

## DISCUSSIONS

The main objective of the study was to investigate the effect of gender and organizational sectors, in the perception of organizational health, leadership effectiveness, and downward influence tactics. The study also attempted to explore the prevailing gender stereotypes of effective male and female leaders, held by male and female employees across the organizational sectors. The researcher selected 40 organizations assumed to be gender congenial to females, i.e. 20 higher education institutions (education sector), and 20 non-governmental organizations (development sector); and 40 organizations assumed to be gender congenial to males, i.e. 20 police stations (law enforcement sector) and 20 manufacturing units (corporate sector). The present study aimed to take into consideration the perceptions of the employees on the organizational variables. In order to study the perceptions of male and female employees, a questionnaire was administered on 400 employees across varied organizational sectors, measuring their perception on organizational health, leadership effectiveness, downward influence tactics, and gender stereotypes of effective male and female leaders.

### **4.1 Differences among leaders on perception of organizational variables.**

#### **4.1.1 Mean differences between perceived effectiveness of male and female leaders.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant difference in the perceived leadership effectiveness of male and female leaders.*

The result of the present study confirmed the conjectured hypothesis. Male and female leaders did not differ in their perceived effectiveness to lead. This finding is supported by the Meta-Analysis carried out by Eagly and colleagues (1995) which concludes that men and women do not differ in their effectiveness to lead. However, a point worth noting is that there are some leadership styles that emerge as more effective for female leaders and some leadership styles that work favorably for male leaders. Eagly, et al (1995) and Powell, et al (2002) further point out that there are some workplaces that are more gender congenial to males and some workplaces that are more gender congenial to females. Likewise, females in female congenial workplaces will not be victims to the 'glass ceiling' effect and readily reach

leadership positions. In the same manner, males will be met with favorable work experiences in a male congenial workplace. The present study sample indicated only one female leader in the corporate sector and only two female leaders in the law enforcement sector, both sectors assumed to be gender congenial for males. Owing to the effect of 'the glass escalator' where males are met with favorable work experiences and rapidly reach the top positions in female congenial workplaces, the presence of males in leadership positions within organizations assumed to be gender congenial to females, is less surprising. Regardless of this, a female leader in a female congenial workplace meets with favorable evaluations, and a male leader, both in male congenial and female congenial workplaces, meets with favorable evaluations.

#### **4.1.2 Mean differences between perceived use of downward influence tactics of male and female leaders**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant difference in the perceived use of downward influence tactics of male and female leaders.*

The results of the present study rejected the null hypothesis. The male and female leaders were found to be differing in their perceived use of downward influence tactics of assertion and expertise. The difference in perception of assertion and expertise as downward influence tactics is discussed below.

**Assertion-** Male leaders were found to be perceived as employing the downward influence tactic of assertion to a greater degree as compared to their female counterparts. In using assertion as a downward influence tactic to gain compliance from subordinates, male leaders receive more favorable evaluations as opposed to the female leaders. Female leaders who practice assertion are seen as violating the expected status order of gender (Ridgeway, 2001), which is so deep rooted in the Indian system of social practices. Correll and Ridgeway (2003) proposed the Expectation Status Theory that links culturally assigned status to explain how stereotypes are assigned to certain groups of people within an organization. Females, for decades have occupied subordinate positions on the domestic front as well as the work front. Therefore, their positions are attributed with traits (for instance, warmth, compassion and submission) that assist them in performing their role of subordinate positions. Males on the other hand, have for decades, dominated the leadership positions. Their positions therefore have been attributed with more of agentic traits,

which will assist them in their leadership roles. Male leaders are therefore expected to use assertions in their behaviors, and female leaders are not expected to use assertions in their leader behavior. Use of assertions by female leaders would contradict their status role characteristics. Therefore, female leaders use assertion to a lesser degree because it reduces their ability to gain compliance.

**Expertise-** Male leaders are perceived by the employee respondents as using expertise to a greater degree as compared to their female counterparts. Expertise in a field is generally acquired by updating oneself upon recent advances in knowledge relevant to the field and engaging in a continual process of educating oneself. Expertise is not only indicated by the qualifications and awards of an individual, but also by his/her ability to solve real life problems. Prime, et al (2009) in a study indicated that male leaders emerged as more effective in problem solving tasks, as compared to their female counterparts. This generates support to this study finding where male leaders are perceived as engaging in more expertise behaviors to influence subordinates as compared to female leaders.

A probable explanation to this finding however could be based on Correll and Ridgeway's (2003) Expectation Status Theory, where females, within an organization generally possess lower levels of status and power than males do. Different types of qualities are attributed to people occupying different positions in organizations. Males (mostly in leadership positions) are attributed with more agentic traits, and females, mostly at lower status and power positions, are attributed with more communal traits of warmth and compassion (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). If ever, females do rise to the high status and power positions of leadership, this shift in position does not necessarily lead to a shift in the patterns of attribution. As a result, female leaders are assumed to display communal attributes and male leaders assumed to be more competent and knowledgeable (Carli, 2001). Therefore, this very well explains the findings of the study that male leaders are perceived as engaging in more expertise behaviors to influence their subordinates.

In general, we find that male leaders are seen as engaging in more influence behaviors as compared to their female counterparts. The ability of a leader to influence the subordinates is largely a function of subordinates' perception of power of the leader. Although gender differences in organizations in the guise of wage differences and

promotion discriminations are on a decline; male leaders in the same positions as female leaders, are perceived as having more power in an organizational set-up (Lyness & Thompson, 2000).

#### **4.2 Effect of gender of the employee on perception of organizational variables.**

##### **4.2.1 Effect of gender of the employee on perception of organizational health.**

*It was hypothesized that gender of the employees will not significantly affect the perception of organizational health.*

The result of the present study rejected the null hypothesis partially as male and female employees were shown to differ in perceiving the organizational health dimension of resource utilization.

**Resource Utilization-** Female employees perceive resource utilization in their organizations at a lower end as compared to their male counterparts. At the organizational level, resource utilization means an optimal utilization of personnel, where employees experience a sense of learning, growing and developing as individuals, and thereby contributing to the organization. Female employees often victimized by the ‘glass ceiling effect’ (Brett and Stroh 1997) and career interruptions (Lyness and Thompson 1997) ; experience a sense of discrimination observed in career development opportunities (such as training, travelling from work and job challenges) which leads them to feel a sense of stagnancy and under utilization of their potentials. Also, a study by Verma and Stroh (2001) points out that gender differences are observed in male and female managers’ preference for male and female employees, with male managers rating male employees higher than female employees and female managers rating female employees higher than male employees. In this study on 80 organizations, with only 18 female leaders reported from the leader population of 80 leaders and only 123 female employees from a total of 400 employee respondents, very well explains the experience of under utilization of female employees.

##### **4.2.2 Effect of gender of the employee on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that gender of the employees will not significantly affect the perception of leadership effectiveness.*

The null hypothesis has been rejected partially as the data revealed that male and female employees differ in their perception of the behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. However, male and female employees were not seen to differ on any other dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness. This finding indicates that the gender of the employee does not affect his/her perception of an effective or ineffective leader. Gender as a construct is a strong predictor of workplace variables; however, employees regardless of the gender class they belong to, perceive their leaders' effectiveness on more or less parallel lines. The difference in perception of behavioral and emotional stability is discussed below.

***Behavioral and emotional stability-*** In order to exhibit effective leadership, a leader should possess predictable behavior and emotional stability. This is reflected in the leaders' ability to face the crises with calmness, self confidence, dependability, and consistency in words and actions. The results reveal that female employees attribute their leaders' effectiveness more in terms of their behavioral and emotional stability as compared to their male counterparts. Gray (1992) describes women as more relationship oriented because they define their sense of self by their feelings and by the quality of their relationships. Also, Held (1995) in discussions on feminist ethics, attempts to explain females' need for care and empathetic relations on the basis of their experiences. Gender differences are noted in the purpose of interaction with women using communication to enhance relationships and men using communication to achieve tangible outcomes (Word 1996, Leper 1991). Reflecting from one's own self, female employees seek and rate leaders more on effectiveness in predictable behaviors and emotional stability. As also stated by Jannen (1990) that women seek synergy and men seek adversary.

#### **4.2.3 Effect of gender of the employee on leaders' perceived use of downward influence tactics**

*It was hypothesized that gender of the employees will not significantly affect the leader's perceived use of downward influence tactics.*

The null hypothesis has been rejected as the data revealed that male and female employees differ in their perception of the downward influence tactics of assertion, exchange of benefits and use of sanctions-negative. Assertion, exchange of benefits, and use of sanctions- negative are instances of hard and direct tactics. Male

employees perceive a higher use of these hard and direct influence tactics by their leaders as compared to their female counterparts. This implies that leaders use more of direct and hard tactics with the male employees in order to get some task done. This finding is supported by Ansari's (1989) finding that male leaders exhibited a greater likelihood of using influence tactics such as negative sanctions, assertiveness and exchange of benefits as compared to female leaders. This makes reasonable sense with this study where the number of male leaders (n=62) reported are more than the number of female leaders (n=18). Findings of a study by Singh and Pandey (1988) also reveals that coercive power is perceived as most effective in influencing others especially in the Indian context. Therefore we can say that hard tactics are still considered as more effective for task accomplishment in the Indian scenario. Furthermore, a frequent use of hard and direct tactics like assertion definitely indicates toward a higher level of task-centeredness of the leaders (Deluga, 1988). Therefore, we can conclude that the leader sample of the study represents leaders who exhibit the task-oriented leadership styles.

#### **4.3 Effect of organizational sectors on perception of organizational variables.**

##### **4.3.1 Effect of organizational sectors on perception of organizational health.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant effect of organizational sectors on perception of organizational health.*

The results of the present study have confirmed the proposed hypothesis. The employees of the four organizational sectors, namely, education, development, corporate and law enforcement; were seen to differ in the perception of organizational health dimensions of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, morale, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation and problem solving adequacy. The employees of the four sectors however, did not differ in the perception of resource utilization and cohesiveness dimensions of organizational health. The details of the differences are described below.

***Task-conferred dimensions-*** Goal focus, communication adequacy and optimal power equalization represent the task conferred dimensions of organizational health. It has been observed that the employees of the education sector (i.e. the teaching staff) perceive their organizations as relatively low on the task conferred dimensions. This implies that the teaching staff consider their academic institutions as relatively poorly

equipped in terms of task performance, as a result of a number of factors- (i) organizations lacking in clarity and acceptance of goals, that are considered to be unattainable by the existing pool of resources (goal focus), (ii) organizations lacking in a smooth flow of communication between members as well as across positions (communication adequacy), and (iii) perception of unequal distribution of influence where the boundaries between the superiors and subordinates are clearly defined, and where much of the work output depends on the leader's ability to control the entire process.

Another major observation from the results indicate that employees of the law enforcement sector (i.e. the police officers and constables) perceive their organizations (i.e. police stations) as relatively at a higher end on the task conferred dimensions. The employees of the development sector perceive their organizations on these dimensions on parallel lines as their counterparts in police stations. This implies that the police stations and the non-governmental organizations are perceived as healthy organizations, on the task conferred dimensions, owing to a number of factors- (i) the organizations have both the clarity and acceptance of organizational goals and perceive these goals as attainable from the existing resources (goal focus), (ii) the organizations perceived as relatively distortion free in terms of communication, where accurate information is provided and there are no impermeable boundaries between the employees and their superiors (communication adequacy), and (iii) organizations perceived as ensuring an equitable distribution of influence, where influence behaviors occur both in upward and downward direction and collaborative efforts are encouraged as opposed to coercive power (optimal power equalization). This seems acceptance where the police inspector or the project officer is carrying out his/her duty on the field and joining hands with the subordinates to achieve the task with maximum results.

***Maintenance Needs dimensions-*** Resource utilization, cohesiveness and morale represent the maintenance needs dimensions of organizational health. Employees across the four sectors have differed in perception of only the morale dimension. The teaching staff of higher academic institutions perceives their organizations as comparatively low on the morale dimension. Being at the lower end of morale dimension indicates toward the teaching staff experiencing feelings of discomfort,

strain and dissatisfaction. The police officers and constables, as also the field workers and projects officers, perceive their organizations at a higher end on the morale dimension, indicating toward a feeling of well-being, satisfaction and pleasure experienced by the employees of police stations and non-governmental organizations.

***Growth and changefulness dimensions-*** Innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation and problem solving adequacy represent the growth and changefulness dimension of organizational health. The employees of the education sector and corporate sector perceive their organizations at a lower end, on the growth and changefulness dimensions owing to a number of factors- (i) the employees function on an ‘embeddedness’ orientation with emphasis placed on tension reducing behaviors (innovativeness), (ii) organizations are perceived as exercising a lesser degree of autonomy, (iii) organizations are perceived as being less effective in its ability to incorporate change in relation to changes in the environment (adaptation), and (iv) organizations are perceived as relatively less efficient in detecting problems and in inventing ways of solving problems by developing structures and procedures.

The employees of the development and law enforcement sectors perceive their organizations at a higher end on the growth and changefulness dimension, due to the following observations- (i) employees function on ‘activity’ orientation where curiosity and explorative behaviors are encouraged (innovativeness), (ii) organizations are perceived as providing a sense of independence from the environment (autonomy), (iii) organizations are perceived as having the ability to bring about changes at a rate faster than external changes (adaptation), and (iv) organizations are perceived as being adequate and well equipped in solving problems.

In summary, we can say that the police stations and the non governmental organizations are perceived as healthier workplaces by their respective employees. On the other end, higher academic institutions and departments of manufacturing units reflect toward a scope of improvement and a positive change toward the organizational health dimensions.



#### **4.3.2 Effect of organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant effect of organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness.*

The results of the present study confirmed the proposed hypothesis. The employees of the four organizational sectors were seen to differ in perceiving the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, behavioral and emotional stability, ethical and moral strength, adequacy of communications, and operations as a citizen. The employees did not differ however, on the leadership effectiveness dimension of intellectual operations. A probable explanation to this could be that individuals occupying leadership positions are at least expected to be capable in taking decisions and solving problems. In other words, solving problems and making decisions becomes a pre-requisite for leadership roles. Therefore, employees do not differ in their perceptions on the intellectual dimension of leadership effectiveness. The findings of the study are further discussed below.

***Interpersonal relations-*** The employees of the corporate sector perceive their leader as higher on the effectiveness dimension of interpersonal relations, where the leader is seen as involved in guiding the group activities and taking interest in the group members. On the other end, employees of the education and law enforcement sector perceive their leaders as relatively lower on the interpersonal relations dimension, which means that the leader is seen as less involved in group activities and toward group members. The employees of the corporate sector work in a closed environment, where face-to-face daily interactions are frequent. This increases the likelihood of a leader in the corporate sector to interact at a personal level with fellow employees. This further leads to employees' favorable perceptions of a leader's interpersonal skills. On the other hand, the span of control of a leader in the education and law enforcement sector is vast, with one instance of a Police Inspector having 100 employees reporting to him, and another instance of an educational institute, having its departments so far spaced, that it prevented day-to-day interactions of the leader (i.e. dean) with his subordinates (i.e. heads of departments).

***Behavioral and emotional stability-*** The employees of the law enforcement sector perceive their leaders as relatively being less predictable and stable in their emotions and behaviors. This finding is justified as the nature of work and stress experienced

by the police personnel is highly complex and unpredictable (Dong-mei, 2004). In contrast, the employees of the corporate sector perceive their leaders as being calm, confident, dependable and consistent in their words and actions. A probable explanation to this could be that in a work environment of routines and planned changes, a leader engages less in emotional outbursts or unplanned acts of conduct.

***Ethical and moral strength-*** Employees of the education sector perceive their leaders as relatively low on this dimension of effectiveness. This indicates that leaders are perceived as less committed to the organizational goals as also the roles required to achieve these goals. This finding makes sense where educational institutions are also perceived at a lower end on the goal focus dimension of organizational health. Employees of the other three sectors perceive their leaders at a higher end on the ethical and moral strength dimension of leadership effectiveness.

***Adequacy of communication-*** Employees of the education sector, perceive their leaders as relatively low on this dimension of effectiveness. This indicates that leaders are perceived as relatively less effective in receiving, processing, retaining and transmitting information in the organization. This makes sense where educational institutions are also perceived at a lower end on the communication adequacy dimension of organizational health. Employees of the development sector perceive their leaders as effective in using communication to get people committed to organizational goals. This corresponds well with the finding where employees of development sector also perceive their organizations as high on the communication adequacy dimension. A key to good communication networks within an organization is to hold frequent group meetings, failing which members of an organization may experience role confusion and poor quality of work commitment. Possibly the work culture of the development sector is such where clear role definitions exist and targets and deadlines are clearly understood and communicated through meetings held on a regular basis.

***Operations as a citizen-*** Employees of the education sector perceive their leaders as relatively less effective in functioning as a liaison officer between the organization and community. Employees of the other three sectors perceive their leaders relatively higher on this dimension where leaders are seen as being effective in bridging the gap between demands of the organization and needs of the community. The corporate

sector, with its ever growing emphasis on CSRs, the law enforcement sector that serves to meet the safety and security needs of the community and the development sector, that organizes and plans projects for the betterment of the community, well justify the employees perception on their leaders being effective in operating as a citizen, for the leader attempts to accomplish the organizational objectives. This is also indicated by the employees' perception of their organizations being high on the adaptation dimension of organizational health.

In summary, employees of the education sector are seen as consistently perceiving their leaders as relatively low on the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. In contrast, employees of the corporate sector are seen as consistently perceiving their leaders as relatively high on the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. With the HR managers having a background of organizational behavior, and being subjected to rigorous training sessions on leadership, not only have a theoretical base but also gain practical experience on what makes a good leader. As with the education sector, employees' perception of their organizations as less healthier workplaces, colors their perceptions of the efforts made by their leaders toward the organization. Also, leading an organization that is hitched on being less healthy doubles the task of the leader, who requires to work even harder to ensure the functioning of the organization. The issue is no longer to emerge as effective, but it boils down to the basic survival, both, of the organization as well as its leader.

#### **4.3.3 Effect of organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics by leaders.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant effect of organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics.*

The results of the present study confirmed the proposed hypothesis. The employees of the four organizational sectors were seen to differ in perception of downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits, ingratiation and personalized relations.

***Exchange of benefits-*** Employees of the education and corporate sector perceive their leaders as engaging in relatively less use of exchange of benefits as a tactic. In assessing its effectiveness, studies in the past have indicated toward exchange of benefits as a moderately effective tactic as compared to other tactics (Yukl & Bruce,

1992; Falbe & Yukl, 1992). Employees of the law enforcement sector perceive a greater use of this tactic. Guerin (1995) and Yukl & Falbe (1990) point out that exchange of benefits as an influence tactic is used more often in the lateral direction and more on close acquaintances than with strangers. This indicates that leaders in law enforcement sector share a mutual interdependent relationship with their subordinates. This is justified by the fact that leaders in law enforcement sector have to be more dependent on the subordinates to meet the task objectives and targets. Hence, although the leaders have the legitimate power, the actual power to accomplish the task goals lies in the hands of the subordinates, who are active on the field.

***Ingratiation-*** Employees of the education sector perceive their leaders as using less of ingratiating behaviors. Employees of the development and law enforcement sectors perceive their leaders as engaging in greater frequency of ingratiation behaviors. Yukl (2013) in his book, 'Leadership in Organizations (p.211) points out that ingratiation as a tactic is more effective when used in a downward direction and less effective in the upward direction. Ingratiation as an influence tactic involves behaviors that increase ones attractiveness to another. Mallalieu & Faure (1998) suggest that ingratiation is used in situations where the influencer is in a weaker position. The results then indicate that leaders in the education sector hold a strong legitimate position power, and therefore refrain from using indirect and soft tactics to influence their subordinates.

***Personalized relations-*** The employees of the corporate sector perceived a lesser use of personalized relations by their leaders. This implies that the leaders in the corporate sector maintain highly professional relations with their subordinates whereby requests based on friendliness are less executed. Employees of the development and law enforcement sector perceive a greater use of this tactic. Where the nature of work is such that leader and followers spend more time on the field and less time within the office walls, an informal relation develops between the two. This informal and close interaction scenario works as a fertile ground for making requests based on personal relations.

#### **4.4 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of organizational variables.**

##### **4.4.1 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of organizational health**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of organizational health.*

The results of the present study have partially rejected the null hypothesis. A significant interaction effect was observed in perception of adaptation dimension by male and female employees across organizational sectors.

**Adaptation-** The male and female employees of law enforcement and development sector differ in perception of adaptation. The female employees of law enforcement sector and male employees of development sector consider their organizations as better able to adapt and adjust to the changes in the environment. The differences in perception between male and female employees in law enforcement sector can be explained away by the data not being a true representative of female employees, with only five female respondents as opposed to the ninety five male respondents.

As of difference between male and female employees in the development sector, where male employees consider their organizations as high on the adaptation dimension, much work has been generated on experiences of males in female dominated workplaces (Simpson, 2004; Yoder, 2001; Aguirre, 2000; Reskin & McBrier, 2000). Gender interactions are multi-dimensional and differ across male and female congenial workplaces. Elaborating on the notion of escalated glass ceiling, males have a favorable experience in female dominated workplaces. It is these set of positive experiences that can be generalized and spilled over other organizational experiences leading to further favorable perceptions (Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004; Cross & Bagilhole, 2002).

#### **4.4.2 Interaction effect of gender of employee and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on the perception of leadership effectiveness.*

The results of the present study have accepted the null hypothesis. Male and female employees across the sectors do not differ in perception of leadership effectiveness. This is in lieu with study findings of Thompson (2000) which concluded that there are no perceived differences between male and female leaders in their effectiveness to lead, within organizations despite of the stereotypical attribution patterns toward them.

#### **4.4.3 Interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics.*

The results of the present study have accepted the null hypothesis. Male and female employees across the organizational sectors do not differ in perceiving the leader's use of downward influence tactics. Each organization has its own work culture. A leader is perceived as effective when he matches his leadership style to the given context (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974). When organizational contexts differ, so do the leaders' behaviors. The leader behaviors are further determined by gender of the leaders (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Male and female leaders are seen to differ in their leadership behaviors in male congenial and female congenial workplaces (Eagly, et. al, 1995). However, the present study findings indicates toward a similar perception in influence behaviors of both male and female leaders across the organizational sectors, considered to be gender congenial to males and females. Therefore, we can conclude that leadership is no longer a construct that can be described and classified as either masculine or feminine based on the gender congeniality of the workplaces. Leadership is now gaining prominence more on androgynous lines and less on stereotypical lines.

#### **4.5 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of organizational variables.**

##### **4.5.1 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of leadership effectiveness.*

The null hypothesis is partially rejected since there was a significant interaction effect observed in male and female leaders across the organizational sectors on perception of behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. Research in the past (Rosete, et. al, 2005; Kerr, et. al, 2005) have indicated that emotional intelligence is a strong predictor to leadership effectiveness. Salovey & Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as a set of abilities that enable an individual to deal effectively with emotions, both within oneself and others.

Female leaders of the education sector and law enforcement sector are perceived at a higher end on the dimension of behavioral and emotional stability, furthering the study findings of Cavallo & Brienza (2013) where female managers are perceived as more effective than the male managers on a number of dimensions of emotional intelligence by their supervisors. Studies in the past (Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003; Palmer, et. al, 2001) have indicated toward a positive and significant correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Therefore, in interpreting the results, we can conclude that leaders perceived as high on behavioral and emotional stability dimension exhibit transformational styles of leadership. Wherein education and law enforcement sector female leaders show a higher score, well justifies the explanation since female leaders are shown to be more transformational in their styles to lead (Eagly, et. al, 2003). Evidence points out that even if male and female leaders exhibit same level of emotional intelligence, they are differentially perceived on the success factor with male leaders gaining the advantage.

Observations of the study results also reveal that male leaders of development sector are perceived as higher on this dimension as compared to their female counterparts.

Borrowing from the concept of ‘the glass escalator’ (Williams, 1992), male leaders in a female dominated workplace will be on an added advantage for a number of reasons. Simpson (2004) further explains the experience of males in a female dominated workplace where males gain from their minority status through (1) ‘the assumed authority effect’ (where males are assumed to exhibit enhanced leadership), (2) ‘the special consideration effect’ (where they are subjected to differential treatment), (3) ‘the careerist effect’ (where they are seen as more career oriented, and (4) ‘zone of comfort effect’ (comfortable interactions with female colleagues). This explains the study findings where male leaders meet favorable evaluations from their subordinates in a non- traditional set-up.

#### **4.5.2 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perceived use of downward influence tactics**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of downward influence tactics.*

The finding of the study accepted the null hypothesis. Male and female leaders do not differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics across the organizational sectors. Influence tactics as a function of organizational sectors assumed to be gender congenial for male and female leaders has not been a subject of scientific enquiry. Influence tactics have been investigated as a function of objectives, direction, power dynamics, but not by keeping in mind the gender congeniality of the workplace. The present study indicates no difference in male and female leaders’ use of downward influence tactics across male congenial and female congenial workplaces.

#### **4.6 Effect of age of the leader on perception of organizational variables**

##### **4.6.1 Effect of age of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that age of the leader will have a significant effect on perceived leadership effectiveness.*

The alternative hypothesis was confirmed since the leaders of various age groups differed in their perceived effectiveness to lead along the dimension of operations as a citizen.



***Operations as a citizen-*** For the present study, 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). On this dimension of effectiveness, a leader is perceived as effective when he fosters good relations between the organization and the community. The results reveal that young leaders, age ranging from 25-45 years, are perceived as the most effective, as opposed to leaders of the age ranging from 56 years and above.

A lot of research work has been carried out on leadership effectiveness and gender, but fewer studies have focused on the relationship between leadership effectiveness and age of the leaders. A study by Vechhio & Boatwright (2002) investigated the effect of gender and maturity on perceptions of leadership styles. The findings reveal that leaders with long job tenure were less willing to engage in task- oriented behaviors. Also a study by Barbuto & colleagues (2007) which examined the effects of age, gender and education level on leader behaviors concluded that significant interaction effects were observed of age of the leader and use of transactional or transformational leadership styles. Within the last two decades, the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) has been gaining a lot of prominence. As recently defined by Portney (2013), CSR refers to “A consistent pattern, at the very least, of private firms doing more than they are required to do under applicable laws and regulations governing the environment, worker safety and health, and investment in the communities in which they operate’ (p.108). Organizations are more actively formulating policies, planning CSR activities and setting aside budgets for funding the same. Young emergent leaders are perceived as actively taking up this new venture that works for the development of good relations with the community on one hand, and succeeds as a business strategy on the other hand. Today’s leaders are under the constant pressure to contribute toward the welfare of the community in form of CSR activities.

However, leaders of the age ranging from 56 years and above are perceived as comparatively low on this dimension of perceived leadership effectiveness. This age group of leaders represents the phase that used to perceive and design the CSR activities from a slightly different perspective. As rightfully mentioned by the famous philosopher, Alfred North Whitehead, that adult learners resist new information, for they find only that information as valid which they have acquired in their youth days

(in Knowles 'the modern practice of adult education', p.40), leaders of age group 56 years and above may resist the new conceptions hovering around the concept of the so-called 'corporate social responsibility'.

#### **4.6.2 Effect of age of the leader on perceived use of downward influence tactics.**

*It was hypothesized that age of the leader will have a significant effect on perceived use of downward influence tactics by the leaders.*

The conjectured hypothesis was confirmed by the results of the study. Leaders of different age groups were perceived to be differing in their use of downward influence tactics of assertion and ingratiation.

**Assertion-** Leaders of the age group 56 years and above are perceived as using this tactic to a lesser degree as compared to their younger counterparts. Assertion as a tactic is used maximally by leaders of the age group 46-55 years, followed by leaders of the age group 25-45 years. Assertion as an influence tactic has commonly been described as a tactic where the agent keeps on insisting and demanding something from the target. In today's highly competitive market, with the rapid pace of living and too many targets to be achieved with fewer resources and time constraints, and where multi-tasking becomes a valued attribute, leaders are often pressed to set deadlines and have frequent follow-ups with their subordinates. This very well supports the finding that leaders of the age groups 25-45 years and 46-55 years are perceived to be employing more of assertion behaviors towards their subordinates. Leaders of the age group 56 years and above are typically those who are in their final phase of career, advancing rapidly towards retirement. These are the leaders who have lived their years of leadership, often succeeding as better planners, and are now beyond the age of competitions and promotions. Researchers in the past have failed to take into consideration the age of the leader, as a significant variable in the study of downward influence tactics. A study by Barbuta & colleagues (2007) investigated the effect of age, gender and education level of the leaders on perceived leader behaviors and influence behaviors. Findings reveal that age of the leader alone does not determine differential perceptions of influence behaviors. However, when age of the leader was combined with education level, differences were found between male and female respondents on perception of pressure tactics. Owing to dearth of research in

this field, the results of the present study cannot be explained away or justified with reference to past studies.

***Ingratiation-*** Ingratiation as an influence tactic has been loosely interpreted in various ways, where the agent is seen as engaging in any of the stated behaviors- making the target feel important, sympathizing with the target on certain problems, waiting for the target to appear in a receptive mood before asking, praising the target, acting humbly, and/or asking in a polite manner (Suryanarayana & Rao, 2012). For the present study, 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).

Young leaders (age ranging from 25-45 years) were perceived as employing ingratiation to a greater extent as opposed to leaders in age group ranging from 56 years and above. Similar observations are made on the downward influence tactics of both assertion and ingratiation as perceived across leaders of different age groups. Yukl & colleagues (1992) in a study concluded that influence tactics are more effective when used in combinations, than when used as a single tactic. From the results of the present study, we may infer that ingratiation and assertion are used in combination by leaders belonging to age groups ranging from 25-45 years and 46-55 years. As evidenced by Yukl et al (1993), when viewing influence tactics as a sequential process, most of the initial attempts included ingratiating behaviors; and pressure tactics were used as the last resort. However, it is difficult to say with certainty that the leaders who use assertion are also the ones who use ingratiation, and whether the combination of assertion and ingratiation is an effective combination of influence tactics toward the downward direction.

Leaders of the age group ranging from 56 years and above are perceived as using less influence behaviors as compared to leaders of the other two age groups. Gilbert, et al (1990) found older supervisors engaging in less relationship oriented activities, when compared to the younger supervisors. This could be owing to the fact that older supervisors express a lesser need for relationships. Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) also found that employees with greater job tenure expressed less preference for task oriented behaviors. A study by Kotur and Anbazhagan (2014) also found that with increase in age, leaders exhibit lesser authority.

To conclude, the relationship of age of the leader with their perceived effectiveness and use of downward influence tactics can be explained by the Personality theory of Psycho-social development (Erikson, 1980) which proposed that personality is ever changing across the life span of an individual, and development of personality is the function of how life experiences of a particular developmental stage, are incorporated into one's personality. From the perspective of this theory, young adults are more active in developing their self identity at the workplace where they actively seek relations and constantly assert themselves within the organizations. On the other hand, older leaders are at a stage of psychosocial development where they are either integrating their life experiences or dwelling over their past misfortunes. This changes their focal angle from external conditions, and more toward the internal state of mind.

#### **4.7 Effect of years of work experience of the leader on perception of organizational variables**

##### **4.7.1 Effect of years of work experience of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that work experience of the leader will have a significant effect on perceived leadership effectiveness.*

The results of the present study rejected the alternative hypothesis, since leaders across varied work experience groups were not perceived differently on any of the dimensions of leadership effectiveness. Very meager research has been generated to understand leadership effectiveness with respect to work experience. Therefore, we can say that leaders are perceived as effective or ineffective, regardless of their number of years of work experience. A leader with 1-10 years of work experience would be perceived as equally effective as a leader with work experience of 31-50 years. There are numerous other organizational and personal factors that lead a leader to be perceived as effective, for instance, the leadership style (Pratap & Srivastava, 1985; Cellar et al., 2001; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002), gender of the leader (Cellar et al., 2001; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), and age and education of the leader (Barbuta et al., 2007).

#### **4.7.2 Effect of years of work experience of the leader on perceived use of downward influence tactics.**

*It was hypothesized that work experience of the leader will have a significant effect on perceived use of downward influence tactics.*

The conjectured hypothesis was confirmed since the findings of the study indicate that leaders across varied work experience groups were differentially perceived by employees, in the use of downward influence tactics of exchange of benefits, rationality, ingratiation, personalized relations, and use of sanctions- positive. The choice of influence tactics is determined also by the objectives (Srivastava, 2007) and direction of influence (Yukl, et al., 1995). As researched by Srivastava (2007), leaders use more of hard and rational tactics to meet organizational objectives, and more of soft tactics to meet personal objectives. Yukl & colleagues (1993; 1995) found that exchange of benefits, ingratiation and pressure were used more in downward direction.

In the perception of all the above mentioned downward influence tactics, leaders with work experience of 1-10 years are perceived as engaging in influence behaviors to a greater degree as compared to leaders in other work experience groups. A study by Vecchio & Boatwright (2002), point out that “greater levels of job tenure expressed less preference for leader structuring behaviors”. Thus, if we assume the opposite that lesser levels of job tenure result in a stronger preference for leader structuring behaviors (or task oriented behaviors); it very well explains our findings that leaders with less work experience engage in a greater use of influence tactics.

#### **4.8 Interaction effect of age and work experience of the leader on perception of organizational variables**

##### **4.8.1 Interaction effect of age and work experience of the leader on perception of leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of age and work experience of leaders in perception of leadership effectiveness.*

The findings of the study rejected the null hypothesis. The effect of age and work experience of the leaders was observed in perception of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, behavioral and emotional stability and operations as a citizen.

***Interpersonal relations-*** Leaders of the age group 25-45 years were uniformly and consistently perceived on this dimension across different work experience groups. However, leaders of the age groups 46-55 years and 56 years and above differ along this dimension, as they vary in work experience. Gilbert, et al (1990) in their study indicate that young leaders are more relationship oriented ( and so we find young leaders across varied work experience groups to remain consistent in their perceived interpersonal skills) and older leader are less relationship oriented (which explains the fluctuations in perceptions of interpersonal skills in leaders beyond the age group of 46 + years).

***Intellectual operations-*** Again, we observe that leaders of the age group 25-45 years were uniformly and consistently perceived on this dimension across different work experience groups. Leaders in the age group of 45-55 years indicate an increase on this effectiveness dimension as they move from work experience of 11-20 years to 21-30 years. As opposed to transactional leadership that relies on contingent reinforcement of followers, transformational leadership attempts to intellectually stimulate and inspire the followers (Bass, 1996). And as evidence suggests that transformational leadership is increasingly perceived beyond 46 years (Barbuto, et al, 2007), leaders with work experience of 21-30 years are bound to exhibit an increase in their intellectual capacities.

***Behavioral and emotional stability-*** Leaders in age group 25-45 years and 46-55 years are uniformly and consistently perceived on this dimension across different work experience groups. However, leaders in age group above 56 years decrease in effectiveness on this dimension as they shift from 11-20 years to 21-30 years of work experience. Unlike other variables that grow or deteriorate with time, a leader's emotional stability is an integral part of his/her personality that can be subjected to minimal changes. Researcher Lorenzo Fariselli of *Six Seconds Italia*, an international organization that actively works on development of emotional intelligence, notes a significant relationship between emotional quotient and age. His study points out that young people are more emotionally intelligent than old people. Emotional quotient is a construct that involves a number of dimensions. When you focus on dimension of self awareness, you know that it will increase with age, as people accumulate life experiences and become better at understanding and handling people as they mature.

However, there are certain dimensions like navigating emotions and exercising optimism that do not develop with age, but only through trainings. When it narrows down to emotional quotient dimensions of developing empathetic feelings and behaviors based on values and principles, age emerges as a significant factor because these dimensions develop as an individual matures.

**Operations as a citizen-** Leaders in the age group of 25-45 years were seen to differ on this dimension across the work experience groups. Discrepancies on perception of this dimension were observed between leaders of 46-55 years and above 56 years, in 11-20 years and 21-30 years of work experiences. However, these differences narrowed down as this age group leaders shifted toward the work experience group of 31-50 years. Possibly, the effect of individual ‘life events’ (Avolio, 1994) may help in explaining the interaction effect of age and work experience of leaders on perception of operations as a citizen. Also, when this study examined the dimensions of leadership effectiveness using non homogenous samples, i.e. mixing up leader/employee gender samples, organizational sectors and hierarchical levels (Antonakis, et al, 2003), the perceptions of leaders may be a result of various confounding factors.

#### **4.8.2 Interaction effect of age and work experience of the leader on perception of leaders’ use of downward influence tactics.**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction effect of age and work experience of leaders in leader’s use of downward influence tactics.*

The findings of the present study supported the null hypothesis. Age and work experience of the leader was not found to affect perception of leader’s use of downward influence tactics.

#### **4.9 Interaction effect of gender of the leader and employee on perceived use of downward influence tactics**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant difference between male and female leaders in their perceived use of influence tactics on male and female employees.*

The results of the present study rejected the stated hypothesis. Male and female leaders do not seem to differ in their influence behaviors toward male and female employees. Studies in the past have reported not only differences in the use of influence tactics by male and female managers (Barbuto, 2007; Eagly & Johnson, 1990), but differences have been observed in female managers' preferences for exchange of benefits with male employees as compared to female employees; and male managers' preferences for inspirational appeals' tactic more with female employees (Reimers, et. al, 2003). Carli (2001) in a study also reports differential use of influence tactics by male and female leaders on male and female employees. However, the present study indicates toward no such difference, though a trend has been observed in the use of assertion as a tactic. Both male and female leaders are perceived as using assertion as a tactic more with male employees as compared to female employees. Leadership largely remains a male's domain, with leader behaviors described, prescribed and evaluated in gendered terms. Assertion as a tactic is associated with leadership roles to aptly describe male leaders. Not only males are expected to lead according to the 'masculine norm', but females, who lead, especially in male-dominated workplaces, also experience the pressure of matching the masculine standards of leaders (Yoder, 2001).

#### **4.10 Differences in the perceived use of downward influence tactics between high and low effective leaders.**

*It was hypothesized that high and low effective leaders will differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics.*

The results of the present study confirmed the above hypothesis. The high effective leaders differed from the low effective leaders in their perceived use of downward influence tactics of assertion, exchange of benefits, expertise, rationality, ingratiation, personalized relations and use of sanctions- negative. However, the high and low effective leaders were not found to differ in their use of sanctions-positive.

**High effective leaders-** The high effective leaders were found to be employing the rational tactics of expertise and rationality and soft tactics of ingratiation and personalized relations to a greater degree as compared to the low effective leaders. Also, the high effective leaders were found to use the hard and direct tactics of assertion and use of sanctions-negative and the soft tactic of exchange of benefits to a



lesser degree as compared to the low effective leaders. Therefore, we can say that effective leaders are perceived as engaging in more of rational, and soft and indirect tactics and less in hard and direct tactics to influence their subordinates. Rational tactics are based on the instrumental reasoning of the target and soft tactics provide time for the target to decide whether or not to accept the influence exerted. A review of past studies reveals that soft and rational tactics emerged as more effective than the hard tactics (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003).

***Low effective leaders-*** The low effective leaders are perceived as engaging more frequently in use of hard and direct influence tactics of assertion and use of sanctions-negative. Studies by Falbe & Yukl (1992), Somech & Drach-Zahavy (2002), and Van Knippenberg & Steensma (2003) have concluded that hard tactics are less effective as compared to soft tactics. The low effective leaders are also perceived as employing the soft influence tactic of exchange of benefits to a greater frequency. Findings of past studies (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Bruce, 1992) also indicates that exchange of benefits is perceived as a moderately effective influence tactic as compared to other influence tactics.

Therefore, we can conclude that the high and low effective leaders correspondingly employ tactics that are high and low in effectiveness respectively.

#### **4.11.1 Correlation between perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant and positive correlation between perception of organizational health and leadership effectiveness..*

The proposed hypothesis was confirmed by the findings of the study. Results of the study indicate toward a significant and positive correlation between the leadership effectiveness dimensions of interpersonal relations, intellectual operations, behavioral and emotional stability, ethical and moral strength, adequacy of communications and operations as a citizen; and the task-conferred, maintenance needs and growth & changefulness dimensions of organizational health. However, the findings also reveal that the goal focus dimension of organizational health was not found to be correlated with the behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness. . In

general, it was found that behavioral and emotional stability dimension had a significant and positive but a low correlation with all the other dimensions of organizational health. Judge, et al (2002) in predicting leadership effectiveness with help of five factor model of personality, came to the conclusion that the neuroticism-emotional stability dimension failed to emerge as a significant predictor of a leader's effectiveness. Contrary to this finding, differences have been observed in employee attributions of emotional intelligence to leaders; and also in correlating emotional intelligence of the leaders with success. Male leaders are perceived as showing positive correlation between emotional competences and success as opposed to female leaders (Hopkins & Bilimiria, 2008). Though research evidence supports the correlation between leadership effectiveness and organizational health, often discrepancies exist in actual behaviors and perceived behaviors owing to a number of personal and organizational factors (Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003; House, et al, Chelladurai, 1984).

#### **4.11.2 Correlation between perceived downward influence tactics and organizational health**

*It was hypothesized that there will be no significant correlation between perception of organizational health and downward influence tactics.*

The findings of the present study have rejected the null hypothesis. Perceived use of downward influence tactics by leaders was found to be positively correlated with organizational health dimensions. Downward influence tactics that are found to be negatively correlated or not correlated with organizational health dimensions are discussed below.

Expertise, rationality, ingratiation and personalized relations are found to be positively correlated with all organizational health dimensions. Expertise and rationality represent the rational influence tactics; and ingratiation and personalized relations represent the soft influence attempts. The findings reveal that the use of these influence behaviors by the leaders is seen to be contributing to the overall health and well being of the organization. Use of soft and rational tactics, have been perceived as more effective in comparison of hard tactics (Somech-Drach-Zahavy, 2002).

Research evidence supports that use of hard tactics is not perceived as effective (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). The findings of the present study supports past research, where hard tactics like assertion and use of sanctions-negative are not found to be correlated with organizational health dimensions. Use of sanctions-negative shows a negative correlation with dimensions of communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness and innovativeness. This indicates that leader's perceived as using negative sanctions to a greater frequency, contribute towards unhealthy work environment. Assertion was found to be positively correlated with only the goal focus dimensions of organizational health. Assertions are defined as the agent's demands, frequent checks and/or persistent reminders to influence the target in carrying out a request (Yukl, 2013, p. 208). The findings indicate that leaders using assertion behaviors are seen to contribute positively to the goal achievements of the organization. Direct influence tactics like assertion are frequently seen to correlate with leadership styles that are task oriented in nature (Deluga, 1988). Research findings (Srivastava, 2007) further reveal that assertion tactics are employed to meet organizational objectives as opposed to personal objectives. This works in favor of goal focus, where leaders are perceived as accepting and achieving organizational objectives.

Exchange of benefits was found to be positively correlated with goal focus, optimal power equalization, morale, autonomy and problem solving adequacy. Leaders using exchange of benefits are seen to positively contribute to goal attainment of organizations. Positive correlation with optimal power equalization indicates that both leaders and subordinates are in a relationship that is marked by a two-way influence process, with influence both in upward as well as downward direction. Since exchange of benefits is a soft tactic, it allows for the target to think over on the requests. This provides a sense of well-being and satisfaction at the workplace (morale) and gives the employees the freedom to comply with the request (autonomy). Exchange of benefits as a tactic is also used by leaders in problem solving situations, and perceived as effective in the organizational context.

#### **4.11.3 Correlation between perceived leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant correlation between perceived leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics*

The findings of the present study confirmed the stated hypothesis. Downward influence tactics by leaders were seen to be correlated with leader's effectiveness to lead.

Rationality and ingratiation have been found to be positively correlated with all the leadership effectiveness dimensions. This implies that effective leaders engage in more frequent use of rationality and ingratiation as downward influence tactics. research evidence also points out that soft and rational tactics are perceived as more effective, as they are more frequently employed (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002). Also, Higgins, et al (2003) in their study indicates that rationality and ingratiation have a positive effect on work outcome.

Use of sanctions-negative has been found to be negatively correlated with leadership effectiveness dimensions. This indicates that a frequent use of negative sanctions as an influence attempt, leads a leaders to be perceived as ineffective. Findings in a study by Yukl, et al (1996) reveal that subordinates are not readily influenced by the use of pressure tactics, and the use of negative sanctions has an inverse effect on subordinates' level of job satisfaction (Tripathi & Tripathi, 2001). This is because the use of hard tactics place strain on relationships between the leaders and the subordinates. Despite the limitations in the use of negative sanctions, leaders in the Indian context rely on coercive power in their choice of influence tactics (Singh & Singh, 1994).

The behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness is found to be negatively correlated with influence tactics of assertion, exchange of benefits, and use of sanctions- negative and positive. A leader's frequent use of these tactics leads to a lower rating on his/her effectiveness on behavioral and emotional stability. Choice of influence tactics based on coercive power often produce resistance in the subordinates (Deutsch, 1973). Leaders using coercive power do so, often when the situation demands- when employees are de-motivated or hostile and not willing to cooperate. Further, the use of influence based on coercive power, immobilizes the

leaders toward the use of any other tactics (for instance, tactics based on expert power) and they are forced to increase the use of these power-based tactics. This situation, thereby leads them to be perceived as highly ineffective (Coleman & Voronov, 2005).

#### **4.12.1 Leadership effectiveness as predictors of perceived organizational health dimensions**

*It was hypothesized that leadership effectiveness will significantly predict dimensions of organizational health.*

The results of the study have confirmed the conjectured hypothesis. All the dimensions of leadership effectiveness have successfully predicted organizational health dimension. Past research has demonstrated the effect of managerial strategies with the effectiveness of an organization (Cameron, 1986). Also, studies have supported the finding that transformational leadership styles are positively correlated with organizational health (Korkmaz, 2007; Cemaloglu, 2011; Khademfar & Idris, 2012).

More specifically, operations as a citizen, has emerged as a significant predictor of all the dimensions of organizational health, except morale. Considering organizational health as an expanded version of organizational effectiveness, Jaffe (1995) outlined five factors that conceptualized the term, 'organizational health'. Out of these five factors, one factor considered healthy organizations as a measure of the benefits that it incurred on the community and the environment. Operations as a citizen measure a leader's effectiveness to function as a liaison officer between the organization and the community. Thus, a direct relationship is perceived between the leaders operating as a citizen and contributing towards the health of the organization.

The adequacy of communication dimension emerged as a significant predictor of all dimensions of organizational health, except morale and adaptation. A review of past research on organizational health indicates toward a significant relationship between communication skills of the managers and perceived organizational health (Rajabian, 2012; Quick & Macik-Frey, 2007). Expanding on the notion of healthy individuals leading to healthy and productive workplaces, healthy leaders are perceived as displaying communication competency, along with emotional competency and

positive self regard (Quick & Macik-Fray, 2007). Therefore we can say that leaders perceived as effective in their communication skills, will positively contribute toward the health of their organizations.

The morale dimension of organizational health has not been successfully predicted by any of the leadership effectiveness dimensions individually. Feelings of morale and satisfaction at the organizational level are caused by a group of factors, mostly as a function of the group size; and at the individual level, by the perceived role structure (Zeitz, 1983). Since the samples are drawn from non homogenous organizations, morale dimension cannot be effectively explained away by a leader's perceived effectiveness, since morale is a function of a group of factors.

The behavioral and emotional stability dimension of leadership effectiveness emerged as a significant predictor of organizational health dimensions of goal focus, optimal power equalization, resource utilization, cohesiveness, autonomy and problem solving adequacy. However, a negative relation is perceived between behavioral and emotional stability and these organizational health dimensions. The findings are contrary to popular evidence that a leader's display of emotional competence is seen as contributing to lower levels of organizational health. Often, the subordinates' personality and perceptions of self act as moderating factors in the perception of leader's effectiveness (Palm, 2008). Research evidence indicates that a leader's emotional competence is related directly to positive work attitudes (Carmeli, 2003), job satisfaction (Cekmecelioglu, et al, 2012) and the like. A leader's emotional competence may not be directly related to perception of organizational health. However, one cannot rule out the moderating effect of leader's emotional competence on the organization's well being.

The adaptation dimension of organizational health has not been successfully predicted by any of the leadership effectiveness dimensions individually. Adaptation, as a measure of organizational health is described as an organization's ability to cope and adapt to the changes in the local system. A lot goes into bringing about changes of a massive nature. Perhaps, a leader's role in such changes is one of the factors contributing to such changes, but not the only factor. Also, the levels at which the leader sample has been selected for the present study, especially from the

development and law enforcement sector, are not positions significant in contributing toward the changes that massive in nature.

#### **4.12.2 Downward influence tactics as predictors of perceived leadership effectiveness.**

*It was hypothesized that downward influence tactics will significantly predict dimensions of perceived leadership effectiveness.*

The results of the present study have confirmed the proposed hypothesis. All the downward influence tactics put together have successfully predicted leadership effectiveness dimensions. The ability to influence people has been recognized as one of the most important factors contributing to a leader's effectiveness.

Rationality and ingratiation have emerged as strong predictors of leadership effectiveness dimensions. Rationality is a rational tactic that appeals to the logical reasoning of the target, and ingratiation is a soft tactic which involves creating positive feeling toward oneself before placing the request. It has already been established that soft and rational tactics are used more often than hard tactics (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002).

Exchange of benefits has emerged as a strong predictor of leadership effectiveness except adequacy of communications. However, it holds a negative value against each of the leadership effectiveness dimensions, which indicates that leader's use of this tactic leads to him/her being perceived as less effective. Exchange of benefits in the past has been perceived as a moderately effective tactic (Yukl & Bruce, 1992; Falbe & Yukl, 1992) used more often in the downward direction (Yukl, et al, 1993).

Use of sanctions-negative has emerged as successful predictor of leadership effectiveness dimensions. However the negative values indicate that leaders using this tactic more frequently are perceived as less effective. A study by Tripathi & Tripathi (2001) indicated toward a negative relationship between level of job satisfaction and leader's use of negative sanctions. Social influence is a sequential process and leaders often resort to the use of pressure tactics as a delayed follow up influence attempt. A study by Yukl, et al (1996) also indicates that subordinates are readily influenced by other influence tactics, 'in the absence of pressure tactics'. Hard tactics place strain on the relationship between agent and target, and therefore less preferred by both

subordinates and leaders. Therefore, an increased use of negative sanctions will lead to negative evaluations of a leader's effectiveness.

Use of sanctions- positive has emerged as successful predictor of intellectual operations and operating as a citizen. This implies that leaders using positive sanctions as an influence attempt are perceived as effective on operating intellectually and as a citizen. In order to seek coordination from subordinates in resolving problems and task issues, and also to motivate subordinates for contributing to the community, the leader often resorts to the use of positive sanctions to encourage subordinates toward the right course of action.

#### **4.12.3 Downward influence tactics as predictors of perceived organizational health.**

*It was hypothesized that downward influence tactics will not significantly predict dimensions of perceived organizational health.*

The results of the present study have rejected the null hypothesis. All the downward influence tactics put together significantly predict the dimensions of organizational health.

Assertion has emerged as a significant predictor of communication adequacy, resource utilization, innovativeness, autonomy, adaptation and problem solving adequacy. But the negative relationship indicates that leaders perceived as using assertion to a greater frequency contribute to lower levels of organizational health. Assertion as a tactic involves the agent insisting and demanding something from the target. Classified as a hard tactic, it places strain on the relationship between the leader and subordinates. Therefore, managers use more of soft and rational tactics, and less of hard tactics (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2002). We have already discussed earlier in this section (see 4.12.1) the significant and positive correlations between the communication skills of the leaders and the organizational health dimensions. We can conclude, that leaders perceived as using assertion as an influence tactic, contribute to organizations being perceived as lower on the communication adequacy function, the rightful use of human resources, encouragement of new ideas, freedom to explore opportunities, adapting with the surrounding environment, and also the organizations'



capacity to solve problems. In short, use of assertion leads to unfavorable perceptions of organizational health.

Ingratiation has emerged as a significant predictor of all the organizational health dimensions except resource utilization. Rationality has emerged as a significant predictor of goal focus, communication adequacy, optimal power equalization, morale, innovativeness, and adaptation. As discussed earlier, rationality and ingratiation have emerged as the most effective tactics used by the leaders and found to be positively correlated with all the dimensions of leadership effectiveness (see 4.12.2).

Personalized relations emerged as a significant predictor of goal focus and communication adequacy dimensions. Seeking compliance based on personal relations of friendship contributes to positive perceptions of the task conferred organizational health dimensions. Expertise is an tactic where the agent is able to influence the target toward task accomplishment by virtue of the agent's display of knowledge and expertise in the field. Expertise was found to significantly predict the resource utilization dimension. Leaders' display of expert knowledge was seen to reflect upon his/her ability to use personnel resources effectively, i.e. choosing the right person for the right job.

Exchange of benefits emerged as a significant predictor of resource utilization, innovativeness and adaptation dimension. However, the negative relationship indicates that leaders perceived as employing this tactic contribute to lower levels of resource utilization, innovativeness and adaptation. As discussed earlier, this tactic emerged as a negative predictor of leadership effectiveness dimensions (see 4.12.2). Also, past evidence points out toward exchange of benefits perceived as moderate in its effectiveness (Yukl & Bruce, 1992; Falbe & Yukl, 1992).

Use of sanctions-positive emerged as a significant predictor of resource utilization, cohesiveness, morale, and problem solving adequacy. Though a direct tactic, use of sanctions-positive motivates the subordinates to engage in problem solving tasks and increasing the group morale and cohesiveness within the organization.

#### **4.13 Attributes of Effective Leaders**

The results of the study indicate that the male and female employee respondents show a tendency to describe effective male and female leaders, more with masculine attributes, as compared to feminine and neutral attributes. From the first ten most frequently chosen attributes, masculine attributes of ‘willing to take a stand’, ‘independent’, ‘willing to take risks’, ‘assertive’, ‘ambitious’, and ‘analytical’ are more frequently employed by employee respondents to describe effective male and female leaders. This is in tune with the earlier findings by Powell et al. (2002) and Gupta et al (2009) which states that both male and female respondents describe a good manager in predominantly masculine characteristics. Along with the assignment of masculine attributes, effective male and female leaders are also described as ‘understanding’, a feminine attribute. Therefore, for a leader to be effective, he/she not only needs to display structuring behaviors, but also needs to engage in ‘consideration’ behaviors.

##### **4.13.1 Attributes of effective male and female leaders**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective male and female leaders.*

The findings of the study have accepted the conjectured hypothesis. Employee respondents of the study differ in their stereotypical attributions toward effective male leaders and effective female leaders.

To describe an effective male leader, employee respondents have assigned more of masculine attributes like ‘willing to take a stand’, ‘independent’, ‘assertive’, ‘willing to take risks’, ‘ambitious’ and ‘analytical’. For centuries, leadership has been a male domain, and research on leadership has also been gendered. It is only since the past few decades, that upcoming research trends draw facts on differences and comparisons between male and female leaders. Studies in the past have supported the findings of the study where male leaders are more favorable evaluated when they engage in a structuring and directive style of leading (Bartol & Martin, 1986) and less favorably evaluated when they become more considerate (Bartol & Butterflied, 1976). Therefore, for a male to be evaluated as effective in his leadership role, he needs to engage in more structured leader behaviors and task-oriented leadership styles. In

other words, an effective male leader has the pressure to perform in accordance to the prevailing gender stereotypes of an effective leader.

To describe an effective female leader, employee respondents have more frequently employed the masculine attributes of 'independent', 'ambitious', and 'makes decisions easily'; feminine attributes of 'loyal', 'understanding', and 'soft spoken'; and neutral attributes of 'reliable', 'truthful', 'adaptable', and 'sincere'. This indicates that employee respondents do not show a strong preference for employing masculine, feminine or neutral attributes to describe an effective female leader. This implies that the image of a female leader is still unclear. Female leaders in the past have been in a dilemma, for they were pressurized to fit into the stereotypical roles of leaders, which were highly masculine in nature; exhibition of more structuring behaviors led them to be evaluated negatively, but exhibition of more of consideration behaviors, conflicted with the stereotypical expectations of effective leaders. Therefore, if and when female leaders engaged in consideration behaviors, they would be perceived as less effective in their leader role, and if and when they engaged in structuring behaviors, they were not well received. In an attempt to resolve the conflict, effective female leaders are described as displaying a combination of feminine, masculine and neutral attributes.

The employee respondents of the study, however, describe both effective male and female leaders as displaying consideration behaviors of 'understanding'. This is also revealed in study findings by Cann & Siegfried (1990) that effective leadership is possible when the leaders display both 'consideration' and 'structuring' behaviors. Understanding as an attribute is rated as third in descriptions of effective male leaders and rated fourth highest in descriptions of effective female leaders.

In assignment of attributes, we find major differences in patterns of attributions between effective male and female leaders. Where effective male leaders show highest attributions of masculine attributes of 'willing to take a stand' and 'independent', female effective leaders show highest attributions of neutral trait of 'reliable' and feminine trait of 'loyal'. This contrast pattern of attribution indicates toward the disparate images of male and female employees.

#### **4.13.2 Attributes of effective male and female leaders across organizational sectors**

*It was hypothesized that organizational sectors will have a significant effect on the stereotypes held for effective male and female leaders.*

The present study findings have partially rejected the proposed hypothesis. Differences are observed in the attributions held for female leaders, and not in the attributions held for male leaders.

##### **Effective male leaders**

Employees across organizational sectors, assumed to be gender congenial for male and female leaders, have uniformly and consistently described an effective male leader. Except the development sector, the other three sectors have chosen three masculine attributes out of five attributes to describe an effective male leader. According to the role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), male leaders are expected to display agentic traits and possess characteristics such as independent, decisiveness and risk-taking. Therefore, display of agentic traits represents both, the prescriptive and the descriptive gender stereotypes. It is only in the development sector where a display of conscientious behavior is perceived as a measure of effectiveness of male leaders. Keeping gender of the leader aside, conscientiousness has been positively and significantly correlated with leadership effectiveness (Silverthorne, 2001; Judge, et al, 2002). An Evolutionary perspective of personality states that psychological traits emerge and develop from mutation and selection and individuals in leadership positions often display conscientiousness because “prudence, planning and diligence aid survival” (Judge, et al, 2009). In the present study, specifically employees of the development sector, consider conscientiousness as a prerequisite for male leaders to emerge as effective. Employees across all the four organizational sectors have also attributed an effective male leader as being ‘understanding’, a feminine attribute. Although research evidence indicates that masculine gender roles are more consistent with structuring, and feminine gender roles, more consistent with consideration (Cann & Siegfried, 1990), the present study findings indicate that the prevailing gender stereotypes of effective leaders is gradually melting down. Along with masculine traits, the feminine trait of

‘understanding’ is also considered as a chief predictor of effectiveness of male leaders. Therefore, we have moved on from the stereotypical masculine descriptions of male leaders, towards an androgynous nature of male leadership.

### **Effective female leaders**

Employees across the organizational sectors have differed in their attributions toward an effective female leader. However, the differences are not very vast. Employees of the three sectors of corporate, education and development have maintained a common pattern of attributing one masculine, two feminine and two neutral traits. Employees of the law enforcement sector differ from other sectors, as they chose two masculine attributes and only one feminine attribute to describe an effective female leader. In a workplace that is congenial to male leaders, female leaders may be effective as leaders not when they display communal traits, but when they display agentic traits. According to the role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), females in male dominated workplaces face the ‘double-bind’, where they are expected to behave in accordance to the masculine stereotypes of leadership, but at the same time, negatively evaluated for functioning in manner that is incongruent to their social role. Also, Eagly & Johnson (1990) illustrated the concept of ‘organizational socialization’, which states that men and women within the same organization are selected and subjected to similar environments, thereby reducing the gender differences of male and female leaders in the same type of organization. Therefore, we say that training within the law enforcement sector is such, that it reduces the gender differences between males and females, where effective male and female leaders are relatively described more in masculine terms.

#### **4.13.3 Attributes of effective male leaders by male and female employees**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective male leaders by male and female employees.*

The results of the present study have rejected the proposed hypothesis. Both male and female employees do not differ in their stereotypical attributions toward effective male leaders. However, a difference is observed in their frequency of attributions. The five most frequently chosen attributes by male employees in the order of most frequently chosen to less frequently chosen are- willing to take a stand, understanding,

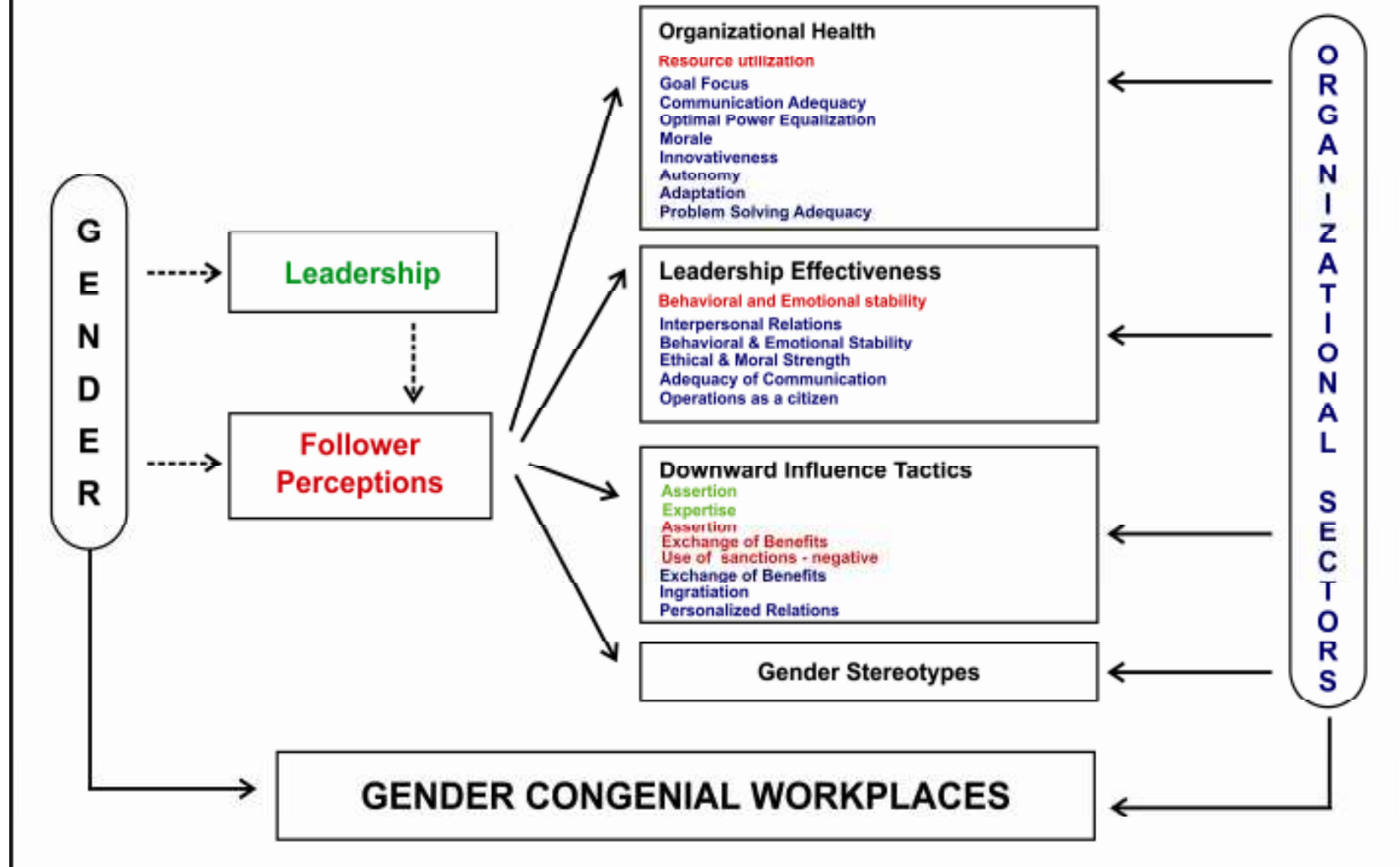
independent, sincere, and willing to take risks; and attributions by female employees are willing to take a stand, independent, sincere, understanding and willing to take risks. For decades, men had gained prominence over the leadership positions, be it in the domestic setting, or the organizational setting. Imagining a man in leadership roles was easy as it was to imagine a man in farmer's role and in a surgeon role. As a result, stereotypical attributes of leadership roles came to be described more readily in masculine terms. Therefore, we infer from the findings of the study that both male and female employees have a clear and definite picture of an effective male leader.

#### **4.13.4 Attributes of effective female leaders by male and female employees**

*It was hypothesized that there will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective female leaders by male and female employees.*

The conjectured hypothesis was only partially rejected. Male and female employees do not differ widely in their attribution patterns toward an effective female leader. In the order of most frequently chosen to less frequently chosen, attributes by male employees are reliable, loyal, ambitious, understanding, and adaptable; and attributes by female employees are understanding, ambitious, adaptable, soft spoken and reliable. The pattern of attributions is also similar, i.e. one masculine trait of 'ambitious', two neutral traits of reliable and adaptable, and one feminine trait of understanding. We observe a difference in employment of one feminine attribute; male employees have selected loyalty as an attribute and female employees have selected soft-spoken to describe an effective female leader. This finding of the study is unique to the literature on gender stereotypes of female leaders. The findings indicate that male and female employees share a clear and specific image of an effective female leader. The expectations from an effective female leader by a male or a female employee are similar across organizations, assumed to be differing in their gender congeniality.

# VALIDATION OF THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STUDY



#### **4.13 Major Findings**

1. Organizations assumed to be gender congenial to males (i.e. law enforcement and corporate sector) have been conceived as true, as indicated by a dearth of female leaders and female employees of both the sectors in the study sample. However, organizations assumed to be gender congenial to females (i.e. education and development sector) finds an equal or greater number of males in leadership and subordinate positions. Therefore, we can say that Higher Educational Institutions indicate toward gender neutral and not toward female congenial organizations. And as of the development sector, it demonstrates the concept of 'the glass escalator', which indicates that men are rapidly advancing into female dominated workplaces.
2. The organizational context has emerged as significant predictor of organizational variables. The study findings indicate that organizational context has a profound effect on the perceptions of organizational health, leadership effectiveness, downward influence tactics and gender stereotypes of leaders.
3. Male and female leaders do not differ in terms of their perceived effectiveness. However, perceptions of leadership effectiveness are affected by organizational context, gender of the employee and age of the leader.
4. Leadership effectiveness has emerged as a significant predictor of dimensions of organizational health. Perceived leadership effectiveness is also found to be significantly correlated with leader's use of downward influence tactics and employees' perceptions of organizational health.
5. Gender of the leader as well as that of the employee, age of the leader and the organizational context have a significant effect on leader's perceived use of downward influence tactics. Rationality and ingratiation have emerged as strong predictors of perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness dimensions. Use of sanctions-negative, has emerged as a negative predictor of perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness.
6. High and low effective leaders are found to differ in their use of downward influence tactics. High effective leaders are perceived as using rational and



soft tactics to a greater degree as compared to low effective leaders, who engage in a greater use of hard and direct tactics.

7. Organizational health is found to be significantly correlated with perceived leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics. The perceptions of organizational health are affected by gender of the employee and the organizational sectors.
8. Effective male leaders in particular, are predominantly perceived in masculine attributes. In attributions of both effective male and female leaders, the feminine attribute of 'understanding' has been perceived as a pre-requisite to leader's effectiveness.
8. There is a difference in the stereotypes attributed to effective male and female leaders. However, effective male leaders are uniformly and consistently perceived across organizational sectors, by both male and female employees. Differences are observed in attributions toward effective female leaders, by male and female employees, and also across organizational sectors.
9. Age and work experience of the leaders, has emerged as a significant predictor of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics. Young leaders are perceived as more effective and engaging in more influence behaviors as compared to their older counterparts. Young leaders are also, uniformly and consistently perceived on the dimensions of leadership effectiveness and use of influence tactics across varied work experience groups.

#### **4.14 Conclusion**

The Organizational context is found to have a significant effect on organizational variables, though differences are not observed across 'gender congenial' workplaces. There is a rapid advancement of men in traditional female dominated occupations of social work. But the same cannot be said for women in traditionally male dominated occupations. Stereotypes for effective leaders are gradually becoming less masculine or feminine in nature. The trend indicates toward the development of an androgynous nature of leadership. Demographic details of the leader (such as age, gender, and work experience) have emerged as significant predictors of leadership effectiveness and influence behaviors. The leader's effectiveness is found to have a proactive effect on perceptions of organizational health. The organizations under law enforcement sector have emerged as healthy

organizations, and the organizations in education sector are perceived at a lower end on dimensions of organizational health. However, it is necessary to understand that a healthy organization may or may not be effective in its functioning; and an effective organization may or may not be perceived as healthy.

#### **4.15 Implication**

The present study has significant implications for training programs and more specifically, for OD interventions. The practical implications of the study are summarized as below:

1. The study identified the significant role of leadership effectiveness on perceptions of organizational health dimensions. In addition, employee perceptions of organizational health varied across different organizational sectors. The findings of the research will be useful for the OD consultants, in their evaluations of organizational effectiveness.
2. Perceived leadership effectiveness was found to be correlated with leader's use of downward influence tactics. Downward influence tactics also emerged as strong predictors of leadership effectiveness and organizational health. This finding is useful for development of leadership training modules, where effectiveness of a leader is determined by the leader's use of influence tactics. Also, individuals in leadership positions, seeking positive evaluations and effective functioning would benefit to know that use of influence tactics of ingratiation and rationality produce better results and use of sanctions-negative and exchange of benefits, produce less desirable outcomes.
3. The present study findings indicate that organizations are either gender specific or gender neutral. The gender congeniality of an organization is determined by the number of males and females in an organization, and the positions occupied by males and females of the organizations. For organizations to ensure optimal use of human resource and realizing the potentials of males and females of the organizations it becomes crucial for organizations to maximize the potential of females in male dominated workplaces and the potential of males in female dominated workplaces.
4. The demographic characteristics of the leader produced significant effects in perceptions of leader behaviors and use of influence tactics. The findings of

the study would be of use to committees within organizations in recruiting and hiring leaders for assigning them to new projects.

5. The study findings provided a clear picture of stereotypes held for male and female leaders across organizations. Organizations may create a more gender neutral work environment and thereby can sensitize the employees on the issues of gender diversity. Thus, employees will have a gender balanced perspective of male and female leaders and their functioning across varied organizational contexts.

#### **4.16 Limitations**

1. The present study was restricted to sample organizations located within Vadodara District only. Therefore, one has to be careful to take into consideration this limitation before making any generalizations.
2. Leadership as a construct should be studied and understood both from the perspective of actual leadership and perceived leadership. The present study has taken into consideration only the follower perceptions in study of organizational variables.
3. Although a comparison was drawn between male and female leaders and employees, the present study is not a fair representation of the female sample of leaders (with only 16 leaders from a total leader sample of 80 leaders) and female sample of employees (with only 123 female employees from the total sample of 400 employees).
4. The tool used in the study to measure gender stereotypes of effective male and female leaders, that is, Bem's Adjective Checklist, is not the best chosen to suit the research purpose, for it addresses gender stereotypes of men and women in general, and not on managerial stereotypes. The Attribute checklist developed by Schein, the SDI (Schein Descriptive Index) is an updated tool to measure managerial stereotypes.

#### **4.17 Direction for future research**

Having the experience and findings gained in the process of conducting this research, the following suggestions are offered for future considerations of research in this area.

- a) Further research can be carried out that attempt to draw an equal number of female respondents in the study.
- b) The relation of organizational health with other organizational variables (such as the upward influence tactics, positive organizational behaviors, and the like) should be studied.
- c) Apart from age, gender and work experience; leadership effectiveness should be understood taking into consideration the position of the leader within the organization and his/her educational qualification.
- d) Leadership should be studied; both from the follower perceptions and actual leadership, and further, the discrepancy between the two should be analyzed and understood.
- e) The present study focuses on the gender stereotypes of male and female leaders, held by employees. Additional work can be carried out to understand the stereotypes held by leaders of the organization.
- f) More research needs to be generated to understand and elaborate on the concept of 'gender congenial workplaces'.
- g) Organizational sectors or varied occupational groups should be included within the research design, for understanding of various workplace variables.

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