INTRODUCTION

Leadership happens to be one of the most researched and sought after topics for psychologists (Bass, 1990). A lot goes in to making a leader effective and a lot has been done to understand the effectiveness of a leader. It is difficult to pinpoint the indices of effectiveness, as there are simultaneously various factors beyond the leader's control (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan,1994).Effectiveness of a leader generally concerns the extent to which he/she is able to fulfill the organizational goals on one hand, and the extent to which he/she is able to satisfy his/her subordinate's needs. Actual effectiveness of the leader maybe assessed from his/her organizational success, as opposed to perceived leadership effectiveness from the eyes of the subordinates. However, still leaders can best be understood from the perspective of the subordinates than any other indices. As Prentice (2004) rightfully states, "Leadership is the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants".

Effectiveness of the leader not only affects the organization's people, but also, the extent to which an organization remains healthy. As stated by Quick, Macik-Frey, and Cooper, (2007), "the healthy leader is the touchstone for organizational health". Past studies have indicated toward a positive and significant relationship of managerial effectiveness and leadership styles with organizational effectiveness (Cameron, 1986; Korkmaz, 2007; Cemaloglu, 2011; Khademfar & Idris, 2012; Mohammad, 2012). The sign of a healthy organization is when the organization remains stable and intact in changing times, when the management, operations, strategies and culture come together to become a whole, complete system (Lencioni, 2012). Organizational leaders are the change agents- for they create a vision, evaluate the needfulness of their organizations and implement the change themselves (Gilley, McMillan, & Gilley, 2009). Therefore, the sign of an effective leader is also the extent to which he/she operates to keep the organization a healthy and living system.

The role of communication in organizations is manifold, for it works as a tool for motivating employees toward the work tasks (Luecke, 2003), and also helps in reinforcing the employees for accomplishment of work tasks (Peterson & Hicks, 1996). Communicating goals and providing a visionary insight can lead the organization to be healthy. The extent to which a leader is able to influence the subordinates to bring about desirable changes, is a point worth noting. The process of

1

influence between the leader and the followers is yet another way to conceptualize leadership. A leader's effectiveness often depends on the process of influence he/she engages in, when interacting with the subordinates (Yukl, 2002). The choice of downward influence tactics is confounded by a number of factors, some being the objectives of influence (Yukl, Guinan, & Soitolano, 1995), direction of influence (Yukl and Tracey, 1992), gender of the agent and gender of the target (Moss, Barbuto Jr., Matkin, and Chin, (2005) and the legitimate power of the agent (Schwarzwald, Koslowsky and Ochana-Lecin, 2004), to name a few.

A leader is also termed as effective when he adopts and adjusts leadership style to suit the followers' needs and competencies as well as the organizational demands (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).Yet another perspective of leadership is to take the organizational context into consideration. Eagly, Karau and Makhijani (1995) have stated that organizational workplaces are either gender congenial to male leaders or female leaders. The gender of the leader and the gender congeniality of the workplace together determine and ensure the smooth functioning of the leader. Whether a workplace is gender congenial to male or female leader will depend upon the nature of work and the attitude of the people in the organization. The stereotypes held by people within the organization shape the effectiveness of a leader before even giving him/her a fair chance to contribute as a leader.

Keeping all the above aspects in mind, the present research aims to investigate the relationship between organizational health and leadership effectiveness, follower perceptions of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics, and leadership effectiveness as perceived across different gender congenial workplaces. Also of interest is to find out gender differences in perception of the organizational variables and, the stereotypes of effective male and female leaders held by male and female employees across varied workplaces.

1.1   LEADERSHIP

Stogdill (1974) has rightfully pointed out that there are as many definitions of leadership as the number of people who have attempted to define the term. To put it in simplest terms, "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2010, p.3). To elaborate further,

Leadership is a process and not a trait or characteristic, whereby the leader affects and is affected by a group of individuals. Leadership takes place in a group context, where others are required for leaders to exist. The focus of leaders or rather, the purpose of leadership is to help a group of individuals to achieve a common goal.

Leadership is an extensively researched topic and a review of past studies will throw light on the various theoretical approaches that have been generated in an attempt to understand what makes good leaders.

I. **The Trait Approach:** More commonly known as "The Great Man Theory", the notion was that people are born with the traits that make them leaders. The trait approach generated a lot of research into identifying what traits set apart the leaders from the followers (Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1974; Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Zaccaro, Kemp & Bader, 2004). While understanding the trait approach, emphasis is also placed on the situational factors. The survey findings by Stogdill (1948) revealed that traits alone do not make leaders effective. Rather, the traits that the leader possesses should be relevant to the situation in which he/she is working.

II. **The Skills Approach:** Much close in line to the trait approach, is the skills approach, where skills are perceived as leading to effective leaders. Mintzberg (1973) had pointed out how the interpersonal skills are weigh upon the effectiveness of a leader. Also, work by Bass (1990) reveals how the interpersonal skills of empathy, social skills, and tact gauge the effectiveness of a leader. More recently, Mumford, Marks, Connelly, Zaccaro, & Reiter-Palmon (2000) developed a skill based model for leader's performance in problem solving situations. The researchers concluded that in order to solve organizational problems, an effective leader requires knowledge, problem-solving skills, solution consultation skills, and social judgment. Unlike the trait approach which argues that effective leadership is an inherent quality, the skills approach focuses on leader's capabilities, believing that effective leadership can be acquired if the individual is capable of benefitting from experiences.

III. **The Style Approach:** This approach to leadership focuses on the behavior of the leader on two levels, the task level and the relationship level. Research on leader behavior has extensively focused on these two broad categories- task oriented behavior and relation oriented behavior. A review of past studies reveals that the taxonomy of leader behavior has been vast and varied. The Classical studies on leader behavior, for instance the Ohio State Studies, developed a questionnaire that studied two types of leader behavior- initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill, 1974). The University of Michigan Studies identified two types of leader behaviors- employee orientation and production orientation (Bowers & Seashore, 1966). And lastly, the famous model of managerial behavior, the Managerial Grid, focuses on two leader behaviors- concern for production and concern or people (Blake & Mouton, 1964). A solution to the ever expanding taxonomy of leader behavior is broadly classifying leader behavior into three Meta-categories- task, relations, and change (Yukl et al, 2002).

IV. **The Situational Leadership Theory:** One of the most popular theories of leadership, and also the most widely used approach, is the Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) by Hersey & Blanchard (1969). As the term implies, SLT focuses on leadership in situations. A leader is effective to the extent he is able to adapt to the demands of varying situations. Being subjected to multiple revisions, Blanchard and colleagues presented the revised model in Situational Leadership II- SLII (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1985). This model focuses on leadership styles and developmental level of the subordinates. The crux of the theory is that subordinates may move forward and backward on the developmental continuum, and for leaders to be effective; they must identify the developmental level of the subordinates and accordingly adapt their styles to match the developmental level of the subordinates.

V. **The Contingency Theory of Leadership:** by Fiedler & Chemers (1974) is a "leader-match theory' where effective leadership is a function of appropriately matching the leader's styles to the given context. The two parameters to be taken into consideration are- styles and situations. The leadership styles can be

further described as 'task motivated' or 'relationship motivated'. The situational variables can be delineated based on three factors: (i). Leader-member relations, (ii). Task structure and (iii). Position power.

VI. **The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership:** by House (1971, p 324) asserts that "the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route".

The independent variable of the theory is the leader behavior, which is further categorized into four groups of behavior: (i) Directive path-goal clarifying leader behavior, (ii). Supportive leader behavior, (iii). Participative leader behavior, and (iv). Achievement oriented behavior.

In simplest terms, the path-goal theory proposes how leadership behavior interacts with subordinate characteristics and the characteristics of workplace, so as to assert influence on the subordinate's motivational level.

VII. **The Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX):** Originally known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) theory, it focuses on the dyadic relationship that the leader has with each of his/her subordinates. The goals of the leader, followers and organization are dependent upon the quality of the leader-member relationship. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) suggest that the process of leadership passes through three phases: 1. Stranger, 2. Acquaintance, and 3. Partnership. Emphasis is placed on the existence of in-groups and out-groups within an organization. Working with the in-group members allows the leader to effectively achieve the organization's goals.

VIII. **Transformational Leadership:** Focusing on the charismatic and affective aspects of leadership is the transformational leadership that perceived leadership as a process that transforms and changes people. Coming into light from the sociologist Burns (1978) work on 'leadership', the purpose is to motivate the followers to the extent that the goals of both the leader as well as the followers are met. Burns further distinguishes between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership

emphasizes on the needs and motives of the followers; a connection is created by the leader between him/her and the followers, so as to raise their level of motivation.

Refining the theory of transformational leadership, Bass (1991) purposed to describe the transactional and transformational leadership on a single continuum, and not as independent concepts. The factors that best describe transformational leadership are: (i). Charisma, (ii). Inspirational motivation, (iii). Intellectual stimulation, and (iv). Individualized consideration. The factors that best describe a transactional leadership are (i). Contingent reward and (ii). Management-by-exception.

1.1.1 Antecedents to Leadership Effectiveness

There are four common themes- influence, integrity, inspiration, & improvement, that appear on books and articles dedicated to leadership development (Rendall, 2006). Gilley, Dixon, & Gilley (2008) point out that a leader can effectively bring about change and encourage innovativeness, solely on his/her ability to communicate appropriately and motivate others. Similar findings in a study by Gilley et al (2009) suggest that the effectiveness of a leader to motivate others, communicate effectively, and build work groups, successfully predicts the implementation of organizational change. On the other hand, a leader's lack of skills results in low rates of organizational success (Gilley et al, 2008).

Research on leadership indicates higher success rates of leaders exhibiting transformational leadership. A study by Hoyt & Blascovich (2003) point out that transformational leadership led to a decrease in quantitative performance but to an increase in qualitative performance, leadership satisfaction and group cohesiveness. Sivanathan & Fekken (2002) relate emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style, stating that leaders, who reported higher on emotional intelligence, were perceived by the subordinates as higher on effectiveness and perceived as displaying transformational behaviors. In a study, Chan & Chan (2005) reveal that transactional leadership styles (three factors) and transformational leadership styles (five factors) significantly correlated with leader effectiveness, employee satisfaction and extra inputs by the employees. They further stated that transformational

leadership actually strengthens transactional leadership to improve work performance and increase employee satisfaction. Gender differences are noted in the leader's use of transformational leader style, in that female leaders exhibit more of transformational behaviors as compared to their male counterparts (Eagly, Johannesen-Scmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Burke & Collins, 2001). Thus, one can say that transformational leadership styles are well received than any other leadership styles, for they are directly related to employee satisfaction, which eventually results in better task performance.

The findings of a study (Gilbert, Collins, & Brenner, 1990) reveal that younger supervisors engage more in relationship-oriented activities, as compared to their older counterparts. This may be owing to the fact that the older supervisors may have a lesser need for relationships. A study by Barbuto, Jr., Fritz, Matkin, and Marx, (2007) provided evidence of the leader's age having a significant effect on follower's rating on leader behaviors, with the 46+ age group rated highest on transformational leadership. Further, findings also reveal that age of the leader had a significant effect on leader behaviors like idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration and effectiveness. Therefore, we observe that age of the leader has a significant effect on follower perceptions of effectiveness, and any research generated in an attempt to investigate leadership effectiveness should take into consideration, the age of the leader.

In an attempt to predict leadership effectiveness based on the five-factor model of personality, Judge, Ilies, Bono, & Gerhardt, (2002) found extraversion as the most consistent correlate to leadership effectiveness, followed by conscientiousness. Openness to experience and agreeableness did not relate to leadership. Lastly, neuroticism failed to emerge as a significant predictor to leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, multivariate genetic analyses in a study by Johnson, Vernon, Harris, & Jang, (2004) indicate a significant positive genetic correlation between transformational leadership and conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience; a significant positive genetic correlation between transactional leadership and disagreeableness and a significant negative genetic correlation between transactional leadership and conscientiousness and extraversion. Applying the Big Five personality to the collective level, Hofmann & Jones (2005) provided evidence

on how leadership (especially transformational leadership) predicted collective personality and how the collective personality predicted collective performance. Expanding on the work of the trait approach to leadership, this literature review indicates that personality of the leaders emerge as strong predictors of their effectiveness.

Research evidence has also pointed out toward a positive correlation between leadership effectiveness and the leader's emotional intelligence (EI). As stated by Salovey and Mayer (1990), EI represents a set of abilities that enable an individual to deal effectively with emotions, both within self and others. Effective leadership skills in past, are drawn from one's understanding the affective level of oneself as well as the followers. A study by Palmer, Walls, Burgers, & Stough, (2001) indicated that EI correlated with several components of transformational leadership, proving it to be a significant component to effective leadership. Caruso, Mayer & Salovey (2002) further state that a leader perceived as high on emotional intelligence generally engages in relationship oriented behaviors. Studies by Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) & Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, (2005) suggest that the emotional intelligence was a strong predictor to leadership effectiveness, as compared to personality and the IQ of the leader. Contrary to earlier findings, Antonakis (2004) states that the success of charismatic leadership rests on the leader's display of negative emotions, such as anger and disgust. As compared to a leader's intellectual capacities and aspects of personality, the emotional competence of the leader plays a significant role in predicting the effectiveness of the leader.

A study by Kayworth & Leidner (2002) gives an insight into effective leadership in virtual settings. The findings indicate that an effective team leader is one who is able to perform multiple leadership roles- act as a mentor, empathetic towards team members, assertive though not over bearing, effective communicator and efficient in role relationships. Adding onto this, Hoyt & Blascovich (2003) reveal that group performance and cohesiveness are similar across all settings, i.e. face-to-face, immersive virtual environment, or intercom. However, leadership satisfaction was more when leaders interact in a face-to-face setting. In an era, where advanced technology are becoming the hub of all professional activities, it will not be surprising to hear of specific leadership styles that are more effective in virtual settings.

To conclude, a leader is a skilled person, and his/her skills will directly affect the organizational success and outcomes. A leader exhibiting transformational leader behavior is found to have higher success rates as compared to other leader behaviors. Characteristics of the leader, such as age and gender, are seen to have a profound effect on perceived leadership effectiveness. Also, individual factors like personality, Intellectual capabilities, Emotional Competence and Spiritual Quotient of the leader, are seen to positively correlate with a leader's effectiveness.

1.2   GENDER STEREOTYPES

In our everyday life, we often come across people who use the two terms 'sex' and 'gender' interchangeably. It is very important to distinguish between the two terms; sex is a biological construct and gender is a social construct. Sex refers to the biological differences in terms of chromosomes, hormone, internal and external sex organs, that helps to differentiate between man and woman. Whereas gender is a concept that denotes a set of characteristics that are typically defined on the lines of social, psychological and cultural influences and that clearly differentiate masculinity and femininity. Therefore, sex becomes an ascribed status and gender becomes an achieved status. In addition to these two terms, 'sex category' is a term that is often used by sociologists to categorize 'males' and 'females' and so to attach social meanings to the biological sex.

The 'gender roles' are shaped based on the expectations of the society towards the attitudes and behaviors of each sex. The structural-functionalist perspective stresses on a clear division of labor between men and women to ensure the smooth functioning of the family as a unit. Women, who give birth to a child, assume the 'expressive role', where it is more than natural for them to raise the child and carry out activities of the household and nearby areas, like farming. Men, assume the 'instrumental role', where they travel outside the house and their role is restricted to that of being the provider of food for the family. Whereas the conflict theory, more on the lines of Marxian beliefs, assumes that the master-slave equation occurring in the wider society gets translated into the household scenario. Women, who engage in domestic chore that is an unpaid, non-economic activity; makes men of the household gain unquestioned position and power. In India, which operates on a patriarchal system, furthermore concentrates the wealth and power in the hands of the dominant

group, i.e. the men, making the women more and more poor and neglected as a social group.

Baron & Bryne (2002) defined gender stereotypes as "stereotypes concerning the traits supposedly possessed by females and males, and that distinguish the two genders from each other" (p. 242). Gender stereotypes can be further classified as descriptive (what men and women are like) and prescriptive (how men and women should behave). Both prescriptive and descriptive gender stereotypes result in negative evaluations, more so for the women in a male dominated workplace (Rudman & Glick, 2001; Heilman, 2002).

1.2.1 Gender in the Leadership Role

Gender stereotypes are the stereotypes held for men and women in general that differentiate between the roles played by males and females in the social context. However, leader gender stereotypes or managerial stereotypes are specifically characteristics that differentiate between a male leader and a female leader (Basu, 2008).

Eagly (1987) proposed the *social role theory* stating that individuals are expected to behave in ways consistent with their gender roles. The social role theory is based on the division of labor, where women by virtue of their occupying roles that require them to engage in communal behaviors (warmth, submissiveness) which becomes incorporated into female gender roles; and where men by virtue of occupying roles that require them to engage in agentic behaviors (dominant, aggressive) becomes incorporated into male gender roles.

Further Eagly & Karau (2002) proposed the *role congruity theory* which states that there are two sets of prejudice that arise as a result of gender roles and leader roles. The first form of prejudice arises when there is greater incongruence between gender role and leader role. This is especially true for female leaders in male-dominated workplaces. The second form of prejudice arises when female leaders engage in more agentic behaviors, thereby increasing the incongruence between their leader role and their prescribed gender roles. According to this theory, female leaders face a 'double-bind, or 'a no-win' situation. Eagly & Karau further state that there are

10

less favorable attitudes towards female leaders as compared to male leaders, and that women face difficulty in becoming leaders and achieving success as leaders.

A study by Heilman (2002) points out that gender stereotypical expectations hinder the growth and progress of women in their career charts. Being competent alone does not give them the same position and power that a man would get, at that level. Findings from an experiment carried out by Rudman & Glick (2002) indicate that female leaders suffer a negative evaluation when they go against their "feminine-niceness" and assume an agentic role in their workplace. The percentage of women managers has increased over the years, despite the negative evaluation of women in leadership roles. However, a study by Powell, Butterfield, & Parent (2002) carried out on undergraduate and part time business students suggest that a good manager is still described in predominantly masculine terms. A study by Heilman & Parks-Stamm (2007) revealed the influence of organizational conditions that lead to the pressure imposed by prescriptive gender stereotypes on women in leadership positions. The study further stated how women are penalized for violating prescriptive gender stereotypes. Respondents of a study by Prime, Carte, and Welbourne, (2009) perceived women as being more effective in care taking leader behaviors, and men, as more effective in take-charge leader behavior. The findings furthermore revealed that men as leaders were more effective than women leaders in problem solving tasks, thereby undermining the influence of women leaders. On similar lines, a cross-cultural study by Gupta, Turban, Wasti, & Sikdar, (2009) revealed that both men and women participants described an entrepreneur as having predominantly masculine characteristics. We can conclude from the above study findings that leadership roles are predominantly described in masculine terms and that female leader who engages in agentic behaviors is negatively evaluated. This indicates toward the backlash experienced by female leaders who display agentic behaviors.

The globalization of women's issues has had a great impact on the Indian workforce, with women rapidly gaining positions in the organizational setting. However, factors that lead to major changes like this are organizational and familial support, as well as the individual personal drive to succeed (Nath, 2000). Recently, a study on work-life balance by Rastogi & Bansal (2012) reveal that Indian married women professionals place family before work, and agree that their career decisions

are strongly affected by family responsibilities owing to children's responsibility, lack of spousal support and the family structure. Therefore, one added factor that hinders the growth and advancement of females is their social and familial responsibilities that they give top priority to.

For the last couple of decades, vast amount of research has been consumed to answer the research question, 'How does gender of the leader affect leadership effectiveness'? A review of literature reveals mixed findings, displaying the presence or absence of differences in leadership effectiveness when taking into consideration the gender of the leader. A study by Vilkins (2000) reveals that there is no significant relationship between gender of the leader and their perceived effectiveness by significant others, i.e. by peers, staff, & boss. Rather, how effectively a leader functions, is what determines his/her perceived effectiveness. Similarly, a study by Hollander (1992) noted no gender differences in one's effectiveness to lead, although females occupying the leader's role have to struggle to gain the legitimate power. A study by Singh (2007) on male and female software professionals demonstrates that both the male and female software professionals were found to be above average on leadership effectiveness scale. The study further illustrates both the genders' preference for supportive/nurturing task style of leadership. Powell (1993) in his work reveals that men and women do not differ in their effectiveness to lead, although there are some situations that are more favorable for women, and some that favor men. This can be explained by Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, which proposes that leader's effectiveness can be assessed by the effective matching of the leader's style to the given situation. A study by Eagly & Johnson (1990) discloses no gender differences in leader's use of interpersonal oriented style and task oriented style, although gender differences were perceived in the leader's use of democratic and autocratic styles, with females adopting a more democratic style than male leaders.

A study by Prime et al (2009) shows that senior managers as respondents perceive women leaders as more effective at care-taking behaviors as compared to their male counterparts; and that men leaders were more effective at action-taking behaviors as compared to their female counterparts. Stating blatantly- "WOMEN TAKE CARE, MEN TAKE CHARGE", the study further goes on to explain that the male respondents of the study indicated men leaders as more capable at problem

solving tasks, further aggravating the stereotype against women leaders. Findings of a study by Cann & Siegfried (1990) indicate that effective leadership is possible when the leaders display- "consideration" and "structuring" behaviors. The respondents of the study perceive consideration behaviors as more feminine and structuring behaviors as more masculine. A study by Lewis (2000) points out the influence of leaders' negative emotional display on follower's perception of leader's effectiveness. Further, the gender of the leader was found to be significantly interacting with the negative emotional display. Both male and female leaders were rated low on effectiveness, when the male leaders displayed sadness, and when the female leaders displayed anger or sadness. Therefore, we conclude that male and female leaders have not differed in their effectiveness to lead, though female leaders are perceived as more effective when they engage in consideration behaviors and employ democratic styles of leading.

Yoder (2001) explains in his work, "Leadership itself is gendered and is enacted within a gendered context" (p. 815). Bass (2000) provides further evidence that male leaders win more favorable evaluations as compared to their female counterparts, owing to the observer's biases and stereotypic expectations. Interestingly, Denmark (1993) points out that stereotype against female leaders are more typically held by females. Also, that the leader is perceived as empowering depending upon his/her position in the organization. However, evidence shows less number of females in the top hierarchy of the organization, thereby resulting in failure to assess women leaders as empowering by subordinates. Cann & Siegfried (1990) rightly argue that an emphasis should be lead on the 'androgynous' behaviors leading to effective leadership, thereby strengthening the ground for female leaders.

A study by Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller, (2002) asserts that leadership styles of female leaders are not only different from that of the male leaders, but in fact more effective in a team-driven organization. The findings further reveals that the existing perception that female leaders are less effective than their male counterparts is not a reality, rather a notion driven by the socialization practices. A meta-analysis of 45 studies by Eagly et al. (2003) has some interesting findings. Female leaders exhibited more of transformational behaviors than male leaders; male leaders engaged in laissez-faire leadership and certain aspects of transactional leadership; and female

leaders engaged more in contingent reward behaviors, an aspect of transactional leadership. A study by Kabacoff (2010) indicates differences in perceived leadership effectiveness; bosses perceived both men and women as being equally effective; whereas peers rated women as higher on effectiveness dimension than men. A meta-analysis of Three Research Paradigms by Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, and Ristikari, (2011) indicates a changing pattern in leader stereotypes, where leaders in educational organizations and leaders at moderate-status leader roles were described in less masculine terms. As Eagly & Johnson (1990) point out, that while carrying out leadership research, it is important to take into consideration whether the leadership roles are congenial for men or women.

Therefore, we can conclude that male and female leaders do not differ in their effectiveness to lead. However, male and female leaders adopt different styles and behaviors that make them as effective leaders. Also, it is important to take into consideration that there are certain work places that are more gender congenial for female leaders, and same so for male leaders. Females are slowly gaining positions within organizations and establishing their own standard of excellence. However, the stereotypes that link up with the leader's role may take a decade or so to be reconstructed.

1.3   INFLUENCE TACTICS

Influence has been described as a process of bringing about a change in an individual's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990). In order to gain a better understanding of organizational behavior, one needs to understand the influences present in the organization and the extent to which each one of them exerts influence on the other. The process of influence requires an agent, who is the source of the influence; and the target, upon whom the influence is exerted.

The concept of power is related to leadership since it is the base of the influence process. Power has been defined as the capacity or the potential to influence and influence is the actual behavior that brings about a desired change in the target's behaviors or thoughts. The popular French and Ravens' (1959) typology of bases of social power reveals five sources of power- Coercive power, Reward power, Legitimate power, Expert power, and Referent power. An agent's choice of influence

behaviors will be based on his/her evaluation of the power that the target holds (Yukl, 1989).

The original taxonomy of proactive influence tactics by Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson (1980) featured six influence tactics: assertiveness, rationality, ingratiation, exchange, upward appeals, and coalitions. Yukl & colleagues (1990, 1992) further identified additional tactics of inspirational appeals, legitimating, consultation, pressure, and personal appeals. Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert, (2005) recently identified collaboration and appraising as distinct from the nice proactive tactics identified in earlier research.

Influence behaviors have generally been defined in terms of the tactics used by the agent to obtain a desired goal from the target individual. Patterns of influence tactics involve-

i.   Directional differences- where leaders differ in their choice of influence tactics toward subordinates (downward influence tactics), peers (lateral influence tactics), and supervisors (upward influence tactics).

ii.   Tactic combinations- influence tactics that come together as components of the same influence attempt.

iii.   Sequencing differences- different influence tactics used in the sequential pattern of tactics toward the same target individual (Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993).

1.3.1   Historical Antecedents

A review of past studies on influence tactics shows a greater magnitude of studies carried out to gauge the effectiveness of various influence tactics used. Yukl, Kim, and Falbe (1996) suggested that the extent to which influence outcomes are successful depended upon three factors- choice of influence tactics, agent power and content factors. Yukl and Bruce (1992) in a study showed rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and consultation as most effective tactics; pressure, coalition and legitimating as least effective; and ingratiation and exchange as moderately effective influence tactics. Similar findings in Falbe and Yukl's (1992) study reveal inspirational appeals and consultation as most effective; pressure, legitimating and coalition tactics as least effective; and rational persuasion, ingratiation, personal

appeals and exchange as moderately effective tactics. Yukl et al (1996) indicate that subordinates are readily influenced by the agent when the agent uses consultation, inspirational appeals and rational persuasion as influence tactics, with the absence of pressure tactics. Caldwell and Burger (1997) in a study suggest that rational persuasion and involvement of the other person are perceived as more effective influence tactics and relying on others to influence a coworker are perceived as least effective. Higgins, Judge and Ferris (2003) in their study indicate that rationality and ingratiation have a positive effect on work outcomes. To summarize, we observe from the findings of the past studies that influence tactics that are based on rationality and personal relations, are perceived as more effective, as compared to influence tactics that pressurize the target to comply.

In the Indian context, a study by Singh and Singh (1994) reveal that coercive power was the most effective contributor to the choice of influence tactics, and leaders using expert power to influence others were perceived as 'poseur' by others. Recently, findings of a study by Tripathi & Tripathi (2001) indicated that employees' level of job satisfaction increased with the leader's use of rational rewards and personalized relations; and level of job satisfaction went down with the leader's use of negative sanctions and expertise. Yukl et al (2005) suggested that effectiveness of a leader in influencing people will depend on his/her ability to understand the differences among the tactics. Extending from the contingency theory of leadership which proposes that effectiveness of a leader will depend upon his ability to match his leadership style with the given context, a leader's choice of influence tactics will also be a function of his/her ability to differentiate and discriminate the use of tactics against varied contexts and subordinates.

Instead of studying the effectiveness of influence behaviors tactic-by-tactic, efforts were made to construct meta-categories of influence tactics used. Kipnis & Schmidt (1985) layered out three meta-categories of influence behaviors: (i) hard strategy- where the agent expects compliance to be gained; (ii) rational strategy- where the agent attempts to elicit the instrumental reasoning by the target; and (iii) soft strategy- where the agent seeks compliance in a polite and friendly manner. Recently, a study by Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor, & Goodman (1997) provided evidence of various influence tactics as falling under the category of hard, soft and rational

strategies. Assertiveness, upward appeal, and coalition use were found to reflect hard influence tactics; ingratiation and exchange reflected upon as soft tactics; and logic, reason and rationality were perceived as rational strategy. Findings of a study (Falbe & Yukl, 1992) reveal that soft tactics were more effective than hard tactics. Somech & Drach-Zahavy (2002) in their work pointed out that superiors tended to use soft and rational tactics more than hard tactics. On similar grounds, a study by Van Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) indicated that soft tactics were used more often than hard tactics. Findings of the study further reveal that the expectation of the agent of a possible future interaction with the target decreased the chances of use of influence at all, in particular, the use of hard influence. In general, soft and rational tactics allow the target to decide whether or not to accept the influence exerted, whereas hard tactics place strain on the relationship between agent and target.

Shrivastava (2007) in a study suggested that choice of influence tactics was a function of the objective and direction of the influence attempt. In order to meet the organizational objectives, hard tactics (intimidation, assertiveness, and coalition formation) and rational tactics (logical reasoning and consultation) were frequently employed; and soft influence tactics (ethnic identity, ingratiation and supplication) were employed to meet the personal objectives. To conclude, hard tactics are employed to meet the task objectives and soft tactics are employed to meet personal objectives.

Directional differences have been noted in the use of influence tactics. Numerous studies have focused on the differential use of tactics to influence in upward (superiors), lateral (peers), and downward (subordinates) direction. Findings of a study by Yukl et al (1995) suggest that managers seek different things from subordinates, peers and superiors. For each different objective, managers use different influence tactics that again vary depending on the direction of influence. A study by Yukl and Bruce (1992) indicates that inspirational appeal, ingratiation and pressure are used more in downward direction; personal appeal, exchange and legitimating used in lateral direction; and coalitions and rational persuasion used more in upward direction. The findings of this study are yet again supported by another study (Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993) where rational persuasion and coalition are used more in upward direction; inspirational appeal, consultation, ingratiation, exchange and

pressure used more in downward direction; and ingratiation, personal appeal, exchange, coalition, and legitimating used more in lateral direction. Further, Srivastava's (2007) study findings suggest that hard category (intimidation, disparagement, use of authority and assertiveness) and rational category (exchange of benefits) was used more often in downward direction; and soft category (ethnic identity and supplication) was used more in upward direction. This indicates that one individual occupying an organizational position, will use different tactics depending on the direction of influence. Differences are evident when a comparison is drawn of tactics used in upward, lateral or downward direction.

Falbe and Yukl (1992) in a study reveal that combination of tactics was more successful than use of single tactics. However, the effectiveness of tactic combinations depended on the potency of component tactics, for instance, a combination of two hard tactics was no better than a single hard tactic. A study by Yukl et al (1993) reveals that some tactics were used together more often than others. Elaborating further, rational persuasion as a tactic was used alone more often; and inspirational appeal, consultation, ingratiation and legitimating as tactics were used more often in combinations than alone.

Considering that the social influence process is not a one-time interaction, but rather a sequential process, differences were noted in the use of tactics in the initial influence attempts and follow up attempts. Yukl et al (1993) in a study note that most of the initial influence attempts comprised of ingratiation and personal appeals; exchange and legitimating tactics were used more in immediate follow up influence attempt; and a delayed follow up influence attempt required the use of coalitions and pressure tactics.

As stated by Yukl (1989), that power forms the bases for the choice of influence tactics. Findings of a study by Yukl et al (1996) indicate that subordinates were readily influenced by the agent when the agent had strong referent power. Furthermore, Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2002) in a study reveal that the superior's choice of influence tactics was dependent on both, the agent's power as well as the target's power.

Gender of the leader emerged as a significant predictor of the influence tactics used. Van Knippenberg & Steensma (2003) in a study indicated that men employed more influence than women. Barbuto et al (2007) in their study reveal that women leaders were rated as using more pressure tactics than men leaders. Research in the past has produced mixed findings. Apart from taking into consideration the gender of the agent, differences have also been observed in influence attempts toward male and female targets. Any investigation toward influence tactics, should take into account the gender of the agent as well as the target, although there are various moderating factors that affect the choice and frequency of influence tactics.

Past evidence also suggests that various organizational variables have significant interaction effect with the use of influence tactics. Erez and Rim (1982) in a study pointed out that the goals and influence tactics are significantly affected by four contextual variables- ownership of organization, size, number of subordinates and the professional discipline. Results of a study (Ansari & Rehana, 1986) indicate that subordinates differ in their use of influence tactics, depending on the goals of influence attempt. In case of personal goals, expertise and ingratiation are more likely to be chosen; and blocking, upward appeal and reasons are employed for the fulfillment of organizational goals. In addition to this, Ansari and Kapoor (1987) in a study indicated that subordinates' choice of influence tactics depended on the goals of the superiors and were affected by the leadership styles of the superiors. In a study, Cable and Judge (2003) note that a manager's choice of upward influence tactics was affected by the leadership style of their superiors. Superiors who exhibited transformational leader style, generated a greater use of consultation and inspirational appeals by the manager; and superiors demonstrating a laissez-faire leader style predicted a greater use of exchange, coalition, legitimization and pressure tactics by the manager. Findings of a study by Deluga (1988) reported an increased use of bargaining, assertiveness, higher authority, and coalition as influence strategies by leaders who were perceived as being higher on task-centeredness. Consequently, leaders perceived as higher on people-centered leadership behavior revealed a significantly decreased use of bargaining and higher authority as influence strategies. Organizational climate also emerged as an effective predictor of influence tactics sought by subordinates (Ansari & Rehana, 1986). Individuals responding to political climate are more likely to employ tactics like blocking, upward appeal and

ingratiation. Organizational variables such as organizational climate, leadership styles, and the like appeared as moderating factors in the choice of influence tactics. Therefore, we see, that there are a magnitude of factors that determine the choice of tactics and thereby, their effectiveness.

Personality of the managers was also seen as a strong predictor of influence behavior. A study by Caldwell and Burger (1997) pointed out that high scores on extraversion, self monitoring and desire for control were predictive to a varied use of influence strategies. Similar findings were indicated in a study by Cable and Judge (2003) where a high score on extraversion showed a greater use of inspirational appeal and ingratiation; a high score on openness indicated a lesser use of coalitions; a high score on emotional stability showed a greater use of rational persuasion and a lesser use of inspirational appeal; high score on agreeableness indicated a lesser use of legitimization and pressure; and a high score on conscientiousness was linked with a greater use of rational appeal. Individual differences are attributable to personality factors as such. Therefore, it can be inferred from this that personality of the agent will also serve to determine the choice and success of influence attempts.

Cross-cultural differences have been noted in the study of influence behavior of managers. A study by Ping Fu and Yukl (2000) indicated significant differences between American and Chinese managers in their preference of influence behaviors, with the American managers rating rational persuasion and exchange as most effectives, and the Chinese managers rating coalition tactics, upward appeals and gifts as most effective. Significant differences across cultures have also been observed in a study by Yukl, Ping Fu, and McDonald (2003) on manager's rating of tactic effectiveness, with Western managers rating direct, task-oriented tactics as more effective than their Chinese counterparts, and tactics involving personal relations, avoidance, and informal approach rated as being less effective. Moving a step further, Wolfe (2011) examined the cross-cultural effect on the use and success of influence attempts made by deployed U.S. soldiers in Iraq and Afghanistan. Findings suggest that success of influence tactics was predicted by four factors- empathy, respect, prior relationships and familiarity with influence targets. By means of factor analysis, five influence technique clusters emerged- negative techniques, power differential techniques, positive traits, resource techniques and positive feelings. Use of

techniques involving resources and positive feelings were more successful than negative tactics. When cultural differences are vast, as in the case of the American culture and Chinese culture; differences are bound to be observed in the choice and success rate of each influence tactic.

In summary, we can conclude that the use of influence tactics in an organizational setting is the function of a number of confounding variables. The choice and effectiveness of an influence tactic, not only depends upon the demographic and individual characteristics of the agent and the target, but also on specific organizational variables such as the organizational climate, leadership styles, direction of influence attempts and the like.

1.4 ORGANIZATIONAL HEALTH

Health has been defined "as a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity" (Callahan, 1973). Drawing an analogy between a healthy individual and a healthy organization, Bruhn (2001) expands the concept of health on the body, mind and spirit of an organization; with the body representing the organizational structure, the mind as the existing belief system and policy implementations, and the spirit defined by the vibrancy and vigor of the organization (Stanford, 2013, p. 10). Organizational health is then defined as "an organization's ability to function effectively, to cope adequately, to change appropriately, and to grow from within" (Organizational Health Development and Diagnostic Corporation, 2011).

An organization exists in relation with the environment; and the label of 'a healthy organization' is given to one that not only survives in its environment, but in the process, continues to grow and adapt effectively. Having a strong organizational health requires a firm balance across following four interacting dimensions- Interrelation, Identity, Autonomy and Resilience. Interrelation is achieved by the way in which individuals and groups within the organization relate to each other; Identity reflects on the clarity of purpose, shared goals and values; Autonomy is the capacity to utilize one's resources and contribute significantly; and Resilience indicates the degree of adaptability, innovativeness and problem solving adequacy (Bruhn & Chesney, 1994).

Research in Organizational psychology is characterized by various workplace variables, broadly falling under two general concepts of Organizational Climate and Organizational Culture, though comparatively less research has been generated in the field of organizational culture. Quoted simply, "Organizational climate refers to perceptions of organizational practices reported by people who work there" (Rousseau, 1988). On the other hand, "Organizational culture refers to the shared orientations that bind the organization together and give it its distinctive identity" (Hoy & Feldman, 1999).

1.4.1 A Review of Studies on Organizational Health

While reviewing literature on organizations, we generally encounter the term 'organizational effectiveness'. Although a desired attribute, Steers (1975) in his work, demonstrated the problems encountered in the measurement of organizational effectiveness. Proposing the concept of 'Organizational Health', Bennis (1962) attempted to establish a link between organizational performance measures and individual and collective health. Pioneering in the work on Organizational Health, Miles (1965) describes it as "the school's ability not only to function effectively, but to develop and grow into a more fully-functional system".

Research on organizational health has focused on establishing a relation of organizational health with workplace variables like employee wellbeing and performance (Cotton & Hart, 2003), level of organizational commitment (Patel, 1998), personality (Miller, Griffin, and Hart, 1999), organizational productivity and effectiveness (Sayeed, 1980), and managerial value orientation and leadership styles (Sayeed & Mehta, 1981). A closer look at the literature review leads us to see two prominent trends of research in the area of Organizational Health. One research trend is based on the idea that healthy organizations are ones that make its members healthy. Thus, organizational health is reduced to the health of its members. The other research trend throws light on the belief that organizations as such, need to be considered as individual entities.

As suggested by Quick et al (2007) in a study, "the healthy leader is the touchstone for organizational health". A study by Cameron (1986) demonstrates that managerial strategies are strongly associated with the effectiveness of an organization.

Leadership effectiveness as such contributes to organizational effectiveness, in that it enables a productive and purposeful use of human and material resources. Research studies (Mehmet, 2007; Cemaloglu, 2011; Khademfar & Idris, 2012) have actually identified a positive correlation between transformational leadership styles and organizational health. Korkmaz (2007) in his work indicates that "transformational leadership of the principal directly, and through teacher's job satisfaction, indirectly, affects the school health". Further, a study by Rajabian (2012) reveals a significant relationship between the communication skills of the managers to the perceived organizational health of schools, such that managers' attempt to improve communication skills was reflected upon an improvement in organizational health in the schools. To summarize, we observe the significant role of the leader characteristics on employee perceptions of organizational health.

Findings of a study by Tsui & Cheng (1999) indicate that the relationship between school organizational health and teacher commitment is dependent on teacher characteristics such as position, marital status, & length of service in the school. Patel (1998) in his study investigated the relationship between perceived organizational health and organizational commitment among industrial employees. Organizational commitment and organizational health were found to be positively correlated. Findings also revealed that the highly skilled staff, as opposed to the workers, scored high on both organizational commitment as well as organizational health. On similar lines, a study by Akbara & Izzet (1999) indicated that teachers and administrators differed in their opinions related to the organizational health of the schools. Therefore, we see that perceptions of organizational health are found to be positively correlated with employee satisfaction and well-being. Also, healthy organizations are found to be positively correlated with employee commitment.

1.5   Research Gap and Rationale of the study

1.   Barring few studies, research on leadership and gender has failed to take into consideration whether the workplace is gender congenial to male leaders or female leaders. Present study focuses on four different types of organization, when taking note of leadership effectiveness and gender of the leader.

2.   The meta-analysis by Eagly and Johnson (1990) found no gender differences in the leader's use of interpersonal oriented style and task oriented style,

although female leaders were found to be engaging in more democratic styles, as compared to their male counterparts. The present study is an attempt to find out gender differences if any, in the leader's influence behaviors.

3.   A review of past studies has highlighted the choice of influence tactics by male and female leaders. This study moves a step further to examine which influence tactics are used when influencing male and female employees.

4.   Historically, research on leadership behavior has focused on the leader's ability to influence the subordinates, as a measure of leader's effectiveness. This study attempts to draw a relationship, if any, between perceived leadership effectiveness and perceived use of influence tactics by the leaders.

5.   The Organizational Health Framework, as proposed by Hart and Cooper (2001), "emphasizes on the role of individual and organizational characteristics in determining both occupational well-being and organizational performance" (p.7). Furthermore, findings of a study by Gilley, et al (2009) suggest that the effectiveness of a leader to motivate others, communicate effectively and build groups, successfully predicts the implementation of organizational change. The present paper attempts to link the dimensions of Organizational Health to effective leader behaviors and leader influence behaviors.

6.   The workplace has been men's domain for decades. Females are slowly gaining positions within organizations and establishing their own standards of excellence. However, the stereotypes held against male and female leaders still persist. The present paper endeavors to classify and differentiate the stereotypes held against male and female leaders, by male and female employees in varied work setting.

7.   A study by Barbuto Jr. et al (2007) gives insight into the effects of gender, education and age of the leader on leader behavior and influence tactics. A literature review reveals much less work done in this direction. Furthering the findings of this paper, the present study also attempts to take into consideration the demographic details of the leader and how they impact upon one's perception of leadership effectiveness and influence tactics.

1.6   CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Based on the existing research frameworks, the present research proposes a model to explain the relationship among perceptions of leadership effectiveness, organizational health, downward influence tactics, and gender stereotypes; which will be testified further. The model draws from propositions and theorizations of certain theories and models.

I.   The Goolsby Leadership Model- Advancing from Ryff & Singer's (1998) positive definition of health and Shirom's (2003) positive attribute of vigor; the Goolsby Leadership Model elaborates on the characteristics of healthy leaders and healthy organizations. It proposes that "the healthy leader is at the heart of organizational health" (Quick, et al 2007). Moving beyond the leader characteristics and situational characteristics to describe an effective leader, this model of leadership emerged from the transactional model of leadership, but is deeply rooted into the concept of authentic leadership. The three core concepts of the Goolsby Leadership Model to characterize and categorize healthy individuals and healthy organizations are- Integrity, Courage, and Impact. Therefore, this model of organizational health does not treat organizations as individual entity; rather organizational health is reduced to the health of its members. More specifically, to the effectiveness dimensions of the organizational leaders that positively contributes to the organizational health.

II.   A Social Identity Model of Organizational Leadership (SIMOL)- According to the Social Identity Theory of Leadership (Hogg, 2001), leadership is a process that is enacted in a group context, where leader characteristics as group members and leader's ability to speak to followers as group members, play a pivotal role in the effectiveness of a leader. Drawing from the social identity model of leadership, van Knippenberg & Hogg (2003) proposed the Social Identity Model of Organizational Leadership (SIMOL). This model incorporates three essential components to leader effectiveness in organizations- (1) theories of charismatic and transformational leadership, (2) leader-member exchange theory, and (3) theories that focus on follower perceptions of leadership (such as the follower-centric perspective on

leadership by Meindl, 1995). The SIMOL proposes that leadership effectiveness will depend on how group prototypical the leader is perceived and perceptions of leader's contributions toward the best interests of the group.
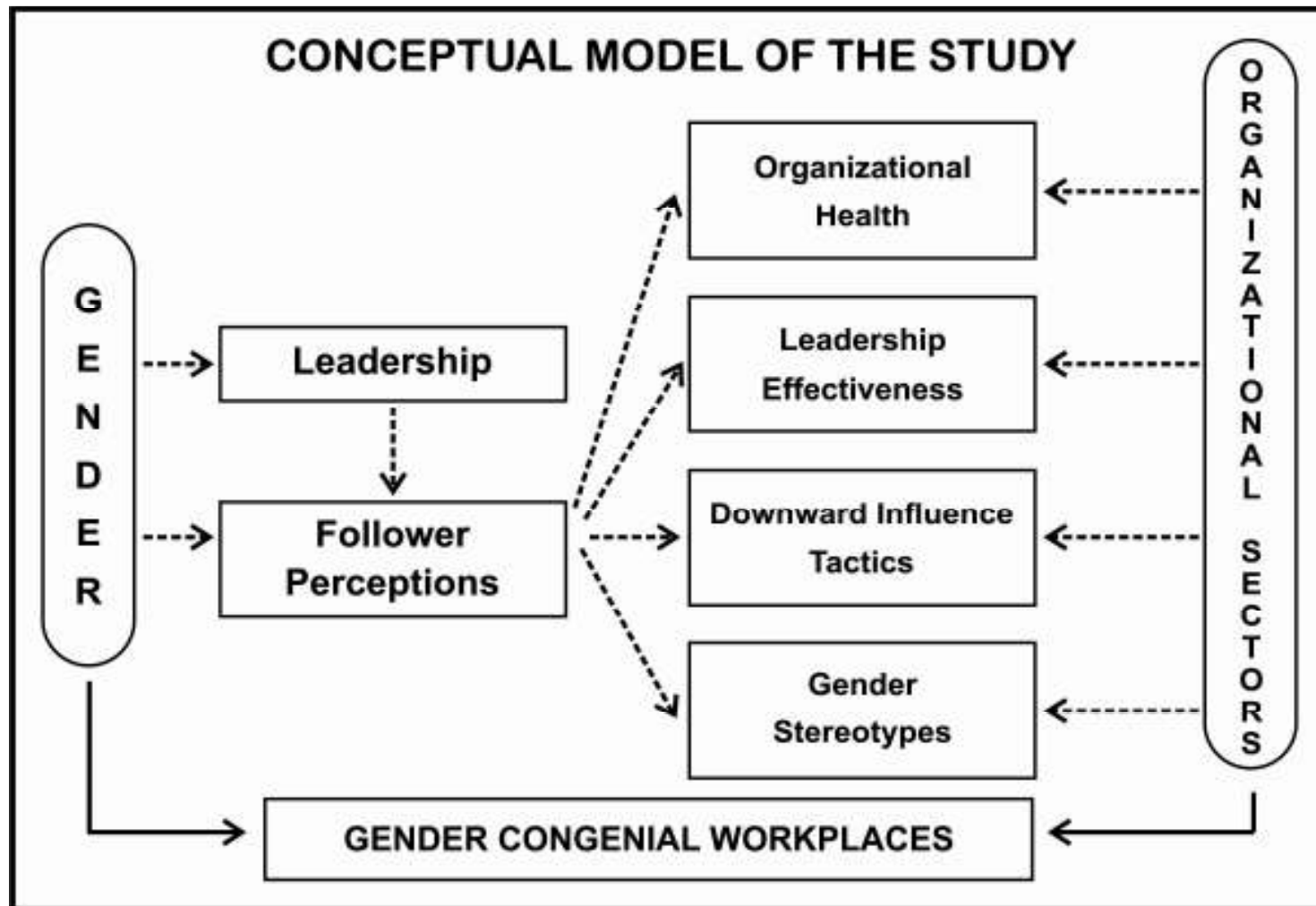
III.   The Role Congruity Theory- As proposed by Eagly & Karau (2002), this theory states that the incongruence between leader role and gender role, leads to the unfavorable evaluations of female leaders. Therefore, females in a traditionally feminine setup will not face this incongruence, and females in a traditionally masculine setup, will face more incongruence (Powell, 1993).

IV.   The Contingency Theory of Leadership- As proposed by Fiedler & Chemers (1974), this theory proposes that effective leadership is a function of appropriately matching the leader's style to a given context. The highlight of this theory is the context in which leadership occurs.

On the backdrop of these theories and models of leadership effectiveness, the present study attempts to testify relationships among follower perceptions on leadership effectiveness, organizational health, downward influence tactics and gender stereotypes across varied organizational sectors.

Leaders have been perceived as effective to the extent they fulfill the organizational goals (initiating structure) and satisfy the subordinate's needs (consideration) (Stogdill, 1974). Leadership processes, then involve the leaders' influence over the group members to exert themselves on behalf of the group on accomplishment of the group goal. As Yukl (1998) has rightfully stated that a manager's effectiveness will depend on the ability to influence others. Drawing from the Social Identity Model of Leadership Effectiveness in Organizations, the present study highlights on the role of follower perceptions of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

Expanding on the work of Quick et al (2007) on Goolsby Leadership Model, the present study proposes that the 'healthy leaders is at the heart of healthy organization". Therefore, employees' perceptions of effective leaders will function parallel to their perceptions of healthy organizations. Because leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the organizational context (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974), the study attempts to examine these measures of leadership effectiveness across varied

organizational sectors. According to Eagly & Karau (2002), some occupations are more gender congenial to males, and some, more gender congenial to females. Further, the Role Congruity Theory considers leadership effectiveness as a function of gender congenial workplaces. Organizations that are gender congenial to either of the genders hold favorable attributes for that particular gender. Therefore, the organizational sample is further divided into male congenial and female congenial workplaces and stereotypes of effective male and female leaders are examined through the attributions of male and female employees across the sectors.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

GENDER

Leadership

Follower Perceptions

Organizational Health

Leadership Effectiveness

Downward Influence Tactics

Gender Stereotypes

ORGANIZATIONAL SECTORS

GENDER CONGENIAL WORKPLACES

1.7   OBJECTIVES

1.   To investigate whether there is a significant difference in the effectiveness of male and female leaders.
2.   To investigate whether there is a significant difference in the use of downward influence tactics of male and female leaders.
3.   To investigate whether there is any significant difference between male and female employees, in their perception of leadership effectiveness, downward influence tactics, and organizational health.
4.   To investigate whether there is any significant difference in the stereotypes of effective male and female leaders, by male and female employees, across different sectors, i.e. Corporate, Education, Developmental, and Law Enforcement Sector.
5.   To find out whether there is a relationship between dimensions of perceived organizational health and parameters of perceived leadership effectiveness.
6.   To find out whether there is a relationship between dimensions of perceived organizational health and leadership effectiveness dimensions.
7.   To find out whether there is a relationship between parameters of perceived leadership effectiveness and perceived use of downward influence tactics.
8.   To understand whether male and female leaders differ in their perceived use of influence tactics toward male and female employees.
9.   To study whether the organizational context affects the perceptions of leadership effectiveness, organizational health and downward influence tactics.
10.   To study whether the demographic variables of the leader (age, gender, years of work experience) have an effect on the employee's perception of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics.

1.8   HYPOTHESIS

1.   There will be no significant difference in the perceived leadership effectiveness of male and female leaders.
2.   There will be no significant difference in the perceived use of downward influence tactics of male and female leaders.
3.   Gender of the employees will not significantly affect the perception of

    a. Organizational Health

    b. Leadership Effectiveness

    c. Downward Influence Tactics.

4. There will be a significant effect of organizational sectors on

    a. Perceived organizational health

    b. Perceived leadership effectiveness

    c. Perceived use of downward influence tactics.

5. There will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the employee and organizational sectors on perception of

    a. Organizational health

    b. Leadership effectiveness

    c. Downward influence tactics

6. There will be no significant interaction effect of gender of the leader and organizational sectors on perception of

    a. Leadership effectiveness

    b. Downward influence tactics

7. Age of the leader will have a significant effect on

    a. Perceived leadership effectiveness

    b. Perceived use of downward influence tactics

8. Work experience of the leader will have a significant effect on

    a. Perceived leadership effectiveness

    b. Perceived use of downward influence tactics

9. There will be no significant interaction effect of age and work experience of leaders, in perception of

    a. Leadership effectiveness

    b. Downward influence tactics

10. There will be no significant difference between male and female leaders, in their perceived use of influence tactics on

    a. Male employees

    b. Female employee

11. The high and low effective leaders will differ in their perceived use of downward influence tactics.

12. There will be a significant and positive correlation between perception of leadership effectiveness and organizational health.

13. There will be no significant correlation between perception of organizational health and downward influence tactics.

14. There will be a significant correlation between perception of leadership effectiveness and downward influence tactics.

15. Leadership effectiveness will significantly predict dimensions of organizational health.

16. Downward influence tactics will significantly predict dimensions of leadership effectiveness.

17. Downward influence tactics will not significantly predict the perceived organizational health dimensions.

18. There will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective male and female leaders.

19. Organizational sectors will have a significant effect on the stereotypes held for effective male and female leaders.

20. There will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective male leaders by
    a. Male employees
    b. Female employees

21. There will be a significant difference in the stereotypes held for effective female leaders by
    a. Male employees
    b. Female employees.