by the downward influence tactics.

3.12.3 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Dimensions of Organizational Health

Sr. No.	Dimensions of Organizational Health As Dependent Variables	Sr. No.	Downward Influence Tactics as Independent Variables
1.	Goal focus	1.	Assertion
2.	Communication adequacy	2.	Exchange of Benefits
3.	Optimal power equalization	3.	Expertise
4.	Resource utilization	4.	Rationality
5.	Cohesiveness	5.	Ingratiation
6.	Morale	6.	Personalized Relations
7.	Innovativeness	7.	Sanctions Negative
8.	Autonomy	8.	Sanctions Positive
9.	Adaptation		
10.	Problem solving adequacy		

Figure 3.9 Downward influence tactics and dimensions of organizational health.

Table 3.41 Downward Influence Tactics as Predicting Goal Forms Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Goal focus			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.00	-0.01	-0.23
Exchange of Benefits	0.03	0.06	0.89
Expertise	-0.02	-0.03	-0.52
Rationality	0.07	0.12	1.97*
Ingratiation	0.23	0.39	7.28**
Personalized Relations	-0.15	-0.14	-2.49**
Sanctions Negative	0.01	0.02	0.39
Sanctions Positive	0.90	0.10	1.65

$R=0.47$; Adj.$R^2=20$; $R^2=0.22$; $F=14.00^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

To identify the downward influence tactics which have significantly contributed to the perception of organizational health dimensions of goal focus, regression analysis was performed. All the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contributed to explaining the variance in goal focus (F=14.00, P<0.01). The downward influence tactics contribute to 20% of variance in goal form dimension of organizational health. Rationality, Ingratiation and Personalized Relations have emerged as significant predictors of goal focus, with the personalized Relations tactic negatively related to goal focus, which means the leaders perceived as using personalized relations more frequently, contribute to lower levels of goal forms.

Table3.42 Downward Influence Tactics as Predicting Communication Adequacy Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Communication Adequacy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.08	-0.15	-2.98**
Exchange of Benefits	0.00	0.01	0.15
Expertise	-0.00	-0.00	-0.01
Rationality	0.08	0.15	2.65**
Ingratiation	0.31	0.54	10.76**-
Personalized Relations	-0.13	-0.12	-2.41**
Sanctions Negative	0.00	0.00	0.15
Sanctions Positive	-0.03	-0.03	-0.66

$R=0.57$; $Adj.R^2=0.31$; $R^2=0.32$; $F=23.75^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

Regression model presented in Table 3.42 indicates that all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in communication adequacy (F=23.75, P<0.01). The downward influence tactics contribute to 31% of variance in the communication adequacy dimension of organizational health. The downward influence tactics of assertion, rationality, ingratiation and Personalized Relations have emerged as significant predictors of communication adequacy, with Assertion and Personalized Relations negatively related to communication adequacy, which means that leaders perceived as using

personalized relations and assertion more frequently contribute to lower levels of communication adequacy dimension of organizational health.

Table 3.43 Downward Influence Tactics as Predicting Optimal Power Equalization dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Optimal power equalization			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.04	-0.06	-1.38
Exchange of Benefits	-0.02	-0.03	-0.56
Expertise	-0.12	-0.16	-3.07**
Rationality	0.13	0.19	3.63**
Ingratiation	0.40	0.58	12.49**
Personalized Relations	-0.05	-0.04	-0.83
Sanctions Negative	-0.01	-0.02	-0.46
Sanctions Positive	0.10	0.10	1.88

$R=0.64$; $Adj.R^2=0.40$; $R^2=0.41$; $F=34.89^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

As seen in Table 3.43, all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in optimal power equalization ($F=34.89$, $P<0.01$). The downward influence tactics contribute to 40% of variance in optimal power equalization. Expertise, Rationality and Ingratiation have emerged as significant predictors of optimal power equalization, with expertise negatively related to optimal power equalization. This means that leaders perceived as employing the tactics of rationality and ingratiation with a greater frequency, contribute to a higher level of optimal power equalization dimension of organizational health.

Table 3.44 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Resource Utilization Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Resource Utilization			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.09	-0.14	-2.98**
Exchange of Benefits	-0.08	-0.13	-2.18*
Expertise	-0.08	-0.11	-2.06*
Rationality	0.10	0.16	2.90
Ingratiation	0.34	0.52	10.95
Personalized Relations	0.00	0.00	0.04
Sanctions Negative	-0.02	-0.03	-0.61
Sanctions Positive	0.26	0.27	5.00**

$R=0.63$; $Adj.R^2=0.39$; $R^2=0.40$; $F=33.18^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

As seen in Table 3.44, all the downward Influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in resource utilization ($F=33.18$, $P<0.01$). The downward influence tactics explain 39% of the variance in the organizational health dimension of resource utilization. Rationality, Ingratiation and use of sanctions-positive, emerged as significant predictor of resource utilization, which means that leaders perceived as using these tactics more frequently with subordinates contribute to higher levels of resource utilization. Assertion, Exchange of benefits and Expertise also emerged as significant predictors, though their negative relation with resource utilization indicates that leaders perceived as using these tactics to a greater extent contribute to lower levels of the organizational health dimension of Resource Utilization.

Table 3.45 Downward Influence Tactics as Predicting Cohesiveness Dimension of Organizational Health

Dependent Variable: Cohesiveness			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**T**
Assertion	-0.02	-0.05	-1.03
Exchange of Benefits	-0.05	-0.09	-1.48
Expertise	-0.06	-0.10	-1.84
Rationality	0.02	0.03	0.64
Ingratiation	0.28	0.51	10.04**
Personalized Relations	0.01	0.01	0.21
Sanctions Negative	-0.05	-0.09	-1.49
Sanctions Positive	0.16	0.20	3.38**

$R=0.55$; $Adj.R^2=0.29$; $R^2=0.31$; $F=22.23$**

**$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$

The Regression Model in Table 3.45 that all the downward Influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in cohesiveness ($F=22.23$, $P<0.01$). 29% of the variance in cohesiveness dimension is explained by downward influence tactics. Ingratiation and use of Sanctions-Positive emerged as significant predictors of morale, which indicates that leaders perceiving as employing this tactics more frequently, contribute to higher levels of cohesiveness dimension of organizational health.

Table 3.46 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Morale Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Morale			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.05	-0.09	-1.85
Exchange of Benefits	-0.00	-0.01	-0.23
Expertise	-0.05	-0.09	-1.55
Rationality	0.08	0.14	2.41**
Ingratiation	0.28	0.47	9.39**
Personalized Relations	0.02	0.02	0.38
Sanctions Negative	-0.02	-0.03	-0.54
Sanctions Positive	0.11	0.13	2.24*

$R=0.56$; $Adj.R^2=0.30$; $R^2=0.31$; $F=22.91$**

**$P<0.01$, *$P<0.05$

The Regression Table 3.46 indicates that all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in morale ($F=22.91$, $P<0.01$). The downward influence tactics contribute to 30% of variance in Organizational health dimension of Morale. Rationality, Ingratiation and use of Sanctions-Positive, emerged as significantly predictors of Morale, which indicates that leaders perceived as engaging in greater frequency of these influence behaviors, contribute to a higher level of Morale as the organizational health dimension.

Table 3.47 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Innovativeness Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Innovativeness			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.05	-0.08	-2.79**
Exchange of Benefits	-0.06	-0.09	-2.71**
Expertise	-0.04	-0.06	-1.78
Rationality	-0.07	-0.12	-3.66**
Ingratiation	0.65	1.00	34.91**
Personalized Relations	-0.10	-0.09	-3.12**
Sanctions Negative	0.04	0.06	2.02
Sanctions Positive	0.02	0.02	0.66

$R=0.88$; $Adj.R^2=0.77$; $R^2=0.78$; $F=176.24^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

As seen in Table 3.47, all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in Innovativeness. 77% of variance in Innovativeness is explained by the downward influence tactics. Assertion, Exchange of Benefits, Rationality and Personalized Relations emerged as significant predictors of Innovativeness, but their negative relation with innovativeness points out that leaders perceived as using these tactics to a greater extent, contribute lower levels of Innovativeness. Also, Ingratiation and use of Sanction-Negative emerged as positive and significant predictors of Innovativeness, which implies that leaders engaging more frequently in these influence behaviors contribute to higher levels of morale.

Table 3.48 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Autonomy Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Autonomy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.06	-0.10	-2.16*
Exchange of Benefits	0.02	0.03	0.64
Expertise	-0.08	-0.12	-2.30*
Rationality	-0.01	-0.02	-0.50
Ingratiation	0.45	0.71	15.23**
Personalized Relations	-0.06	-0.05	-1.12
Sanctions Negative	0.04	0.06	1.20
Sanctions Positive	0.01	0.02	0.36

R= 0.65 ; Adj. R2= 0.41 ; R2=0.42 ; F=35.94**

**P<0.01, *P<0.05

Results of Table 3.48 indicates that all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in autonomy (F= 35.94, P<0.01). 41% of variance in autonomy is explained by the downward influence tactics. Ingratiation emerged as a positive and significant predictor of autonomy, which means that leaders perceived as engaging in these influence behaviors to a greater degree, contribute to higher levels of autonomy dimension of organizational health. Assertion and Expertise emerged as negative and significant predictors of autonomy which implies that perceived as using these tactics to a greater frequency; contribute to lower levels of autonomy dimensions of organizational health.

Table 3.49 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Adaptation Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Adaptation			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.06	-0.11	-2.12*
Exchange of Benefits	-0.15	-0.26	-3.93**
Expertise	0.01	0.01	0.28
Rationality	0.08	0.13	2.22*
Ingratiation	0.26	0.43	8.35**
Personalized Relations	0.10	0.09	1.72
Sanctions Negative	0.05	0.08	1.37
Sanctions Positive	0.09	0.11	1.81

$R=0.56$; $Adj.R^2=0.26$; $R^2=0.27$; $F=18.64^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

Table 3.49 indicates that all the downward influence tactics put together, significantly contribute to explaining the variance in Adaptation ($F=18.64$, $P<0.01$). 26% of the downward influence tactics of Assertion and Exchange of Benefits emerged as negative and significant predictors of adaptation which means that leaders perceived as using these tactics more frequently contribute to lower levels of adaptation. Rationality and Ingratiation emerged as positive and significant predictors of adaptation, which indicates that leaders perceived as engaging in these influence behaviors to a greater extent contribute to higher levels of adaptation dimension of organizational health.

3.12.3(j) Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Problem Solving Adequacy.

Table 3.50 Downward Influence Tactics as Predictors of Dimension of Organizational Health.

Dependent Variable: Problem Solving Adequacy			
Independent Variable	**B**	**β**	**t**
Assertion	-0.08	-0.12	-2.33*
Exchange of Benefits	-0.03	-0.04	-0.72
Expertise	0.00	0.00	0.15
Rationality	0.00	0.00	0.16
Ingratiation	0.41	0.55	11.09**
Personalized Relations	-0.17	-0.13	-2.56
Sanctions Negative	-0.03	-0.04	-0.72
Sanctions Positive	0.22	0.21	3.62**

$R=0.58$; $Adj.R^2=0.32$; $R^2=0.33$; $F=24.77^{**}$

$^{**}P<0.01$, $^{*}P<0.05$

As seen in Regression model represented in Table 3.50 indicates that all the downward influence tactics put together , significantly contribute to explaining the variance in morale ($F=24.77$, $P<0.01$) . The downward influence tactics contribute to 32% of variance in Organizational health dimension of Problem Solving Adequacy. Ingratiation and use of Sanctions-Positive emerged as positive and significant predictors of problem solving adequacy, which indicates that leaders perceived as using these tactics to a greater frequency contribute to a higher level of problem solving adequacy. Assertion and Personalized Reaction emerged as negative and significant predictor of leaders perceived as using these tactics to a greater frequency, contribute to a lower lever of problem solving adequacy.

Section Two

The data was subjected to multiple set analyses to find out variations in attributions of effective male leaders and effective female leaders by male and female employees across various organizational sectors. Multiple Set Analyses is performed to select most frequently assigned attributes when there are multiple responses given to a particular question. Each employee respondent rated and rank ordered five attributes in descriptions of an effective male leader and an effective female leader. The data of 400 employee respondents was coded and subjected to the SPSS package, and multiple response analyses was carried out. This generated the frequency and percentage of times each of the 30 attributes was chosen by the employee respondents from the attribute checklist. The five most frequently chosen attributes, as indicated by the highest frequency and percentage cases, were selected for result and discussion purposes.

3.13 Attributes of Effective Male and Female Leaders as perceived by male and female employee respondents across different sectors.

3.13.1 Attributes of Effective male and female leaders

Table 3.51 provides the list of 30 attributes that are arranged in the order of most frequently selected attribute to the least frequently selected attribute to describe the effective male leaders.

Table 3.51 Frequency of attributes chosen from list of 30 attributes to describe effective male leaders

Attributes	Frequency	Percentage
Willing to take a stand	196	9.8%
Independent	176	8.8%
Understanding	173	8.7%
Sincere	150	7.5%
Willing to take risks	139	7.0%
Assertive	121	6.1%
Conscientious	100	5.0%
Ambitious	91	4.6%
Analytical	79	4.0%
Loyal	73	3.7%
Reliable	73	3.7%
Warm	72	3.6%
Secretive	71	3.6%
Aggressive	67	3.4%
Makes decisions easily	61	3.1%
Soft spoken	59	3.0%
Adaptable	55	2.8%
Truthful	46	2.3%
Cheerful	40	2.0%
Conventional	31	1.6%
Masculine	29	1.5%
Unsystematic	22	1.1%
Does not use harsh language	19	1.0%
Unpredictable	17	0.9%
Jealous	10	0.5%
Childlike	9	0.5%
Moody	9	0.5%
Conceited	7	0.4%
Yielding	4	0.2%
Feminine	1	0.1%

As shown in table 3.51, 196 employee respondents have selected the masculine attribute of 'willing to take a stand' to describe an effective male leader. 'Independent', another masculine attribute, is second highest in the number of employee respondents selecting it, viz. 176. Close to it, 173 employee respondents have selected a feminine attribute of 'understanding' to describe an effective leader. 150 employee respondents have selected 'sincere', a neutral attribute to describe an effective leader. 'Willing to take risks', a masculine attribute is selected by 139 employee respondents to describe an effective male leader.

As observed in table 3.51, the employee respondents have assigned masculine attributes more frequently, to describe an effective male leader. Looking at the first ten frequently employed attributes, masculine attributes like independent, assertive, ambitious, willing to take a stand, willing to take risks, and analytical have been more commonly selected as opposed to feminine and neutral attributes. The feminine attributes like understanding and loyal, are also more frequently adopted to describe an effective male leader as compared to other feminine attributes. Neutral attributes like sincere, reliable and conscientious also received a higher rating in descriptions of effective male leaders.

Table 3.52 Frequency of attributes chosen from list of 30 attributes to describe effective female leaders

Attributes	Frequency	Percentage
Reliable	150	7.5%
Loyal	141	7.1%
Ambitious	140	7.0%
Understanding	139	7.0%
Adaptable	120	6.0%
Truthful	109	5.5%
Soft spoken	108	5.4%
Makes decisions easily	97	4.9%
Independent	96	4.8%
Sincere	87	4.4%
Cheerful	82	4.1%
Willing to take a stand	76	3.8%
Analytical	75	3.8%
Warm	64	3.2%
Does not use harsh language	60	3.0%
Assertive	57	2.9%
Willing to take risks	53	2.7%
Conscientious	49	2.5%
Unpredictable	47	2.4%
Feminine	46	2.3%
Aggressive	43	2.2%
Secretive	39	2.0%
Jealous	21	1.1%
Moody	20	1.0%
Yielding	19	1.0%
Conventional	18	0.9%
Masculine	16	0.8%
Conceited	16	0.8%
Childlike	7	0.4%
Unsystematic	5	0.3%

As seen in table 3.52, the most frequently chosen attribute to describe an effective female leader, was the neutral trait of ‘reliable’ by 150 employee respondents. The feminine attribute of ‘loyal’ was selected by 141 employee respondents. Close to it, 140 employee respondents selected the masculine attribute of ‘ambitious’ in descriptions of effective female leader. 139 employee respondents have selected the feminine attribute of ‘understanding’ and 120 employee respondents have selected the neutral attribute of ‘adaptable’ to describe effective female leader.

Looking at the first ten most frequently assigned attributes, employee respondents do not significantly differ in their preference for selecting masculine, feminine and neutral attributes in describing an effective female leader. Masculine attributes like independent, ambitious and makes decisions easily are more frequently assigned, as compared to other masculine attributes, in descriptions of effective female leaders. Feminine attributes of loyal, understanding and soft spoken, as opposed to other feminine attributes and neutral attributes of reliable, adaptable, truthful and sincere as opposed to other neutral attributes have been more frequently chosen by employee respondents to describe an effective female leader.

3.13.2 Attributes assigned to describe Effective Male and Female Leaders across different sectors

3.13.2 (a) Attributes assigned to describe effective male leaders across different sectors

Table 3.53 shows five most frequently selected attributes of effective male leaders by the employee respondents of the four organizational contexts- Education, Development, and Corporate and Law enforcement sector.

As seen in table 3.53, employee respondents across the sectors, with the exception of development sector, show a similar pattern of assigning three masculine, one feminine and one neutral attribute in describing an effective male leader. With an exception, the development sector employees have adopted the neutral attribute of conscientious, which has not been commonly assigned by employee respondents of other three sectors to describe an effective male leader.

Masculine Attributes

Willing to take a stand

As seen in table 3.53, the masculine trait of 'willing to take a stand' has been selected by employee respondents of all the four organizational sectors – Education, Development, Corporate and Law Enforcement Sector in order to describe an effective male leader. However we observe a difference in the frequency with which this attribute has been selected by employee respondents of education sector (7.8%), development sector (10%), corporate sector (8.2%) and law enforcement sector (13.2%). From the percentage of cases we find that a greater number of employee

TABLE 3.53 Frequency and percentage of list of attributes selected by employee respondents across different organizations to describe an effective male leader.

Education Sector			Development Sector			Corporate Sector			Law enforcement sector		
Attributes	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**
Independent (M)	53	10.6	Willing to take a stand (M)	50	10.0	Sincere (N)	43	8.6	Willing to take a stand (M)	66	13.2
Willing to take a stand (M)	39	7.8	Understanding (F)	43	8.6	Willing to take a stand (M)	41	8.2	Understanding (F)	59	11.8
Understanding (F)	38	7.6	Independent (M)	41	8.2	Independent (M)	39	7.8	Willing to take risks (M)	44	8.8
Sincere (N)	34	6.8	Sincere (N)	34	6.8	Willing to take risks (M)	35	7.0	Independent (M)	43	8.6
Willing to take risks (M)	31	6.2	Conscientious (N)	31	6.2	Understanding (F)	33	6.6	Sincere (N)	39	7.8

(M) Masculine Attributes, (F) Feminine Attributes, (N) Neutral Attributes

respondents from law enforcement sector have adopted this attribute to describe an effective male leader as compared to their counterparts in other sectors.

Independent

As indicated in table 3.53, the masculine attribute of 'independent' has been selected by employee respondents of all four organizational sectors to describe an effective male leader. However, we observe a difference in the frequency with which this attribute has been adopted by employee respondents of education sector (10.6%), development sector (8.2%), corporate sector (7.8%) and law enforcement sector (8.6%). The percentage indicate that a greater number of employee respondents of the education sector have relied on this attribute for description of an effective male leader as compared to their counterparts in other three sectors.

Willing to take risks

Table 3.53 shows that the masculine attribute of 'willing to take risks', has been selected by employee respondents of education sector (6.2%), corporate sector (7.0%) and law enforcement sector (8.8%). Employee respondents of the law enforcement sector have maximally rated this attribute in descriptions of effective male leader. The employee respondents of the development sector as compared to their counterparts in other sectors have not selected this attribute that frequently so as to be list as the first five attributes in description of effective male leaders.

Feminine Attributes

Understanding

As observed in table 3.53, the feminine trait of 'understanding' has been selected by employee respondents of all the four organizational sectors to describe an effective male leader. However, we observe a difference in the frequency with which this attribute has been selected by employee respondents of education sector (7.6%), development sector (8.6%), corporate sector (6.6%) and law enforcement sector (11.8%). Surprisingly we find that in the male dominated workplaces of law enforcement sectors, the feminine attribute of understanding has been employed to a greater frequency by employee respondents as compared to their counterparts in the other three sectors, to describe an effective male leader.

In descriptions of effective male leaders, employee respondents of the development sector, with an exception, have employed the neutral attribute of conscientious, as opposed to their counterparts in the other three sectors, who have frequently employed the neutral attribute of sincere in their descriptions of effective male leaders.

Sincere

As shown in table 3.53, the neutral attribute of 'sincere' has been selected by employee respondents of all the four organizational sectors to describe an effective male leader. However, we observe a difference in the frequency with which this attribute has been selected by employee respondents of education sector (6.8%), development sector (6.8%), corporate sector (8.6%) and law enforcement sector (7.8%). The employee respondents of education and development sector do not significantly differ in the frequency with which they employed the attribute of 'sincere' to describe an effective male leader. The employee respondents of corporate sector have adopted this attribute to a greater extent as compared to their counterparts in the other sectors.

Conscientiousness

The employee respondents of development sector have selected this neutral attribute to describe an effective male leader. 6.2% of employee respondents have selected this attribute.

3.13.2 (b) Attributes assigned to describe effective female leaders across different sectors

Table 3.54 shows the five most frequently selected attributes of effective female leaders by the employee respondents of the four organizational sectors – education, development, corporate and law enforcement sector.

TABLE 3.54 Frequency and percentage of list of attributes selected by employee respondents across different organizations to describe an effective female leader.

Education Sector			Development Sector			Corporate Sector			Law Enforcement Sector		
Attributes	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**	**Attributes**	**N**	**%**
Understanding (F)	36	7.2	Reliable (N)	47	9.4	Understanding (F)	45	9.0	Reliable (N)	53	10.6
Independent (M)	34	6.8	Understanding (F)	42	8.4	Sincere (N)	32	6.4	Loyal (F)	51	10.2
Adaptable (N)	34	6.8	Ambitious (M)	42	8.4	Loyal (F)	31	6.2	Ambitious (M)	42	8.4
Sincere (N)	33	6.6	Adaptable (N)	37	7.4	Analytical (M)	29	5.8	Trustful (N)	36	7.2
Soft Spoken (F)	32	6.4	Soft Spoken (F)	37	7.4	Reliable (N)	28	5.6	Makes decisions easily (M)	35	7.0

(M) Masculine Attributes, (F) Feminine Attributes, (N) Neutral Attributes

As evident in table 3.54, employee respondents of different sectors vary in the selection of attributes to describe an effective female leader. As compared to the employee respondents' ratings of effective male leader, their rating of an effective female leader provides a much composite picture of a female leader. With the exception of employee respondents of law enforcement sector who have described an effective female leader by employing two masculine, two neutral and one feminine trait, their counterparts in the other three sectors show a uniform pattern of attributing one masculine, two feminine and two neutral attributes.

Masculine traits

There is a variation observed in the selection of masculine traits to describe an effective female leader across different sectors. Masculine traits appear to have been attributed differentially to meet the varied workplace demands. 'Independent' as a masculine trait has been rated by 6.8% of employee respondents of education sector. Analytical, as a masculine trait has been attributed by 5.8% of employee respondents of corporate sector. 'Makes decisions easily' has been rated by 7.0% of employee respondents of law enforcement sector. Ambitious as a masculine trait has been employed by employee respondents of development sector (8.4%) and law enforcement sector (8.4%). Employee respondents of law enforcement sector and development sector do not significantly differ from one another in the frequency of use of 'ambitions' attribute to describe effective female leaders.

Feminine Traits

The feminine traits most frequently selected to describe an effective female leader by employee respondents of the four sectors are –

Understanding

Figures in table 3.51 have also shown that employee respondents across the sectors consider 'understanding' attribute as essential for the effective functioning of a male leader. As indicated in table 3.52, 'understanding' as an attribute for effective female leaders has been selected by employee respondents of education sector (7.2%), development sector (8.4%) and corporate sector (9.0%). The employee respondents of law enforcement sector do not consider this attribute to play a significant role in the

description of an effective female leader, as compared to their counterparts in other three sectors.

Soft spoken

The employee respondents of education sector (6.4%) and development sector (7.4%), the workplaces assumed to be gender congenial for female leaders, have chosen this attribute to describe an effective female leader.

Loyal

The employee respondents of corporate sector (6.2%) and law enforcement sector (10.2%) have chosen this attribute to describe an effective female leader. In view of nature of task and the work context, effective female leaders are perceived by the police personnel as possessing the attribute of 'loyal'.

Neutral traits

The employee respondents of education sector (6.8%) and development sector (7.4%), workplaces assumed to be more gender congenial to female leaders have adopted the neutral attribute of 'adaptable' to describe an effective female leader.

The employee respondents of education sector (6.6%) and corporate sector (6.4%) have employed the neutral attribute of sincere to describe an effective female leader.

7.2% of the employee respondents of the law enforcement sector have selected the neutral attribute of 'truthful' to describe an effective female leader.

3.13.3 Attributes assigned to Effective Male and Female Leaders by male and female employees

3.13.3 (a) Attributes assigned to Effective Male Leaders by male and female employees

In order to find out the five most frequently chosen attributes to describe an effective male leader by both male and female employees, the data was subjected to SPSS package to carry out multiple response analysis.

TABLE 3.55 Five most frequently chosen attributes of effective male leaders by male employees and female employees

	Male Employees			Female Employees		
Sr. no	**Attributes**	**Number**	**%**	**Attributes**	**Number**	**%**
1	Willing to take a stand (M)	139	10.0	Willing to take a stand (M)	57	9.3
2	Understanding (F)	130	9.4	Independent (M)	52	8.5
3	Independent(M)	112	9.0	Sincere (N)	45	7.3
4	Sincere (N)	105	7.6	Understanding (F)	43	7.0
5	Willing to take risks (M)	100	7.2	Willing to take risks (M)	39	6.3

As seen from table 3.55, male and female employees do not significantly differ in the stereotypes held for effective male leaders. The attributes chosen are the same across male and female employees in their descriptions of effective male leaders. However, the frequency with which the attributes are present in an effective male leader indicates toward a small difference between male and female leaders.

Table 3.55 shows the trend that both male and female employee respondents have chosen one feminine trait (understanding), three masculine traits (willing to take a stand, willing to take risks and independent) and a neutral trait (sincere) in order to describe an effective male leader.

Masculine Attributes

Table 3.55 shows that the three most frequently chosen masculine attributes in descriptions of effective male leaders, are willing to take a stand, willing to take risks and independent, which are discussed at follows:

Willing to take a stand

From a total of 277 male employees, 10% of them have chosen 'willing to take a stand' a masculine attribute as one of the five attributes to describe an effective male

leader. 9.3% of female employees from a total of 123 female employee samples have chosen this attribute to describe an effective male leader

Willing to take risks

7.2% of 277 male employee samples have selected 'willing to take risks' a masculine trait as one of the first five attributes to describe an effective male leader. 6.3% of 123 female employee samples have also selected this attribute to describe an effective male leader.

Independent

9.0% of 277 male employee samples have selected 'independent' as an attribute to describe an effective male leader. 8.5% of the total 123 female employee sample have also selected 'independent' a masculine trait as one of the five attributes to describe an effective male leader.

Neutral Attribute

Sincere as the neutral attribute, has been assigned most frequently in order to describe an effective male leader by 7.6% from the total male employee sample of 277, and by 7.3% from the total female employee sample of 123.

Feminine Attribute

9.4% of the total 277 male employees and 7.0% of the total 123 female employees have selected understanding, a feminine trait as the most commonly selected attribute from the 30 attributes to describe an effective male leader.

3.13.3 *(b) Attributes assigned to Effective Female Leaders by male and female employees*

In order to find out the five most frequently chosen attributes to describe an effective female leader by male and female employees, the data was subjected to SPSS package to carry out multiple response analysis.

TABLE 3.56 Five most frequently chosen attributes of effective female leaders by male employees and female employees

	Male Employees			Female Employees		
Sr. No	**Attributes**	**Number**	**%**	**Attributes**	**Number**	**%**
1	Reliable (N)	111	8.0	Understanding (F)	53	8.6
2	Loyal (F)	105	7.6	Ambitious (M)	46	7.5
3	Ambitious (M)	94	6.8	Adaptable (N)	42	6.8
4	Understanding (F)	86	6.2	Soft Spoken (F)	44	7.2
5	Adaptable (N)	78	5.6	Reliable (N)	39	6.3

As seen in table 3.56, male and female employees do not significantly differ in the stereotypes held for effective female leaders. The trend shows that both male and female employees have chosen one common masculine attribute (i.e. ambitious), two common neutral attributes (i.e. adaptable and reliable) and two feminine attributes, one common (i.e. understanding) and one uncommon (loyal by male employees and soft spoken by female employees).

Showing a similar pattern in their attributions toward effective female leaders, male and female employees differ in the frequency with which they have chosen each of these five attributes.

Masculine Attribute

The Masculine attribute of 'ambitious' is selected by 6.8% of the 277 total sample of male employees and 7.5% of the 123 total sample of female employees to describe an effective female leader.

Feminine Attribute

The Feminine attribute of 'understanding' is selected by 6.2% of the 277 total sample of male employees and 8.6% of the 123 total sample of female employees to describe an effective female leader.

7.6% of male employees from a sample of 277 male employees selected the feminine trait of 'loyal' to describe an effective female leader.

7.2% of the female employees from a sample of 123 female selected the feminine attribute of ‘soft spoken’ to describe an effective female leader.

Neutral Attributes

The neutral attribute of ‘reliable’ was selected by 8.0% of the 277 sample of male employees and 6.3% of the 123 total sample of female employees to describe an effective female leader.

The neutral attribute of ‘adaptable’ was selected by 5.6% of the 277 total sample of male employees and 6.8% of the 123 total sample of female employees to describe an effective female leader.