School of Management

Influence of Context on Responsible Leadership: Evaluation in the Two Island Nations of Maldives and Sri Lanka

Mariyam Shakeela

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.

Dedication

To my family, especially to my two boys and my husband, who had to put up with endless hours of concentration and silence from me as I journeyed along the path towards this thesis

And

To my "Dhaththa," for always having faith in me, for believing in me and loving me

And

To my parents, especially to my father who believed in education and its benefits even when I am 'but a girl'

And

To my grandparents who helped develop my thirst for knowledge, and to my great-grandmother who instilled in me a passion for learning and who was also my first teacher.

Abstract

This study focused on elucidating leadership mindset towards responsible leadership, from the perspectives of national elite, and integrates them with corporate understanding. A multi-method and a pluralistic approach with in depth interviews and empirical survey were employed. Data was collected from eminent leaders who are either leading or led governments, held or hold ministries and diplomatic missions, and are controlling influences in leading business enterprises selected in the two Asian island nations of the Republic of Maldives and Sri Lanka. This research also explored the understanding, motivation and experience base of the strategic leaders. Caution may need to be exercised in interpreting the findings as some of the fundamental philosophies and practices are often embedded in the societal heritage, and accumulated experiences passed through family or organisational successions.

The findings of this study suggest that responsible leadership is often determined by the imperatives of contextual complexity. The competencies, values and experiences, and a series of other factors matter significantly. However, while context plays a major role, the perception of the elite leaders suggest exercising caution to the fact that contextual factors do not influence as a standalone force, but rather as an interacting phenomenon. Therefore, the behaviour that transpires is always unique. To attain responsible leadership, what is required is a confident leader, working in a learning environment, with the right emotional competencies to deal with the changing times, multicultural and diversified workforce, within a flexible yet controlled environment to attain the greatest good for the greatest number of people. While having many common elements, leadership behaviour across gender and nationalities differed, reflecting their past, the changing times, prevailing circumstances and the organisational priorities. While female leaders of Sri Lanka and Maldives are not any different from men in their ability to lead, use a unique combination of skills and approaches contingent on context, as they work within a complex interaction and tug-of war between cultural conservatism and the rapid advancement in knowledge, skills opportunities and the need for responsible leadership.

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CHAPTER 1
POINT OF DEPARTURE

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a complex and a diverse field of knowledge that has captivated researchers for the past century (Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg 2004), and it continues to remain an emerging discipline (Punia 2002). *"It is said to be a concept that pervades all ages, generations, cultures, and domains of life"* (Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000, 287) and has influenced the development of many theories attempting to explain the phenomena. Over the years, the theory of leadership has undergone three distinct phases; from trait theories, to behavioural and situational approaches, proliferating into numerous theories and arguments (Vrignaud, Kets De Vries, and Florent-Treacy 2004). Despite numerous theories, 'Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness', developed by Fiedler (1964), which associates leadership effectiveness as the product of interaction between the style of the leader and the environmental characteristics, remained as one of the most popular theories until the 1970s. Contingency theories initiated by Fiedler (1964) contended that the art of leadership was in the essential choices made by managers in terms of leadership approaches in different situational contexts. Fiedler proposed that leaders or managers tended to be either task or person centred, and these two styles needed to be matched against three contingencies of leader member relationship, or trust, nature of the structure and complexity of tasks and the degree of formal power held by the leader.

While research continues to elucidate leadership and what it means, the world is going through tremendous changes, necessitating a totally different outlook from what originally guided the conceptualisation of these theories. Organisational structures have shifted from hierarchical bureaucracies to decentralised systems, with 'boundaryless' and 'virtual organisations' (Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000), subjected to the undercurrents that accompany diverse workforces and the inherent

contextual factors, such as gender and cultural contexts, that will influence the organisation and the people as a whole. The ideas of the early contingency theories need to be extended within contemporary organisations to include cultural, demographic and most importantly, situational contexts. Extensive research suggests that variations of leader behaviour and style are considerably dependant on cultural assumptions and beliefs (House, Hanges, Javidan et al. 2004). A major multi-country research, GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness), led by Robert House spanning 60 countries, and involving nearly 200 researchers, contended that while many leaders' traits, behaviours and approaches were culturally universal, many others varied from country to country due to their cultural contingencies (House, Hanges, Javidan et al. 2004). As has been pointed out, engineers in Germany are considered organisational leaders rather than managers. Education from one of the nation's e'coles is a prerequisite for senior manager roles in France. In traditional Chinese and Indian societies, it is the patriarchs of the families that can exert leadership behaviour (Hofstede 1993).

Despite almost a century of theories and studies, none of the studies have been able to provide a culture-free idealisation of what leaders' profiles ought to be (George, Sims, McLean et al. 2007). According to GLOBE study, House, Hanges et al. (2004) leadership has begun to be accepted as an influence which is used as a means of inspiring, developing and empowering followers towards realising organisational goals. In this sense, leadership can be defined as 'a process of influence' that exists between a leader and his/her followers to attain group, organisational and societal goals (Doh and Stumpf 2005, 5). The most recent view of leadership, however, is that it is "*an improvisational and experimental art' that steers people to perform in an environment of continuing uncertainty and uncontrollable change*" (Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky 2009). As the world is struggling to define leadership, different forms of leadership are emerging in answer to the ever complicated organisational realities forcing specialties in a field that was considered to be one and the same. Thus, emerged managerial leaders, who are among the majority of leaders; visionary leaders whose number is few, and strategic leaders who are rare and the crème of leadership (Doh and Stumpf 2005). They are all guided by unique perspectives and frameworks with a focus on different aspects which are exclusive to each. Managerial leadership is about a very passive and impersonal attitude towards goals,

focusing on day to day activities and influencing only behaviours and decisions of those directly involved. Visionary leadership evokes passion and influences the attitudes of people about what is possible, desirable and necessary (Doh and Stumpf 2005). Strategic leaders possess a combination of managerial and visionary leadership which is described as "*the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organisation*". (Ireland and Hitt 1999, 43) It is strategic leadership on which this study will focus; in particular, responsible leadership in the context of the study countries and their unique cultures. The influence of culture on leadership cannot be ignored, after all;

> "*The study of leadership is deeply attached to culture. Both the leader's actions and followers' responses inevitably reflect the forms of behaviour which are regarded as legitimate and appropriate within their society .*" (Shahin and Wright 2004, 499)

According to Shahin and Wright (2004), leadership theories which are mostly North American in origin might not be appropriate on a worldwide basis, especially in cultures which differ significantly from the American culture. Not only do the preferred styles of both the followers and the leaders differ, but the actual behaviours which reflect these styles also differ (Smith and Peterson 1988). Hence, there is a need to apply theories in the context of the study countries (Sri Lanka and Maldives), which cannot be done without first looking at the unique cultures that are part of these two Asian nations. Being the closest neighbours to each other, their history is intertwined through political associations, education, economic and social relations. Nevertheless, both countries are unique and therefore, both cultures will be discussed in the context of this study.

In addition to the direct influences of national context variables, culture and institutions (educational, economic and technological systems) influence the abilities and the willingness of the national workforce. This perhaps explains why there are only a few prescriptive theories of global leadership specifying a simple tool box of techniques appropriate in each national context. Culture can be embedded at all levels; national, organisational, occupational, demographic and many others.

However, it is interesting to note that transactional leaders emphasising follower behaviour based on instrumental rewards, have a very limited contextual boundary for success. On the other hand, transformational leaders are considered more highly in almost all societies (House, Hanges, Javidan et al. 2004).

In contrast to the mono-dimensional trait behaviour and contingency theories, transformational leadership ideas characterise a multi-dimensional perspective. Transformative leaders articulate a much clearer vision of the future to the follower, challenge the follower's mindset, provide clearer blue prints of the road to the future, clarify the desired outcome and enlist follower commitment. They accept risk and have the need to demonstrate a high standard of ethics and morality. Evidence suggests that transformational leaders often achieve positive outcomes as followers reciprocate with higher levels of performance and co-operation. At a national level, transformational leaders like Gandhi, Mandela or Mao Zedong received a very high level of personal devotion, reverence and sacrifice (Conger and Hunt 1999).

In a study of workers from 13 countries, it was suggested that, in some cultures, the 'best' way to analyse a 'complex phenomenon' was to dissect it into specifics while, in other cultures, the best way to analyse the same was to consider the 'whole' as a totality. The research contended that followers in most Western countries within this group of 13 countries preferred leaders who emphasised job-related tasks, whilst in the non-Western countries preference was for leaders who espoused broad philosophical language (Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars 1996). Characteristics of successful leadership therefore need to be anchored in the values, beliefs and expectations of the followers. In addition to other competencies, leaders need to demonstrate an enquiring mind, integrity and ability to communicate in a context specific way. As globalisation spreads, management literature needs to seriously consider unique regional perspectives of leadership.

BUSINESS AND WORK CULTURE IN SRI LANKA

The Sri Lankan leadership and business culture are a people oriented culture, with high power distance and family orientation preferring a directive and authoritarian style within a paternalistic framework (Fernando 2007). This style is a contrast to

Western managers' directive styles of firm, determined and strong styles. However, Western influence, through education using Western texts, techniques and concepts coupled with the influence of colonial period and the remnants of what was learned of the management practices, Western directed training programs and postgraduate management studies in Western universities has influenced the work culture of Sri Lanka (Fernando 2005; Wijewardene and Wimalasiri 1996). Even with these influences, Sri Lanka is still an Asian country with Asian values embedded in its upbringing and traditions, emphasising warm and long term relationships within family and friends (Fernando 2007). Almost 2500 years of feudal and colonial influences has made Sri Lanka an extremely hierarchical community with a touch of individualism, and yet with strong ties to family and group loyalty. Being a patriarchal Asian community, it adheres to the gender disparity apparent in Asia, despite giving the world its first female prime minister. According to Bhagat (2005), Sri Lanka has less than five percent of females in the parliament and two to three percent of females in local governments despite 80 percent of the labour force being female (Jayaweera 2000).

BUSINESS AND WORK CULTURE IN MALDIVES

The Republic of Maldives, with a population of just over 300,000, is a small island nation with numerous geographical challenges which necessitated its isolation from the rest of the world for a long time. However, today, it is a popular tourist destination that is influenced very much by Western management culture and Western traditions as a result of exposure to Western education, Western management staff and training. It is a patriarchal society similarly to that of Sri Lanka and is going through the same dilemmas of trying to juggle traditionally unique characteristics with Westernised thoughts and ideas. Historically a sultanate, ruled by Sultans (Kings) and occasionally by Sultanas (Queens) the country's habitation dates back to around three BC, and fourth and fifth centuries when Aryan immigrants from Sri Lanka and India settled in Maldives. Throughout its history, Maldives remained an independent state, except for very brief periods including; mid 16th century until 1573 when Portuguese occupied the country; and South Indian Moplas occupation for a period of three months in 1752. History claims that it has never been colonised. However, it became a British protectorate from 1887 until

1965, whilst retaining its own internal self government. It became a Republic in 1968 and that marked the beginning of Western style education and reforms. Today, the country enjoys a very high rate of literacy (98%), and is considered as the most emancipated country with one of the highest gender development indexes among all South Asian Countries. (United Nations Development Program) Report UNDP. (http://hdrstats.undp.org/2008/countries/country_fact_sheets/cty_fs_MDV.html). While fragmented geographically, Maldives is a highly centralised country where the voices of an ever-growing group of young citizens are barely heard. National decision-making is not inclusive and the young are at a serious disadvantage when it comes to shaping their futures. Family, school and community life is highly patriarchal and rooted in traditional thinking on religion and culture.

> *"In the Maldives, majority of leadership positions are held by men rather than women. However, recorded history shows that Maldives had been ruled by Sultanas even as far back as the 1300s up until the late 1700s. In modern times, though it has become increasingly difficult for women to achieve the top leadership position given the fact that until 7 August 2008, the Maldives Constitution did not allow women to be the Head of State. Although overt and deliberate sex-based discrimination is not common in the Maldives, women have always continued to play a subordinate role in the society. With the rapid economic and social developments that the country experienced from the late 1970s onwards, there has been a breakdown in familial and social relations that contributed to gender and poverty related disparities between men and women. This trend is seen to be increasing further in the recent past with the increasing encroachment of fundamentalist Islamic values into the country, which discriminate heavily against women."* (Voice from a deputy minister of Maldives)

As is the case with Sri Lanka, it took a long time for Maldives to come to terms with Western concepts such as 'ambition', 'aggression', 'achievement', 'profit-maximisation', 'competition', 'risk-taking', and 'forcefulness', and with Asian business values such as 'loyalty', 'trust', 'co-operation', 'compassion', 'tolerance', 'morality', and 'empathy' (Fernando 2005). Indeed, according to Wijewardene and Wimalasiri (1996), Asian managers found it difficult to balance the 'hard' values of the West with the 'soft' values of the East during the initial stages of management development. Despite influences from the West, Maldives remains a country with

Asian values and traditions where patriarchal and centralised leadership is the norm and where socialisation of females and males revolves around segregation and discrimination, where women are taught to take subordinate roles. Although this is disappearing in the more developed areas, rural Maldivians, which include the majority of citizens, strongly adhere to these societal norms of gender segregation. Such practices raise questions of responsibility and ethical implications.

RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

Recent ethical scandals involving governments and major corporations of the world have brought to the forefront, the subject of responsible leadership (Resick, Hanges, Dickson et al. 2006) leading to the examination in all areas of what responsibility entails. However, as the focus on responsible leadership is quite recent, "*research and theory linking leadership and social responsibility are in their infancy.*" (Doh and Stumpf 2005, 14). Within available literature, few studies examine antecedents and consequences of responsible leadership; hence there is a growing need to examine these (Doh and Stumpf 2005). Responsible leadership is defined by Maak and Pless (2006) as the art of building and sustaining morally sound relationships with all relevant stakeholders of an institution through *ethical intelligence;* that is, moral awareness, reflection skills, critical thinking and moral imagination. It is generally agreed that leadership cannot be effective unless it is responsible. According to Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002), the idea of responsible leadership has always been present, but mixed with the concept of effective leadership. Effective leadership is relational and personal, and is a combination of ethics and competence (Ciulla 1995). One leadership philosophy that is increasingly mentioned in the literature regarding responsible leadership, is that of Servant Leadership (Greenleaf 1977). This theory is based on the simple premise that a leader is first a servant, who wishes to serve and make sure that the needs of those being served are met, that they are happier, healthier and become more autonomous and in turn, become servants themselves. This theory also claims that a leader who is grounded in values (Patterson 2003) and who manages by values (Blanchard and O'Connor 1997) and vision (Patterson 2003; Senge, Roberts, Ross et al. 1995) will increase economic performance.

Nations, companies and citizens face major challenges as they prepare for a fast-changing world of work. Responsible leadership connotes a deeper perspective of commitment and moral engagements at the core of the values, visions and goals. This is a vocabulary that incorporates the holistic domains of all stakeholders rather than considering a transactional point of view. It is of paramount interest that leaders attain responsibility at all levels and execute leadership roles in a fair and just manner. Leadership cannot be fair and just if females; a major sector of the labour force is excluded from attaining their potential. Such unfair exclusion contributes to negative socialisation and gender disparity. Gender is thus explored as one of the key contextual influences in the research.

GENDER LEADERSHIP

Despite the global increase of women in the workforce (Davidson and Burke 1994; Gibson 1995), there is passive commitment towards participation of women in executive leadership positions (Eagley and Carli 2004,280; McShane and Travaglione 2005,484; Kiamba 2008; Martin 2007; Rennenkampff 2004). In fact, as cited in Kiamba (2008, 7), *"women are still underrepresented in many government and non-government organizations particularly in positions of power and leadership"* and in executive leadership positions (Morrison and Von Glinow 1990,200). Consequently, women in top leadership positions are rare in the corporate world. According to Eagley and Carli (2007) even as late as 2007, only six percent of the Fortune 500 top executives were female, only two percent of Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) were women, and only 15 percent of the seats on the board of directors were held by women, despite the fact that 40 percent of all managerial positions were held by females. The study countries of Maldives and Sri Lanka face similar dilemmas of having a large female workforce, and yet a multitude of challenges to rise to top level positions; a pattern that raises much interest. Considering that women comprise a large percentage of the workforce in the study countries, it is important to understand the barriers faced by women, and, therefore, how to elevate their representation in executive positions in order to attain responsible leadership. The importance of incorporating women as executives stems from the changing business realities that are facing contemporary organisations. Indeed, Gibson (1995, 255) ascertains that, during the past decade, there have been

substantial workplace reformations which included increasing the number of females entering the work force worldwide, increasing labour force diversity, a shift of local work environment to international markets, increasing numbers of global mergers and acquisitions, organisational restructuring across national boundaries, appearance of high technology and national and international telecommunication systems. The blinding pace of change, according to Limerick (1992), has compelled corporations to adopt strategies and cultures that demanded new mindsets, as well as incumbents with skills and abilities for operating in fast traumatic work settings of discontinuity, especially in relationship to gender issues. Furthermore, these changes continue to 'shrink' the world more so now, than ever before, creating borderless organisations and bringing a diverse array of gender relevant values, perspectives and expectations among workers (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003, 569; Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Peters 2003). The increasing sensitivity of public consciousness and the contemporary organisational complexity demands that organisations become more socially responsible, thus, prompting organisations to embrace a 'new paradigm' with dimensions of flexibility and adaptability to meet the demands and expectations of a new regime of stakeholders. Consequently, changes in gender perceptions and a desire for self-fulfilment has led women to pursue careers in management (Davidson and Burke 1994`) and organisations are compelled to integrate women into the work force not merely as a legal necessity, but as a means of competitive advantage. "*For financial, as well as personal development reasons, the work place belongs to women as well as men*" (Chauhan 1999, 2). In fact, it has been estimated that women will outnumber men in management roles by the year 2030 (Girion 2002). The consequential changes in organisational demographics have many implications.

According to Chima (2003), CEO of Chambers Consulting Group Ltd, a prominent author, a speaker on leadership and a leadership coach, the influx of females into leadership roles is important for two main reasons. Firstly, the 'command and control' style of leadership is losing effectiveness as a means of motivating workers. In order to deal with contemporary organisational complexity, there has been ongoing rejection of rigidity and greater encouragement of flexibility in leadership styles that support team oriented behaviours. Thus, recognition is gaining on the importance of using non-coercive and collaborative leadership to create smoother

responsive working relationships (Moss and Jensrud 1995). Secondly, women leaders are introducing a unique, yet effective, perspective to lead organisations towards success., Leadership behaviours that were previously thought to be 'feminine' have gained popularity and are being recognised as integral and appropriate to the contemporary leadership paradigm that promotes team oriented, transformational behaviours. (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003,569; Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Peters 2003; Mintzberg 1996). Management gurus such as Rosener (1995) and Peters (2003) contend that leadership styles that are traditionally attributed to women, such as interpersonal leadership styles, are better suited to challenges of contemporary organisations that are challenged by issues of workforce diversity and globalisation. It is thus believed that women bring an approach to leadership that is consistent with developmental, collaborative relationship-oriented behaviours (Moss and Jensrud 1995) that are viewed as being more compatible with the idealised view of leadership, than traditional male behaviours. Hence, modern organisations are encouraging feminisation of leadership as they realise that the integration of females in management is an important source of corporate adaptability and competitive power, and that the rejection of females and the consequent waste of unique talents and skills have negative implications and is detrimental to organisations and to society in general and thus, a hindrance in executing responsible leadership. These transformations in institutional architecture present challenging issues for contemporary organisations worldwide, and hence, for the study countries of Maldives and Sri Lanka.

The Republic of Maldives and Sri Lanka are emerging as global players, and as such, they are faced with the same issues and trends that are evident worldwide. Their changing organisational contexts impact on organisational behaviour and manifests different national cultural and gender differences (Stelter 2002). In spite of the rapidly increasing contribution of the Maldives and Sri Lanka to the world economy and the increasing involvement of their women in the workforce, it is surprising that there is hardly any reported leadership research having been done on their organisations in the context of gender and responsibility. The increasing roles that women assume in the economy and the related conflicts and controversies give rise to the need to study their behaviour and understand gender dynamics, leadership

styles, personal attributes and perceptions and their implications for human resource development and responsible leadership. Important relationships encompassing leadership substitutes such as; participation in decision making, formalisation, emotional intelligence self efficacy, organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, and their combined influence on gender leadership behaviour need to be addressed as these relationships are being recognised as being of immense importance in identifying appropriate strategies that the study countries could embrace in order to execute responsible leadership and face the challenges of the dynamic global economy. Therefore, increased understanding of organisational demographics, especially gender dynamics, and the consequence of underutilising potential talent that lies within females is crucial.

The opportunity cost of underutilising female talent is enormous. Prominent researchers on the subject argue that at a time when excellent leadership is in short supply, no group, organisation, or nation can afford to restrict women's access to leadership roles (Eagley and Carli 2004, 2007). It has been argued that even in the past, organisations have paid heavily for failing to utilise and develop the talents of women to the fullest, especially when excellent leadership skills are in high demand (Schwartz 1992). The disadvantages of underutilising women include: loss of investment associated with training when women quit, women's lowered performance due to frustration and dissatisfaction, failure to have the best talents represented at more senior levels of management, and the opportunity costs resulting from unrealised potential. By being more receptive to female participation in executive positions, organisations could gain a competitive advantage (Bilimoria and Piderit 1994), which can provide a foundation for organisations to deal more effectively with diversity in their product and labour markets (Morrison and Von Glinow 1990; Fernandez 1993). Moreover, as occupants of high positions in organisational hierarchy, females could become role models in the capacity of mentors and champions for high performing women in organisations and as advocates of promoting women (Mattis 1993; Schwartz 1980). Furthermore, a lack of access by females to high level organisational positions also indicates that organisations fail to recognise the competitive advantage of using this valuable human resource systematically (Mattis 1993). In spite of the awareness of the benefits of female integration into senior leadership positions, few senior roles are

occupied by females (Kiamba 2008; Morrison and Von Glinow 1990,201). Hence, considering the important functions that women may serve at executive levels in organisations, their failure in accessing executive leadership positions raises much concern (Bilimoria and Piderit 1994). Various explanations have been offered.

Studies continue to emerge, with vast number of theories attempting to explain what hinders women from attaining high profile executive positions (Rennenkampff 2004). However, it is still unclear why the imbalance exists according to (Rennenkampff 2004). Various disciplines such as sociology, economics, and psychology have presented diverse explanations. Some studies attribute the imbalance to biological statistical differences such as physical strength and height. According to House et al.(2004), these biological statistical differences are, to some extent, behind the societal norms imposed on gender by male models. Other studies blame the inequality of females and males in leadership positions on individual qualification, experience and competence. Some past research blamed it on an inflexible barricade that had become widely acknowledged as the 'glass ceiling' (Shaw, Chaplin, Hartmann et al. 1993). But recent research (Eagley and Carli 2007) suggests revisiting the concept of the glass ceiling as there are a growing number of female CEOs in American organisations (around 23 percent). They also argue that what women really face is a 'labyrinth' which is a series of complex and unusual paths with dead ends, rather than an impenetrable barrier. According to Martin (2007) this notion of labyrinth includes sex discrimination, women's domestic responsibilities and sometimes women's own failure to believe in themselves. Other studies have advanced arguments relating to attitudes and perceptions associated with gender leadership behaviours and that this may account for the barriers faced by women in accessing executive leadership positions. For instance, Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) and Hielman (2001), as cited in House et al (2004) and Schein (2001), imply that leadership roles are viewed quite differently by males and females, and thus, is subjected to socio cultural attitudes and beliefs. Furthermore, Poggio (2000) also contends that gender is a cultural construction, and is therefore, produced and negotiated in different ways in different organisations.

Inequality of gender representation within executive leadership positions reveals that most of the barriers faced by women revolve around socio-cultural attitudes

(Davidson and Burke 1994; Chauhan 1999,3; Oakley 2000,321) and gender based division of labour (Chauhan 1999,3). Many reasons also revolve around the attitudes and perceptions that are associated with gender leader behaviours which continue to be the subject of heated debates. However, to date research regarding the issue of gender differences in leadership is shrouded in ambiguity. The repressive attitudes and beliefs are generally attributed to various patterns of discrimination related to stereotyping (Davidson and Burke 1994,1; Davidson and Cooper 1992; Fagenson 1993; Kiamba 2008; Powell, Butterfield, and Parent 2002; Sekaran and Leong 1992), reflecting that structural and attitudinal barriers need to be addressed. Often work places are structured according to male-oriented models and *"women were considered as, at best, temporary participants in a male dominated public realm of work."* (Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000,8) Workplaces can also deprecate feminine management attributes and are disadvantageous and repressive to women. For example, Rennenkampff (2004,2) stated,

> *"...men are perceived to be aggressive, strong minded, active, competitive, self confident, ambitious dominant, independent, rational and goal oriented-traits successful managers need. Women on the other hand are typically perceived to be emotional, tender understanding, concerned with each other, helpful, dependent, and sensitive and passive-traits that do not match the requirement of leadership positions."*

Accordingly, the career advancement of females has been hindered by the traditional perception of femininity and competence or a woman's ability to be both 'tough and caring' (Jamieson 1995,120). Doubt continues to exist in people's minds leading to views such as whether or not females should advance to leadership positions (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003). Research indicates that retaining and exhibiting unique female styles by females prompts views of incompetence. Consequently, it is often demanded of women to possess more credentials than male counterparts, be more competent and knowledgeable, reflecting double standards in judging males and female. Recent evidence indicates that the effects of prejudiced socio cultural attitudes have strong negative implications.

Societal norms and attitudes have prompted females to suppress their normative, natural feminine qualities (Wilson 2006; Davidson and Cooper 1992; Boatwright and Forrest 2000) and to adopt and replace female qualities with masculine attitudes (Monks and Barker 1996). Marshall (1984) and Davidson and Cooper (1992) ascertain that there is substantial evidence that, in order to succeed, women are forced into adopting male role models. Suppression of natural tendencies of females affects creativity and diversity, which is required by today's organisations. Altering behaviours to suit male models neither protects women from the negative attitudes, nor elevates them to leadership positions. In fact, adaptations by females of male attitudes attract criticism and ridicule from both males and females due to incongruity between gender role and leader role expectations (Williams and Locke 1999). The extent of behaviour adaptation and the effects of behaviour transformations are said to be related to the numerical ratio of females and males in the organisation. Chauhan (1999) ascertains that males and females are constantly influenced by the gender of the other. Interestingly, while gender differences have been blamed for the dearth of the progression of females towards executive leadership positions, there is continuing debate whether there are significant differences to justify discrimination.

There is continuing commentary in the management literature regarding whether leadership behaviours of males and females differ significantly (Burke and Collins 2001). Common findings indicate the existence of gender differences (McShane and Travaglione 2005,484; Belt 1991; Eagly and Carli 2007a; Rosener 1995; Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Helgesen 1990; Schein 1975) where males are associated with aggressive, competitive, domineering and task oriented leadership styles, while females exhibit relation oriented behaviours that are centred on communication and building positive relationships (Gardiner and Tiggemann 1999; Kawakami, White, and Langer 2000,50; Rosener 1990,120; Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Mintzberg 1996; Olsson 2000). Paradoxically, many studies indicate significant gender differences in leadership behaviour whilst just as many vouch that there are no significant differences (Bartol and Butterfield 1976,447; Rosener 1990; Eagley, Karau, and Johnson 1992; White, De Santis, and Crino 1981). Furthermore, credible authors of trade books (Helgesen 1990; Rosener 1995; Book 2000; Loden 1985) claim distinctive leadership styles between men and women, while academic writers

(Gardiner and Tiggemann 1999; Kiamba 2008; McShane and Travaglione 2005,484) present conflicting results. From the 1970s through to the early 1990s, prominent researchers (Powell 1993) presented a growing body of evidence to suggest that there were no significant gender differences in leadership behaviour between males and females (Bartol and Butterfield 1976,447; Rosener 1990; Eagley and Johnson 1990; Eagley and Karau.S.J 2002; Eagley 1991; Powell 1993; Maupin 1990). When there are differences, the differences, although statistically significant, are quite small (Kolb 1999,305). But even strong advocates of there being no significant differences between the leadership behaviours of males and females, including Bass et al. (Bass, Avolio, and Atwater 1996) question their previous findings, and are acknowledging the possibility of uniquely different leadership behaviours between male and female (Alimo Metacalffe 1995; Rosener 1995; Rosener 1990; Lipman-Blumen 1996; Helgesen 1990; Loden 1985). Meanwhile, many research findings (Kolb 1999,305; Shimanoff and Jenkins 1991; Van Engen, Van der Leeden, and Willemsen 2001,583) strongly imply that there are far more similarities than differences between male and female leadership behaviour. In fact, a leadership study sponsored by the International Women's Forum (Belt 1991) found that there were important differences and unexpected similarities in men and women leaders. As the debate continued more complicated evidence was emerging in relation to leadership behaviours.

Many reasons have been offered for this ambiguity surrounding leadership behaviours of males and females; for the differences and the absence of them. However, some theorists and researchers argue that given similar organisational boundaries, men and women exhibit the same leadership behaviours (Moss and Jensrud 1995). The existential differences were in perception of leadership behaviours (Kolb 1999) rather than actual gender related differences. Some significant differences between males and females in their leadership behaviour have also been attributed to researchers using gender biased instrumentation (Astin and Leland 1991; Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000) and to rater bias (Bass 1990; Eagley 1991). Findings have emerged (Yoonkyeong 2003,69) to suggest that the leadership styles normally attributed to males and females are not exclusive to the respective sexes. In fact, Eagley and Johnson (1990) suggested that the use of task oriented leadership behaviour in females varied according to gender congeniality,

indicating that leadership behaviours varied according to the demands of gender and a particular leadership role. While the parameters within which a particular leadership role operates, enforce and extract similar behaviours from both males and females, it is gender role expectations that influence discretionary behaviours and accounts for the gender differences (Manning 2002). Furthermore, in more recent years several authors who have reviewed the literature on leadership styles have noted inconsistencies in the findings pertaining to leadership behaviours particularly with regard to the performance of females in same versus mixed gender groups and in laboratory settings versus actual positions of leadership.

While the implications from the existing studies are thought provoking, the generalisability of these findings is questioned. For instance, most of the studies have been conducted within Western contexts (House and Aditya 1997) specifically in North America or European countries (Kanter 1977; Rosener 1990; Helgesen 1990, 1995; Changati 1986; Marshall 1984) although some research is being undertaken in industrialised and developing nations (Davidson and Burke 2000; Davidson and Cooper 1993). In fact, according to Mehdi (1999), most of the theoretical and empirical studies on management issues have been developed based on samples from industrialised countries, or firms and organisations established in those countries. These studies were also based on masculine norms and masculine frameworks that are characterised by individualism, follower duty and rational thoughts (Gilligan 1982). Recently, Wilson (2006) and Metacalffe (2002) argued that most of the leadership research reflects views from men by men and hence, all the research on leadership is 'gendered'. This concept is further reinforced by Metacalffe (2002) who states that, even today, most of the popular management texts disregard gender as an important variable, and only on rare occasions is gender briefly mentioned (Wilson 2006,3).

> *"Books on gender at work often reflect either a more traditional management perspective or a more recent feminist perspective; rarely are these two orientations on women and work acknowledged within the same text. However given the incredible challenges facing organizations today in terms of full and effective utilisation of quality employees, the traditional literature and feminist research literature*

must be brought together." (Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000, Xiii)

None of the popular leadership models and theories that were the basis of leadership studies have taken gender into consideration (Wilson 2006). Whatever little information that is available to date regarding the issue of gender differences in leadership is shrouded in ambiguity. Hence, it is imperative that research be available for contemporary organisations to address the limitations of the previous leadership paradigms, and to better understand and utilise institutional human resources. These more appropriate frameworks are likely to onset new organisational architectures with the potential to resolve the conflicts surrounding gender leadership behaviours, and more successfully incorporate the complexities of leadership styles, and the consequential diversity in their management strategies in order to attain organisational success and competitive advantage (Stelter 2002). Consequently, future leadership studies need to address the limitations of the previous leadership paradigms to bring more clarity and understanding to the contemporary organisation.

The obvious controversy and complexity associated with leadership behaviours of males and females warrants further studies that comprehensively assess influence and importance of gender on responsible leadership. Hence, the research reported in this dissertation investigated leadership determinants such as the task environment, nature of work and personal characteristics which operate in the realm of participation in decision making, formalisation, emotional intelligence, self efficacy and contextual influences, especially gender, on responsible leadership behaviour. Organisational learning organisational citizenship and job satisfaction were also investigated as outcomes of responsible leadership. The aim of this dissertation, therefore, is to conduct a contemporary, cross cultural, comparative study relating to contextual influence on responsible leadership behaviour in in two developing countries, namely that of the Maldives, and Sri Lanka, highlighting both the similarities and the differences between cultures, and to seek answers to the following research questions:

1. *What personal attributes and organisational contexts influence responsible leadership behaviour of males and females of the Maldives, and Sri Lanka?*

2. *Do contextual variations influence the development of responsible leadership?*
3. *Are there significant differences in leadership behaviour in a national context of the Maldives and Sri Lanka?*
4. *In small island nations in South Asia is leadership uniquely local context?*
5. *Are there significant gender differences in perceptions of what is important for responsible leadership?*

In seeking answers to these research questions, the study focused on both the private and public sectors of two Indian Ocean island nations, the Maldives and Sri Lanka. There is an absence of published evidence of any systematic study of this nature having been previously conducted in these two nations. In fact, according to the Minister for Women and Social Security in the Maldives, and prominent well established government officials of Sri Lanka, research of this nature is almost nonexistent, although female participation in managerial roles is steadily increasing in these countries. Furthermore, there is no visible literature to indicate that studies, within the study countries of the Maldives and Sri Lanka, have been undertaken to evaluate demographic implications and gender influences on the constantly fluid organisational environments. Therefore, the limitations faced by the Maldives and by Sri Lanka in terms of research on their gender leadership behaviour presents a compelling need to conduct a study on gender leadership. A study such as this has the potential to contribute towards the understanding required for better management of gender roles in organisations. It will also provide valuable information that will help lessen the opportunity cost of wasting potential talents due to gender misuse. A greater understanding of female managerial talents provides underpinning for affecting responsible leadership.

THE STUDY

The research reported in this dissertation addresses the determinants of responsible leadership behaviour. Specifically, the fundamental question is to evaluate how personal attributes and organisational contexts influence individual leadership styles to effect the overall outcome of the organisation, with gender as the main mediating

factor. Furthermore, although special emphasis is given to gender as a mediating factor, the study will also investigate the influence of the demographic constructs of age, education, managerial level and type of work on leadership behaviour. Interrelationships within and among the various constructs will also be assessed. The key research variables that were examined in the study are presented in the simplified version of the conceptual model as shown in Figure 1-1.

Figure 1-1   The Conceptual Study Model
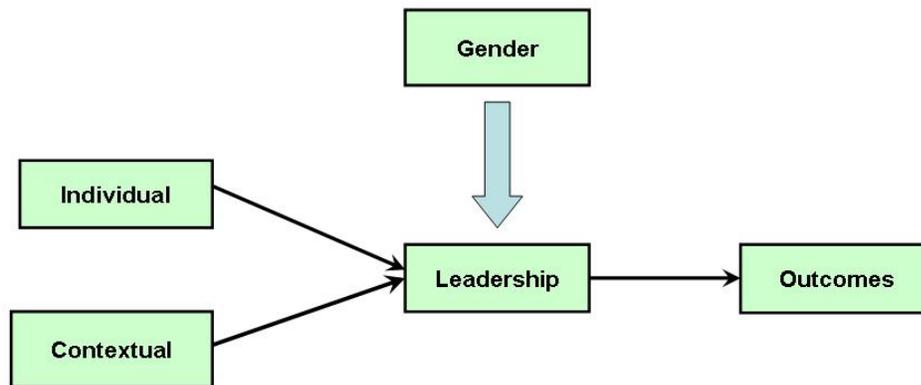
The underpinning for this model lies in the 'situationalist' approach, contingency theory of leadership although inspiration was also drawn from the Big-5 leadership model in recognition of the importance of personality traits for leadership effectiveness (McCrae and Costa 1987). The essence of the frameworks is that a leader's ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors (Fiedler 1967) as well as personality traits as demonstrated in the Big-5 theory (McCrae and Costa 1987). This approach was adopted for the following reasons. Firstly, as this study is a cross cultural study and according to Triandis (1982), leadership models that incorporate situational parameters have greater generality in cross cultural studies than those models that cannot take into account situational or cultural variables. Secondly, the situational approach has strong intuitive appeal, and the academic literature recognises this as an important situational approach to leadership effectiveness (Vecchio 1987). Thirdly, the situational theme is closely associated with this and has its roots in contingency theories (Bass 1990). Fourthly, the situational framework is considered as a synthesis of several accepted theories of leadership behaviour (Vecchio 1987); such as the 'initiating structure' and 'consideration' concept of the Ohio State studies as well as task and relationship

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orientations in Fiedler's (1967) pioneering contingency model. According to this view, leader effectiveness depends on the demands imposed by the context, individual attributes and the task at hand. The resulting leader behaviour thus leads to organisational outcomes which become a measure of organisational effectiveness.

METHODOLOGY

The research design which consisted of both qualitative and quantitative approaches has five objectives. The first objective is to acquire balanced data across respondent backgrounds, and the second objective is to conduct the study in the Maldives, and Sri Lanka where there is no reported evidence of a comparative leadership study. The third objective is to undertake this research as a cross cultural pluralist (combination of quantitative and qualitative methods) study. The fourth feature of importance is to utilise focus groups in each country to augment and deepen understanding of the results obtained from the study. A fifth objective is to conduct the main qualitative component of the study on change masters of both countries such as presidents, ministers and executive managers in roles of CEO/chairman and to administer the quantitative study on their immediate subordinates and themselves.

Prior to conducting the study, a conceptual model was developed from existential literature. For the qualitative aspect of this study appropriate questions that would receive an oral response by the executive level participants were developed. A questionnaire was also constructed to collect quantitative data using adopted standard instruments from North American and Western measures. This necessitated that some items were adjusted to provide more understanding, sensitivity and clarity in the non-Western contexts where the study (reported in this dissertation) was conducted. In summary, data were collected quantitatively by means of a questionnaire, and qualitatively through interviews. Other qualitative aspects of the study included a pilot study, focus group discussions prior to, and following, the pilot study, refining of the questionnaire after feedback from the focus groups, and focus group discussions to elucidate the results of the quantitative data analysis.

The conducted interviews were recorded using voice recorders. The responses were transcribed verbatim and then converted to acceptable standards by the software that was employed to analyse the data. The software that was used to analyse qualitative data was NVivo 7, which is a programme designed to assess qualitative data. The data was coded and analysed for emerging concepts and the various themes that emerged were recorded and reported. Appropriate tests were also conducted using SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences), a statistical tool. The statistical examinations that were conducted on the data included; establishing validity and reliability of the instruments employed, factor analysis, bivariate relationships, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), regression analysis and correlations. The generated results were elucidated by employing focus groups. Thus a pluralist methodology (quantitative plus qualitative) was used.

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

The study is believed to have theoretical and empirical benefits that justify time and resource expenditure. Participants of this study include senior political and economic figureheads holding most influential positions in their respective countries. At the time of conducting this study, there was no reported literature available to indicate that a study of this nature (which investigates the demographic implications and gender influences on leadership) has ever been conducted in the study countries of Maldives and Sri Lanka. Therefore, such a study is of immense importance in seeking invaluable knowledge. While the specific knowledge that might emerge from this research may manifest with time, the possible and most likely advantages of this research are presented as theoretical and empirical contributions.

THEORETICAL BENEFITS

This study has the potential to advance theoretical knowledge about the effects of gender on leadership behaviour. The study presents the opportunity to empirically assess theoretical frameworks on leadership behaviour in the context of Maldives and Sri Lanka. Although the organisational variables depicted in the conceptual model have been the subject of many studies in Western environments, this is the

first reported study in the context of the countries of the Maldives and Sri Lanka. Indeed, most of the reported theoretical and empirical studies have been based on samples from industrialised countries or organisations established in North American and in European countries. Many researchers have questioned the applicability of Western theories to other cultures (Mehdi 1999; Clarke 1998; Gopinath 1998). James (1997,81) said, "*Attempts to transfer Western management theories without considering the host's cultural value system is a prescription for failure.*" Consequently, there is a lack of solid theoretical framework to understand management systems in non Western countries. Hence, a study of this nature on developing countries such as the Maldives and Sri Lanka will undoubtedly contribute to the knowledge base of leadership behaviour as these countries emerge as part of the global economy.

This study will also help verify the viability of the instruments currently used for the assessment of espoused leadership behaviours. Literature has revealed the irrelevance of instruments developed around Western concepts and different eras when applied to other cultures and other times. Existing standardised instruments may not fully capture non Western or non United States conceptualisations of leadership (House, Wright, and Aditya 1997). In view of this fact, some of the instruments that are being used for this study may be invalid or inapplicable as they have been developed as early as 1960s using Western concepts. As the study countries are non Western and operating in environments that embrace different value systems and organisational priorities, findings are likely to verify the applicability of the study instruments as universal constructs. Therefore, this study has the potential to clarify the underpinnings of the instruments, reinforce the extent of their validity and, contribute theoretical knowledge about these constructs in.

This study will further add to theoretical knowledge by possibly identifying and establishing less masculine scales to predict leadership behaviour in the modern organisations. Most of the instruments that are used to predict leadership were developed at a time when mechanistic world views dominated. Consequently, the measures assessing leadership are masculine scales (Canary and Hause 1993) that were based on a 'masculinist,' bureaucratic managerial model of leadership (Black 1999). Leadership of today is guided by a new set of assumptions and values that

have restructured a different social reality that is framed by the context of discontinuous change (Kanter 1977; Prahalad 1997). Hence, the study would thus, help add theoretical knowledge on leadership constructs in relation to its viability as a suitable measure for the present period. Besides adding theoretical knowledge, the study highlighted empirical benefits.

EMPIRICAL BENEFITS

Since the research was carried out in a natural work environment, the study is likely to contribute knowledge about contemporary work issues in the specific countries. This means that the issues highlighted are related to real life and real time, and thus, present the opportunity to understand organisational and work related issues in these countries. The study was conducted on institutions and organisations that are operating in the study countries which are facing contemporary issues and impacted upon by existing organisational realities. Hence, empirical knowledge gained would be contemporary information that is contemporary and relevant to the organisations of the existing countries.

The documented results are likely to be the first of their kind in relation to the study countries. This information, therefore, has the potential to assist in the development of appropriate tools to analyse and develop relevant strategies rather than blindly following possibly inappropriate management theories and practices based on Western contexts. The importance of relevant strategies and tools is being recognised by Western managers as they integrate into Asian cultures (Hickson and Pugh 1995). According to many studies, several multinational business failures have been attributed to a lack of understanding of work-related issues in foreign environments (Marquardt and Engel 1993). This study also presented the opportunity to evaluate the viability of using Western instruments, in non Western countries where the societal norms differ. The documented results may contribute knowledge towards the often debated issues of universalisation of Western instruments for leadership studies conducted in non Western cultures (Cutcher-Gershenfeld, Nitta, Barrett et al. 1994; Kirkbride and Tang 1994). This study, therefore, has the potential to add new knowledge in relation to leadership behaviour.

This study also encompasses views and perceptions of women which by itself add knowledge in terms of enhancing understanding of women as leaders. Lack of sufficient data on female leadership behaviours has been a concern of many researchers (Rosener 1990; Purohit, Kumar, Ranjan et al. 2008). Other researchers contend that women have seldom been subjects of leadership studies and as a consequence, women's voices have not been heard and has been a concern of many writers (Chodorow 1978; Gilligan 1982).

While an understanding has been gained in the study variables as separate individual constructs, there is a lack of evidence of the interactive model such as the one used in this study. New insights may be gained from synthesising the knowledge gained and providing empirical support of the interactive effects of the chosen study variables and their effects on cross-gender situations. Apart from the empirical benefits there are practical benefits to be gained from this study.

PRACTICAL BENEFITS

The Maldives and Sri Lanka have limited knowledge of relationships such as those being investigated in this study. In fact, according to top officials in the government of these two countries, research of this nature is extremely rare, despite the influx of females into work force in increasing numbers. The study may, therefore, contribute towards the understanding required for better management of gender in organisations, and hence, lessen the opportunity cost of wasting potential talents due to gender misuse, thus harnessing responsible leadership. Gained knowledge has the capacity to enhance increasingly diverse and complex organisations to anticipate problem areas and develop strategies to manage the resulting complexities while creating positive organisational environments for the benefit of all its stakeholders.

CONCLUSION

On a worldwide basis, more and more women are entering the workforce (Gibson 1995). However, few achieve executive leadership positions despite suggestions that feminine values are more aligned to developing the complex, dynamic cross

functional capabilities of the organisation (Eagly and Carli 2007a). Indeed, there is increased awareness that feminine leadership styles and leadership behaviour are integral and appropriate to the contemporary leadership paradigm that promotes team oriented, transformational behaviours. Therefore, it is generally agreed that utilising females to their full potential is a function of responsible leadership which is likely to facilitate highly skilled enterprises in competitive arenas that are experiencing unprecedented global changes. Nevertheless, females are constantly facing barriers in achieving top leadership positions. Therefore, for organisations to modify their practices, successfully implement relevant human resource strategies, incorporate appropriate gender roles, and to operate responsibly there is a need to conduct further research (Stelter 2002), on the influence of various contextual factors such as gender, on espoused leadership behaviour.

This study attempts to understand and evaluate a leadership model that is believed to enhance responsible leadership. Thus, it has the potential to contribute, theoretical, empirical and practical knowledge. Besides enriching the knowledge base of gender leadership literature, the findings of this study could possibly create a contemporary leadership framework to replace the traditional leadership models that are defunct and outdated for the increasingly volatile and highly competitive business/organisational environments. In order to enhance a better understanding of the study model, the available literature was reviewed, and the conventional wisdom in relation to organisational features chosen for this study is summarised and presented in Chapter Two.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

"The art of leadership in today's world involves orchestrating the inevitable conflict, chaos, and confusion of change so that the disturbance is productive rather than destructive." (Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky 2009)

INTRODUCTION

Chapter Two presents a summary of the relevant literature which underpins the development of the conceptual study model, foundations for the research model, the study constructs, and the model itself. This leadership framework clearly shows the dependant variables, independent variables and mediating demographics as a network of relationships. These relationships with the demographic interventions, shown as arrows in Figure 2-1, are the hypotheses that are being investigated.

Figure 2-1   **Conceptual Model**
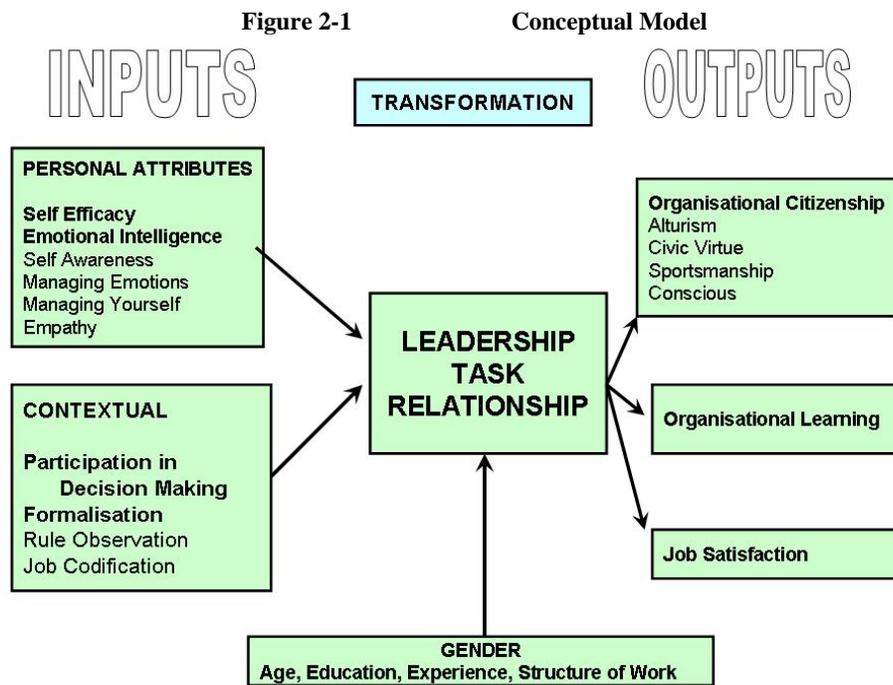
The research model is primarily based on the contingency leadership framework of Fiedler (Fiedler 1964). However, some organisational behavioural theories such as; the social theory of sex differences and similarities (Eagley, Wood, and Diekman 2000) and behavioural complexity theory, the Quinn and Spreitzer competing values framework (Quinn and Spreitzer 1991), implicit leadership theory, value belief theory (Hofstede 1980), and structural contingency theory of organisational form and effectiveness (Donaldson 1995; Hickson and Pugh 1995) have all influenced the construction of the model and the subsequent formulation of the hypotheses. The model is basically divided into three main categories: the antecedents, the espoused leadership behaviour, and the outcomes.

CONTEXTUAL FACTORS TO ESPOUSED LEADERSHIP

Two levels of antecedents to espoused leadership behaviour have been chosen for the study. At a personal level, emotional intelligence (EI) and self efficacy is analysed, and at an organisational level, contextual dynamics are investigated by means of participation in decision making (PDM) and formalisation in organisations.

SELF EFFICACY

Self efficacy is believed to be a critical psychological factor in organisational behaviour (Adeyemo and Ogunyemi 2005) and in influencing people's motivation, competence and performance (Bandura 1997). The concept of self efficacy was first introduced by Bandura (1977) and offers ample rationalisation why some individuals have a more confident outlook towards life (McKenzie 1999). It is defined as *"...beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments."* (Bandura 1997, 3) Strauss et al. (Strauss, Griffin, and Rafferty 2009), argues that self efficacy enhances an individual's sense of control and belief in him/herself of achieving success. Thus, it is one's self efficacy that results in a self assured and positive outlook towards one's potential to deal with certain life stressors, and replicates one's coping power to face demanding tasks and situations by adaptive means (Scholz, Gutiérrez-Dona, Sud et al. 2002).

Consequently, self efficacy influences individual choices, ambitions, efforts at reaching set targets and facing challenging situational demands with courage and hope.

According to the theory of self efficacy, outcome expectancies (the belief that certain behaviours will lead to particular outcomes) and self efficacy expectancies (confidence in successful performance) have a powerful impact on behaviour. Indeed, Tobin et al. (2006) stated,

> *"...Based on life experiences, an individual develops expectancy about an outcome and then develops beliefs about their ability to cope. An individual's self efficacy belief may either strengthen or weaken their performance; it may also influence the type of activities and environments a person selects."*

As suggested by Kreitner and Kinicki (Kreitner and Kinicki 1998), the degree of individual self efficacy levels varies, and is impacted upon by factors, such as childhood experiences   It is also a result of gradual attainment of complex experiences through cognitive, social, linguistic, and/or physical skills, according to Gist (Gist 1987). Self-deprecating   feelings such as depression, anxiety, vulnerability, low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals one chooses to pursue is also said to be a result of low self efficacy (Adeyemo and Ogunyemi 2005), and can contribute towards low self-esteem and negativity about personal success and development. A strong sense of self efficacy, on the other hand, promotes an unwavering sense of personal competence, the ability to successfully face demanding situations, enhances human accomplishment and personal well being (Adeyemo and Ogunyemi 2005), reducing stress and lowering vulnerability to depression (Bandura 2000; Multon, Brown, and Lent 1991; Pajare 1997). An individual's perception of self efficacy is, therefore, important.

According to McShane and Travaglione (McShane and Travaglione 2005), self efficacy is conceptualised as a situation specific belief. In this sense, self efficacy varies in different situations, causing individuals to face different situations with different degrees of confidence. Bandura (Bandura 1997) claims that people face situations within their perceived capabilities, and avoid situations that they perceive

to be beyond their ability. A strong sense of self efficacy facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings, including quality of decision making (Scholz, Gutiérrez-Dona, Sud et al. 2002). Indeed, Schwarzer and Born (Schwarzer and Born 1997b) stated that individual decisions are affected by the level of self efficacy and the degree of individual self efficacy can affect the motivation process by enhancing it or impeding it, and thus, affecting performance. As a result, more challenging tasks are attempted (Bandura 1995), and higher goals are set and persevered (Scholz, Gutiérrez-Dona, Sud et al. 2002) by those with a higher self efficacy. The process of risk taking and confronting organisational inertia to strive towards continuous improvement is also augmented by perceived self efficacy (Paglis and Stephen 2002). It influences an individual's perception of his/her skill, and his/her ability to use these skills effectively (Hoyt 2005). People with high perceptions of self efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks (Schwarzer and Scholz 2000), have greater confidence in their capabilities, and exert more vigour in their effort and performance. These are competencies that are crucial for effective leadership. In the current organisational setting individuals holding key leadership positions are required to respond rapidly to the constantly-changing environments by seizing the opportunities to lead the people forward. Through extending this motivational construct of self efficacy into contemporary leadership, it appears that perceived self efficacy is crucial for engaging in leadership activities, irrespective of gender.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional Intelligence (EI) has its roots in the concept of 'social intelligence' formulated by Thorndike (1920). Subsequently, Gardener (1983) built on the framework of Thorndike (1920), and developed the theory of multiple intelligence. From this, Salovey and Mayer (1990) created the term emotional intelligence, defined as:

> *"The ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability   to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth."* (Mayer and Salovey 1997, 10)

Although the concept of EI has been in existence for decades, it was Daniel Goleman who rocked the world with his book, '*Emotional Intelligence*' (Goleman 1995), and later with "*Working with Emotional Intelligence*" (Goleman 1998b), by theorising as EI being equal to, if not more important than intelligence quotient (IQ) as an indicator of success in one's professional and personal life, and also as a determinant of leader behaviour. This thought attracted unprecedented attention worldwide in academic, organisational and public levels (Robins 2002). Goleman (1995) defined EI as the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions in our relationships. It constitutes a set of learnable skills that have cognitive, behavioural, physiological, and social components (Robins 2002). These skills have been associated with reducing conflict and facilitating both performance and satisfaction in the workplace (Cherniss and Goleman 2001; Goleman 1998b).

Since its conceptualisation, EI has been theorised based on different models. Three alternative models of the construct currently exist. One is the ability model (Mayer and Salovey 1997), which defines EI as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking. The second model is based on non cognitive aspects and defines emotional intelligence as *"…an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures."* (Bar-On 1997, 14) The third model, (applied to this study) is the competency-based model (Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee 2001), designed specifically for workplace applications. Their framework is based on five fundamental components: self awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee 1999; Goleman 1998a), which are crucial competencies for successful leadership and organisational performance. These five capabilities are defined (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee 1999) as:

Self Awareness: being aware of one's strengths and weaknesses, and being able to realistically assess one's abilities. Self awareness encompasses emotional awareness, accurate self assessment and self confidence (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee 1999).

Self Regulation: self control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation. It is the ability to manage emotion in a manner that facilitates, rather than interferes with, tasks.

Motivation: concerned with achievement drive, commitment, initiative and optimism. This involves the emotional tendency that discourages despondent attitudes and encourages perseverance when confronted by frustrations. This is the single strongest competence that distinguishes outstanding executives from the average (Fatt 2002).

Empathy: the ability to understand and sense emotions in others, service orientation and builds on the competencies of self-awareness and self-regulation. It also involves being able to offer due consideration and promote a sense of rapport and atonement.

Social Skills: being able to handle interpersonal relationships with diplomacy and tact (Fatt 2002). This is a crucial skill in negotiations, settling disputes, team management, building bonds and in influencing and leading (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee 1999).

Referring to the importance of EI and its five components, Goleman et al. (Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee 2001, 48) stated,

> *"An emotionally intelligent leader can monitor his or her moods through self awareness, change them for the better through self-management, understand their impact through empathy, and act in ways that boost others' moods through relationship management."*

Many researchers have discussed EI and effective leadership. Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2001) and Goleman (2001) hypothesised theoretical relationships between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and how it affects the effectiveness of a leader. Other researchers, such as George (2000), highlighted that EI plays an important role in leadership effectiveness by enhancing performance through leaders' abilities to solve problems, by addressing issues and opportunities facing them and their organisation, by improved decision-making due to their knowledge and management of emotions (Gardner and Stough 2002) and through reducing

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conflict (Cherniss and Goleman 2001; Goleman 1998b). Thus, at present, EI is increasingly being recognised as an important issue in the workplace. Consequently, the popularity of EI has been increasing worldwide (Cooper and Sawaf 1997; Goleman 1998a; Gross and John 1995; Mayer and Salovey 1997; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman et al. 1995), especially as a measure of leadership effectiveness and as a leadership development tool (Palmer, Walls, Burgess et al. 2001). EI is also gaining attention as an aspect of humanity that is equally important, if not more important, than traditional intelligence.

Researchers such as Goleman et al. (2001) state that effective leadership is built not just on IQ and technical ability, but also on a healthy proportion of emotional skills (Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee 2001). According to Goleman (2000b), the traditional IQ is being replaced by EQ characteristics such as communication skills, adaptability, creativity, personal management, interpersonal effectiveness, and leadership potential, factors that predict success. In fact, Goleman et al. (2001) ascertain that the effective use of emotion is basic to the function of successful leadership. Leaders drive the moods and behaviour of everyone else in the organisational setting (Punia 2002). Leaders exercise this influence through relationship management, motivational appeal, and goal setting. The leader's emotional intelligence is necessary to effectively perform these efforts. The importance and interest in EI is further fuelled by the increasing recognition of the importance of interpersonal relationships and skills for successful execution of leadership.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING (PDM)

The concept of participation in decision making, a contextual variable, began to appear in management literature around the late 1970s (Farnham and Pimlott 1995) and is one of the oldest areas of enquiry in the field of organisational behaviour. PDM has remained an enigmatic construct (Glew and O'Leary-Kelly 1995) and even its definition has not reached a consensus, although it has been defined both conceptually and operationally according to Dachler and Wilpert (1978). After reviewing all different definitions, the most comprehensive definition was formulated by Glew and O'Leary-Kelly (1995, 402),

"...it is a conscious and intended effort by individuals at a higher level in an organisation to provide visible extra-role or role-expanding opportunities for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organisation to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organisational performance."

The only consensus that seems to have been reached by researchers is that PDM is a process involving shared decisions in the work environment (Dachler and Wilpert 1978; Lawler 1986; Spreitzer 1995; Thomas and Velthouse 1990) and that this is a basic property of employee participation (Mitchell 1973). Understanding of the concept has become even more complex due to uncertain relationships of PDM with newly emerging constructs and organisational practices such as flatter work structures. Despite its enigmatic nature, PDM has become an accepted workplace approach for accomplishing organisational efficiency especially in today's world where information and learning has become the privilege of everyone. Its benefits have been appearing in research, especially since the classic study of Coch and French (1948), and Drehmer et al. (2000). Optimistic outcomes have been reported across different organisational settings such as for groups of various sizes (French, Kay, and Meyer 1966; Pennington, Haravey, and Bass 1958), service organisations (Lawler and Hackman 1969; Neider 1980; Nutt 1986; Nutt 1987), and manufacturing organisations (Frohman 2006; Robinson, Oswald, Swinehart et al. 1991). Consequently, numerous organisations have advocated the benefits of employment contribution (Crandall and Parnell 2001) and around the 1980s most large organisations took it upon themselves to implement one or more employee involvement programmes (Crandall and Parnell 2001) such as managed work teams, quality of work life groups and action committees (Farnham and Horton 1993). According to Cotton (Cotton 1993), participative decision making is essentially desirable and in fact, advocates of PDM construed that PDM influences job satisfaction and productivity (Miller and Monge 1986), and increases job satisfaction and performance (Crandall and Parnell 1994; Parnell and Bell 1994; Parnell, Bell, and Taylor 1992; Sagie 1994). The satisfactory results of these programmes added potency to the positive effects of PDM as a leadership substitute and as being mutually valuable in assisting the organisations to compete in a global economy

(Crandall and Parnell 2001). Nevertheless, numerous perspectives with sometimes conflicting and contradictory findings have emerged from a comprehensive examination of the literature (Drehmer, Belohlav, and Coye 2000).

Although foremost organisational theorists have argued that employee participation in decision making is crucial for attaining productivity, positive performance, employee job satisfaction and commitment, a review of 50 employee participation studies disputes this (Locke, Schweiger, and Latham 1986). A total of 26 percent of studies found that participation led to higher productivity, and an equal number of studies found that participation resulted in lower productivity. The degree of accomplishment of participation is also questioned by a study that interviewed more than 250 managers in 14 large organisations. The contradictory findings in relation to the effect of PDM have seen many researchers questioning the effectiveness of participation on performance and satisfaction in the workplace (Ferris and Wagner 1985; Locke and Schweiger 1979). Despite inconclusive disagreements, for and against the authenticity of PDM programmes, the use of PDM by management is considered to be an ethical imperative (Locke, Schweiger, and Latham 1986). In fact, advocates of PDM programmes maintain that, regardless of confusion about the degree of perceived influence on the organisation, subordinates yearn for greater involvement in decision making (Cohen and Bailey 1997; Cooke 1994; Ford and Fottler 1995; Sagie and Koslowski 1994).

Suggestions have emerged that sometimes people in authority view participation as a threat to their own power. According to Crandall and Parnell (2001), resistance towards participation from those in power arises from the perception that participation may undermine their autonomy and control, and threaten their job security. Furthermore, resistance is also due to the fact that people in authority are reluctant to change their management styles, which is often an obligatory action in order to accommodate participation strategies (Schlesinger and Klein 1987; Stewart and Manz 1997; Heller, Pusic, Strauss et al. 1998). In addition, while the majority of people in authority believe that participation programmes are beneficial to the employees and to the organisation, less than a third see any benefit in it for themselves (Klein 1984). This view suggests the possibility of individual differences in relation to PDM programs.

FORMALISATION

Formalisation is an organisational construct that is very much context driven and is considered a manifestation of bureaucracy (Walsh and Dewar 1987). Although it began to appear in organisational literature around the mid 1960s, following its introduction by Hage and Aiken (1967), its theoretical depth and importance remains unexplored. Defined as the degree of standardisation and regulation of behaviour by means of rules, procedures, formal training and related mechanisms (McShane and Travaglione 2005) formalisation refers to the procedural measure to which communications and procedures of an organisation are documented, and the extent to which work roles are defined (Johns and Saks 2005). Therefore, formalisation homogenises tasks and administers employee conduct through rules and regulations. The consequences of formalisation procedures could depend on the nature of the implementation of formalisation (Adler and Borys 1996) or the situation (Zaltman and Duncan 1973). In order to exercise the necessary authority, organisations embrace formalisation through job codification and rule observation.

Job Codification: This is the measure of rules that govern the actions of the organisational occupants (Hage and Aiken 1968). In other words, job codification standardises tasks and exerts power over individual behaviour through rules and procedures, and thus, ensures that acceptable, standardised systems are in place for subordinates to respond to, in recurrent situations (Blau and Scott 1962). While job codification measures the number of rules and regulation governing an organisation as a means of control, rule observation exerts influence differently.

Rule Observation: This is concerned with conformity to rules, and monitors employee compliance to prescribed rules (Hage and Aiken 1968) that have been set by the job codification. While rule observation is used as a control mechanism, its effect on the organisation is contingent on the context of its application and situational factors.

The effect of formalisation in an organisation presents equivocal findings (Miller and Friesen 1984). Literature reveals that formalisation serves three key roles (Walsh and Dewar 1987). Firstly, it acts as a code, reducing communication time and complexity thereby increasing the efficiency of the organisation. Secondly, as a channel, directing human actions, and thus yielding a predictable pattern of human performance. Thirdly, formalisation sets standards guiding the allocation of organisational rewards and punishments, and thereby increasing efficiency. Walsh and Dewar (1987, 220) also stated:

> "…the formalisation process establishes the standards and measures against which action is compared and rewards or punishments are given out."

While serving the three key roles, formalisation can serve two purposes. It can either increase organisational efficiency or it can be manipulated towards the vested interests of certain individuals. In this way, the construct creates excessive bureaucracy and places an over emphasis on the structure as opposed to the function or the outcomes (Hanks and Chandler 1995). The effect of formalisation therefore, depends on the manner in which it is implemented.

According to Adler and Borys (1996), there are two types of formalisation: coercive and enabling. Coercive formalisation involves one way communication consisting of rules and regulations that force subordinates to comply, creating alienation rather than commitment. Arguments by Hoy and Sweetland (2000) stated,

> "…coercive procedures are characterized by one-way communication (top-down), viewing problems as constraints, mistrusting, forcing consensus, suspecting differences, punishing mistakes, and fearing the unexpected. Thus, coercive rules and procedures constrain and punish rather than promote or support productive practices. Instead of giving committed employees access to accumulated organisational learning, coercive procedures are designed to force reluctant subordinates to comply."

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Enabling formalisation, on the other hand, are rules and procedures that act as flexible guidelines reflecting best practices that assist employees in solving problems in their work (Hoy and Sweetland 2000).

> *"Unlike coercive formalisation, enabling formalisation is flexible and encourages two-way communications that values participation and cooperation, viewing problems as opportunities, encouraging differences, trusting, adjusting easily to mistakes, learning from mistakes, and delighting in the unexpected."* (Hoy and Sweetland 2000,529)

Coercive and enabling formalisations have different features. The literature suggests that the implementation and the influence depends on the organisational contextual factors such as organisational structure and job characteristics (Johns and Saks 2005), and organisational life cycle (Hanks and Chandler 1995). Complex and highly specialised jobs dictate formalisation in order to maintain standards and comply with regulations. In their discussion, McShane and Travaglione (2005), stated that organisations with high degrees of formalisation, job descriptions and policies present clear direction, and thus enhance conformity to procedures such as government safety legislation and strict accounting rules. The degree of formalisation can vary according to organisational complexity to gain and maintain more control and efficiency, and according to the different stages of the life cycle of the organisation 'reflecting the organisational challenges faced by the firm as it develops' (Hanks and Chandler 1995).

In some organisations, formalisation procedures could become so complex and conformity to those rules could hinder the flexibility available to deal with conflicting demands (Agarwal and Ramaswami 1993). In certain instances, the binding nature of rules and lack of flexibility could be detrimental to individual creativity, and thus, organisational efficiency (McShane and Travaglione 2005). Hage and Aiken (1971), and Ronen (Ronen 1986) suggest using a lower degree of formalisation, especially for employees in boundary spanning positions who must constantly adapt to idiosyncratic circumstances. Failing is likely to cause compromise on the desired flexibility for increased efficiency.

RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

In recent years, leadership has taken on a new dimension due to ethical lapses (Resick, Hanges, Dickson et al. 2006). As a result, leadership is becoming more complex with the stress on responsible leadership. Responsible leadership is not just an essential element for an institution or organisation, but the foundation upon which thriving communities and prosperous societies are built. While many would assume that integrity is inseparable from leadership, recent scandals such as Enron, major corporate failures and the Madoff fraud sent the world reeling in shock and created awareness that there is a challenge in leading responsibly; and that is leading with responsibility and integrity.

> *"While leader need certain capabilities and good character to become responsible leaders ,none are born that way….it is rather a balance of leaders' character, the leaders relationship with people and followers, the roles and tasks he or she fulfills and sound processes. Responsible leadership depends on not only on principled individuals and their education and training, but also on a 'holding environment'……an organisational and environmental context where responsible leaders can flourish."* (Maak and Pless 2006,1)

Responsible leadership is defined by Maak and Pless (2006) as an art; of building and sustaining morally sound relationships with all relevant stakeholders. This activity is done through ethical intelligence or moral awareness, reflection skills, critical thinking and moral imagination. As a responsible leader one needs to recognise, respect and reconcile numerous values and demands, be responsible towards bottom lines and stakeholders as well as manage the ever increasing diversity within the workforce, with customers and suppliers, and ultimately to manage the organisation successfully. The challenges are enormous. As the literature on responsible leadership is very limited (Resick, Hanges, Dickson et al. 2006), general leadership literature based on Western perspectives is analysed to understand the past and present concepts behind leadership.

VIEWS ON LEADERSHIP IN GENERAL

Researchers and scholars have been captivated by a yearning to comprehend, define and elucidate the core of leadership. For most of the twentieth century (Brungardt 1998), leadership continued to remain an emerging discipline (Punia 2002). Despite the interest and extensive studies, a universal consensus has not been reached on the definition of leadership (Bass 1990; Yukl 2002). Indeed, according to Stogdill (1974, 259), "*…there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define it.*"

To complicate things even further, concepts such as power, authority, management, administration, control and supervision have often been confused with leadership (Yukl 2002). After a review of many existing definitions, Yukl (2002) defined leadership as the process that influences and facilitates individual and collective attempts to accomplish shared objectives. Thus, effective leadership is not only determined by a successful leader, but also by the followers and the environment.

Despite arguments among leadership researchers on the actual definition of the term 'leadership,' there is consensus in the contemporary environment that leadership can be viewed as a complex dynamic state that involves three components: the leader, the followers, and the situation. The gist of all definitions, therefore, involves influence as a means of inspiring, developing and empowering followers towards realising organisational goals according to the GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan et al. 2004). It is about crafting a vision, and thus, encouraging and bringing about organisational change. The most recent view of leadership is that it is 'an improvisational and experimental art' that steers people to perform in an environment of continuing uncertainty and uncontrollable change (Heifetz, Grashow, and Linsky 2009).

Reviewing the literature, it is apparent that views on leadership have three distinctive aspects (Vrignaud, Kets De Vries, and Florent-Treacy 2004). Firstly, there are 'personalist' views. This research argues that determinants of leadership effectiveness are personality traits. These theories, collectively termed as 'trait theories', highlighted personal attributes or traits such as physical factors, personal

and social characteristics (Jago 1982). According to this view, irrespective of the circumstances, leaders are seen as heroes in control. Second is the 'behavioural approach', which is based on assumptions. Group and organisational outcomes are a result of leadership behaviour (Jago 1982). Thirdly, the position of the 'situationalists' or contingency views, which amalgamate both trait theories and behavioural theories (Schriesheim and Neider 1989).

Situationalists argue that environmental constraints determine leadership effectiveness and the prevailing situation becomes the determinant of leadership behaviour. This position totally rejects the influence of personality variables as a determinant of either leadership effectiveness or leadership behaviour. It is an approach to leadership that arises from an assumption that no single best approach to leadership exists, and that effective leaders adopt their styles to situational variables and demands that surround the task, and the characteristics of the subordinates in question (Glick 2002). Hersey and Blanchard (1993) also point out cultural differences in the followers and the situation as determinants of the leadership styles. Backed by strong arguments and powerful defenders, these opposing positions of 'personalists' and 'situationalists' propagated a profusion of hypothesis (Vrignaud, Kets De Vries, and Florent-Treacy 2004). The theories that emerged comprised theories such as: 'great man', trait, situational, psychoanalytic, political, humanistic, cognitive, reinforced change, leader role, path goal, contingency, multiple linkage, vertical dyad linkage, exchange, behavioural and attribution. Despite numerous theories, one of the most well reported empirical frameworks of leadership is perhaps the 'Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness' developed by Fiedler (1964), which associated leadership effectiveness as the product of interaction between the style of the leader and the environmental characteristics in which the leader operates.

Leadership scholars have been struggling to understand leadership styles, characteristics or personality traits of great leaders. Yet none of the studies have produced a clear understanding of an ideal leader despite more than a thousand studies (George, Sims, McLean et al. 2007). The focus on leadership styles situational demands as a probable determinant of leadership effectiveness has generated many leadership styles. Thus, emerged democratic leadership versus

autocratic or participative versus directive which is associated with experimental studies carried out by Lewin and Lippitt (1938) and later by Vroom and Yetton (1973). In the 1980s and the 1990s, transactional and transformational leadership styles transpired, based on Burns's argument about scholars neglecting important aspects of leadership (Burns 1978). Maher (1997, 209) describes transactional leadership as,

> *"a set of leadership behaviours that emphasises exchanges or bargains between manager and follower, and focuses on how current needs of subordinates can be fulfilled."*

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, use charisma, vision, courage, inspiration, intellectual stimulation and concern for individuals and arouses followers' consciousness levels to stimulate them to surpass their own immediate self interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the organisation (Yammarino, Spangler, and B.M 1993). Such total commitment (emotional, intellectual and moral), as expressed in transformational leadership, urges followers to progress and perform beyond expectations (Bass 1985; Burns 1978; Sergiovanni 1991). While research continues regarding different styles of leadership, the influx of females in large numbers into the workforce has prompted researchers to look into the possibility of gender differences in leadership styles, which is very much linked with task versus relationship style leadership.

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND GENDER

The influx of females into the work force around the 1960s and the 1970s, influenced by the feminist movement, anti-sexual discrimination legislation, and predictions of managerial talent shortages (Brown 1979), prompted researchers to look into the possibility of gender differences in leadership styles (Williams and Locke 1999). Since then, researchers have struggled to understand gender behaviours in relation to managerial and leadership aspects, resulting in a variety of conflicting findings. A review of the literature reveals two primary schools of thought in relation to gender leadership behaviour. Advocates of gender differences in leadership behaviour contend that women are less hierarchical, more cooperative and more

relationship oriented, while the opposite is true for men (Eagley and Karau.S.J 2002; Olsson 2000). Compelling evidences exist both for gender differences and for non significant differences causing confusion amongst researchers. Indeed, there are as many studies that report significant gender differences in leadership behaviour as those that advocate non significant differences (Brown 1979; Eagley, Karau, and Johnson 1992; White, De Santis, and Crino 1981). To complicate the findings even further, some researchers challenge their own findings and support the notion that there are noteworthy gender differences between males and females (Alimo Metacalffe 1995; Bass, Avolio, and Atwater 1996; Lipman-Blumen 1996; Rosener, McAllister, and Stephens 1990). Among the advocates of significant gender differences are writers of trade books (Book 2000; Helgesen 1990; Loden 1985; Rosener 1995), who allege unique leadership styles between men and women and draw their conclusions based on personal experience in organisations, informal surveys, interviews and observations. Meanwhile, academic writers present contradictory results. Some academic writers, like Bass et al. (1996) and Powell (1990) challenge that there are non significant gender differences between males and females in their leadership behaviour, while others find the contrary to be true. Furthermore, while research points to differences few agree about how women lead (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Some researchers argue that, even if there seems to be differences in leadership behaviour of males and females, these differences are insignificant (Rosener, McAllister, and Stephens 1990). Some claim that the result is a product of the situational incongruity regarding leadership role and gender role expectation (Eagley and Karau.S.J 2002). In fact, these theorist and researchers Moss and Jensrud (Moss and Jensrud 1995) argue that, given similar organisational restrictions, whatever differences may seem evident, they will become minimal or insignificant (Kolb 1999). Furthermore, reviews of more recent literature on leadership style identified an irregularity pertaining to leadership behaviours, especially with regard to the performance of females in homogenous versus mixed-gender groups, and in laboratory settings versus actual leadership positions. Indeed, gender biased instrumentation (Astin and Leland 1991; Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy 2000), and rater bias (Bass 1990; Eagley and karau 1991) have been blamed for some differences that may seem significant. Meanwhile, findings are also emerging proposing that the leadership styles generally attributed to males and females, are not restricted to the particular sexes (Yoonkyeong 2003,69). In fact,

Eagley and Johnson (1990) suggests that task oriented leadership behaviour in females varies according to gender congeniality, and is indicative of demands pertaining to a specific gender leadership role. As researchers grapple with the understanding of gender leadership behaviour, a third and new dimension to leadership style has emerged, which is attributed with leadership effectiveness, and thus, cannot be ignored. This dimension is also linked strongly with effectiveness, and more importantly, with responsible leadership.

ANDROGYNOUS LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Contemporary research findings (Applebaum, Audet, and Miller 2003,45) indicate that there are three, and not two, genders in the mix of variables: male, female, and androgyny. Androgynous leadership style is defined as a style which is a directive, task-oriented approach softened by caring and supportive behaviours (Korabik 1990). Many studies (Murphy, Eckstat, and Parker 1995) support the definition of Korabik (1990) and indicate that persons with androgynous orientations combine task and relationship behaviours. Korabik (1990) further stresses that androgynous styles could be the answer to the ongoing struggle by women to overcome stereotypes and achieve high level leadership positions. Since the discovery of the androgynous model, much has been written about its positive aspects (Cramer and Skidd 1992; Lundy and Rosenberg 1987; Bem 1974, 1981; Baurchardt and Serbin 1982; Bauer 1993). Interestingly, many characteristics of androgynous behaviour have been correlated with what has been traditionally associated with female behaviour, and to characteristics pertaining to females who have achieved executive leadership positions (Applebaum, Audet, and Miller 2003; Korabik 1990).

Androgynous behaviour has been highly correlated with features associated with successful leadership. According to Maier (1992), the most desirable type of management is one which is androgynous. This implies that organisational goals cannot be achieved by being uniquely task oriented or relationship oriented, suggesting that integration rather than a polarisation is important to achieve organisational success (Park 1997, 166). Regarded as a more feminine role compatible model (Manning 2002), the androgynous leadership model is fast emerging as a more effective leadership and more suitable to the contemporary,

dynamic, organisational environment. These findings have colossal connotations in relation to the socio-cultural stance that seems to present hurdles to female attainment of executive leadership positions. Therefore, understanding the dynamics of the different behaviours is important for effective organisational development. To consider these issues, some theoretical principles that underlie male and female leadership styles and relevant empirical research, are evaluated.

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES IN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Researchers have sought rationalisation of gender differences between men and women in their approach to leadership behaviour through several theories (Applebaum, Audet, and Miller 2003). Gender centred perspectives ascertain that individual characteristics are determined by gender and that the biological makeup, as well as the societal moulding of their characters, determines behaviours (Betz 1987; Henning and Jardim 1977; Loden 1985). Research based on gender and sex ascertains that,

> *"...leadership is biologically determined, behaviourally demonstrated, and innate to the male species. As such an effective leadership stance can only be assumed by the male species."*
> (Applebaum, Audet, and Miller 2003, 44)

Another view suggests that the socialisation process influences women to develop a unique style. This style is characterised by caring and nurturance, which compels females to carry forward relationship roles, whilst men assume a dominating and task oriented style (Eagley, Makhijani, and Klonsky 1992; Wilson 2006), hence, the respective notions of feminine styles and masculine styles. For example, young girls are socialised to be cooperative, understanding, supportive, interpersonally sensitive, and flexible whilst the upbringing of boys demands different societal norms, which are the opposite of what is considered normal for girls. Consequently, girls are more predisposed to cultivate different managerial styles when they assume leadership positions in organisations (Helgesen 1990).

Social role theory of sex differences and similarities (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001; Eagley and Karau.S.J 2002; Eagley, Wood, and Diekman 2000) argues that individuals tend to conform to societal expectations regarding their gender role while simultaneously operating under their leadership role constraints. The clash between the gender role and leadership role expectations manifests differences in gender leadership behaviours. Consequently, while leader role constrains gender behaviour according to the social role argument, gender behaviour also constrains leader behaviour in consistency with their own gender role (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003) giving rise to the differences observed. Furthermore, female efforts at leadership continue to be viewed negatively due to the feminine styles. Such negative attitudes that undermine leadership effectiveness of females are also attributed to some external causal factors that are associated with leadership effectiveness or leadership emergence. Some of the factors highlighted by Appelbaum et al. (2003, 46) underlie obstructions to women.

> *"Selected factors that undermine women's leadership effectiveness include women's attitude, women's self confidence, women's prior work experience, the corporate environment and the old boys' network."*

The stereotypical attitudes coupled with the associated prejudice manifest either in people's perceptions of female inadequacies as leaders, or through negative attitudes that are directed at females who display leadership qualities (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Eagley and Carli (2007) ascertain that the male stereotype is more similar to the stereotype of leaders, resulting in women being viewed as not 'tough enough' nor having the 'what it takes' to perform at the top levels. According to Martin (2007), although discrimination is much less today, women are still being treated unfairly. For example, female leaders expressing assertiveness (an agentic behaviour associated with maleness) rather than the communal behaviour (associated with females) are regarded negatively for having violated the standard set for them. Such behaviours were found to be threatening (Carli, LaFleur, and Loeber 1995). On the other hand, males expressing the same behaviour attract admiration. Such double standards used in evaluating leadership results in females being disliked (Butler and Geis 1990) and criticised for expressing dominant behaviours and being unfeminine.

Thus, females face conflict trying to conform to leadership roles, while still adhering to the societal expectations and behaviours that are culturally and institutionally conditioned and are compatible with whom they are as women (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Such discrimination, where leadership is seen as a prerogative of only men, gives rise to organisational structures that are detrimental to women's rise to leadership positions. Schein (2001) asserts that the traditional association of males to leadership results in work cultures that are designed according to male models, where leaders are professed to possess characteristics that are generally ascribed with maleness (Schein 2001). Furthermore, it is believed that such negativism and attitudes also result in effects such as double bind and 'tokenism' (Kanter 1997) which in turn, feeds on the stereotypical thinking that contributes to a female's rarity in leadership roles.

Despite all the negative influences women are rising to top positions, even if their rise is slow. According to a special report on Newsweek (2006, 35), "… *women have battled to reach positions of power in places ranging from the haute kitchens of France to the corporate ladder at Google."* Females continue to climb up the ladder as seen in an article in *Fortune* about 50 most powerful women on top of the world (Mero 2006). They hold some of the most powerful positions and compete with the most competent of men to reach the top even in areas such as finance and technology that continue to be viewed strictly as male domains. Nevertheless, barriers exist and interesting findings continue to emerge. In a study done on thousands of subjects, using 360 degree feedback over a period of five years to find out whether females are rated lower than men as leaders, it emerged that females scored higher in most leadership dimensions (Ibarra and Obodaru 2009). The study also discovered that females scored significantly low on 'visionary'. This opens up another avenue of research to analyse whether it is mainly the perception of not being a visionary that is hindering them rather than other factors.

ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) has generated a remarkable amount of research interest in the organisational sciences (Alotaibi 2001; Becker and Vancel 1993; Moorman 1993; Niehoff and Moorman 1993; Organ and Ryan 1995;

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine et al. 2000; Schappe 1998). These studies have been undertaken in a variety of domains and disciplines such as human resources management, marketing, economics and health care (Lievens and Anseel 2004,). Examples of OCB, or extra role performance, include behaviours such as helping co-workers, volunteering for extra activities, attending optional meetings or activities and participating proactively in all forms of workplace activities that are pro-organisation. Avoidance of negative behaviours such as arguing with co-workers and complaining about workplace conditions are also behaviours that are classified as OCB (Organ and Ryan 1995). These behaviours assist in handling assorted organisational uncertainties, and are therefore held in high esteem. OCB is defined as,

> "…individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation."
> (Organ 1988,4)

The importance of OCB to organisational productivity has been acknowledged by many practicing managers (Katzell and Yankelovich 1975). Indeed, employees who go that 'extra mile' are highly treasured (Ishak 2005) and hold hope for long term organisational success (Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch 1994). OCB is believed to enhance organisational effectiveness, efficiency and adaptability (Cohen and Vigoda 2000 ; Erturk, Yilmaz, and Ceylan.A 2004; Organ and Konovsky 1989 ; Podsakoff, Ahearne, and McKenzie 1997), and according to Cohen and Vigoda (2000), the benefits of OCB include improved co-worker and managerial productivity, superior efficiency in resource use and allocation, reduced maintenance expenses, better coordination of organisational activities across individuals, groups and functional departments and improved organisational attractiveness for high quality new recruits. Furthermore, besides increasing stability in the organisation's performance, OCB may also increase organisational capability to adapt successfully to environmental turbulences through voluntary contribution to deal with the changes (Lee, Dedrick, and Smith 1991). While the benefits of such behaviours have been unanimously agreed upon, their categorisation has been disputed.

According to Podsakoff et al. (1990) these multidimensional delineations of OCB show that it consists of five distinct factors. This viewpoint reflects Organ's original thinking about OCB (Organ 1988).

- **Altruism**: helping behaviours directed at specific individuals,
- **Conscientiousness**: going beyond minimally required levels of attendance,
- **Sportsmanship**: tolerating the inevitable inconveniences of work without complaining,
- **Courtesy**: informing others to prevent the occurrence of work related problems, and
- **Civic Virtue**: participating in and being concerned about the life of the company.

According to Gautam et al. (2004), there may be differences in different cultures in the way OCB is enacted reflecting the underlying cultural value deviations. Indeed, Lievens and Anseel (2004) argue that research on OCB measurement in different contexts other than the United States is essential, and the validity of an OCB measure used in different cultural contexts should not be taken for granted. As many factors affect OCB, it is contingent on situations and is affected by an assortment of contextual factors such as cultural, economic, political and organisational patterns (Eisenberg and Fabes 1988). As individual actions give rise to OCB, it is expected that personal characteristics and reactions in, and to, the workplace (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2004) as well as other demographic variables, such as age and gender, will affect OCB (Farh, Podsakoff, and Organ 1990). Furthermore, variations in OCB are expected due to situational variables, organisational and environmental contexts that surround the organisation, and also various antecedent factors that result in OCB and the effect that these antecedents have on OCB (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2004). In this sense, situational factors determine when, and sometimes why, people engage or do not engage in OCB. Many researchers, such as George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1995), found that the degree of formalisation affected OCB, with low formalisation resulting in an atmosphere of group cohesiveness that encouraged employees to engage in OCBs, whereas bureaucratic organisational structures alienated employees thus inhibiting OCBs.

ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING (OL)

In today's uncertain and unpredictable organisational environment, one factor that seems constant is change (Mossholder, Settoon, Amenakis et al. 2000). Organisational learning is a means of dealing with the change (Jordan 2004; Skinner, Sauders, and Thornhill 2002). Indeed, one of the most prominent organisational theorists, Senge (1990) argues that in times of continual change, organisational learning is a significant method of ensuring success, and the only sustainable source of competitive advantage. It is also increasingly being considered as one of the fundamental sources of competitive advantage within the context of strategic management. According to Njuguna and Kenya (2009) learning is valuable, continuous, and most effective when shared (Smith 2001), and that every experience is an opportunity to learn (Kerka 1995). Thus, organisations are recognising that their capability to learn is a key strategic weapon (Kreitner and Kinicki 2004, 1998). Learning organisations are defined by Senge (1990, 3) as;

> *"… organisations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together."*

Learning organisations are continuously adaptive organisations that persistently promote individual, team and organisational learning, and expand their abilities to gain competitive advantage to shape their future. According to Watkins and Marsick (1992), in learning organisations, learning is facilitated across all its members at the individual level as well as at team levels, through total employee involvement in a process of collaboratively conducted, collectively accountable change directed towards shared values or principles and thus continuously transforms itself (Pedler, Burgoyne, and al 1991). In this process, learning is internalised, codified and stored and embedded in the processes and systems to ascertain consistency in operations and actions. The characteristics that are common to all learning organisations, according to Kerka (1995), are the provision of continuous learning opportunities, using learning for attainment of goals, linking individual performance with organisational performance, encouraging inquiry and discussion, safety to share

openly and take risks, embracing creative tension as a source of energy and renewal, and continuous awareness and interaction with their environment.

Multiple kinds of learning is attributed to the innovation of learning organisations (Antal and Sobczak 2004), and depending on the circumstances, appropriate types can be deployed (Bertholin, Dierkes, Child et al. 2001). Argyris and Schon (1978) identified three kinds of learning as being the most significant in accomplishing a learning organisation. They are: single loop learning, double-loop learning and deuteron learning.

Single Loop Learning: This is used to contract with the existing situation, to identify and rectify errors, in reaction to environmental changes (Dodgson 1993).

Double Loop Learning: This type of learning is made on a more wilful basis and goes beyond simple reaction to environmental changes. It is used in the modification of organisational norms, procedures, policies and objectives besides detection and correction of errors (Dodgson 1993).

Deutero Learning: This form of learning does not occur unless organisations learn how to carry out single and double loop learning. In other words, this form of learning transpires when organisation learn to learn (Antal and Sobczak 2004).

An organisation's ability to learn is constantly affected by the continuously changing circumstances, and hence, certain structures and strategies must be adopted accordingly to encourage learning (Dodgson 1993). To benefit from the situational environment and to work effectively in a team environment, what is required is a deep learning cycle.

> *"The deep learning cycle constitutes the essence of a learning organisation - the development not just of new capacities, but of fundamental shifts of mind, individually and collectively."* (Senge, Roberts, Ross et al. 1995, 19)

The deep learning cycle is activated by five disciplines (Senge, Roberts, Ross et al. 1995), which are termed as 'new component technologies.' Senge (1995) argued that mastery of these basic, but immensely important, disciplines, is what differentiates 'learning organisations' from their conventional controlling counterparts. These skills will enable the learning organisation to create a framework for continuous transformation and improvement (Senge 2006). The five disciplines are:

Personal Mastery: This is one of the spiritual cornerstones of the learning organisation (Senge 2006) and also a core discipline that is required to build a learning organisation (Senge 1990). Personal mastery is about individual learning and has two components according to Senge (1990). The first component is that one must delineate what one is trying to accomplish (a goal). Secondly, one must be able to truly measure how close one is to the goal. Applied to individual learning, this discipline necessitates a widespread commitment to augment technical skills through continuous auditing, clarifying and understanding of personal actions as organisations attempt to improve efficiency and effectiveness. Personal mastery also fosters personal motivation to continually learn how our actions affect our world (Senge 1990).

Mental Models: A mental model is a framework for the cognitive processes of our minds and hence determines how we think and act (Senge 1990; Larsen, McInerney, Nyquist et al. 2002), and how we look at the world. Senge et al. (1995,235) stated

> *"… mental models are the images, assumptions, and stories which we carry in our minds about ourselves, other people, institutions, and every aspect of the world. Like a pan of glass framing and subtly distorting our vision, mental models determine what we see."*

Most of our mental models are flawed, according to Argyris (1991), and also, most of us have a common underlying 'theory of action' (a set of rules that we use for our own behaviours as well as to understand the behaviours of others) that is also flawed. According to Senge (1990), people do not usually follow their stated 'action theories' and what they follow is what he calls 'theory in use.'

Building Shared Vision: In a learning organisation, where it is vital to work together as a team, generating a shared purpose is crucial. Shared vision creates what Senge (2006) labels 'creative tension' (the difference between the shared vision and the current reality), which becomes the driving force for change and will drive organisations toward their goals. It generates a common identity, a sense of purpose, cultivates a loyalty to the long term and encourages genuine commitment. Indeed, according to Senge (2006), the most basic level of commonality is established by an organisation's shared sense of purpose, vision, and operating values, and it facilitates the organisation to differentiate itself from other organisations in their field of expertise (Field and Ford 1995; Senge 2006).

Team Learning: The fundamental learning units in modern organisations are the teams, and hence it is of utmost importance for organisational development. Indeed, French and Bell (1995) assert that a fundamental belief of organisational development is that work teams are the building blocks of organisations, and the foundation of organisational development. According to this argument, to be effective and to reach shared organisation goals, teams must administer their culture, the processes, systems, and relationships and work in harmony while tapping into individual knowledge. Groups become high performance teams and learn collectively for organisational effectiveness by operating on four levels. (Larsen, McInerney, Nyquist et al. 2002). These four levels are: organisational expectations, group tasks, group maintenance, and individual needs. Team learning involves modification to the communication patterns within teams and involves certain features such as listening, expressing assertive statements and exploring important issues openly (Jordan 2004); factors that are essential in attaining organisational learning.

Systems Thinking: Of the five disciplines that are assumed to be essential in creating and maintaining a learning organisation, systems thinking is the most important, and it is the basic component that underlies the rest of the disciplines (Senge 1992). It is also seen by Senge et al. (1995) not only as a powerful problem solving tool but "… *as a language, augmenting and changing the ordinary ways we think and talk about complex issues*." It is concerned with the view that organisations are systemic entities where each action produces a related consequence and that

actions targeted at changing certain aspects of the organisation will have implications for other parts of the organisation (Senge 1992). Systems thinking also enhances the capacity to recognise patterns and understand the connectedness of human actions and reactions in work organisations. As stated by Senge (1992, 12),

> *"Systems thinking makes understandable the subtlest aspect of the learning organisation - the new way individuals perceive themselves and their world. At the heart of a learning organisation is a shift of mind - from seeing ourselves as separate from the world to connected to the world, from seeing problems as caused by someone or something 'out there' to seeing how our own actions create the problems we experience."*

Systems thinking, along with the underlying characteristics of personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision, and team learning, assists organisations to retain and improve competitiveness, productivity, and innovativeness in uncertain technological and market circumstances. These are highly sort-after characteristics for modern organisations.

Despite the fact that learning organisations are so widely preferred, Senge (1990) ascertains that what stops people from creating such organisations is 'leadership' and 'the type of commitment' it requires to build such an organisation. Leadership in learning organisations differs dramatically from that of the charismatic decision maker and centres on subtler and ultimately more important work such as being designers, teachers and stewards (Senge 1990). These roles necessitate new skills such as; the knack to create a shared vision, challenge existing mental models, and to cultivate more systemic patterns of thinking. Leaders in learning organisations, Senge (1990) asserts, are liable for creating organisational environments where people are continually escalating their capacity to mould their future. He also argues that the rate at which organisations learn may become the only sustainable source of competitive advantage, especially in the contemporary knowledge intensive business environments. The adaptation of a more flexible and organic structure and the diverging of the focus away from mechanistic structures is essential in order to encourage learning, and to create and maintain a learning environment. Such an approach which promotes openness, reflectivity, and the acceptance of error and

uncertainty requires a complete new philosophy of management (Morgan 1986). It is crucial that organisations tap the 'intellectual capacity' of people at all levels, both as individuals and groups.

Organisational learning is not possible unless organisations respond to the changing nature of work and authority relations quickly and efficiently (Senge 1990). Under the guidance of a unique leadership that is dramatically different from that of a charismatic decision maker, Senge (1990) contends that creation of a learning organisation, where people are continually expanding their capacities to shape their future, requires leaders to act as designers, teachers and stewards and should be able to develop personal mastery and team learning, build a shared vision, challenge prevailing mental models, and foster more systemic patterns of thinking. To deal with the ever changing organisational environment, contribution from individuals who go out of their way, regardless of the formal job requirements, is essential. Literature suggests that the extent that individuals contribute beyond the call of duty is determined not only by their character, but by their responses in, and to, the workplace (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2004). Organisational learning values create environments that foster new cultural values and structural mechanisms that will eventually influence individual contributions to organisations (Somech and Drach-Zahavy 2004). Thus, it is presumed that leadership styles and OCB will be associated with organisational learning (Leithwood and Duke 1998).

JOB SATISFACTION

Although job satisfaction is one of the criteria of ascertaining a healthy organisational structure (Kaya 1995), few organisations have made job satisfaction a top priority (Marsland, Syptak, and Ulmer 1999). It is *"… an appraisal of perceived job characteristics and emotional experiences at work*" (McShane and Travaglione 2005, 127), and thus, expresses a person's assessment of his/her job and work context. As the most frequently studied variable in organisational behavioural research (Spector 1997) and as one of the best researched concepts in work and organisational psychology (Dormann and Zapf 2001), numerous definitions have been reported. Vroom (1967) defines job satisfaction as a response exhibited by workers against the role they play in their work. A more recent definition of job

satisfaction defines the concept as, *"… job satisfaction is an affective or emotional response towards various facets of one's job."* (Kreitner and Kinicki 2004', 202) In short, job satisfaction basically describes an individual's contentment regarding his/her job and essentially reflects an individual's feelings towards his/her job (Kreitner and Kinicki 2004). The construct is also viewed as a positive emotional response to a worker's perception of the kind of values he/she realises (McCormick and Tiffin 1974). Thus, it is likely for workers to improvise positive attitudes towards their jobs and gain job satisfaction if they perceive that their values are realised. The degree to which aspirations and personal values are satisfied is a contributing factor in shaping an individual's satisfaction with the job and commitment to the organisation (Stewart 1990; Tubbs and Ekeberg 1991).

Literature shows that low rates of job satisfaction have been linked with organisational deterioration, and a person's motivation and contribution to production (Kaya 1995). Highly satisfied employees, on the other hand, are not only more likely to be better performers than those who are not highly satisfied, but they are also more likely to prolong their jobs, and consequently reduce employee turnover. High rates of job satisfaction have also been alleged to decrease absenteeism at work, replacement of workers within a cycle and even reduce the rate of accidents (Kahn 1973, 94). Reiner and Zhao (1999) also confirm that positive outcomes such as increased productivity, lower absenteeism, and lower employee turnover are directly related to improved job satisfaction. It is argued by Zeffane (1994) that in the turbulent, competitive global environment of today, employers must ensure their employees' satisfaction in their jobs in order to enhance productivity, widen the effects on future organisational outcomes and amplify desirable attitudes in employees.

> *"One of the most important management challenges facing governments today is the search for creative, flexible work environments that promote job satisfaction and innovation. In an era of fiscal restraint, downsizing and demands for increased productivity, there is a pressing need to develop organisational cultures that provide public servants with opportunities for work that is personally meaningful and produces results that are valued by citizens."* (Phillips, Little, and Goodine 1996, i)

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The focus of the study was qualitative, and the primary research questions were explored through qualitative aspects. The quantitative component of this study generated hypotheses based on the initial research model. In order to arrive at the hypotheses, the relationship between transactional/transformational and task/relationship leadership and its similarities with gender is discussed. In a meta analysis of 49 studies from 1985 to 2001, according to Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), some studies found small, but significant, gender differences on transformational leadership, with women superior on all transformational factors plus contingent reward, and males higher in the transactional styles of management by exception, and *laissez-faire* leadership. Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) assert that transformational leadership and transactional leadership have within them components that are strongly co-related to relationship oriented style, task oriented leadership style of Fiedler (1967) and EI. With these findings in mind, hypotheses were developed for the individual and contextual factors explored in the model.

Literature evidences the influence of negative stereotyping and bias on gender leader perceptions and coping capabilities of males and females (Hoyt 2005). The socially constructed incongruity between gender role and leader role persists, negatively effecting evaluation of women as leaders and influencing negatively on women's perception of themselves as leaders (Hoyt 2005). According to Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2005), doubt about people's capabilities makes them shy away from tasks that are perceived as personal threats. Therefore, it stands to assume that leadership self efficacy may perhaps contribute to the rarity of women in leadership roles. Research also suggests that some women may be reluctant to pursue certain tasks because they lack confidence in their ability to succeed (Dickerson and Taylor 2000).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF EFFICACY, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

Leadership literature highly correlates leadership with self efficacy (Cormick 2001). As a critical psychological factor in the behaviour of individual workers in

organisations, Adeyemo and Ogunyemi (2005), assert that self efficacy is assumed to be a predictor of leader behaviour and would affect the execution of effective leadership. Contemporary leadership literature also describes a successful leader as a persistent, self confident, energetic, assertive and goal-directed leader (Yukl 1994). Self efficacy is believed to influence one to become goal driven, whereas task oriented leadership emphasises goals. Conceptualisation of this knowledge facilitates the following hypotheses to be proposed:

H1:   *Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher self efficacy will enhance task-oriented leadership style.*

Literature also links transformational leadership behaviours with self efficacy by suggesting that leaders with transformational behaviours increase followers' self efficacy (Strauss, Griffin, and Rafferty 2009). Transformational leadership behaviour is highly correlated with relationship style leadership (Molero, Cuadrado, Navas et al. 2007).

H2:   *Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher relationship-oriented approach will promote self efficacy.*

Negative stereotyping, 'double bind' effects and tokenism have a negative influence on women's perceptions of themselves as leaders (Adeyemo and Ogunyemi 2005). This often affects their self confidence and in pursuing their goals as doubt begins to form in their minds about their ability to succeed (Dickerson and Taylor 2000). However, as the sample being tested does not contain working class average females, but extremely high profile and assertive women in high profile positions, they are not expected to be very different from males in their self efficacy. It is therefore hypothesised:

H3:   *Females and males will not differ significantly in their self efficacy scores*

RELATIONSHIP OF EI, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

As a critical factor for individual behaviour in organisations (Adeyemo and Ogunyemi 2005), EI is believed to be highly correlated with professionally successful people (Goleman 1998a). It has also become quite popular as an attribute of responsible leadership (Sosick and Megerian 1999). Indeed, emotionally intelligent leaders are thought to be happier and more committed to the organisation (Abraham 2000), achieve greater success (Miller 1999), perform better in the workplace (Goleman 1998a; Goleman 1998b; Watkins and Marsick 1992; Watkin 2000), take advantage and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning (George 2000), and use emotions to improve their decision making and instil a sense of enthusiasm, trust and corporation in their employees through interpersonal relationships (George 2000). Goleman et al. (2001) state that high levels of emotional intelligence creates healthy climates in which learning flourishes and promotes information sharing, trust and healthy risk taking, whereas low levels of emotional intelligence gives organisations a climate that is rife with fear and anxiety. High performing managers have a significantly higher 'emotional competence' (Cavallo and Brienza 1998). It is argued that professionally successful people have high emotional intelligence in addition to traditional cognitive intelligence or specialised content knowledge (Goleman 1998 c). Thus, EI has, over the years, gained recognition as a discipline that encompasses the intangible aspects of human capital. Besides having a strong link for effective leadership, EI is also related in various degrees to many other aspects of leadership and to gender.

Goleman (2000a) claims that six distinct styles of leadership, namely; coercive, authoritative, affiliative, democratic, pacesetting and coaching leaders spring from different components of EI. Both males and females generally have the same level of El, however, men and women as groups tend to have a shared, gender-specific profile of strong and weak points (Bar-On 1997). Women are also generally more aware of their emotions, show more empathy, and are more adept interpersonally. Men, on the other hand, are more self confident and optimistic, and can handle stress better. Furthermore, there are many similarities between the 'ability' model of EI (Mayer and Salovey 1997) and the attributes of relationship style leadership. These

links provide intuitive grounds on which to examine the relationship between EI and relationship-style leadership. The theoretical links warrant empirical investigation of EI as a predictor of effective leadership, especially of responsible leadership. Literature is rife with EI and effective leadership (Palmer, Walls, Burgess et al. 2001), and effective leaders have also been identified constantly with transformational rather than transactional traits. Transformational styles are softer styles and more tuned to relationship oriented approaches. Furthermore, females and their behaviour have been described as communal, which is very much related to the components of EI, while males have been described as agentic (Eagly and Carli 2007a). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4:   *Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assume to influence EI and association of task orientation and EI is predicted to be negative.*

H5:   *Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assume to influence EI and association of relationship orientation and EI is predicted to be positive.*

H6:   *Females will score higher in EI components compared to males.*

H7:   *Females will sport more relationship-oriented behaviour*

RELATIONSHIP OF PDM, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

Studies suggest that people in authority view participation as a threat to their own power. Crandall and Parnell (2001) stated that resistance towards participation from those in power arises from the perception that participation may undermine their autonomy, and control or threaten their job security, suggesting possible individual differences towards PDM strategies. In order to accommodate participation strategies, it is often obligatory to change management styles (Schlesinger and Klein 1987; Stewart and Manz 1997; Heller, Pusic, Strauss et al. 1998), which is often met with reluctance. This suggests that a flexible approach needs to be employed to

accommodate PDM strategies. An overview of this information thus presents the following two hypotheses:

H8:   *Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be positively associated with relationship-style leadership*

H9:   *Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be negatively associated with task-style leadership*

Studies, although inconclusive, reveal that there are marked differences in responses of males and females to PDM where male managers embrace participation interventions more than females (Parnell and Crandall 2001). The position of women in the labour force, as a significant source of highly skilled and qualified labour and as professional and technical workers, is not matched by an equivalent contribution in decision making (Corner 1997). Furthermore, despite inconclusive arguments to the benefits of PDM, participation in decision making is nevertheless associated with job satisfaction and performance and is considered an ethical imperative. Consequently, it is of interest to understand the technicalities of participatory interventions and how gender affects PDM.

In a study conducted by Parnel and Crandall (2001) it was found that there were marked differences in the responses of males and females to PDM. It is, therefore, assumed that male managers are more inclined towards participation interventions compared to females. An overview of this information presents the foundation for the following hypothesis.

H10:   *It is envisaged that gender will intervene the association between participation in decision making and leadership style and females are expected to support participation in decision making significantly more than males.*

RELATIONSHIP OF FORMALISATION, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

Despite its negative influences, formalisation is seen as imperative to coordinate the efforts of employees (Agarwal 1993), and to enhance greater authority over subordinate behaviour (Aiken and Hage 1966). With its controlling mechanism, formalisation also acts as a leadership substitute and influences leadership styles. In fact empirical findings from 132 Taiwan SMEs (small and medium enterprises) suggest relationships between formalisation and leadership styles (Lee 2008). Hence, it is of interest to investigate the degree to which formalisation is a determinant of responsible leadership in males and females.

Formalisation is a regulatory context that deals with rules and regulations regarding procedural documentation and how the procedures of an organisation are documented, and the extent to which work roles are defined by the organisation (Johns and Saks 2005). Therefore, formalisation normalises tasks and controls employee conduct, through rules and regulations. This indicates that the process and implementation is a very task oriented work. According to Lee (2008), relationships between formalisation and leadership styles exist. Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) established that there is a relationship between gender, leadership style and formalisation, and that both male and females would carry out tasks similarly when bounded by the same rules. In view of available literature, it is predicted that since formalisation is a regulatory component required to set norms for the performance of tasks, it would be similarly accomplished irrespective of gender. The following relationships are thus proposed.

H11:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which is scored as job codification and rule observation will be positively associated with task leadership style.*

H12:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which*

is scored as job codification and rule observation will be negatively associated with relationship leadership style.

H13:   *Males and females will not differ significantly in their formalisation scores.*

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN, OCB, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

A review of the literature on gender differences indicates that the debate is on task versus relationship-oriented behaviour. One of the most well reported empirical frameworks of leadership is said to be the 'Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness' developed by Fiedler (1964) who asserted that leadership effectiveness is the result of the interaction between the style of the leader and the situational factors of the leadership environment in which the leader works. The contribution of personality factors that were used in Fiedler's model, which are relationship-oriented and task-orientated leadership styles, are explored in terms of their influence as personal values in generating outcomes leading to responsible leadership.

Task oriented style of leadership, defined as a style of leadership focused on accomplishment of goals and meeting deadlines, is often associated with males and their way of managing and leading (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). Relationship style or interpersonally-oriented style, on the other hand, are defined as a style of leadership that is concentrated on building relationships and acknowledging and recognising people's worth, rather than emphasising the achievement of goals. Consequently, males are associated with task oriented leadership styles that depict aggressive, competitive, and domineering styles, while females are attributed with relation oriented behaviours that focus on communication, and building positive relationships (Ashmore, Del Boca, and Wohlers 1986; Cooper and Lewis.S 1999; Gardiner and Tiggemann 1999; Helgesen 1990; Mintzberg 1996; Olsson 2000; Powell 1990; Rosener 1995; Rosener, McAllister, and Stephens 1990; Eagley and Karau.S.J 2002; Eagley and Carli 2007). Review of leadership literature by Witherspoon (1997) also evidences that men assume more task roles, are more opinionated, are more argumentative, and do not

disclose personal information. Men also exhibit domineering behaviour in decision making, discussions, are less receptive and critical of opinions and ideas other than their own. Women are found to assume fostering roles, seek opinions and explanation, practice more disclosure about information, and are more supportive of other speakers. Witherspoon (1997) also found that women also strive to evade conflict and confrontations through compromises and talking through problems. Close examination of the debates reveal more complex findings than acknowledged by the advocates of difference or the advocates of similarity.

Organisational citizenship behaviours are behaviours that are discretionary and not part of an employee's job description, but promote the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ 1988). According to Podsakoff et al. (1990), previous theoretical and empirical research implies that transformational leader behaviours influence extra role or organisational citizenship behaviours. However, their own study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman et al. 1990) found that while transformational behaviour had an indirect influence on OCB, transactional behaviours had a direct positive effect on OCB. As transformational and transactional leaders correlate highly with relationship-oriented leadership and task-oriented leadership respectively, it is thereby assumed both transformational and transactional behaviours promote OCB. Findings from Smith et al. (1983) are similar, where a leader's individualised support behaviour (one of transformational leader behaviours) influences conscientiousness, a component of OCB. Research has also shown that transformational leaders motivate followers to perform beyond expectations. It has been found that higher superior–subordinate relationship (Ishak 2005) and attitudinal measures, such as leaders' supportiveness (Organ and Ryan 1995) influences the subordinates to perform OCB. Furthermore, demographic variables such as gender have been suggested to extract OCB as well (Farh, Earley, and Lin 1997). However, evidences emerge for males and females to be positively linked to OCB but to different dimensions of OCB (Farrell and Finkelstein 2007) with females positively linked to helping behaviour, while males were positively linked with civic virtue which is an agentic behaviour. It is, therefore, hypothesised:

H14:   *Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and task leadership style will have a negative impact on OCB.*

H15:   *Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and relationship leadership style will have a positive impact on OCB.*

H16:   *Females and males will be influenced differently from OCB.*

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OL, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

Continuous learning is a key driver of the ability of an organisation to remain adaptive and flexible in turbulent environments (Burke, Stagl, Klein et al. 2006). In a learning organisation, where people are constantly expanding their capacities to shape their future, leaders act as designers, teachers and stewards and to do that leaders require new skills: the knack to build shared vision, challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking (Zagorsek, Dimovski, and Skerlavaj 2009).

As stated by Burke et al (2006), cited in Zagorsek et al. (2009), continuous learning is a key driver of an organisation's ability to remain adaptive and flexible in the turbulent environments that organisations work within. Given the significance of organisational learning for corporate performance, understanding ways in which managers can influence the learning process in organisations is becoming increasingly important. According to Vera and Crossan (2004), literature rarely addresses leadership and organisational learning, only a few empirical studies exist to date, and even in these the impact of leadership on organisational learning was not the primary research focus. Transformational leadership is said to be one of the most important means of developing learning organisations, although recent theoretical developments emphasise the importance of a contingent approach (Vera and Crossan 2004). Recent research in the Israeli non-profit sector (schools) verified the relationship between organisational learning and leadership style with transformational leadership sporting a significant positive direct effect on

organisational learning (β = .21) (Kurland, Hertz-Lazarowitz, and Peretz 2006) and transactional leadership showing a positive but a weaker (β = .15) relationship. Given that transformational leadership values are similar to relationship oriented characteristics, it is hypothesised

H17:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL, and OL will have a positive influence on relationship-oriented leadership style.*

H18:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL and OL will have a negative influence on task-oriented leadership style.*

Examining gender and its influence on OL is important. A study exploring how the learning process is managed and developed, which staff are drawn into the process, and how the organisational memory is developed within female and male run organisations, found that stronger patterns of internal communication exist (which aid organisational learning) within female-managed firms when compared with male-run firms. As a result, it is argued that communication needed for organisational learning is facilitated by females more than males (Martin 2001). Therefore, it is hypothesised

H19:   *Females are inclined towards organisational learning habits more than men.*

RELATIONSHIP OF JOB SATISFACTION, GENDER AND LEADERSHIP

At a time when female employment is fast becoming a necessity, job satisfaction and its dynamics in relation to gender are of utmost importance. Research conducted in Canada suggested that there are definite gender differences observed in the way male and females respond to the work culture in terms of job satisfaction (Phillips, Little, and Goodine 1996). This study showed that in comparison to males, female managers attest more importance to the effect of organisational environment on their

work projects and experiences. It was also found that a sense of fairness within the organisational climate, the degree of worker and the supervisor support has impacts on women's work satisfaction, while men found other factors such as the absence of impediments in carrying out their projects as a more critical factor in determining their job satisfaction. Although such findings point towards the eminently logical conclusion that job satisfaction results in better performance and leads to more productivity, this has not been proven. Indeed, Murray (1999) writes that several studies conducted to ascertain a positive association and high productivity has resulted in inconclusive results. Nevertheless, indirect links to job performance has been found through the studies conducted between OCB and job satisfaction. Fisher and Locke (1992) have produced more successful results in their attempts to establish a positive correlation between job satisfaction and OCB.

Work experiences have profound effects on both the individual employee and society as a whole. According to Woods (1993), employees have certain expectations when they join an organisation and if they are not fulfilled, it is likely to result in decline in job satisfaction and increased turnover. As stated by Singh and Pestonjee (1974), leadership consideration is more favourable to job satisfaction compared to task-structured leaders, who show less concern for employees and are high on initiating structure.

> *"Leader behaviour characterised as high on initiating structure led to greater rates of grievances, absenteeism, and turnover and lower levels of job satisfaction for workers performing routine tasks."*
> (Robbins 1998, 350)

A positive relationship is also indirectly linked to relationship-oriented behaviour through the association of job satisfaction with transformational leadership (Rossmiller 1992). It can, therefore, be concluded that association between job satisfaction and concern for people or consideration, or relationship-oriented behaviour is more highly related than task structured style of leadership and job satisfaction. Recent studies have revealed that in the labour force as a whole, women generally express themselves as more satisfied with their jobs than men (Ward and Sloane 2000). Clark (1997) ascertains that, although by most objective standards women's jobs are worse than men's, women report higher levels of job satisfaction

than do men and that is related to lower expectation on the part of women. An overview of this information presents the underpinning for the hypotheses:

H20:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be positively associated with relationship leadership style.*

H21:   *Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with task style leadership.*

H22:   *It is predicted that Gender will influence the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership style females would score higher job satisfaction compared to males.*

A total of 22 hypotheses have been generated. These hypotheses are summarised as Table 2-1.

Table 2-1   Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Description
H1	*Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher self efficacy will enhance task-oriented leadership style*
H2	*Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher relationship oriented approach will promote self efficacy.*
H3	*Females and males will not differ significantly in their self efficacy scores*
H4	*Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assumed to influence EI and association of task orientation and EI is predicted to be negative*
H5	*Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assumed to influence EI and association of relationship orientation and EI is predicted to be positive*
H6	*Females will score higher in EI components compared to males*
H7	*Females will sport more relationship-oriented behaviour*
H8	*Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be positively associated with relationship style leadership*
H9	*Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be negatively associated with task style leadership*
H10	*It is envisaged that gender will intervene the association between participation in decision making and leadership style and females are expected to support participation in decision making significantly more than males*
H11	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which is scored as job codification and rule observation will be positively associated with task leadership style*

Hypothesis	Description
H12	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which is scored as job codification and rule observation will be negatively associated with relationship leadership style.*
H13	*Males and females will not differ significantly in their formalisation scores.*
H14	*Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and task leadership style will have a negative impact on OCB.*
H15	*Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and relationship leadership style will have a positive impact on OCB.*
H16	*Females and males will be similarly influenced from OCB.*
H17	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL, and OL will have a positive influence on relationship-oriented leadership style.*
H18	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL and OL will have a negative influence on task-oriented leadership style.*
H19	*Females are inclined towards organisational learning habits more than men.*
H20	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be positively associated with relationship leadership style.*
H21	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with task style leadership.*
H22	*It is predicted that Gender will influence the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership style females would score higher job satisfaction compared to males.*

This chapter presented the literature pertaining to leadership, particularly responsible leadership in the context of gender, self efficacy, emotional intelligence, participation in decision making and formalisation. The emerging concepts such as organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational learning and job satisfaction were also discussed as outcomes of leadership behaviour. The process of hypotheses formulation and the resulting predictions are also summarised and presented as twenty hypotheses as shown in Table 2-1. The next chapter, Chapter Three, will discuss the methodology used to elucidate the hypotheses and also present the research questions which guided this study.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Chapter Three focuses on important aspects of the study research methodology. The research design, the study respondents and the study sites, the procedures involved, the instrumentation employed, and the data analysis are described. Furthermore, this chapter also details the issues concerning the reliability of the instruments and how the data was validated. In addition, assessment and various strategies used in collecting and analysing the data, as well as the rationale that guided the study and the research design, are also presented.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The study was designed to be a cross-cultural one-shot experiment using a pluralist approach. According to Glick (2002), conducting cross-cultural studies is of great importance due to globalisation and the consequent interrelationships of organisations across borders. Prominent researchers such as Teagarden et al. (1995) have argued the benefits of maintaining a balanced approach in research by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The research strategy was designed to emphasise the qualitative approach, although quantitative methods were also used in order to strengthen the study findings. Hence, data was collected both quantitatively by means of a questionnaire, and qualitatively through interviews with carefully selected high profile personnel from both study countries. Many other qualitative approaches were used prior to designing the questionnaire, implementing it and analysing the data. The subsequent changes to the questionnaire, modifications to the research design and the final evaluation using focus group feedback, were among the qualitative aspects of the research design. The research design also ensured that the chosen sample was representative of the two island nations and conformed to the pluralist approach.

The research design had five key objectives. The first objective was to obtain a balanced set of data for each study segment to justify a reasonable analysis. For instance, demographic aspects such as gender, age, managerial level, formal education, experience and work environment were examined from data in which there were reasonable sample numbers in partitioned categories. A second pertinent feature of the study design was that it was conducted on two island nations in the Indian Ocean. This is an important aspect of the study as there is little or no evidence of any comprehensive leadership related analysis such as this study, in either of these countries. The third objective was to undertake this research as a cross-cultural pluralist study (combination of quantitative and qualitative methods). The importance of conducting cross-cultural studies (Glick 2002) and the significance of employing pluralist approaches (Teagarden, Von Glinow, Bowen et al. 1995) have been well established. Hence, this study was conducted to incorporate contemporary requirements and to maintain a balance between quantitative and qualitative aspects. The fourth feature of importance in the study design was to utilise focus groups in each country to deepen and augment an understanding of the results obtained from the study. A fifth objective was to conduct interviews on the change masters of both countries (presidents past and present, ministers and CEOs/chairmen) and to run the quantitative study on their direct subordinates and themselves.

METHOD

Prior to conducting the study, a conceptual model was developed from contemporary literature. For the qualitative aspect, which is the focus of this study, appropriate questions that would address the research model were designed. A questionnaire was also constructed, utilising appropriate instruments for data collection. All the data measurement instruments were either original scales or adaptations of standard instruments that had been developed with North American and Western concepts and values. Therefore, some items were adjusted to provide greater understanding, sensitivity and clarity in the non-Western contexts where the study was conducted. Data was collected quantitatively by means of a questionnaire, and qualitatively through interviews. Other qualitative aspects of the study included a pilot study,

focus group discussions before and after the pilot study, refining of the questionnaire after feedback from focus groups, and focus group discussions to elucidate the results of the actual study.

RESPONDENTS AND SITE

A total of 25 prominent political and organisation change masters such as presidents past and present, ministers and CEOs from the Maldives and Sri Lanka were chosen for interviews. This number is considered to be sufficient in order to reach a saturation point (Lincoln and Guba 1985). For the quantitative analysis, 50 prominent organisation leaders from diverse backgrounds and organisations were selected from the Maldives and from Sri Lanka to administer the questionnaire. The study countries were chosen, primarily for convenience and relative accessibility to data. More importantly, the subjects were chosen because there is little or no evidence that any study of this nature has been conducted in either of the chosen countries, despite these countries steadily emerging as part of the global economy. In fact, according to the interviewees in the study countries, little if anything, is known about gender leadership behaviour in the context of this study, although there is increasing participation of women in managerial roles in these two nations.

PROCEDURE

The procedure involved in this research consisted of three main stages. The initial stage involved the literature review, the development of the research model, the design of the interview questions and the study questionnaire. The second stage involved the pilot study. The third and final stage included the administration of the interviews and the questionnaire and the preparation of the data for analysis and the evaluation of the data. The detailed actions involved in each of the three stages are as follows.

During the first stage of the research procedure, literature on gender leadership behaviour was reviewed. Over a period of months several research studies, journal articles, trade books and contemporary issues were examined. Based on these readings, a research question was identified and its importance established. A

conceptual model was then developed based on the literature and the research method was identified, thereby establishing the research design. At this stage it was decided that interviews would be conducted on change masters of the study countries, stressing the qualitative approach to the research. Based on the research design, interview questions were formulated along with a questionnaire to capture the quantitative data. The importance of using questionnaires was highlighted by Palomba and Banta (1999). Care was taken to keep the questionnaire as comprehensible, yet succinct, as possible, without compromising on the quality and the validity of the questions. An overriding consideration of the research design and the research strategy was to enhance a robust dataset that was relevant to the disciplines examined, as well as ensuring that the chosen sample was representative of the two island nations. A cover letter was attached to the questionnaire, explaining the purpose of the study with detailed instructions emphasising anonymity and voluntary participation of the participants, was given to the interviewees.

The second stage of the procedure involved conducting the pilot study. Interview questions were tested for their clarity by trialling them on a range of people from different backgrounds. Once clarity of the questions was established, they were finalised as interview questions to be used in the study. Sponsorship was sought from the two study countries, the Maldives and Sri Lanka. Influential contacts were sought for their support and sponsorship in administering the pilot study and the subsequent actions leading to the final data collection in their respective countries. The chosen sponsors played a pivotal role in organising the administration of the study. Administration of the pilot study was a vital element in the qualitative component of the study design. Over a period of three weeks, a total of 20 questionnaires were distributed to the chosen participants of the pilot study. Data from the pilot study was tested for its validity and reliability as the importance of using carefully constructed instruments that have been tested for their reliability and validity, was stressed by researchers such as Patton (1990). Focus group discussions and interviews followed the completion of the administration of the pilot study questionnaire. The discussions and interviews were undertaken to identify and address any nomenclature problems that the participants may have encountered in answering the questionnaire. After careful assessment of the responses offered by the participants of the pilot study and the focus group, the questionnaire was

modified to accommodate the feedback and comments, whereby enhancing its clarity and understanding. For example, some questions were changed to the first person singular to enhance clarity for the participants. These qualitative assessments underpinned the preparation of the study questionnaire presented in Appendix A.

The third stage of the procedure involved collection of the actual data. The interview process followed the in depth, face-to-face, semi-structured interview approach (Fontana and Frey 1994) often referred to as a conversation with a purpose (Kahn and Cannel 1957). This approach enabled the participants to express their views freely. Interviews were conducted using voice recorders to capture the perceptions of the participants and to ensure that the subsequent analysis was valid and meaningful (Johnson 2001). The data was transcribed verbatim into word documents in preparation for the analysis. For the quantitative component of the study, the previously amended questionnaires were also administered for actual data collection. Final data collection was executed by sending 50 questionnaires to each sponsor in the respective countries. The questionnaire emphasised voluntary participation and anonymity and upon completion, the questionnaires were collected by the designated sponsors and were delivered to the agreed address. Upon receiving the questionnaires, they were coded with appropriate labels. The demographic responses were numerically coded and the remaining responses were recorded in terms of numerical scores to the items. Upon completion of the coding, data was accurately entered into a computer file in preparation for data analysis.

INSTRUMENTATION

Data was collected using both interviews as well as a questionnaire. The interviews were conducted using 19 questions and other items, which are prompt questions as shown in Appendix B. These questions were designed to capture attributes that are likely to be perceived by change masters of the study countries, as being important in executing responsible leadership. A questionnaire consisting of nine parts that was used to capture the quantitative data is presented as Appendix A. The data was obtained by using normal instruments and interval scales. The first part of the eight part questionnaire assessed the demographic constructs of gender, age, level of education, organisational level, experience and organisational gender ratio. These are

nominal data and can be used to partition information. Interval data was obtained using a variety of seven point scales. For example, self efficacy was assessed in the fifth section of the questionnaire. The third section of the questionnaire evaluated emotional intelligence. The fourth section of the questionnaire measured participation in decision making and formalisation. Leadership behaviour was assessed as the fifth section of the questionnaire. The sixth section measured organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction was assessed in the seventh section of the questionnaire. The eighth section investigated organisational learning. Most of the instrumentation used to measure the data, were standard instruments, however, some of the instruments were modified to accommodate the country specific details and to enhance better understanding by the respondents. For example, some sentences were changed in the instruments that measured leadership styles and assessed emotional intelligence, to provide more understanding and clarity. Construct delineation follows.

DEMOGRAPHICS

The demographic data was collected by assessing gender, age, formal education level, and managerial level (Appendix A, Section 1). In addition, respondent status was also assessed in terms of experience and organisational gender ratio.

SELF EFFICACY

Self efficacy was assessed using 'The General Self Efficacy Scale' (GSE). This is a 10 item psychometric, unidimensional scale that is designed to measure optimistic self beliefs. In essence, it measures a general sense of perceived self efficacy (Schwarzer 1992). This scale is an adaptation of the original German version scale that was developed by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1992). This instrument has been successfully used in 27 languages in the international arena for the past two decades. Its validity has also been established in many correlation studies (Schwarzer and Jerusalem 1995). In samples from 23 nations, the Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.76 to 0.90, with the majority occurring in the high 0.80s. Previous experiments have shown that the scale is parsimonious and reliable and has proven valid in terms of convergent and discriminant validity (Schwarzer and Born 1997a). For example, it

correlates positively with self esteem and optimism, and negatively with anxiety, depression and physical symptoms.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Although there are more than 60 emotional intelligence inventories (Schutte and Malouff 1999) to assess this construct, only three stand out as useful business tools (Goleman 1995). They were EQ-i (Bar-On 1997), MSCEIT-Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso 1999) and ECI-Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee 1999). The ECI is a multi-rater instrument that provides self, manager, direct report and peer ratings on a series of behavioural indicators of emotional intelligence, based on the emotional competencies identified by Goleman (1998b). Previous research has shown the ECI to have high levels of internal consistency (Boyatzis and Burckle 1999a). The instrument that assessed emotional intelligence for this study is shown in Appendix A, Section 3. The scale was a 25 item instrument that was adapted from Weisinger (1998) which was developed from the emotional competencies suggested by Goleman (1998b) on which ECI was developed.

This instrument has been designed to measure five components of emotional intelligence namely; self awareness, managing emotions, motivating yourself, empathy and social skill. Respondents addressed each of the 25 items in terms of a seven point numerical scale; 1= very rarely, 2= rarely, 3= slightly rarely, 4= neither rarely nor often, 5=slightly often, 6= often, 7= very often. All questions are shown in Appendix A, Section 3, and have been categorised as:

- Self awareness   -   questions, 1, 6, 11, 16 and 21
- Managing emotions   -   questions 2, 7, 12, 17 and 22
- Motivating yourself   -   questions 3, 8, 13, 18 and 23
- Empathy   -   questions 4, 9, 14, 19 and 24
- Social skills   -   questions 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25

There were no reverse items.

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING

A four item instrument that was adopted from Hage and Aiken (1967), was used to assess participation in decision making (Questions, 3, 6, 9 and 11 - Appendix A, Section 4). Construct validity of the scale was confirmed by Factor analysis. There were no reverse items.

FORMALISATION

An instrument adapted from Hage and Aiken (1967) measured formalisation. This instrument consisting of seven items containing two sub-construct components: job codification and rule observation. Questions 1, 2, 5, 7 and 8 (Appendix B, Section 4) measured job codification, and questions 4 and 10 assessed rule observation. Factor analysis established the robustness of the scale. The data of the questionnaire in Appendix A, Section 4 containing instruments for participation in decision making and formalisation, was measured using a seven point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

LEADERSHIP STYLE

A 20 item scale (Appendix A, Section 2) was used to measure the degree of task oriented style of leadership or relationship oriented leadership behaviour. Although the origin of the research instrument can be traced to Fleishman ((1953), the version used in this research was an adaptation of a sub-scale of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) derived from the same research programme as the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ X 11) (Cook, Hepworth, Wall et al. 1981; Stogdill 1963). The instrument's popularity in recent empirical research and the subsequent information about its psychometric properties and correlates (Cook, Hepworth, Wall et al. 1981) influenced its choice as the research instrument for this study. Respondents addressed each of the 20 items in terms of a seven point scale: 1= very rarely, 2= rarely, 3= slightly rarely, 4= neither rarely nor often, 5=slightly often, 6= often, 7= very often. Questions, 1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16 and 18 (Appendix A, Section 2) measured task style and questions 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 15, 17, 19 and 20 (Appendix A, Section 2) measured relationship style. Reverse items in the

original questionnaire were removed as this led to confusion in understanding the questions, and therefore, there were no reverse items in this scale.

ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)

A scale developed by Podsakoff *et al.* ((1990) was adapted to construct the measure that assessed organisational citizenship behaviour. This construct was made up of 24 items consisting of five dimensions mentioned by Organ (Organ 1988), and are shown in Appendix A 4, Section 6. They were:

- Sportsmanship   -   questions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
- Altruism   -   questions 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10
- Courtesy   -   questions 11, 12, 13 and 14
- Civic virtue   -   questions15, 16, 17, 18 and 19
- Conscientiousness   -   questions 20, 21, 22, 23 and 24

A seven point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree) was employed to measure the dimensions that make up OCB. The popularity of this instrument as a measure of OCB (Moorman 1991; Niehoff and Moorman 1993) and provided the basis for its choice as the instrument to be employed in this study.

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction (Appendix A, Section 7), will be measured using a five item scale developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) as cited in Cook et al. (1981). Two items were reversed (Item 2 and 5).

ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

Organisation learning measure (Appendix A, Section 8), was an adaptation of the 'climate for innovation measure' that was developed by Scott and Bruce (1994) as an extension to the 'innovative climate measure' originally calibrated by Siegel and Kaemmerer (1978) measuring two dimensions namely; support for innovation (Questions 1, 2, 3, 4 of Appendix A, Section 8) and resource supply (Questions 5, 6, 7, 8 of Appendix A, Section 8). Previous studies using this measure have produced

high reliability with Cronbch's alpha being 0.99 for support for innovation, and 0.77 for resource supply (Scott and Bruce 1994).

ANALYSIS

Qualitative Data was examined using a powerful tool developed by QSR named NVivo 7, which is software that combines the best features of both N6 and NVivo2. Using this software, the interviews were coded and appropriate nodes were generated which were then analysed for emerging themes. The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences). To evaluate the data and to elucidate understanding, the following tables were created:

1. *Demographics*
2. *Correlation analysis* to ascertain the significance of relationships among the examined variables using SPSS
3. *Regression Analysis* to detect interesting interactive effects on the hypotheses and mediated regression
4. *T-test procedures* to compare responses across demographic categories
5. *Focus Groups* to validate and understand the data.

Focus group contributions provide qualitative data which then supplemented and clarified the quantitative results. According to Downs (1988), obtaining qualitative data is invaluable to interpret data from questionnaires. In fact, according to Stainback and Stainback (1988), it is ascertained that a holistic description of events, procedures, and philosophies occurring in natural settings is often needed to make accurate situational decisions. The resulting feedback from focus group elicited ideas, opinions and experiences.

CONCLUSION

Chapter Three describes the research methodology employed in conducting the study on the conceptual model. The research design was discussed in terms of the respondents, study site and the procedure used, and the measures that were employed to assess various organisational and personal attributes of the study subjects. The

method of data collection, employing both the qualitative and quantitative approaches, was also delineated. The tools used in data analysis and how the data were examined were also outlined in this chapter. The next chapter, Chapter Four, will present and discuss the results of the data analyses.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Chapter Four presents the results of both the qualitative and the quantitative analysis of the study. Qualitative data analysis for the interview themes are presented first, followed by the quantitative study results with factor analysis, reliabilities, correlations and regression analysis. A summary of the hypotheses are then presented.

INTRODUCTION

Qualitative data was collected through interviews of prominent and highly eminent leaders from the government and international corporations, such as presidents (past and present), ministers and their deputies, ambassadors, business moguls from mega organisations and high profile consultants from Sri Lanka and the Maldives. Among them were 14 males and 11 females; with 13 being from Maldives and 12 from Sri Lanka. Of the 13 respondents from Maldives, eight are males and five are females. The 12 respondents from Sri Lanka were made up of six males and six females. About a third of the respondents are prominent businesspersons leading international organisations. The rest of the respondents are in eminent positions of government, either heading Ministries or diplomatic missions abroad, leading governments or having led governments in the recent past. The average age of the participants of the qualitative aspect of this study was 54.5 years of age. Quantitative data was collected by means of questionnaires administered to two island nations of the Maldives and Sri Lanka.

THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The key concepts that emerged from the interviews were modelled using the NVivo 7 software and tables were created to reflect demographic details to assist in the analysis. Altogether, nine different aspects were explored. For the purpose of this

study, certain decisions were made in categorising the themes by grouping certain excerpts. In some cases, some of the questions that would enhance the exploration of the key research questions were analysed using more than one method in order to verify and compare the results. The tabulation of the emerging values for this second method of analysis was carried out by an independent person who had no knowledge of what themes emerged with the software. This was done in order to make sure that the emerging values were not at all influenced by the themes that emerged and to see whether these themes would differ. Other questions were analysed only basically as some of the data generated was beyond the scope of this study, although they helped elucidate the meaning of the study results.

QUALITIES FOR SUCCESSFUL LEADERSHIP

Table 4-1 and Figure 4-1 present the responses to the themes and sub themes across country and gender. The qualities or themes were identified in the far left column of Table 4-1 and the responses for each theme were given by country and gender in the four central columns. The total column indicates the number of respondents who provided responses to the themes while the references column gives the total responses for a theme or sub theme. An important feature of Table 4-1 is that the theme 'Credibility,' and 'People Skills' attracted the highest rates and, in turn, their sub themes also attracted the attention of the respondents. One female respondent from Sri Lanka wrapped up the importance of credibility for a leader in Asian context as she said,

> *"...In my view a successful leader should have a passion, for what he she is doing....a total commitment and dedication towards result oriented leadership and to excel in performance...to lead by example and be genuine and sincere in....whatever decisions you make and in your relationships with the people you work with. I think ultimately it boils down to credibility that people respect and I am quite convinced that you cannot demand respect just because you hold a leadership position. You have to earn it, by showing your subordinates that you are really interested in pursuing the success of the organisation than in your own self or having a vested interest in the organisation and the industry."* (FSRL=female from Sri Lanka)

Next in importance to the respondents, were the themes of 'Organisational Learning', 'Contingency Approach' and Participatory Approach. Paradoxically,

because leadership is understood to be about forward thinking, the primary theme of 'Visionary' attracted the least number of responses of all the primary themes. Overall, the respondents considered that successful leadership was primarily a function of credibility, and exercising people skills with lesser importance being attached to contextual learning and participation. The comparatively low importance for 'Vision' suggests the respondents believe contextual parameters necessitate that successful leaders need to be utilitarian and transactional. Nevertheless, it must be noted that the comments that were generated, though few in comparison, contained strong words highlighting the importance of vision. One of very experienced Sri Lankan leader confirmed this as he said,

> *"...I like to think that I am a result oriented leader and therefore, which obviously means that one becomes a task oriented leader, and I would say,...my leadership...is based on practical necessities rather than on any ideological dogma. Especially in this day and age, I think one must be an idealist, one must have a vision, one must have an even impossible vision, but at the same time, one must be a pragmatist. So the best leader in short, I would say is a pragmatic idealist and I'd like to think of myself as one."* (MSRL=male from Sri Lanka)

Most of the responses clearly reflect the perceptions of the respondents towards important qualities for successful leadership in an Asian context. One of the respondent's statements summarises what was generally perceived by all the respondents as qualities important for successful leadership in the Asian environment. He said,

> *"I believe that a successful leader should have foresight and futuristic thinking, good communication skills, passion for public interest, appreciation for inclusiveness, participation and sharing ownership, thirst for information and developments around, high morality, appreciation for cultures, variety and flexibility, care for good physical and mental health, high respect for law, rules and regulation."*

It is interesting to note that very few of the leaders used the word 'authoritative' or 'authority', and when it was used it was used in a way that does not give the impression of harshness that is usually associated with the word. A statement from one of the respondents confirms this. *"...a successful leader should also be authoritative, but again it should be exercised with caution under justifiable conception of what is ethical and moral, right or wrong..."* While most of the

responses are similar across countries and gender, of significance is the difference in responses towards 'visionary' by the countries as well as gender. Furthermore, low response towards some constructs such as 'achievement of goals', dedication and perseverance, and OCB was also noted.

Figure 4-1   **Qualities for Successful Leadership**
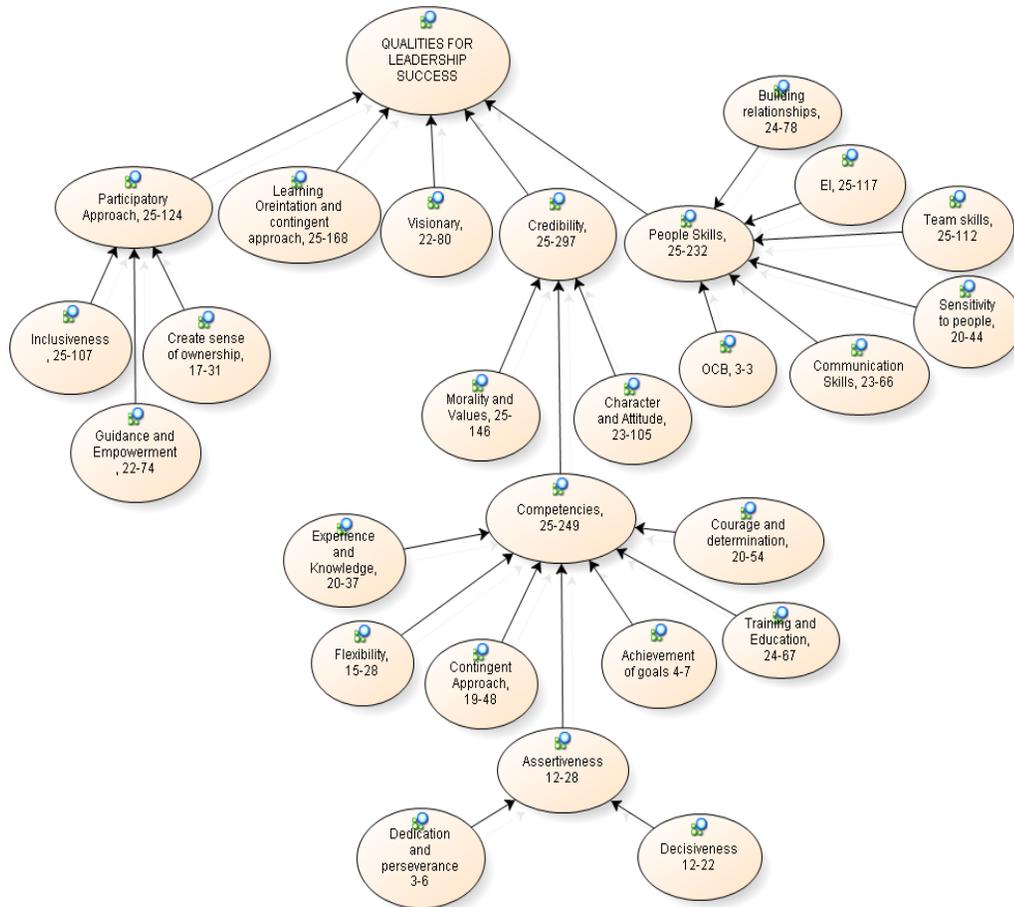
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item.   For example for 'Visionary' (22-80) means that there were 22 respondents and 80 references were made to the idea of 'visionary'.

Table 4-1   Qualities for Successful Leadership

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER			REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)	Total	
Credibility	13	12	14	11	25	297
Character and attitude	12	11	14	9	23	105
Competencies	13	12	14	11	25	249
Courageousness and determination	10	10	13	7	20	54
Experience and Knowledge	9	11	13	7	20	37
Achievement of goals	2	2	1	3	4	7
Contingent approach	9	10	10	9	19	48
Assertiveness	4	8	7	5	12	28
Decisiveness	4	8	7	5	12	22
Dedication and perseverance	1	2	1	2	3	6
Training and education	12	12	13	11	24	67
Flexibility	8	7	10	5	15	28
Morality and values	13	12	14	11	25	146
Learning Orientation and contingent approach	13	12	14	11	25	168
People Skills	13	12	14	11	25	232
Communication skills	12	11	14	9	23	66
Emotional Intelligence	13	12	14	11	25	117
Building relationships	12	12	13	11	24	78
Sensitivity to People,	10	10	9	11	20	44
Team Skills	13	12	14	11	25	112
OCB	1	2	0	3	3	3
Visionary	13	9	14	8	22	80
Participatory Approach	13	12	14	11	25	124
Creates sense of ownership	9	8	8	9	17	31
Guidance and empowerment	12	10	12	10	22	74
inclusiveness	13	12	14	11	25	107

As this question is one of the key questions that will elucidate the qualities for responsible leadership, a different method was also used to validate the findings and to verify the concepts that emerged. In this method, key words that emerged from the interviews which are relevant in management and leadership, and relevant values inferred from the discourses though not exact in terminology, were marked out as 'values.'   Some values such as *courage*, *risk taking* and *initiative* were lumped

together while related values such as *firm*, *decisive,* and *authoritative* were taken as a separate independent set in order to simplify that number of categories of values.

The key values that emerged from all interviews and their scores for the Maldives and Sri Lanka as manually identified by an independent party are shown on Table 4-2.   In terms recurring values from all interviews, the order of values is weighted and presented in Table 4-2.   The main leadership quality identified by all respondents is *Vision* followed by *Trust/Integrity.*

Table 4-2   Values

	VALUES	Sri Lanka	Maldives	Total
1	Vision	10	9	19
2	Trust/Integrity	8	9	17
3	EQ / empathy	7	9	16
4	Listening	5	11	16
5	Communication	7	8	15
6	Firm/decisive/authoritative	5	5	10
7	Knowledge/analysis	3	6	9
8	Motivational skills	3	6	9
9	Courage/risk taking/initiative	3	6	9
10	Delegation/participate/inclusive	5	4	9
11	Innovation	3	5	8
12	Positive thinking/optimism	2	5	7
13	Intuition	3	3	6
14	Charisma	2	4	6
15	Implementation	2	4	6
16	Passion	3	2	5
17	Plans	3	1	4
18	Coach/mentor	1	2	3
19	Goals	1	2	3
20	Cool / patient	0	2	2
21	Humility	2	0	2
22	Arrogance	1	0	1

The overall order of significance of leadership qualities when compared to the *Ten3 global internet polls* (1000ventures.com) shown in Appendix "C", shows that perceived qualities for successful leadership can be different in various parts of the world. In the *Ten3 global survey* (Kotelnikov 2009) for example, *Vision* scored highest, followed by *Energising People*. This theme, *Energising People*, would be a combination of several other values. A distinct difference is that *Trust*/*Integrity* and

EQ is much more important for the respondents of this study in comparison to the global survey.

Prevalent Leadership Qualities: For the purpose of this study, all the values or leadership qualities that the respondents mentioned directly or are inferred from their narratives were categorised in three groups: 'task,' 'relationship' and 'communal' as shown in Figure 4-2.

Figure 4-2   Prevalent Leadership Traits

Task Traits

Firm, Decisive, Authoritative
Arrogance
Intuition
Plans
Goals

Relationship Traits

Delegation, Participate/inclusive
Humility
Listening
Motivational skills
EQ/Empathy
Coach/mentor
Cools/patient
Innovation

Communal Traits
Passion
Charisma
Implementation
Knowledge analysis
Communication
Trust/Integrity
Positive thinking/Optimism
Goals
Courage/Risk taking/Initiative

Those values that are used by people in power who are inclined towards both authoritarian styles as well as decentralised styles of leadership, and can thus be both task and relationship were categorised as 'Communal traits.' From this categorisation, it is clear that most of the respondents adhered mainly to relationship style and communal values, and very few respondents were inclined towards task traits. To assess the variation by nationality and gender, graphs and tables were

created. Data for the Graph 4.1 to Graph 4.9 inclusive were generated from the Table shown in Appendix D.

Variations by Nationality: As shown in Table 4-3, while the responses in general suggest that both nationalities are more relationship oriented, it appears that Maldivians are slightly more relationship oriented than the Sri Lankans.

Table 4-3   Values by Nationality

Relationship	Sri Lanka	Maldives	Communal	Sri Lanka	Maldives	Task	Sri Lanka	Maldives
Delegation/Participate /Inclusive	5	4	Passion	3	2	Firm/Decisive /Authoritative	5	5
Humility	2	0	Charisma	2	4	Arrogance	3	0
Listening	5	11	Knowledge/analysis	3	6	Plans	3	1
Motivational skills	3	6	Trust/Integrity	8	9	Goals	1	2
EQ / empathy	7	10	Positive thinking /optimism	2	5	Implementation	2	4
Coach/mentor	1	2	Courage/Risk taking/Initiative	3	6			
Cool / patient	1	2	Vision	9	10			
Innovation	4	6						
Communication	6	8						
Intuition	3	3						
	36	51		30	42		12	12

Variations by Gender: Graph 4.3 depicts the inclination of males and females towards task values. These values were manually sought through the interview question. The analysis in Graph 4.1 reveals results that are different from what was expected based on stereotypically female traits. Females were found to perceive firm/decisive/authoritative values more than men as qualities for successful leadership, while men saw arrogance and achievement of goals as being of more significance. Values attached towards planning and implementation as successful leadership qualities were given equal importance by both males and females. Interestingly, similar values such as firmness and arrogance were perceived differently. Females scored significantly higher scores in firmness value, while males are glaringly more bent towards arrogance. Females valued arrogance as an unimportant quality.

Graph 4.1   Task Values by Gender
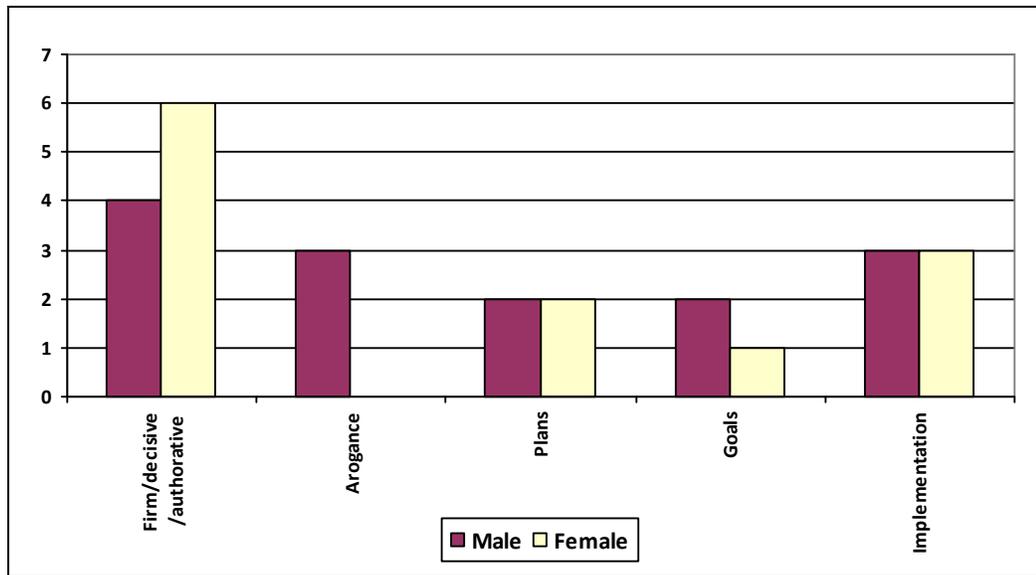
From Graph 4.2 it appears that females embrace relationship values more than their male counterparts in many respects. What was surprising was that intuition seems to be of less significance to females, and yet women have always been associated with being intuitive. Equal emphasis was given to values associated with listening and innovation by both males and females, while females perceived EQ and values of communication as being of more importance. Men scored higher in values of intuition, delegation, humility, and being a coach and a mentor in their perception of their significance towards attaining successful leadership.

Graph 4.2   Relationship Orientated Values by Gender
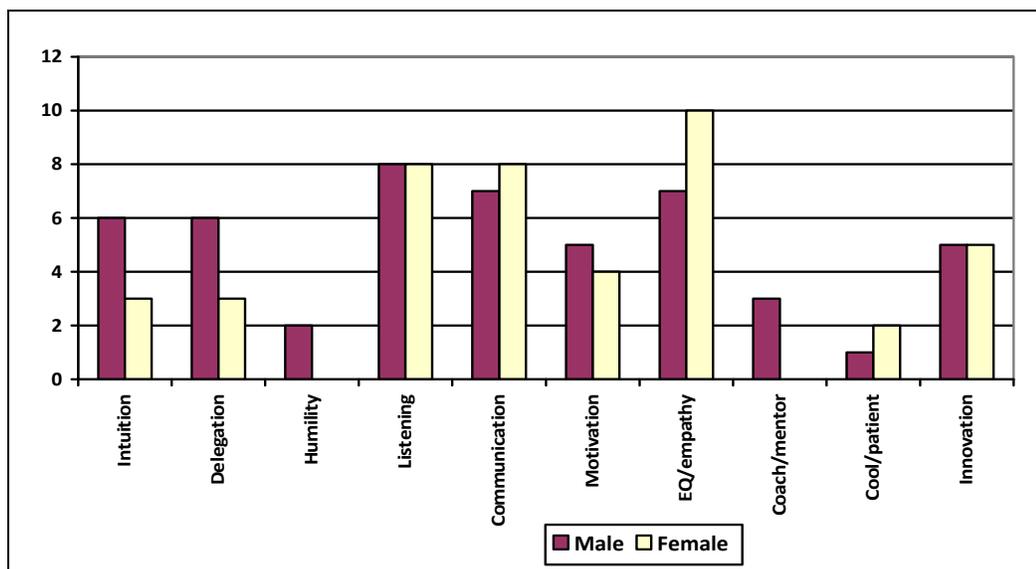
Shown in Graph 4.3 are the values towards communal traits by gender. Although the differences in terms of gender are minimal, males appear to embrace these values more than females.

Graph 4.3   Communal Values by Gender
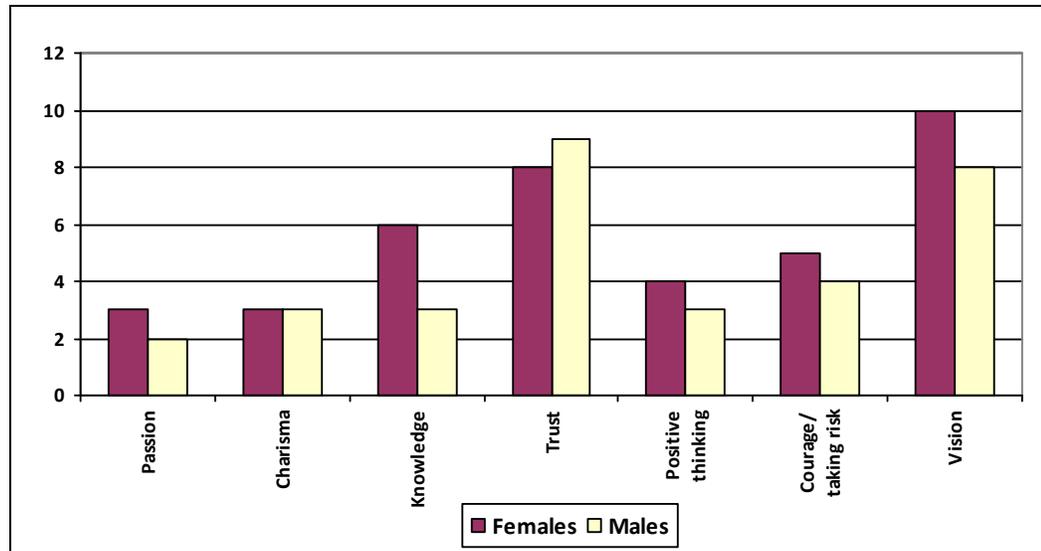
In general, from the responses, it is observed that females are not fitting the stereotypically female qualities found in the literature. Given that the women respondents in this study were highly assertive, successful and extremely powerful, and competing with men by any standards, their responses may not perhaps fit very well with the stereotypically female traits found in females holding lower positions. After all, these females are right at the 'top' and have achieved these positions by competing with the best of the best, and in fields that have traditionally been dominated by males.

Variations by Gender and Nationality: These results are the perceived importance of females and males from the Maldives and Sri Lanka towards task oriented values, relationship oriented values and communal values as qualities for successful leadership.

Females from Maldives compared to Females from Sri Lanka: In this analysis of relationship traits, shown in Graph 4.4, these two groups share two distinct differences. Females from the Maldives gave more emphasis on listening, motivation and innovation, while Sri Lankan females emphasised intuition and

delegation. Equal emphasis was given to communication and EQ values as essential qualities for successful leadership by both Maldivian and Sri Lankan females.

Graph 4.4   Comparison of Relationship Traits for Females by Nationality
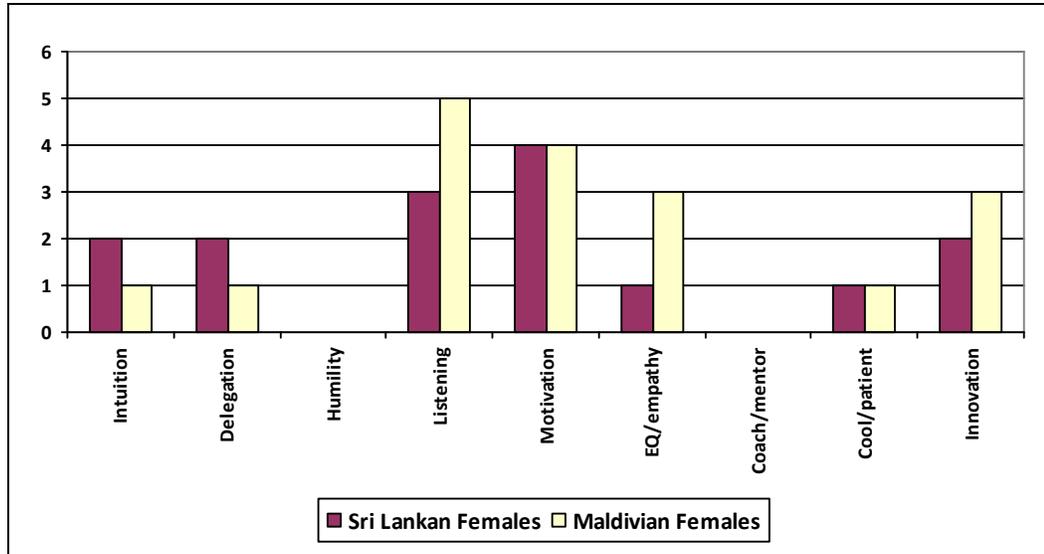
As Graph 4.5 shows, women from Sri Lanka consider knowledge and trust/integrity as more important while Maldivian women emphasised charisma and positive thinking as essential for attaining successful leadership. Females from both countries held equal importance towards, passion, vision and courage/risk taking as important for successful leadership.

Graph 4.5   Comparison of Communal Traits for Females by Nationality
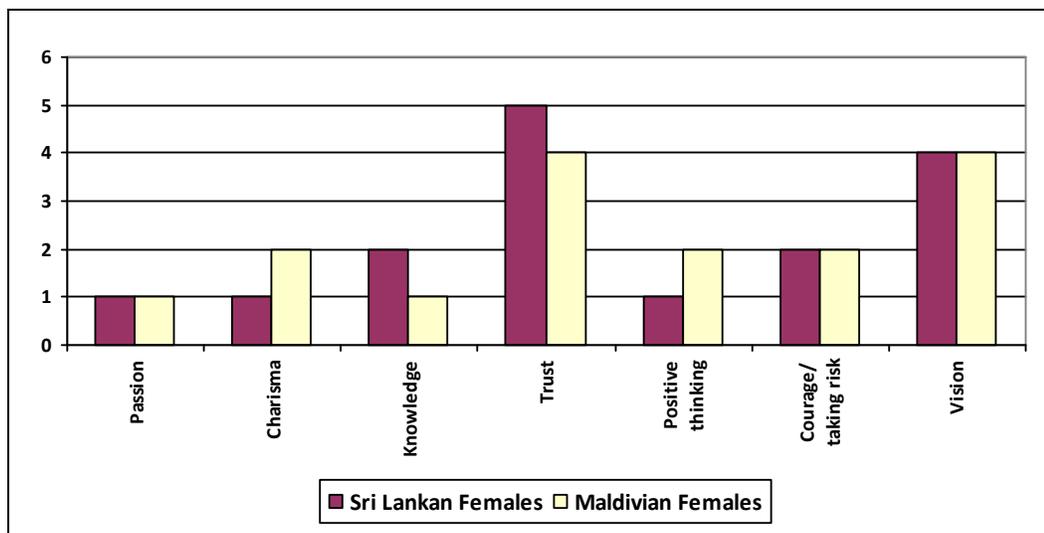
Graph 4.6 shows that females from both countries valued firmness equally. Surprisingly, Maldivian women did not see planning and setting goals as of significance, although implementation was of paramount importance to them. In the case of Sri Lankan females, implementation held no values to them, yet making plans and setting goals was of high significance. Notably, women of both nationalities did not identify arrogance as a leadership quality.

Graph 4.6 **Comparison of Task Traits for Females by Nationality**
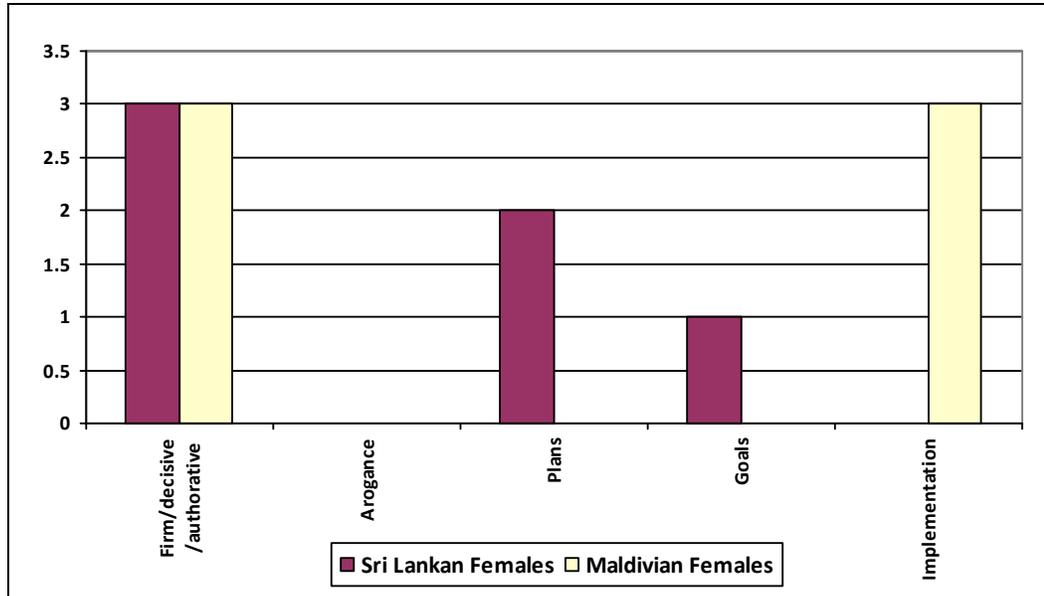
Table 4-4 shows differences between Sri Lankan men and Maldivian men among the respondents by the values that they identified as qualities of successful leaders. In general, Maldivian males embrace relationship traits and communal traits more than Sri Lankan males. Males of Sri Lanka are also found to be more task oriented.

Table 4-4   Values for Successful Leadership Comparison of Males by Nationality

Relationship	Sri Lankan Male	Maldivian Male	Communal	Sri Lankan Male	Maldivian Male	Task	Sri Lankan Male	Maldivian Male
Intuition	1	2	Passion	2	1			
delegation / participate / inclusive	3	3	Charisma	1	2	firm /decisive / authoritative	2	2
Humility	2	0	knowledge/analysis	1	5	arrogance	3	0
Listening	2	6	Trust/Integrity	3	5	plans	1	1
Communication	2	5	positive thinking/optimism	1	3	Goals	0	2
motivational skills	2	3	courage/risk taking/initiative	1	4	Implementation	2	1
EQ / empathy	2	5	Vision	5	6			
coach/mentor	1	2						
cool / patient	0	1						
Innovation	2	3						
	18	30		14	26		8	6

Graph 4.7   Responses of Males on Relationship Traits by Nationality
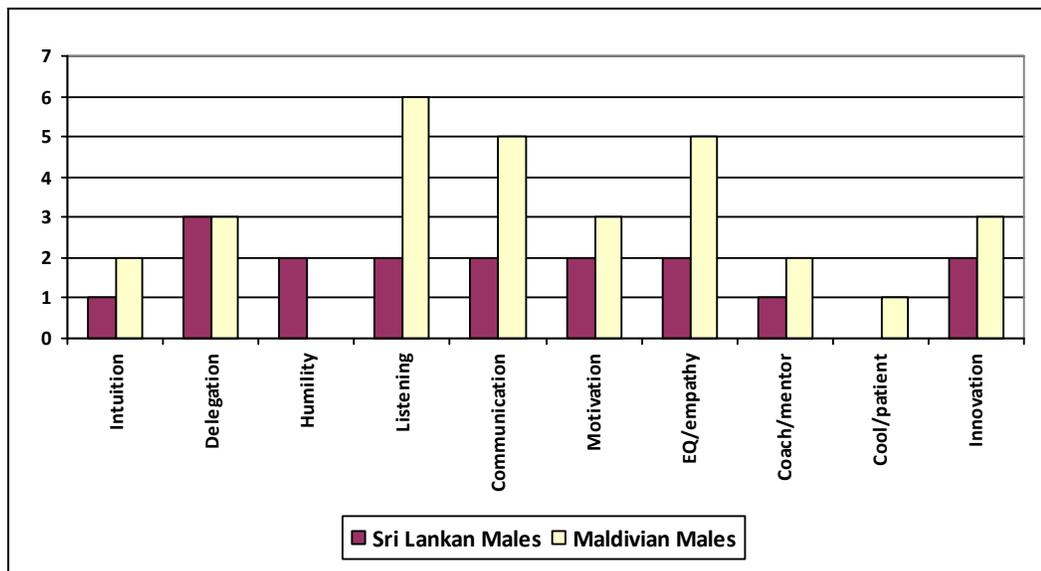
Graph 4.7 shows that Maldivian males scored comparatively very high on all aspects of relationship oriented approaches as of significance towards successful leadership except for humility and delegation. The value of delegation was given equal importance by both groups, while none of the Maldivian males saw it as being of any significance. As shown, "Staying cool in difficult situation" was not mentioned by any Sri Lankan and humility was a leadership trait brought on by only two Sri Lankans.

Graph 4.8   Responses of Males on Communal Traits by Nationality
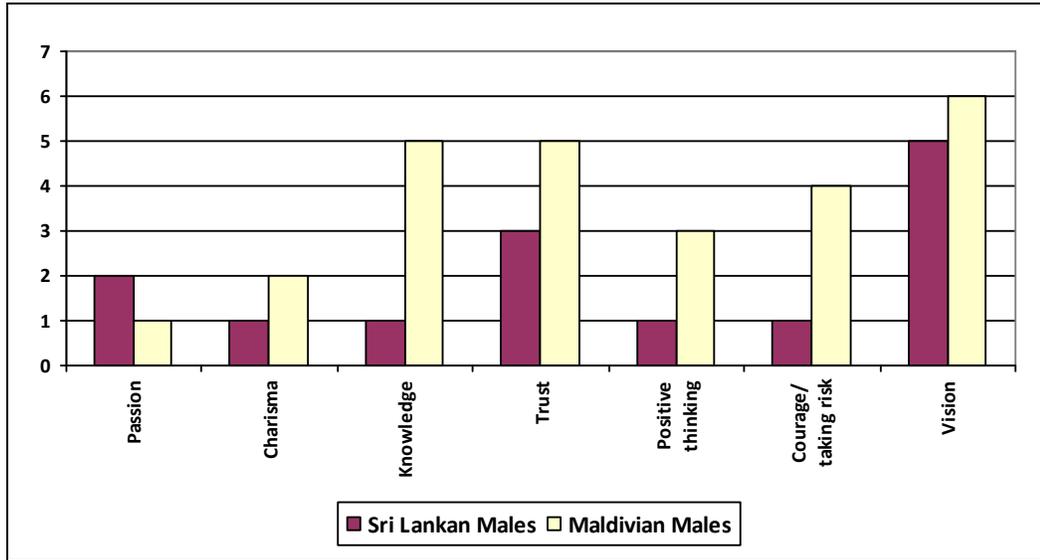
Graph 4.8 shows that the males of Maldives favour all of the communal traits more than the males of Sri Lanka, except in being passionate.

Graph 4.9   Responses of Males on Task Traits by Nationality
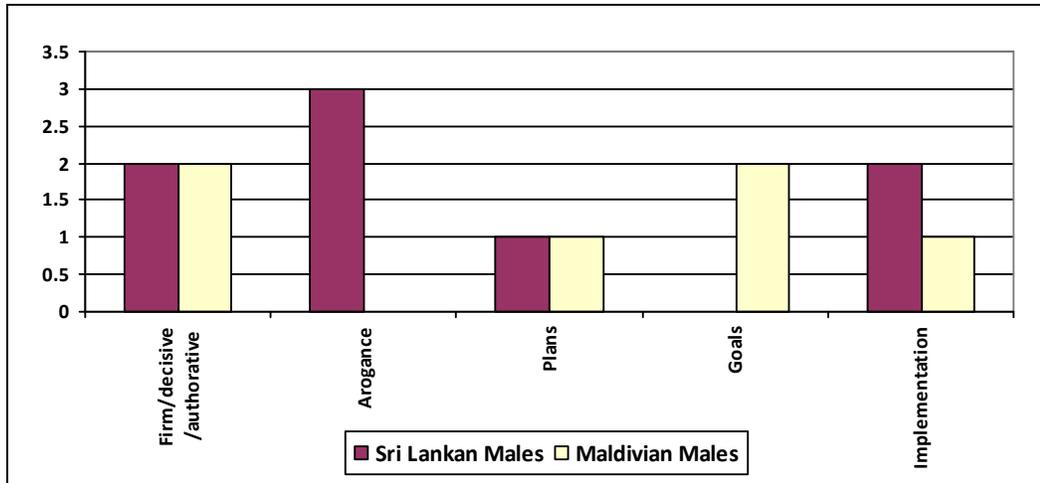
Graph 4.9 shows that arrogance as a quality for successful leadership was identified by Sri Lankan males only. Setting goals as a value was surprisingly not identified by males of Sri Lanka, while this was stressed by Maldivian males. It appears that Sri Lankan attitudes are more authoritative than Maldivian men.

OPINION ON LEADERSHIP STYLES AND APPROACHES

Figure 4-3 and Table 4-5 shows five main categories and the sub categories that emerged to queries on perceptions on leadership styles and approaches used by respondents. Of significance in Table 4-5 is the attractiveness towards 'relationship oriented approach,' 'contingent approach,' and 'mixed styles' as opposed to the 'task oriented approach' and 'value driven approach.' The preference in this region towards the contingent approach was very clearly stated by some respondents. It appears that often depending on the circumstances people choose to adapt styles based on their personal judgment of the situation. A very good example of how one switches back and forth betweens styles is expressed by this respondent from Maldives. She said

> *"To be frank I really have no fixed style. I adjust myself to the changing times, demands and the overall circumstances. I let the situation prescribe my style. If what you want me to state that I am democratic or autocratic or participative...I would say that I am really a mix of all different styles that you read in text books. I am quite goal driven at times, other times I am quite flexible. In fact there are times I encourage participation to the maximum...other times I limit participation I seek, depending again on what the issue is and who are the participants...But I am always fair and just and I work with my people and what they want."* (FM=female from Maldives)

Another respondent expressed his style and how one is forced into certain styles not because that is what a leader may like to do. In fact, certain situations compel them to choose styles that they may not be naturally inclined towards.

> *"I think I am predominantly a transactional leader. In our culture, sometimes it becomes necessary to use transactional behaviour, not necessarily because it is what I want to do. But circumstances force it on me...But I try and have a sensible balance, again of course, contingent on the situational variables."* (MSL= male from Sri Lanka)

In general, responses across countries and gender seem quite consistent except for the low responses towards task oriented approach from Maldivian males (4 respondents) in comparison to the number of respondents from Sri Lanka (10 respondents). The implication from these findings will be discussed later.

Figure 4-3   Opinion of Leadership Styles and Approaches
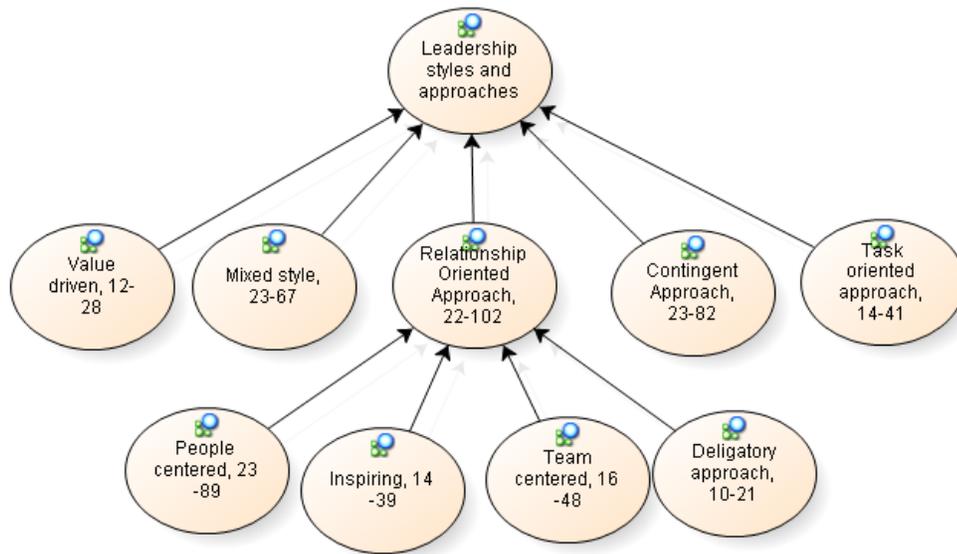
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item.   For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-5   Leadership Styles and Approaches

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER			REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)	Total	
Contingent Approach	12	11	14	9	23	82
Mixed Styles	12	11	14	9	23	67
Relationship Oriented Approach	10	8	11	7	22	102
Deligatory approach	3	7	6	4	10	21
Inspiring,	8	6	8	6	14	39
People centered	13	10	13	6	23	66
Team centered	10	6	10	6	16	48
Task oriented approach	4	10	7	7	14	41
Value driven	7	5	7	5	12	28

Perceptions of leadership styles were also analysed manually, without the aid of research software in order to verify the findings. The values that emerged are shown in the Table as in Appendix E. On the left side of the Table in Appendix E is the coded identification, gender and nationality of the subjects. Each respondent is unique. At the top of the table are the values that emerged grouped under transactional, mixed and transformational. In the cells are the actual scores for each value.

The research model that was drawn based on the data shows task oriented styles and relationship styles as being investigated. However, the respondents continually kept referring to values of transactional and transformational styles. Hence, the decision to categorise the emerged styles under transactional, transformational and mixed, keeping in mind that transactional and transformational traits have many characteristics common to task oriented and relationship oriented approaches, respectively. The values have been categorised as Transactional (and/or authoritative), Mixed and Transformational (and/or participatory) styles, as shown in Table 4-6. A predominantly transformational or relationship style approach is clearly evident here.

Table 4-6   Categorisation of Values

	TRANSACTIONAL(TC)		MIXED(MX)		TRANSFORMATIVE(TF)
1	Result/Goal oriented	1	Flexible/Mixed	1	Delegating/Inclusive
2	Task oriented	2	Situational	2	Listening
3	Structured/Rules Approach	3	Pragmatist	3	Communicative
4	Decisive	4	Good governance/Integrity	4	Empowering
5	Demanding	5	Learning /Practice Leadership	5	Team builder
6	Strong philosophy	6	Diplomatic	6	Consistent/Honesty
7	Monitor/Supervise	7	Risk/Flak taking	7	Motivating
		8	Self-examination	8	Inspiring/Mentoring
		9	Transparent	9	Encouraging/Innovative
				10	Coach
				11	Idealist
				12	Visionary

The three categories of values derived as leadership styles were analysed by gender and by nationality. Shown in Appendix E are the obtained responses in categories of transactional, transformational and mixed. In Appendix E, the second top field are the values that emerged, and in the left column are the categories of the respondents by nationality and gender and the coded respondent identification. The cells of the Table in Appendix E reveal the occurrence that a value was nominated by a respondent and Graph 4.10 to Graph 4.21 inclusive were generated from the data in the table.

Graph 4.10   Leadership Styles recurring in all Interviews

Leadership styles recurring in all interviews
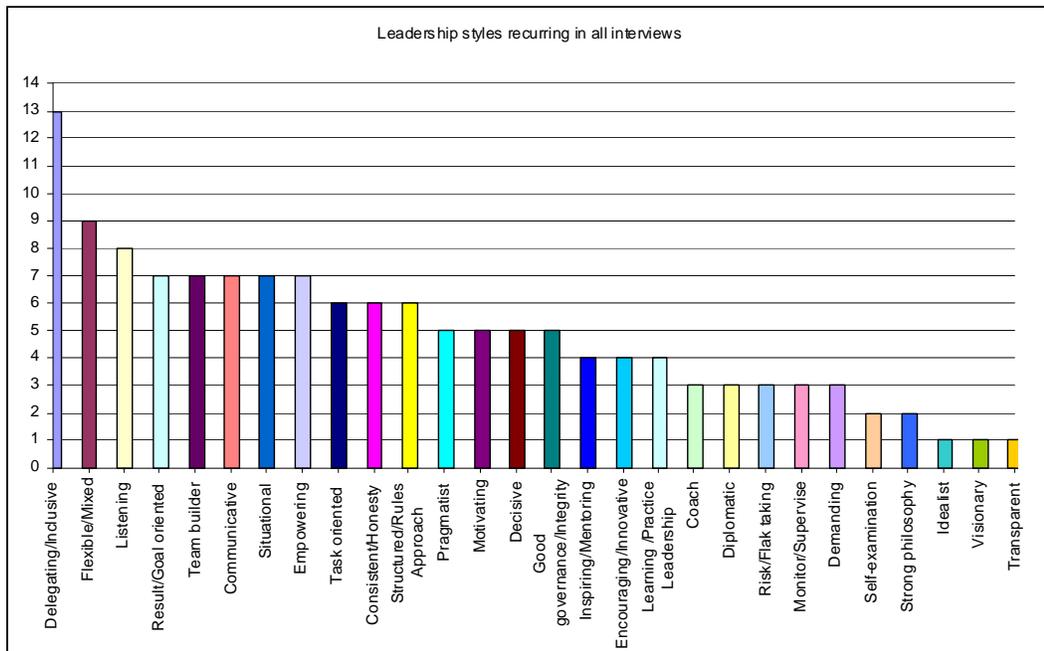
Graph 4.11   Leadership Styles occurring by Category

Leadership Styles Ocurring by Category
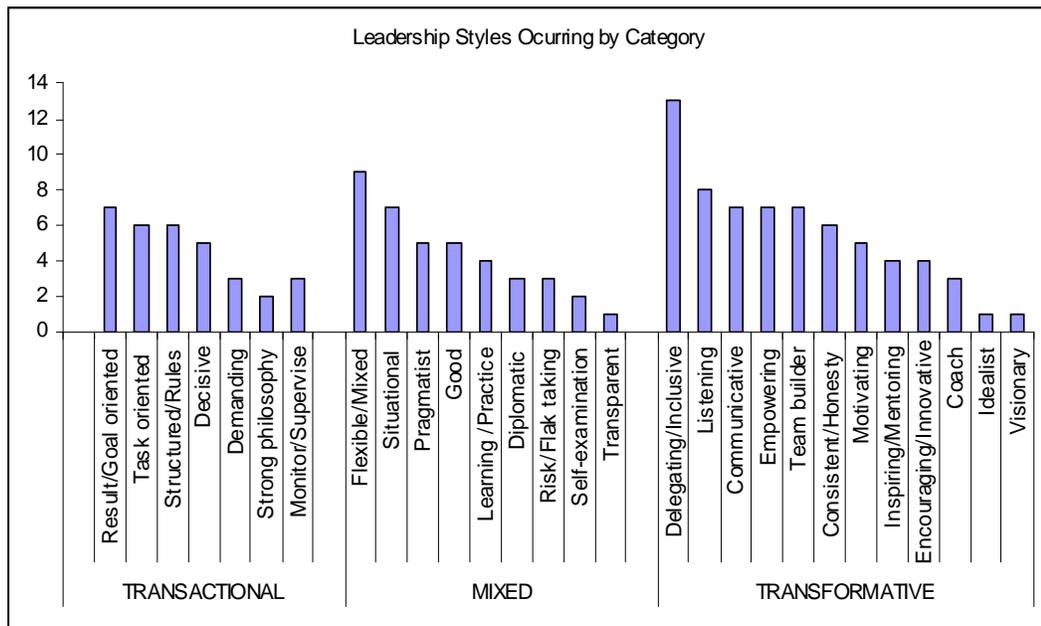
Graph 4.11 shows overall that there were more values registered under the transformative category.

Leadership Styles by Nationality

Graph 4.12   Leadership Style Comparison by Nationality
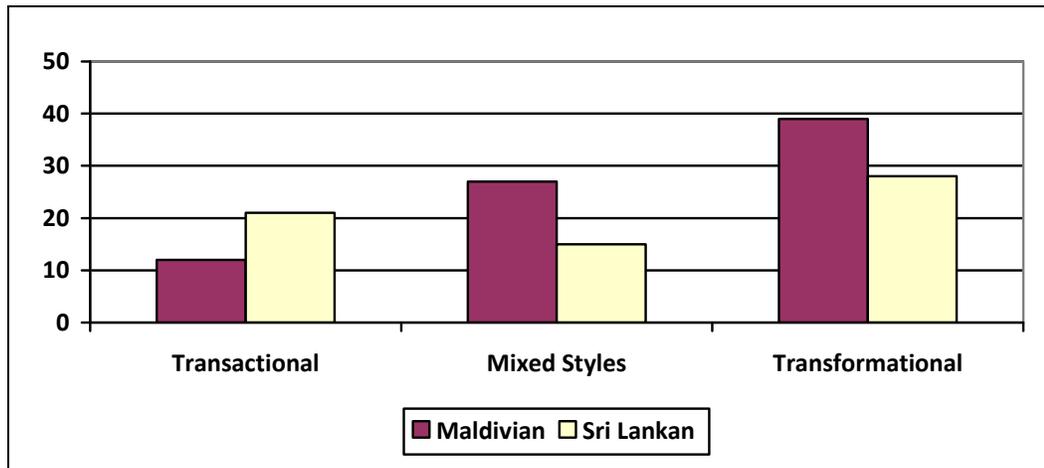
Graph 4.12 shows that Sri Lankans in general were more transactional in their leadership style than Maldivians. According to the respondents, it is a contextual reaction on their part irrespective of their personal preference. One female respondent from Sri Lanka said,

> *"...I probably would like to be referred to as a transformational leader. However, life is such that one can never exclusively be one or the other. It depends on several factors that are present within the situation...more so when it is a society like ours where people have always associated work with some tangible rewards. Therefore I think I am both transformational and transactional."* (FS)

Another prominent male leader from Sri Lanka verified how culture demands it of them to be transactional. "*In our culture, sometimes it becomes necessary to use transactional behaviour"* (MSRL).

Overall Leadership Styles by Gender: Graph 4.13 shows leadership styles analysed by gender. Notably, self perceptions show that transformational leadership being employed almost equally by male and female respondents, but more males engaged in a mixed style. Women leaders perceive themselves to be more transactional than males. Paradoxically, the findings do not support conventional wisdom that males use more task oriented styles more than females.

Graph 4.13   Leadership Style Comparison by Gender
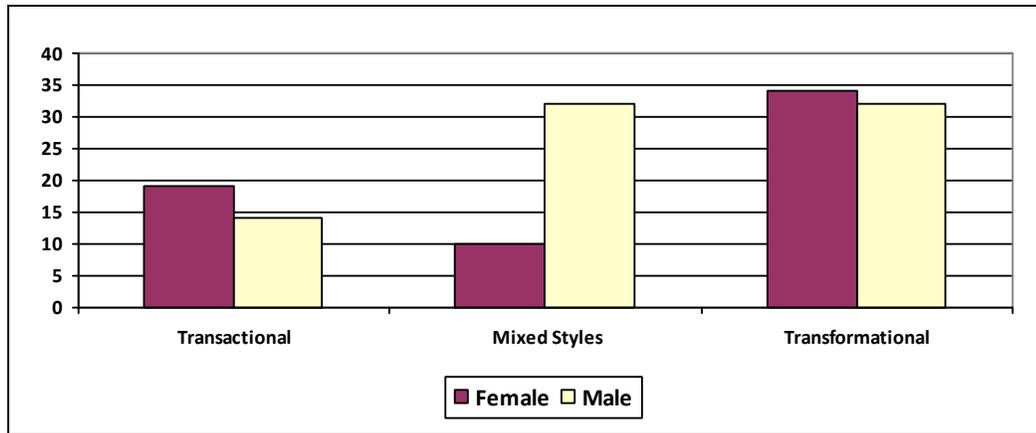
Female Leadership Styles Comparison by Nationality

Graph 4.14   Individual Leadership Styles of Females in Sri Lanka
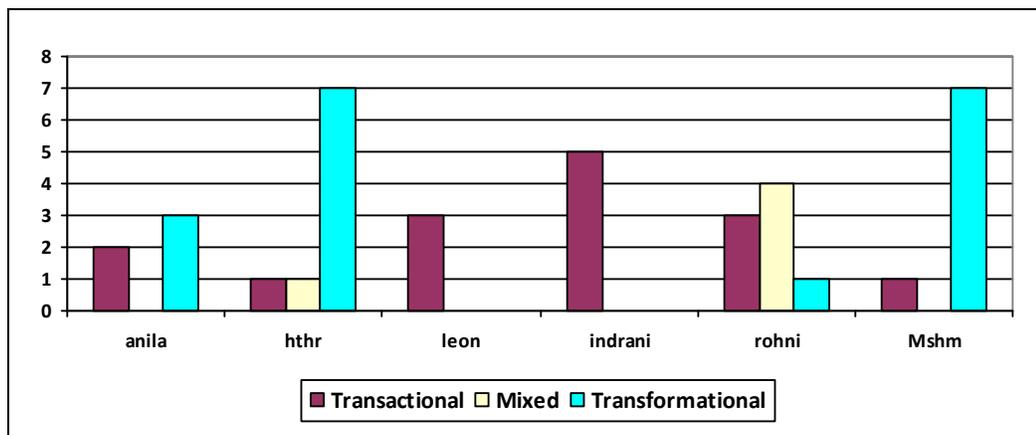
Note: The names at the bottom of the graph are coded names for the respondents.

Graph 4.15   Individual Leadership Styles of Females in Maldives
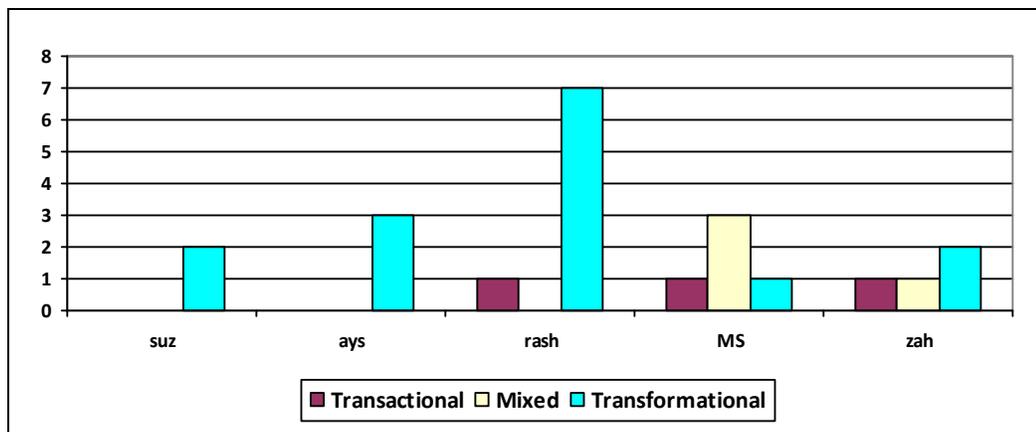
Note: The names at the bottom of the graph are coded names for the respondents.

A significant feature of Graph 4.14, Graph 4.15 and Graph 4.16 is an observation that Sri Lankan women perceive themselves to be predominantly transactional compared to Maldivian women who preferred more transformative styles of leadership.

Graph 4.16   Leadership Styles of Females by Nationality
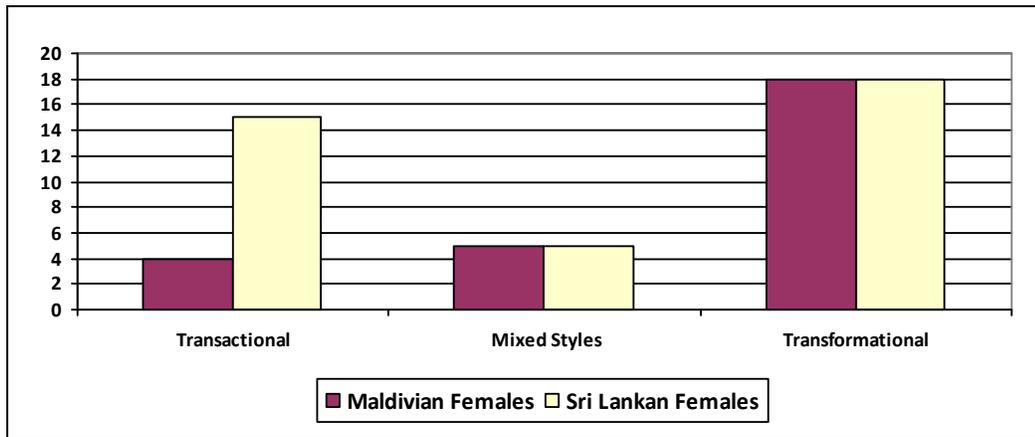
Male Leadership Styles Comparison by Nationality

Graph 4.17, Graph 4.18 and Graph 4.19 show that Maldivian males tend to be more transformative, whilst Sri Lankans espoused more transactional or mixed approaches among their leadership styles. Maldivian men indicated relatively more transformative and mixed values than transactional values.

Graph 4.17   Individual Leadership Styles of Males in Sri Lanka
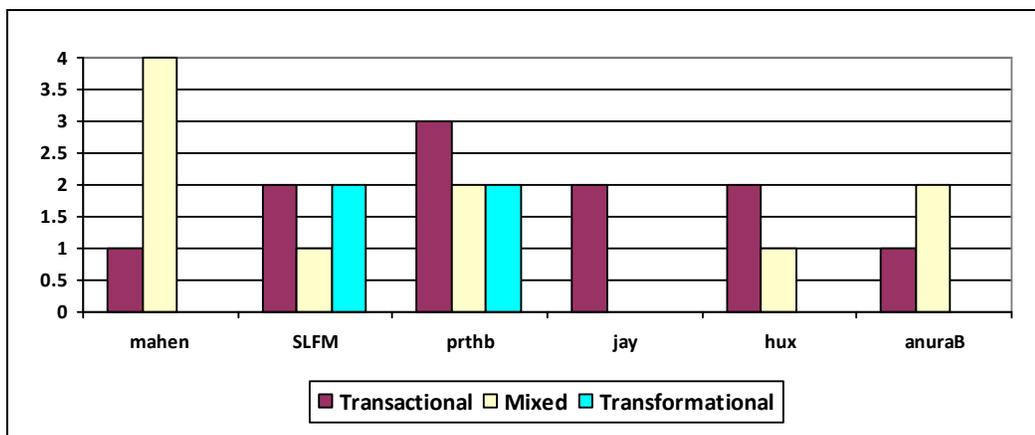
Note: The names at the bottom of the graph are coded names for the respondents.

Graph 4.18   Individual Leadership Styles of Males in Maldives
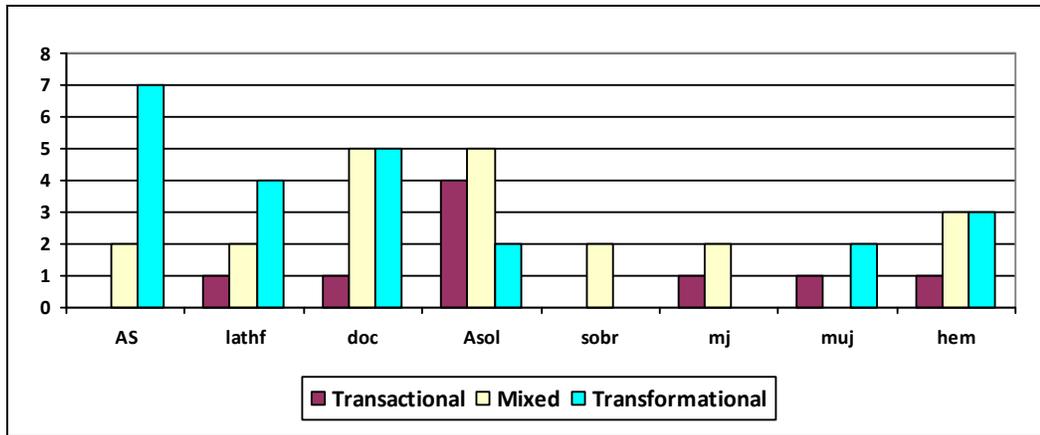
Note: The names at the bottom of the graph are coded names for the respondents.

Graph 4.19   Leadership Styles of Males by Nationality
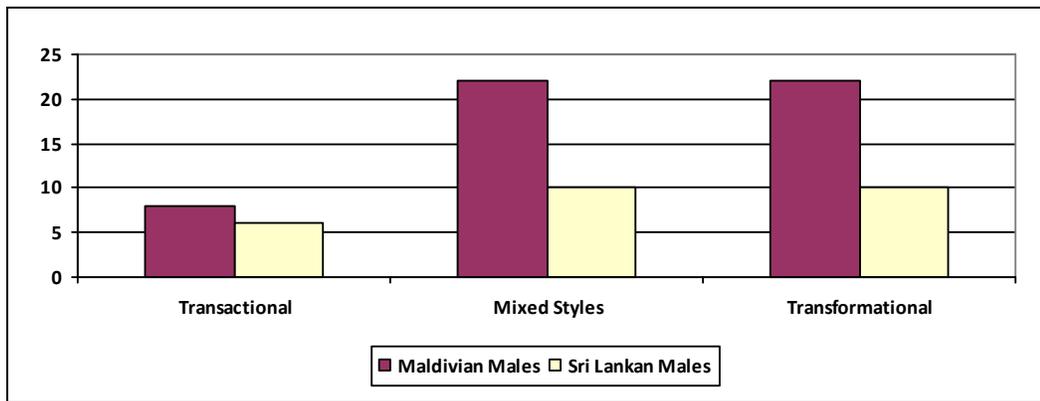
Prevalent Values in Countries by Gender

Graph 4.20   Leadership Styles of Men and Women in Sri Lanka
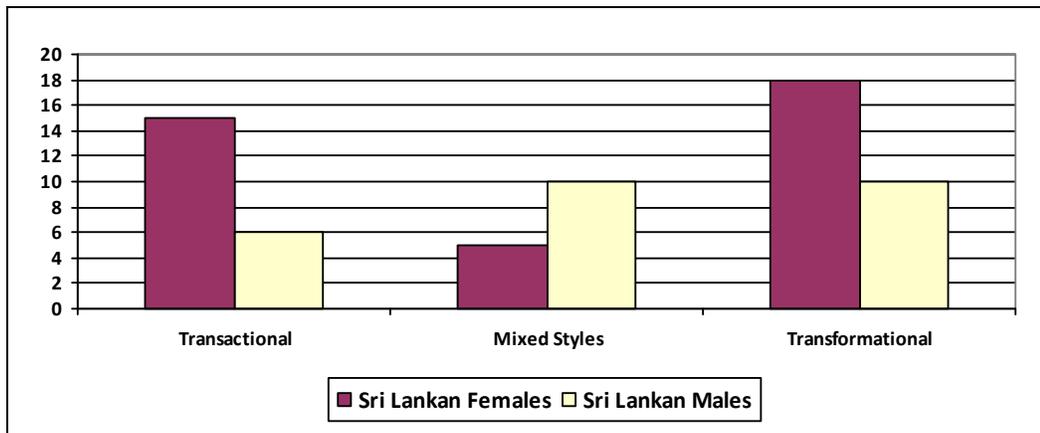
Graph 4.21   Leadership Styles of Men and Women in Maldives
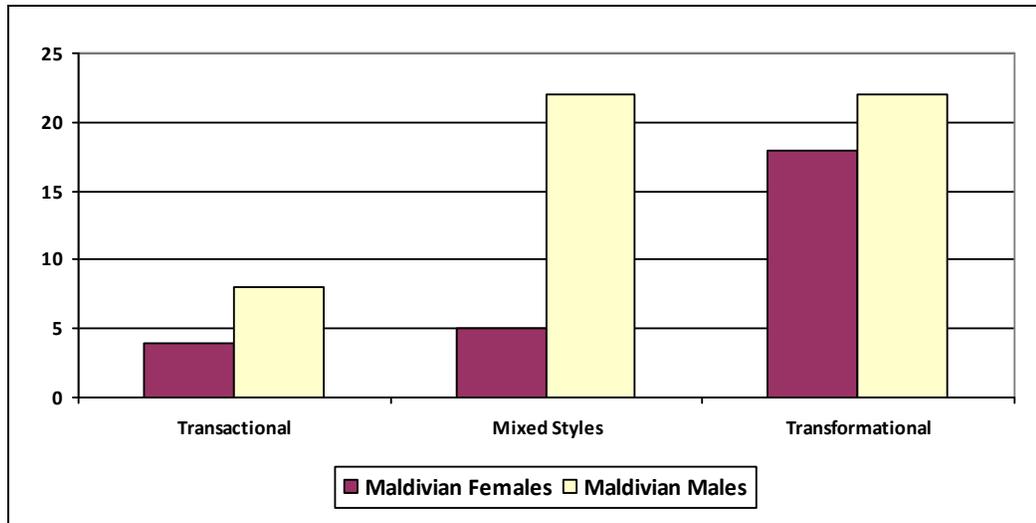
Graph 4.20 and Graph 4.21 show that women in general use transformational behaviours. However, Sri Lankan women are even more transactional than their men. Maldivian women on the other hand scored low on all categories in comparison to the Maldivian men. Maldivian men are claiming to use predominantly mixed and transformative styles.

The analysis indicates that although differences exist in terms of nationality and gender, these differences are not necessarily a function of gender alone. The results also support van Engen (2001), that given similar organisational boundaries males and females may perform very similarly, and stereotypical differences related to gender will diminish (Moss and Jensrud 1995).

PERCEPTION OF RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

The seven primary themes that emerged from a query of what responsible leadership meant to the leaders are shown in Figure 4-4 and Table 4-7. Out of the seven themes that emerged, people oriented approach, which also attracted the highest attention along with values, was further subdivided into three categories. It appears that in order to execute responsible leadership and good governance in the study site, people orientation, values, competencies and learning orientation is essential while

exercising control measures, yet being flexible enough for people to move forward. The following statement from a Sri Lankan leader summarises the values required to be a responsible leader.

> *"To me it means a lot of things…it means a sense of responsibility not only to the people, but to yourself as well. It means, working with honesty, integrity and to the best of ability in trying to achieve set targets and benefits, be it monetary or otherwise, while not forgetting and not neglecting the societal concerns and the organizational concerns as well. It also means working within what is acceptable to your conscience. All decisions may not be easy, nor could it be acceptable to everyone…but as long as you are sure that what you did is right and justifiable and acceptable to your own self and conscience, then that is being a responsible leader…"*

Importance of flexibility, yet having control measures as an essential practice was also highlighted clearly by another Sri Lankan respondent.

> *"In my office we always try to promote consistency in all the policies that we make…very clear and vibrant…so we have a very good reporting system…Our policies are actually very geared to us and our needs. We focus on standards and procedures and rules…but with enough flexibility within a certain framework… to move forward if hurdles need to be crossed."*

People orientation and competencies are held in high esteem as well and the inclination towards these approaches was demonstrated as one eminent Maldivian leader said,

> *"Responsible leadership in my opinion first of all requires empathy with all stakeholders, acute understanding of yourself and others…in being able to identify and agree on common grounds and discharge duties not as an individual but as part of a team…ability to recognize and accept mistakes and work with honesty, integrity and to the best of ability…to be responsible towards your own self and others…"*

It is interesting to note that compared to the rest of the responses, scores for team skills were low. This finding is consistent across the study countries, and across gender. Nevertheless, importance of team skills is apparent even from the above two quotations. Although there were many features that were similar, interesting gender responses emerged towards the constructs of competencies and people skills.

Similarly, notable differences were seen to the attractiveness of learning orientation, where in the Maldives it seems these respondents were more inclined towards a learning approach than Sri Lanka. An all encompassing statement from a Maldivian leader summarises the views generally held in the study country regarding responsible leadership, which demonstrates the need for people orientation, confidence, control measures and a participatory approach.

> *"It* (responsible leadership) *entails being able to respect yourself and others, identification of common objectives and achieve goals together as a team...and willingness and flexibility to make yourself redundant at the appropriate time and place....It also involves accountability responsibility towards self and others.....Responsible leadership is the foundation upon which successful communities are built, without which no society would thrive...."*

Figure 4-4   Responsible Leadership
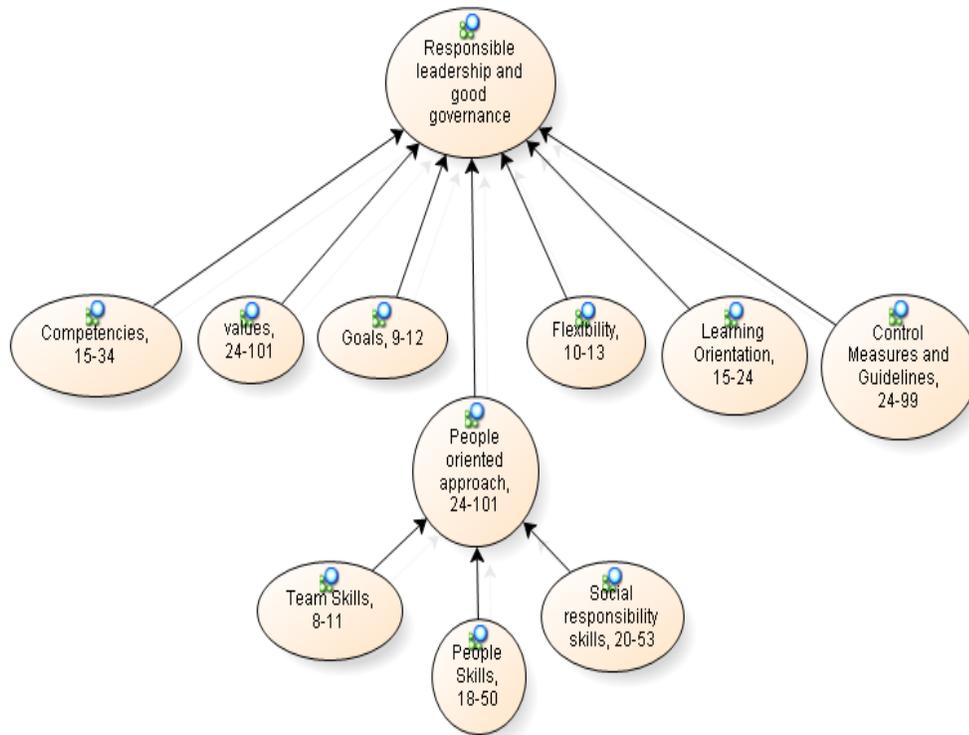
 Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item. For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-7   Perceptions of Responsible Leadership

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER			REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)	Total	
Competencies	8	7	10	5	15	34
Control measures	12	12	13	11	24	99
Flexibility	4	6	7	3	10	13
Goals	4	5	4	5	9	12
Learning orientation	10	5	9	6	15	24
People orientation	8	11	11	8	19	55
People skills	9	9	11	7	18	50
Social Responsibility	10	10	13	7	20	53
Team skills	3	5	5	3	8	11
Values	10	12	12	10	22	53

The interviews were also manually assessed and the results tabulated as shown in Appendix F. Graph 4.22 to Graph 4.27 inclusive are created based on the data in Appendix F. The values that are seen as essential for responsible leadership by this method of analysis also match the values identified by the software. Some of the values individually identified by the manual method can be grouped under 'nodes' by the software and often encompasses a lot of individual items that manually one may pick as separate. For example, the following quotations have been grouped by the software as 'values', and it is clear that most of what Appendix F has identified as individual items are within the quotations. An eminent leader from Maldives demonstrates this in his statement which includes values, people orientation and even propensity towards a learning approach.

> *"My understanding is to make the right decision at the right time. Responsible leadership involves integrity, and overall assessment of the stakeholder impact...Profit making….While profit making is part of what we are about that is not the only thing neither should it be priority number one. I feel our survival in the midst of the changing world should be the top most priority. And survival requires maintaining a balance between all stakeholder needs. Profit is part of the survival…..so honesty integrity, mutual respect, understanding are part of responsible leadership."*

Graph 4.22   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Males and Females
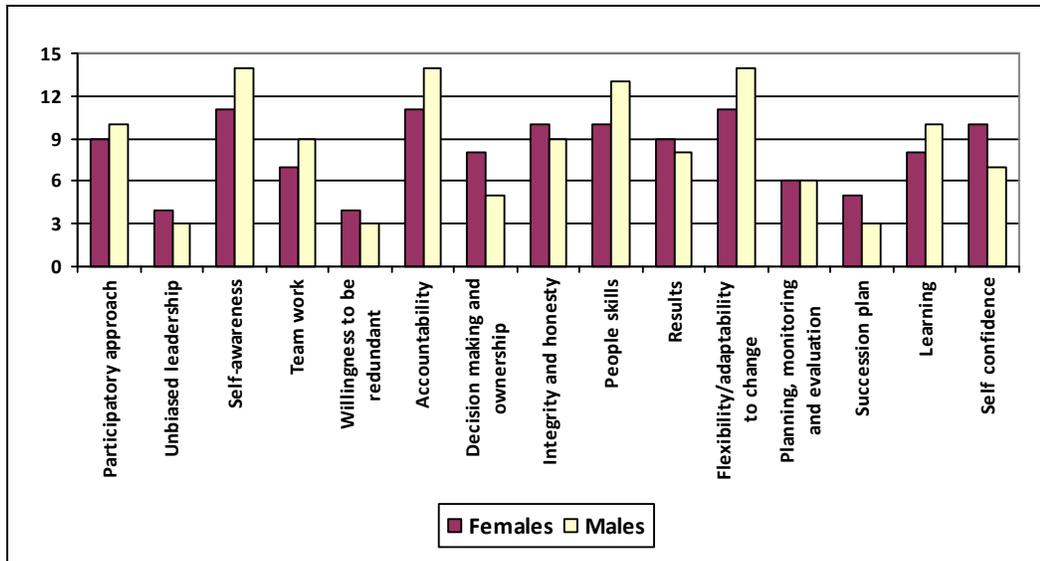
Graph 4.22 shows the values identified as necessary for responsible leadership by males and females. It is clear that the differences in perceptions of males and females towards what is important for responsible leadership are minimal. Nevertheless, the degree of importance attached to the various values males and females perceive as important for responsible leadership differs. Males appear to stress on flexibility and adaptability to change, people skills, accountability and self awareness and respect as of more importance.

Graph 4.23   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Maldives and Sri Lanka
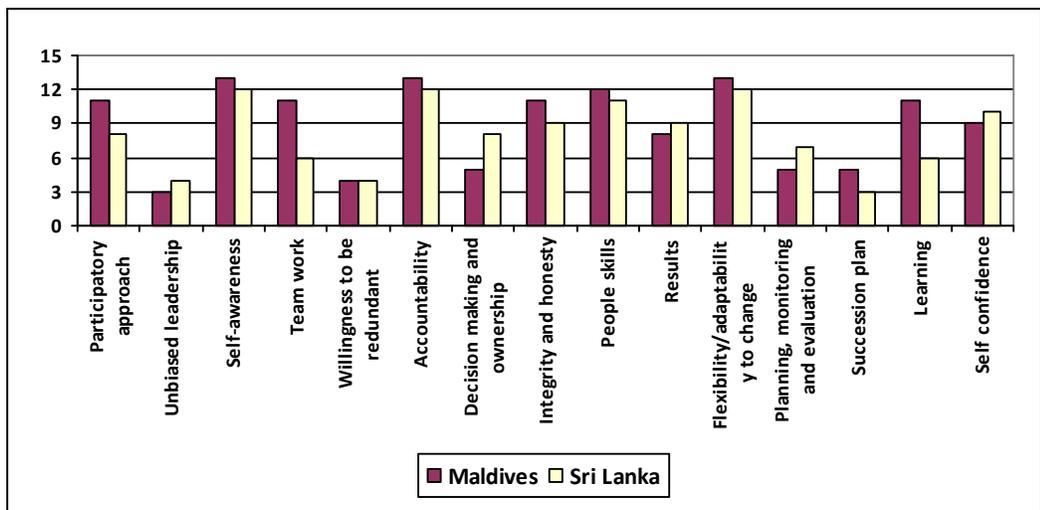
It appears from Graph 4.23 that both Sri Lanka and Maldives did not differ greatly in the values identified as important for responsible leadership. It is interesting,

however, that Maldivians value learning orientation and team skills more than Sri Lankans as values necessary for responsible leadership. It also appears that flexibility, accountability, people skills and self awareness are held in high esteem by both countries.

Graph 4.24   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Males of Maldives and Sri Lanka
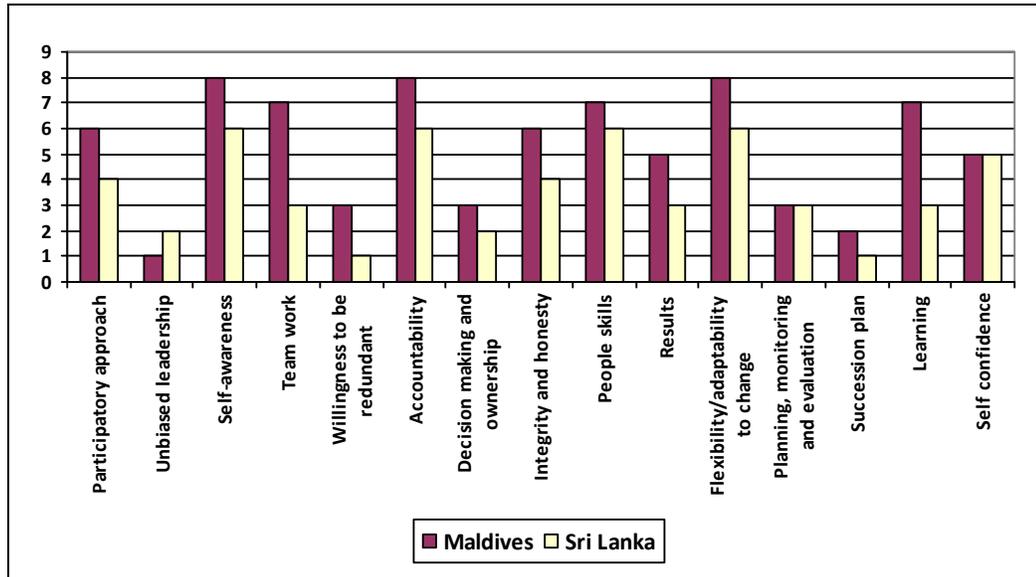
Graph 4.24 shows that when males of Sri Lanka and Maldives are compared, both nationalities appear to value self awareness/respect, people skills, accountability and flexibility quite highly. There is a significant difference in how learning is valued as an important skill for responsible leadership.

Graph 4.25   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Females of Maldives and Sri Lanka

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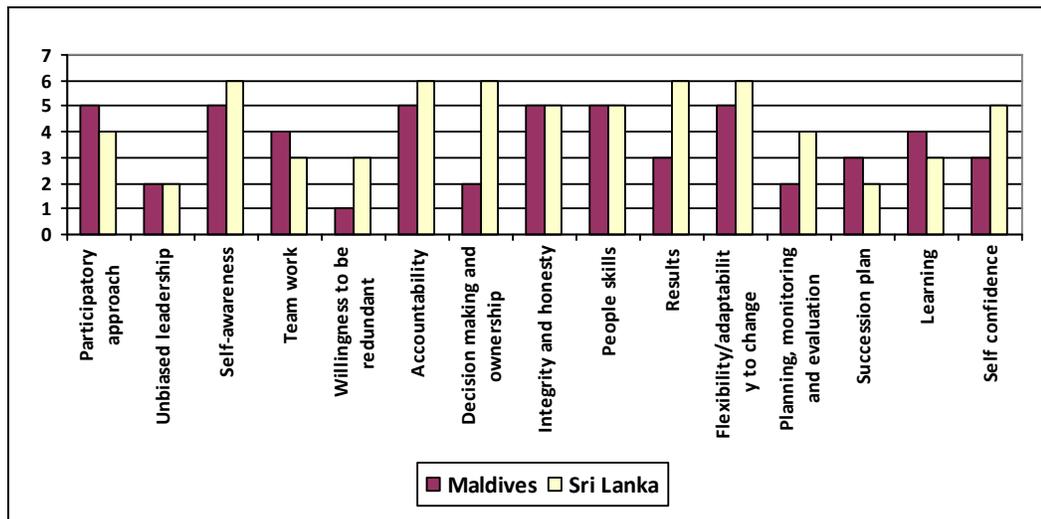
Graph 4.25 shows that Sri Lankan females stress on decision making and ownership, and results, noticeably more than the females of Maldives. It appears that people skills, integrity and honesty are viewed by both nationalities as being of equal significance to attain responsible leadership.

Graph 4.26   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Females and Males of Maldives
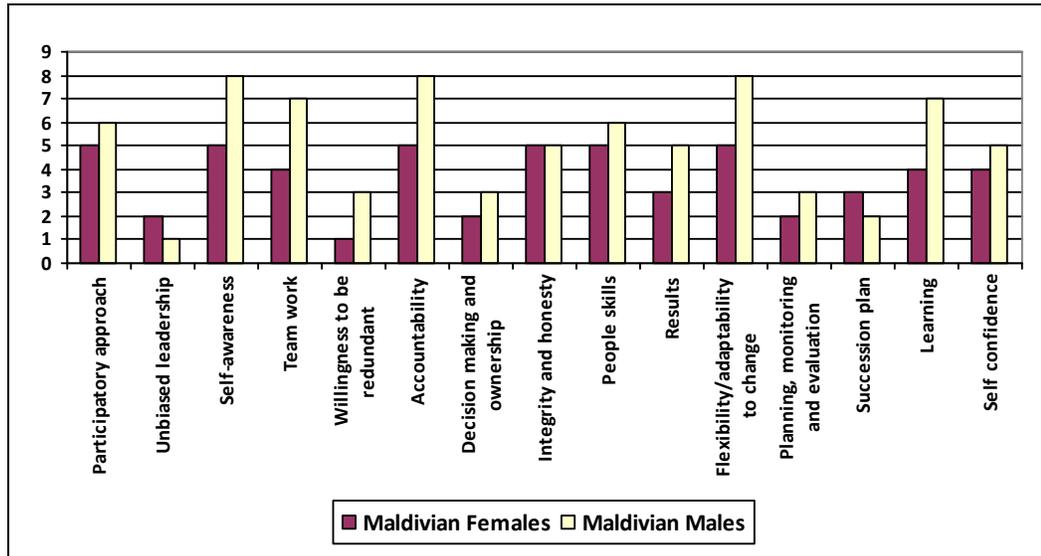
Graph 4.26 compares perceptions of Maldivian males and females towards responsible leadership. While responsible leadership is a concern for all, males seem to have commented on the values more than females.

Graph 4.27   Ideas of Responsible Leadership for Females and Males of Sri Lanka
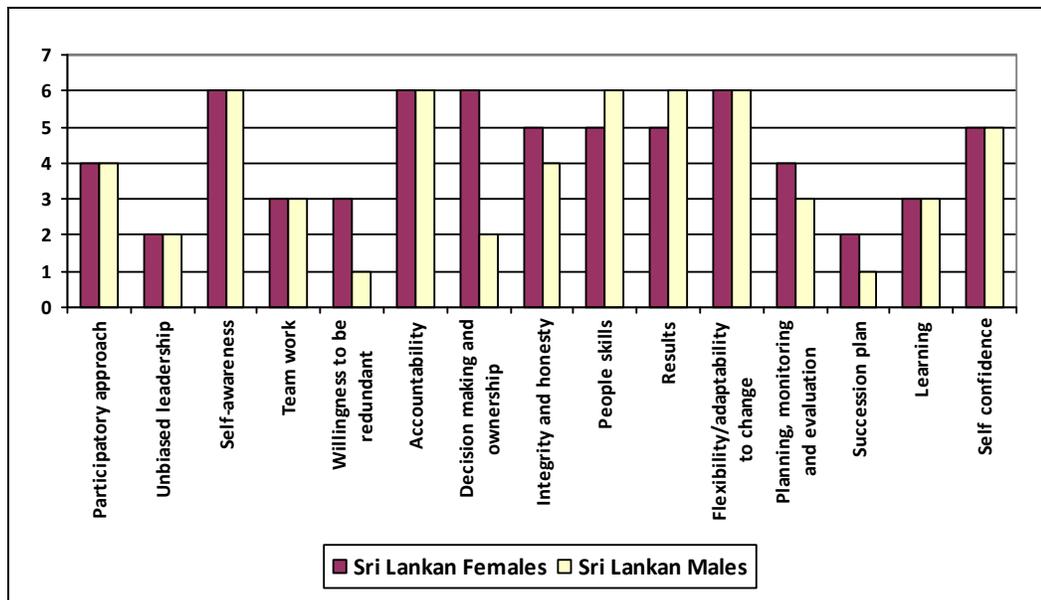
From the information on Graph 4.27, it appears that there is very little difference in how responsible leadership is viewed by both genders. However, in comparison to males, females of Sri Lanka hold decision making and ownership as of immense significance in attaining responsible leadership. Self awareness and respect, accountability and flexibility and self confidence and learning orientation received equal attention as features of significance towards responsible leadership.

PERCEPTIONS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN GENDERS

Figure 4-5 and Table 4-8 show the primary themes along with the subcategories that emerged to the question, 'What are the different leadership styles between men and women that you as a leader have observed?' It is interesting that the answer to this question proliferated into various other aspects regarding gender, such as 'Contemporary Attitude towards gender,' 'stereotypical attitudes,' 'suggestions to correct the imbalance,' and 'present situation.'

Figure 4-5   Differences between Gender
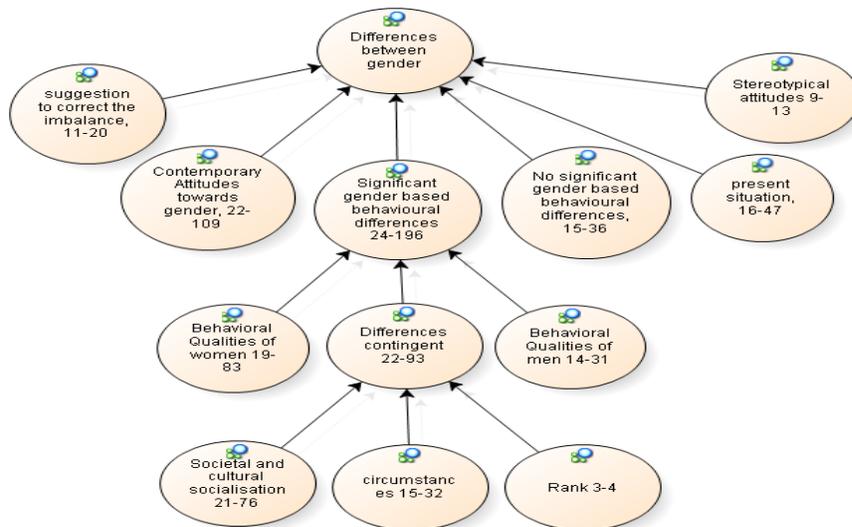
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item.For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-8   Differences Between Gender

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
Contemporary Attitudes Towards Gender	12	10	14	8	22	109
No significant gender based Behavioural Differences	7	8	9	6	15	36
Present Situation	10	6	8	8	16	47
Significant Gender Based Behaviour	12	12	14	10	24	196
Men's Behaviour	5	9	7	7	14	31
Women's behaviour	8	11	11	8	19	83
Differences Contingent	12	10	13	9	22	93
Circumstances	7	8	9	6	15	32
Rank	1	2	2	1	3	4
Societal and Cultural Socialization	11	10	13	8	21	76
Stereotypical Attitude	5	4	6	3	9	13
Suggestions to correct imbalance	6	5	4	7	11	20

While quite a large number of responses indicated that there are significant gender differences, many believed otherwise. According to observations by a Sri Lankan male,

> "…I feel that women are more emotionally inclined, whereas men tend to be more domineering and hierarchy oriented. But these characteristics are, I feel more evident in lower levels than at the top. Frankly speaking, stereotypical characteristics fade into insignificance at higher level."

Another prominent leader echoed similar thoughts as she said,

> "…and the only difference would be that I think male leaders can sometimes unwittingly be chauvinistic. Female leaders are much more sensitive to gender balance and perhaps may have more empathy but beyond that I don't think...that there are differences when we reach top leadership positions...at least I haven't noticed anything more than what I have just mentioned" (FSRL=Females from Sri Lanka)

Another stated, "….I have observed that men seem to adopt more assertive, individualist styles while women use more participatory, collective and joint styles" (FMAL=Females from Maldives)

A very powerful statement from a very prominent and experienced leader expressed his preference towards female styles of leadership, and how women can be tough and unrelenting yet, soft and communicative, and uses inclusive approaches to get things done.

> *"...in fact, I would say, my political career which started about 18, 19 years ago was mainly based on very close interactions with some women leaders. In fact, I belong to the party which was founded...led by, Sirimavo Bandaranaike, who was the first woman prime minister of the world...my first appointment as cabinet minister was in the cabinet of President Kumaratunga. So I think in many ways, I have been able to observe very closely, the differences between how men and women give leadership. And again, I think, with all due respect to all the other leaders, I feel that the leadership of the two female leaders I did mention now was more successful because they were able to listen to the opinion of others as I mentioned earlier. Communication was never a one way street. So they were able to embrace different ideas more successfully. But then what was also, equally important was the implementation of the ideas. They were much more disciplined and even hard nosed, so to speak, than the men. I mean the women, I would say, once they have decided on something they cannot easily be swayed by others or diverted by other arguments. It takes a long time to decide, but once it is decided upon, I think their implementation rate is much higher than that of men."* (MSRL=male from Sri Lanka)

The number of respondents across countries and gender who responded seems more or less similar, except in few instances where a marked difference is seen. For example, in 'contemporary attitudes towards gender,' while 14 males responded, only eight females were attracted to this aspect. Regarding contemporary attitudes, it appears that in this part of the world the mindset is still quite inclined towards views of women being incapable of doing certain jobs despite having female leaders as head of states in both Sri Lanka and Maldives. A Maldivian leader expressed his views.

> *"...the mindset of our people is such that men are seen as superior beings and...although every effort is being given to take away this notion, women are still held back due to cultural construction of gender....women are seen as unsuitable to hold certain positions or jobs and men are viewed as inferior if at all seen to be involved in jobs that have socially constructed as female areas.....thus gender inequality exists in spite of numerous efforts..."*

Although the mindset of people are changing, it is not following the progress women have made in education and accessing responsible positions and gaining people's respect. Yet they are viewed as weak and incapable even in Sri Lanka.

> *"Women are now more educated, and Sri Lanka has changed. At the moment 51%of the administrative executives are women in Sri Lanka. Now the opportunities are almost equal to men and women. Of course people still feel that hard tasks cannot be done by women especially in difficult situations. Some people still feel that hard administrative positions cannot be fulfilled efficiently by women. They feel that it is better to put a man in a difficult terrain; I mean difficult areas to work, rather than a woman. But that has also being proven wrong, because we have got women who have operated in very difficult areas and performed well."*

APPROACHES TO HARNESS ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

Figure 4-6 and Table 4-9 show the categories that emerged towards perception on organisational learning. Four primary categories emerged as being of special significance: 'adaptability to openness and change,' 'exchange of knowledge and ideas,' 'provide learning opportunities' and 'tapping into organisational knowledge.' While all the four categories were explored by the respondents, the importance of providing learning opportunities received tremendous amount of comments followed by adaptability and openness to change. A comment from one of the Sri Lankan leaders clearly states what he does to harness organisational learning and how important that is to him and to face the challenges.

> *"I encourage free flow of ideas and thoughts and tap the knowledge and experience of all the staff. I try and provide as many opportunities as possible for my people to increase their exposure to new fields and new tasks and to the outside world. We live in an era of globalization and constant flow of new information and ideas and continuous and relentless changes. We should use these opportunities and experiences to increase our knowledge and tailor the information and knowledge to face challenges."*

Similar thoughts were expressed by a Maldivian female. Her expression encompasses most of what organisational learning is about.

"I stress on the importance of learning regularly. I tap into the knowledge of all our workers...their experiences and what they have learned is taken into account. I encourage my people to devote time in researching and finding out what others are doing and how others have responded to certain situations. We learn from our mistake and apply the knowledge. I am flexible and adaptable to the changing demands and the enormous transformations that people and the world is going through".

Another respondent talked about failings of countries such as Sri Lanka in adapting the concept of organisational learning. In fact it was observed that, despite some constructive comments from the leaders, the concept of organisational learning is an area that is still in its infancy and has a long way to go before it can be adopted properly in these Asian states.

"We are up to a point trying to develop organisational learning culture. However I would say that an intrinsic problem of most developing countries like Sri Lanka is that we do not give enough importance, or time or money towards this concept...OL. In fact... in developing countries like our, the main problem, the set back we face is that we spend far too much time trying to re invent the wheel. Especially developing countries, everyday every government office, every govt. institution is re inventing the wheel. I mean trying to do what has been done before, whereas we should really try to learn from the best practice methods from around the world."

Examining the responses across countries and gender, the results were quite similar, except for 'exchange of knowledge and ideas' where numbers of respondents were different between males and females.

Figure 4-6   Approaches to Harness Organisational Learning
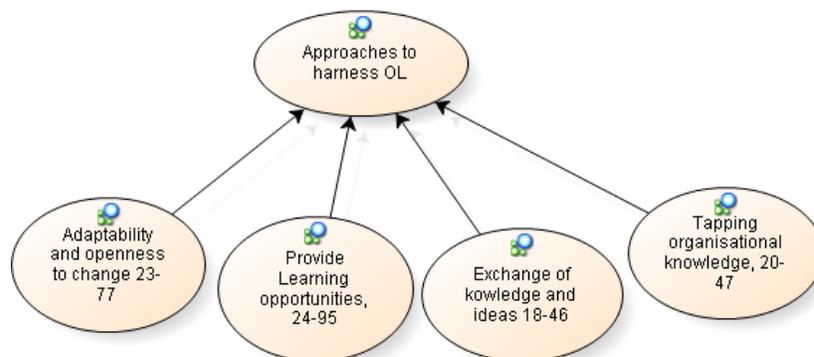
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item. For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-9   Approaches to Harness Organisational Learning

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
Adaptability and openness to change	11	12	13	10	23	77
Exchange of knowledge of ideas	8	10	12	6	18	46
Provide Learning Opportunities	13	11	14	10	24	95
Tapping Organisational Knowledge	10	10	12	8	20	47

CONTEMPORARY GAPS FOR LEADERS

As Figure 4-7 and Table 4-10 show, seven ideas emerged regarding the gap that exists between what the leader feels is important for effective leadership and what is the reality. It appears that while a gap exists in 'people oriented thinking,' 'relevant training and knowledge,' 'understanding of power' and 'values,' there is more urgency towards 'globalised and transformational thinking.' Concerns were expressed by the leaders which were sometimes culture specific, but generally it expressed the dearth of the system existing in the country. The importance of abiding by values and bringing back those old values which are slowly fading was expressed by a respondent from Sri Lanka.

> *"I think basically within today's context many people coming to the political mainstream for political, or for reasons of expediency, they rarely don't see the sense of duty which is very important to a great degree for a political life...and it is really as a way of increasing their power...except the other things, the other qualities. So, I think it is important that the kind of sense of duty which was instilled in the previous generations of our leaders is missing, and should be brought back to the forefront."*

The lack of appropriate people skills and lack of a culture of constructive criticism is also seen as being a significant gap that exists in Sri Lanka.

> *"People skills...I think analytical skill, sometimes organisational skills, inability to delegate...and I feel that this inability arises sometimes due to their personality... and maybe...in Sri Lanka, the hierarchical structure and the lack of a culture of constructive criticism where you will never criticise the boss. So as a result there is no two way flow of information. Lack of communication because, and that's to do again with the culture of the leadership where the second level is not confident enough to tell the top level what is wrong,*

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thinking there will be repercussions. So the leader gets very isolated. The next level tell you what they think you want to hear instead of telling you what should be told, so that lack of a culture in the country of constructive criticism."

Surprisingly 'gender awareness' as a gap was not released from the responses. This surprising finding may have a cultural connotation. A top level Sri Lankan male leader felt that women in Sri Lanka are quite competent, although there still seems to be a need to socialise towards flexibility and acceptance. "*…Our women are very competent and they are holding very key positions. We have…"* (MSRL=male from Sri Lanka). A Maldivian male expressed his concerns about the opportunity of not utilising females and he puts part of the blame on women for their dilemma of not accessing leadership roles.

> *"...as a traditional society I think we have traditional principles against female……we need to incorporate women...the opportunity cost is huge for not incorporating them and benefit from their contributions. Women themselves need to change their mindset....they are their worst enemies I think....because they themselves often consider themselves incompetent...Our corporate sector...we need to realise that our environment is changing faster than we can imagine, faster than we can adjust to it...and so we need to align our thoughts and our values with the changing environment...A very globalised mindset."* (MMAL=male from Maldives)

Extending thoughts further on the competency gaps for leaders, another Maldivian male expressed his thoughts.

> *"There is a mind set gap...Values gap, democratic gap... That's the biggest thing...At top level...there has to be a complete paradigm shift. You will find that this country has the most skilled people at top level...All of them are skilled, capable ...At the other levels we haven't oriented our human resources to vocational people...Vocational people we have are...doctors, engineers, lawyers etc and we have a lot of them...But the rest who are general workers, just have a very general education and without the skills that are required for functional operation...so we have skills gap as well...For the corporate sector I am not really confident to remark on that, but again I see the...globalisation gap...some are more...comfortable with it....other need to understand that there are others from other countries who could take their jobs that are important to you...I think we have to become open minded and oriented towards external competition....and begin to pay more regard to the kind of globalised values...Especially those that will affect the gender balance that we want to create."*

The absence of a proper culture of socialization and creating awareness was seen as a deterrent to the overall development of society and the advancement of females to rise to their potential. A Maldivian female said that women are socialised to believe that to be submissive and do what is asked of them is the right thing to do rather than take the initiative and do something. This is true especially in the small islands that are away from the capital city. In fact, they do not even see it as being submissive and a hindrance to their progress if they let men make rules and abide by those rules. It is the norm for them. Awareness needs to be created according to one of the respondents.

> *"...personally, I think self confidence, lack of self confidence. Few women in Maldives believe that they can challenge our men, they still believe that leaders are men and very few women believe they have the ability to do it. They think they should be under someone, a male, just as a subordinate. Very, very few women truly believe, even the educated." "Maldivian society needs to realise that they have a history of women rulers and had been ruled by queens and quite powerfully and efficiently for several years. This image needs to be lifted. In the island culture, back then, when it was largely fishing that sustained the economy and men would go to the sea for extended periods and they may or may not return and it was the women who made decisions, raised the kids got things done on the island while the men were gone. They need to realise, they have the capability, they also have history, they have had women committee, they have had women organisation on the island to get things done. I think, once, putting the history together, along with some improved self awareness and confidence in it, many of them have achieved that level or what level and on educationally and so on, this build self esteem and possibility."*

Sri Lankans, on the other hand, felt that female accession to leadership roles are mainly to be blamed on men and their attitudes that have been culturally and socially instilled in them and others. A prominent Sri Lankan said,

> *"...as a female, it has its own restrictions as a leader because a male who performs firmly would always have, at an advantage of being a male, to reach the leadership goal. ...I think that it would be wonderful if one can be a female, enjoy the female characteristics and be successful at the same time. It's very difficult in a man's world. ...that's why you see men at the top in most places, because they are quite vocal, aggressive...feminity is viewed negatively. Being feminine and becoming successful means very difficult because people don't generally take very much notice of women. So you're forced to behave*

like a man, so that you merge with men and they don't notice the difference... Well, I think to a certain extent there is a discrimination there is, gender bias. But although I get frustrated, I move on, I do not let these things bother me too much. Being bothered about men's attitudes too much, I think drains energy away from the important tasks at hand. So I just carry on treating it like a headache that will in time fade."

The number of respondents across gender and country were quite similar except for gender awareness where only few females responded but when examined, with quite strong statements.

Figure 4-7   Contemporary Gaps for Leaders
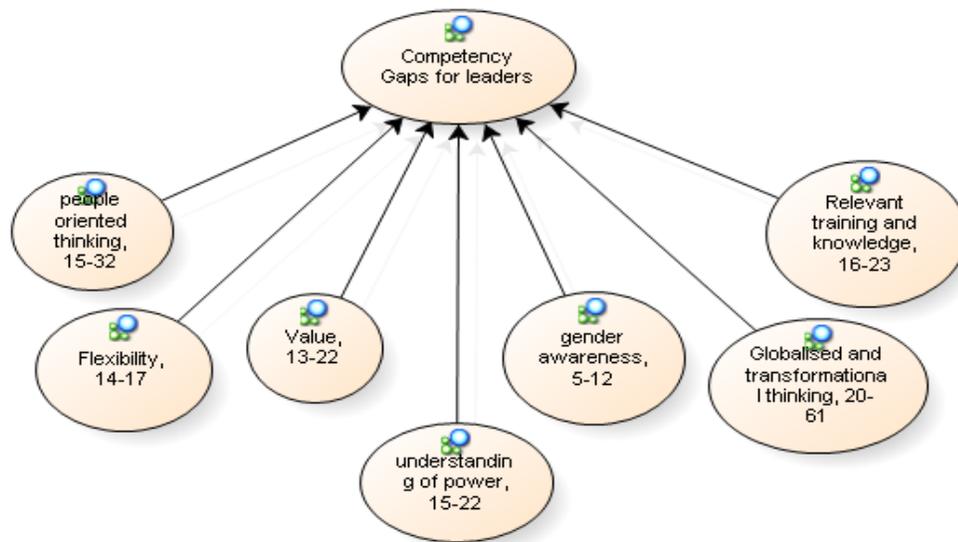
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item. For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-10   Contemporary Gaps for Leaders

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
Flexibility	7	7	8	6	14	17
Gender Awareness	3	2	4	2	5	12
Globalised and Transformational Thinking	10	10	11	9	20	61
People Oriented thinking	9	6	9	6	15	32
Relevant Training and Knowledge	9	7	9	7	16	23
Understanding of power	8	7	7	8	15	22
Values	5	8	7	6	13	22

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) AND ITS IMPORTANCE TOWARDS LEADERSHIP

Figure 4-8 and Table 4-11 confirm that the respondents were representative of the country and gender. It is also shown that the responses to the question, "How does EI contribute towards successful leadership", generated three primary views: as EI being 1) important, 2) not important and 3) 'skeptism.' Several sub categories emerged from the concept of 'EI being important'. A salient observation is that two respondents believed EI is not important. When comparing both the Maldivians and the Sri Lankans, perception of how EI contributes towards leadership success seems to be viewed quite similarly. Maldivians perceive that EI helps in attaining effective leadership mostly by enhancing people skills. Sri Lankans feel that EI helps best through communication, by increasing the ability to control emotions and understanding emotional weaknesses. While the degree of responses of males and females are almost the same, females feel that the importance of EI as a contributor to leadership success lies in its ability to enhance communication and understanding of emotional weaknesses. Males feel that EI contributes more by enhancing people skills. A Maldivian leader expressed his views.

> *"...today we do not buy and sell products, what we sell and buy are relationships through which to sell our products....to build relationships, nothing is as important than emotional strengths...which we can only through emotional intelligence"* (MMAL=Male from Maldives)

Another respondent felt that EI is most essential to operate in the service oriented world we are living now.

> *"This (EI) helps in building the kind of sensitive governance that is essential to operate in the service oriented corporate system of the modern world."*

Figure 4-8   How EI Contributes to Leadership Success
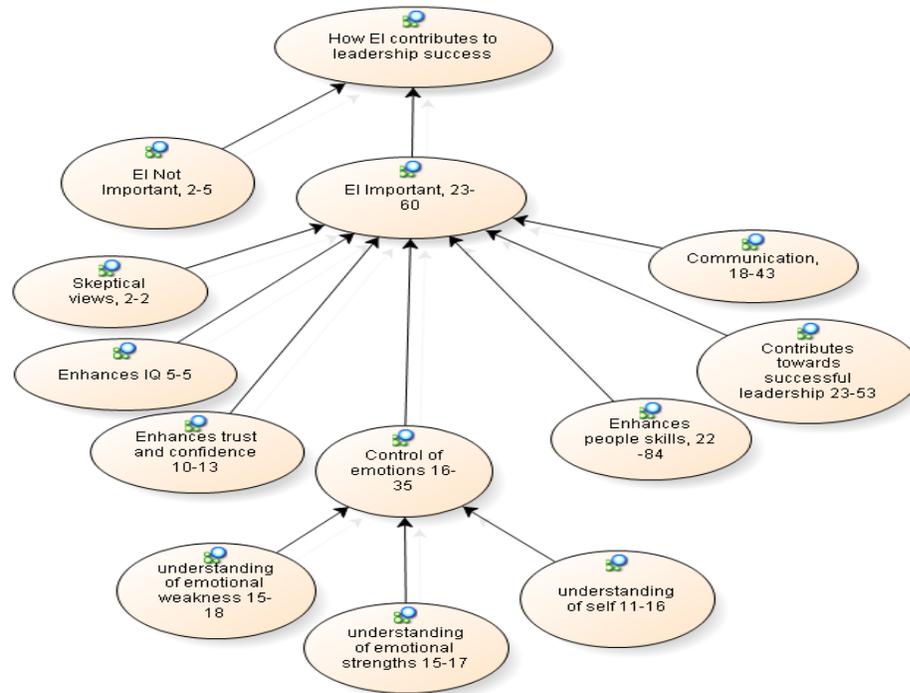
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or   references to the item. For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-11   How EI Contributes to Leadership Success

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
EI Important	12	11	13	10	23	60
Communication,	8	10	8	11	18	43
Contributes towards successful leadership	13	10	13	10	23	53
Control of emotions	6	10	8	8	16	35
understanding emotional strengths	7	8	7	8	15	17
understanding emotional weakness	6	9	6	9	15	18
understanding of self	6	5	5	6	11	16
Enhances IQ	2	3	3	2	5	5
Enhances people skills	12	10	12	10	22	84
Enhances trust and confidence	5	5	5	5	10	13
Skeptical views	1	1	1	1	2	2
EI Not Important	0	2	2	0	2	5

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OPINIONS ON PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

Figure 4-9 and Table 4-12 show three key themes and their sub components that emerged when opinions on participatory approach were analysed. They were 'consultative, but centralised decision', 'contingent' and 'important.' The themes that emerged seemed to suggest that decisions should be centralised, but not without consultation and advice from concerned parties, and also a contingent approach must be used. In the respondents' opinion, its importance seems to lies in its ability to create productive decisions, give a sense of belonging, to create a team culture, to provide emotional and social rewards, to motivate people, to promote learning and create responsible leadership. The responses indicated that, while participatory approach is important, how it is applied is contingent on the circumstances and the people. Maldivians, in comparison to Sri Lankans, were also seen to respond more positively to the importance of participatory approach. Surprisingly, males more than females saw the aspect of participatory approach as being of more significance.

Figure 4-9   Opinions on Participatory Approach
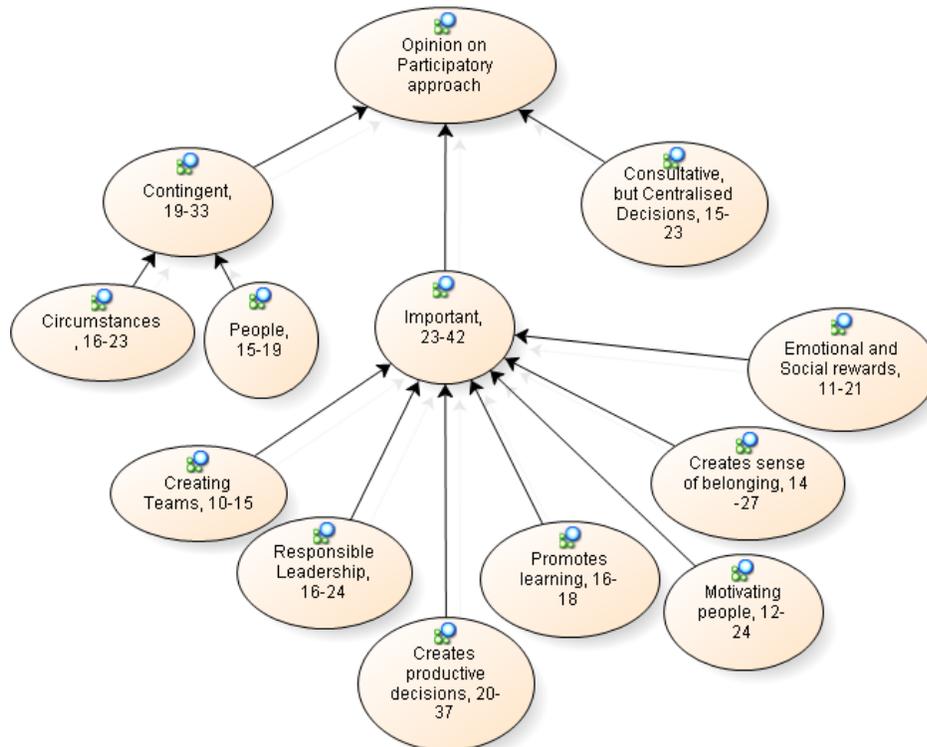
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item.For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-12   Opinions on Participatory Approach

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
Consultative, but Centralized Decisions,	5	10	8	7	15	23
Contingent,	10	9	11	8	19	33
Circumstances,	9	7	9	7	16	23
People,	8	7	8	7	15	19
Important,	13	10	13	10	23	42
Creates productive decisions,	11	9	11	9	20	37
Creates sense of belonging,	9	5	8	6	14	27
Creating Teams,	6	4	5	5	10	15
Emotional and Social rewards,	7	4	5	6	11	21
Motivating people,	8	4	7	5	12	24
Promotes learning,	11	5	10	6	16	18
Responsible Leadership,	11	5	9	7	16	24

One Maldivian expressed his views on Participatory Approach.

"…as mentioned before, in this day and age, employee participation in all levels is crucial to build the competitive advantage…besides, two heads are always better than one in making decisions and therefore, in order to harness knowledge and understanding participation from everyone is required…participation encourages creativity and motivates employees to feel as one…as a team rather than as another insignificant individual….gives them pride of ownership of the decision, of the organization…" (MM)

Another respondent from Sri Lanka articulated her opinion on when and how participation in decision making is applied in her work arena.

"I encourage participation...I think it is good to get people to participate…but there is a question of when, how and to what extent and within what context. Sometimes too many opinions confuse the decision maker…and of course one cannot please everybody. Hence a right balance has to be maintained. What I do is, I discuss the issues, but I make the final decision...of course with due respect and consideration to all different views".

Another Maldivian expressed his views on how participation in decision making, in his opinion, is essential towards successful, responsible and ethical leadership.

"It is a crucial aspect to practicing leadership in a responsible manner...without a culture of participatory decision making leadership cannot be expressed effectively. We should involve, delegate, seek opinions...not necessarily implement all the suggestions...but at least make compromises and take the opinions of the subordinates and colleagues into consideration...when making decisions....as it affects not only the leader it is only ethical to incorporate as many view points as possible into the decision making equation...."

WORK RELATED SATISFIERS AND FRUSTRATIONS

Shown in Figure 4-10 and Table 4-13, three main themes emerged to the question of what frustrates leaders and how they cope with the frustrations. They are, coping behaviours that assist leaders through tough times, what satisfies them, and what frustrates them. The coping behaviours that emerged were anger, contingent approaches, correcting the wrong done, looking at events as a learning experience and exercising patience. Achievement of goals, ethical outcomes and having good rapport with the staff are among the satisfiers. Further features that emerged as satisfiers also included, maintaining a good reputation, having a happy work force, achievement of individual growth and organisational prosperity. What frustrates leaders appears to be, bureaucracy, hypocrisy, immoral insensitive behaviours, inefficiency, inflexibility, lack of a system and lack of imagination. More than half of the respondents from Maldives commented on coping behaviours and most of them seem to exercise patience as a coping behaviour. Sri Lankans mainly opted for corrective measures and only half of the respondents commented on coping behaviours. A prominent Sri Lankan's comment incorporates a general sense of the feeling.

"...frustration is a fact of life. Bureaucracy and conflicts with the unions... Leadership requires tremendous inner strength to evolve appropriate methods to cope with different situations...It is very lonely at the top... buck stops with you...no one else to pin the responsibility....you have to have the spiritual and mental strength to cope with what is happening...have to do your best within your capability....should never lose touch with reality....there is a saying that goes like...' you can't fall off a mat, you can only roll'..."

Looking at satisfiers, all the Maldivians responded to this and have referred to achievement of goals, happy workforce and ethical beneficial outcomes as the most satisfying components. For Sri Lankans, while almost all responded, the most attraction was for achievement of goals, and a happy workforce. Both Sri Lankans and Maldivians were attracted to immoral, insensitive behaviour and inefficiency as the main frustrations. However, some frustrations were very culture specific. One Sri Lankan female leader said.

> "…our country's constant battle within ourselves and destroying what we sweat everyday to build…if we take ten steps forward today we find ourselves stepping back 25 steps the next day. Thus we find our progress is hindered by violence and lack of understanding and insensitivity by some of our people. Our inability to reach forward thus frustrates me most.…"

What seems important as a coping behaviour, as satisfiers and as frustrations seem to differ quite significantly across gender. Where women mainly use 'learning', 'patience,' and 'corrective measure' as a means of coping, men surprisingly use a gamut of many skills as a coping behaviour where 'patience' is the leading tactic.

Figure 4-10   Work-related Satisfiers and Frustrations
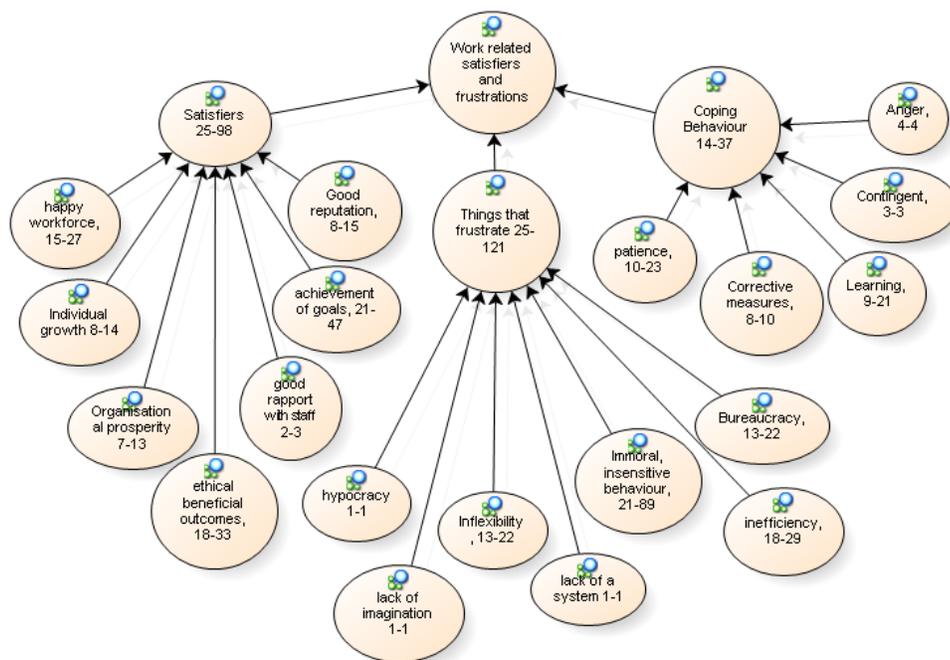
Note: Numbers that appear with the constructs indicates number of respondents and the number of responses or references to the item.For example (24-22) means that there were 22 respondents and 22 references.

Table 4-13   Work-related Satisfiers and Frustrations

QUALITIES	RESPONDENTS BY COUNTRY		RESPONDENTS BY GENDER		Total	REFERENCES
	Maldives (13)	Sri Lanka (12)	Male (14)	Female (11)		
Coping Behaviour	8	6	9	5	14	37
Anger,	2	2	3	1	4	4
Contingent,	2	1	2	1	3	3
Corrective measures	3	5	4	4	8	10
Learning,	5	4	5	4	9	21
patience,	6	4	6	4	10	23
Satisfiers	13	12	14	11	25	98
achievement of goals,	10	11	13	8	21	47
ethical beneficial outcomes,	9	9	11	7	18	33
good rapport with staff	2	0	0	2	2	3
Good reputation,	5	3	4	4	8	15
happy workforce,	9	6	7	8	15	27
Individual growth	3	5	2	6	8	14
Organisational prosperity	2	5	3	4	7	13
Things that frustrate	13	12	14	11	25	121
Bureaucracy,	6	7	9	4	13	22
hypocracy	0	1	0	1	1	1
Immoral, insensitive behaviour,	10	11	12	9	21	89
inefficiency,	7	11	10	8	18	29
Inflexibility,	5	8	8	5	13	22
lack of a system	1	0	0	1	1	1
lack of imagination	1	0	0	1	1	1

THE QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Four main modes of statistical analyses were employed in assessing the data using SPSS 17.0. To determine construct validity, multivariate factor analysis was used and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was adopted to assess construct reliability, the Pearson correlations explained interesting relationships among the constructs, ANOVA with Tukey contrast tests identified mean differences among the gender groups which were partitioned across countries. Furthermore, bivariate relationships of the conceptual model and the mediating effects of the demographic variable of gender were assessed with regression analyses.

FACTOR ANALYSIS

In assessing the psychometric properties of the scales, factor analyses and reliability estimates were performed. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to establish the underlying structure of the interrelationships among the variables of the conceptual model. Specifically, a Principle Components Analysis (PCA) was conducted to extract the maximum amount of variance with each component from the data, with the assumption that the observed variables were a linear combination of some underlying construct (Hair, Anderson, Tatham et al. 1998). In general, about one half of the expected patterns were generated. The results of the factor analysis are shown in Appendix G, Part 1. Tables were generated both as a total sample and for the two study countries. The factor loadings represent the correlation between the individual variables and the overall factor. Loadings greater than 0.40 are indicative of some degree of relationship. Statements with higher factor loadings have an overall stronger relationship with the factor, than those with lower factor loadings. Variables have been shaded to represent the factors to which they belong. Chronbach's alpha was used to determine reliability of scales. Pearson's correlation coefficients between scale variables were calculated.

For the country specific analysis shown in Appendix G, Part 2, demographic variables were recoded due to small numbers in some categories. For example, age was combined and reduced to two categories of less than 40 years and greater than 40 years. Education was also combined into the categories of university education and high school, trade and vocation. Position was combined into two categories: supervisor, and middle management and executive. Years of experience in the workforce and in the field were combined into categories of less than 10 years experience and over 10 years experience. Backward linear regressions have been used to determine predictors of factors calculated in the PCA. Gender (male vs. female), age (greater than 40 vs. less than 40), education (university vs. other), position (executive vs. other), experience in the workforce (greater than 10 years vs. less than 10 years), experience in the field (greater than 10 years vs. less than 10 years) and environment (male dominated vs. female dominated) were entered as covariates. The final models (coefficients, test statistic and significant level) have

been presented for each factor for each country. These models usually contain only significant predictors or predictors close to significance.

There are two major reasons why all the constructs did not factor analyse to the expected patterns. First, conventional estimates require 10 questionnaires for each item in a scale. That is, a scale of 25 items would require a minimum of 250 questionnaires. As the study was conducted mainly on elite leaders, obtaining that many respondents was not feasible. When the expected patterns were not realized, the items were combined to form constructs as indicated in the literature. For example, leadership was evaluated as task and relationship and these constructs were evaluated by combining them as identified in Chapter Three. Reliabilities for each scale were assessed with a combination of items as been traditionally employed and reported in the literature.

A second reason why the expected profiles of factor scores may not have been generated is a function of context. Generally, scale development has been undertaken in Western Countries. Furthermore, many of the scales have been developed in earlier times when lifestyles and businesses actually moved at 'slower', often rational, dimensions. Over time, the world has become more dynamic, earlier values have been revitalized, and consequently the foundations on which many of the instruments were created have changed. Thus, it was not surprising to find different combinations of questionnaire items to the patterns that had been set in much less recent times.

PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

Table 4-14 demonstrates the demographic profile of the sample for quantitative study. Of the total of 64 respondents, 32 were from Sri Lanka and 32 from Maldives, with almost an equal proportion of males to females from both countries, with 48% of overall respondents being male and 52% female. Sri Lankan respondents were significantly older than respondents from the Maldives with 78% of Sri Lankans older than 40 years compared to 34% of respondents from Maldives. Education levels between the two countries were similar with five percent of respondents having high school education, 23% having trade or vocation and 75% having a

university degree. A similar proportion of respondents from Maldives and Sri Lanka held the same position with three percent having supervisory role, 30% in middle management and 67% were executives. There was no significant difference between country and experience in the workforce and experience in the field. Similar proportions of respondents from Maldives and Sri Lanka had less than 10 years experience in the workforce with 18% having less than five years experience, 29% having between five and 10 years experience and 53% having greater than 10 years experience. Twenty four percent of respondents had less than five years experience in the field, 41% had between five and 10 years experience and 36% had greater than 10 years experience in the field. 67% of the respondents worked in a male dominated environment. Undoubtedly education is an esteemed dimension of leadership context which is confirmed by the fact that almost 70% of the samples were employed at executive levels. All these attributes are features that will capture superior personal experience and background knowledge.

Table 4-14   Demographics of Survey Respondents

N (%)	Maldives (n=32)	Sri Lanka (n=32)	Total (n=64)	X^2	p
Gender					
Male	15(47)	16(50)	31(48)	0.063	0.802
Female	17(53)	16(50)	33(52)		
Age					
21-30	6(19)	1 (3)	7(11)	12.444	<0.001*
31-40	15(47)	6(19)	21(33)		
41-50	8(25)	17(53)	25(39)		
Over 50	3(9)	8(25)	11(17)		
Education					
High School	2(6)	1(3)	3(5)	0.000	1.000
Trade/Vocation/Certificate	7(22)	8(25)	15(23)		
University	23(72)	23(72)	46(72)		
Position					
Supervisor	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (3)	0.071	0.790
Middle	9 (28)	10 (31)	19 (30)		
Executive	22 (69)	21 (66)	43 (67)		
Length of time in workforce					
Less than 1 year	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (2)	1.004	0.316
2-5 years	6 (19)	4 (13)	10 (16)		
5-10 years	6 (19)	13 (41)	19 (29)		
>10 years	19 (59)	15 (47)	34 (53)		
Length of time in field					

N (%)	Maldives (n=32)	Sri Lanka (n=32)	Total (n=64)	X^2	p
Less than 1 year	3 (9)	2 (6)	5 (8)	0.068	0.794
2-5 years	6 (19)	4 (13)	10 (16)		
5-10 years	11 (34)	15 (47)	26 (41)		
>10 years	12 (38)	11 (34)	23 (36)		
Environment					
Male dominated	19 (59)	24 (75)	43 (67)	1.772	0.183
Female dominated	13 (41)	8 (25)	21 (33)		

CORRELATIONS

The values in Table 4-15 show the correlation matrix for the study variables. Reliability of scales was measured using Chronbach's Alpha. In general internal consistencies of all the study variables were acceptable and all scales showed significant reliability. In fact, only two of them had Cronbach's Alpha less than 0.7 recommended by Nunnally (Nunnally 1978). Overall, the reliabilities were considered acceptable based on argument by Guildford (Guildford 1965) that values as low as even 0.35 have been found acceptable when used in combination with other measures.

In order to further improve the reliability of the data certain actions were taken. For example Question q13e and q14c were reverse coded to enable the analysis. In the decision making and formalisation scale, deleting q10d from the scale would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.763. Deleting q10j from the scale would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.748. Deleting q 12a from the OCB scale would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.854, deleting q 12b would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.862, deleting q 12c would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.864, deleting q 12d would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.861, and deleting q 12e would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.866. Question 13b and q13e were reverse coded in the job satisfaction scale and q14c was reverse coded in the organizational performance code. Question values were reversed in calculating the reliability of the scale. Deleting q13b from the job satisfaction scale would increase the Chronbach's Alpha to 0.830.

Out of the 22 hypotheses shown on Table 1 in Chapter Two, only five were correlated from the results on correlation matrix. Self efficacy is negatively correlated to task style leadership (-.220, p<0.05, hypothesis H1), Self efficacy is positively correlated to relationship style leadership (.275, p<0.001, hypothesis H2), and EI is positively related to relationship oriented style (.334, p<0.001, hypothesis, H5). PDM was found to be negatively correlated to task oriented leadership style (-.325, p<0.001, hypothesis H9) and OL was found to be negatively correlated to task style approach (-.282, p<0.01, H 18). Many other interesting correlations were found although they were not hypothesised, such as OL and self efficacy (.443, p<0.01); OL and EI (.426, p<0.01); OL and PDM (.460, p<0.01); OL and OCB (.662, p<0.01); OL and Job satisfaction (.449, p<0.01) and many more. This opens up further research opportunities to investigate these interacting effects.

Table 4-15   Descriptive Statistics and Correlation for Total Sample

VARIABLES	Mean	Std Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.Self Efficacy	5.41	.863	(.932)								
2. Emotional Intelligence	5.05	.936	.354***	(.953)							
3. Participation in Decision Making	4.66	.889	.223*	.247*	(.816)						
4.Formalisation	4.58	1.01	-143	-143	.348***	(.670)					
5. Task Leadership	4.11	.852	-220*	-002	-325***	.056	(.794)				
6. Relationship Leadership	4.68	.802	.275***	.334***	.149	.128	-.023	(.527)			
7. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	4.74	.629	.499***	.454***	.320***	.060	-.095	.069	(.843)		
8. Organisational Learning	5.24	1.08	.443***	.426***	.460***	.225*	-.282**	.101	.662***	(.941)	
9. Job Satisfaction	5.27	1.04	.455**	.182	.298***	.023	-187	.048	.409***	.449***	(.810)

Notes: a Correlations >.20, *p <0.05, >.25, **p <0.01 and >.27, ***P < 0.001.
             b. The values in parentheses on the diagonal are its Cronbach Alpha.
             c. Std Dev = Standard Deviation

Table 4-16 shows the correlation matrix across gender. It appears there is a definite pattern emerging through the intercorrelations between, PDM, OL, self efficacy and job satisfaction. Interesting relationships emerged with self efficacy variable. Self efficacy appears to be a predictor of leadership behaviours for both males and

females. However, influence of self efficacy on the actual leadership style of males and females are different. In fact, it appears that self efficacy does not influence either task or relationship oriented behaviours in males, while having a significant influence on female propensity towards both task and relationship orientation. The possible explanation for this curious finding will be elucidated in Chapter Five. Acknowledging that correlations may suffer from multicollinearity (Lani and James 2009) more powerful regression analyses were also conducted.

Table 4-16   **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation across**

VARIABLES	MEAN		Standard Deviation		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Male	Female	Male	Female									
1.Self Efficacy	5.21	5.59	.900	.798	R	500**	-.008	.015	-.345*	.344*	.658**	.465**	.289
2. Emotional Intelligence	4.65	5.44	1.02	.660	.176	R	.017	-.280	-.090	-.002	.632**	.261	.069
3. Participation in Decision Making	4.52	4.80	.909	.863	.380**	.331	R	.484**	-.179	-.027	.158	.220	-.106
4.Formalisation	4.51	4.65	1.10	.930	-.043	-.142	.222	R	-.001	.138	-.065	.041	-.142
5. Task Leadership	4.34	3.89	.974	.663	-.063	.228	-.388*	.126	R	-.249	-.127	-.198	-.046
6. Relationship Leadership leader	4.29	5.04	.780	.643	.119	.226	.185	.086	.340	R	.060	-.026	-.042
7. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	4.55	4.93	.707	.489	.345**	.257	.389*	.107	.040	-.177	R	.642**	.151
8. Organisational Learning	4.94	5.53	1.22	.842	.376*	.398*	.603**	.325	-.238	-.041	.626**	R	.255
9. Job Satisfaction	5.22	5.32	1.18	.897	.579**	.238	.605**	.132	-.256	.077	.563**	.649**	R

Notes: a. Correlations >.344 *p <0.05, and >.4 64 **p <0.01.
   b. Values above the diagonal are for females, n = 33
   c. Values below the diagonal are for males, n = 31

REGRESSION

Table 4-17 show the results for the hierarchical regression analyses for the study variables, as a total sample. 1) self efficacy, 2) emotional intelligence, 3) participation in decision making, and 4) formalisation, 5) with the leadership construct. Table 4-18 shows that a respondent's leadership behaviour is significantly affected by the respondent's propensity towards emotional intelligence tactics, and perception of participation in decision making culture. Despite the F scores being significant, the adjusted R squared values are considerably less than the desirable 0.3 values. This finding shows the investigated model, for the data set (relatively low n=64) is not robust.

Table 4-17 Regression Results for Task Leadership and Relationship

Variables	Task Leadership		Relationship Leadership	
	b	t	b	t
Self efficacy	-.200	-1.576	.174	1.353
Emotional intelligence	.202	1.542	.305	**2.298***
Participation	-.410	**-3.074***	-.028	-.210
Formalisation	.227	1.757	.182	1.391
Adjusted R^2	.134		.113	
F	**3.445***		**2.997***	

Notes: a. b = Beta, t = Value, and F = F statistic
      b. * = p<0.05 (Level of significance)
      c. Participation = Participation in Decision Making.

Table 4-17 shows the interacting effects of leadership construct on 1) organisational citizenship, 2) organisational learning, and 3) job satisfaction. It is shown that organisational learning and task oriented leadership behaviour was negatively correlated indicating that organisational learning behaviour is affected by the leadership behaviour and influences organisational learning significantly through task oriented behaviour of leaders.

Nevertheless, the extremely low values of adjusted R squared values make the finding unreliable.

Table 4-18 Regression Results for Organisational Citizenship, Organisational Learning and Job Satisfaction

Variables	Organizational Citizenship		Organisational Learning		Job Satisfaction	
	B	t	b	t	b	t
Task Leadership	-.093	-.731	-.280	-2.287*	-.186	-1.480
Relationship Leadership	.067	.525	.095	.776	.044	.348
Adjusted R^2	-.019		.059		.005	
F	.414		.296		1.169	

Notes: a. b = Beta, t = Value, and F = F statistic
      b. * = p<0.05 (Level of significance).

Regression Maldives: Table G.23 (Appendix G part two), shows the regression output for Maldives. For leadership behaviour, age was a significant predictor for factor 3 with respondents over the age of 40 having a significantly lower factor score than respondents under the age of 40. Position and gender were significant predictors for factor 4 with those in an executive position having significantly higher factor 4 scores than respondents in a supervisor or middle management role, while males had significantly lower factor scores than females.

Position and length of time in the workforce were significant predictors for factor 6 with respondents in an executive position having a significantly lower factor score than respondents in a supervisor or middle management role, and respondents with greater than 10 years experience in the workforce having significantly higher factor 6 scores than respondents with less than 10 years experience in the workforce.

For EI, education and gender were significant predictors for factor 1 with respondents with a university education having significantly lower factor 1 scores than respondents with a high school or trade/vocation education level. Males had significantly lower factor 1 scores than females. Age and gender were significant predictors of factor 3 with respondents over the age of 40 having a significantly lower factor score than respondents under the age of 40. Males had significantly lower factor scores than females.

For PDM and formalisation, age and education were significant predictors for factor 3 with respondents over the age of 40 having a significantly higher factor score than respondents under the age of 40 and respondents with a university education having significantly lower factor scores than respondents with a high school or trade/vocation education level. Length of time in the workforce was a significant predictor for factor 4. Respondents with greater than 10 years experience in the workforce having significantly lower factor 4 scores than respondents with less than 10 years experience in the workforce.

For self efficacy, gender and environment were significant predictors for factor 1 with males having significantly lower factor scores than females and those working in a male dominated environment having significantly lower factor scores than those working in a female dominated environment.

For OCB, there were no significant predictors for any factors of OCB.

For job satisfaction, gender and education were significant predictors for factor 1 with males having significantly lower factor scores than females and those with a university education having significantly lower factor scores than respondents with a high school or trade/vocation education level.

For organisational learning, position was a significant predictor for factor 2 with respondents in an executive role having significantly higher factor scores than respondents in a supervisory or middle management role.

Regression Sri Lanka: Table G.24 (Appendix G, Part 2), shows the regression output for Sri Lanka. For leadership behaviour, age, length of time in the field, gender and environment were significant predictors for factor 1 with respondents over the age of 40 having a significantly higher factor score than respondents under the age of 40. Males had a significantly higher factor score than females and respondents working in a male dominated environment had significantly higher factor scores than respondents working in a female dominated environment. Respondents with more than 10 years experience in the field had significantly lower factor scores than respondents with less than 10 years in the field. Gender was a significant predictor for factor 4 with males having significantly lower factor scores than females. Position and length of time in the workforce were significant predictors for factor 5 with respondents in an executive position having a significantly lower factor score than respondents in a supervisor or middle management role, and respondents with greater than 10 years experience in the workforce having significantly lower factor 5 scores than respondents with less than 10 years experience in the workforce.

For EI, position was a significant predictor for factor 1 with respondents in an executive position having a significantly lower factor score than respondents in a supervisor or middle management role. Education was a significant predictor for factor 2 with respondents with a university education having significantly lower factor scores than respondents with a high school or trade/vocation education level. Gender was a significant predictors of factor 3 and factor 4 where males had significantly lower factor scores than females.

For decision making and formalisation, gender was a significant predictor for factor 3 with males having significantly higher factor scores than females. Education was a significant predictor for factor 4 with respondents with a university education having significantly higher factor scores than respondents with a high school or trade/vocation education level.

For Self Efficacy, there were no significant predictors for self efficacy.

For OCB, position was a significant predictor for factor 5 with respondents in an executive position having a significantly lower factor score than respondents in a supervisor or middle management role.

For Job Satisfaction there were no significant predictors for job satisfaction.

For organisational learning, there were no significant predictors for organizational learning.

This analysis clearly establishes the fact that contextual variations such as age, position, education and experience influences leadership behaviour. Detailed analysis of all these contexts is beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, these findings are left as opportunities for further scholarly investigation.

MEANS CONTRASTS ACROSS COUNTRY AND GENDER

Gender means and their standard deviations across country are presented in Table 4-19 together with ANOVA results, and the comparisons of means Tukey tests estimations. Inspection of Table 4-19 shows that there are very few significant differences between gender and country. Perhaps this is a testament to the fact that all the samples were highly successful, experienced and mature people whose execution of duties would not differ contrastingly. Furthermore, the low number of samples could be a reason for the results. It was observed that emotional intelligence of the Maldivian females was significantly higher than that of Sri Lankan males. This supports the hypothesis H6. It was also found that females of the Maldives were significantly more relationship oriented than the Maldivian males, as well as Sri Lankan males. In comparison to Sri Lankan males Sri Lankan females were also more relationship oriented.

Table 4-19   Means Comparison across Country and Gender

Variables	Gender				ANOVA		Means Comparison
	Maldives		Sri Lanka		F	Sig	Tukey
	1 Female (n=15)	2 Male (n=17)	3 Female (n=16)	4 Male (n=16)			
Self efficacy	5.65 (0.79)	4.96 (0.84)	5.53 (0.83)	5.45 (0.91)	1.981	.126	n.s
Emotional intelligence	5.59 (0.59)	4.82 (1.11)	5.27 (0.71)	4.49 (0.94)	5.326	.003	1>4**
Participation in decision making	4.54 (0.88)	4.58 (0.84)	5.06 (0.79)	4.47 (0.99)	1.509	.221	n.s
Formalisation	4.33 (1.00)	4.27 (1.11)	5.00 (0.73)	4.74 (1.07)	1.987	.125	n.s
Task leadership	3.97 (0.63)	4.13 (0.92)	3.81 (0.70)	4.54 (1.01)	2.279	.089	n.s
Relationship leadership	5.08 (0.42)	4.23 (0.79)	5.00 (0.83)	4.34 (0.79)	5.810	.001	1>2**, 1>4*,3>2*
Organisational citizenship	4.95 (0.44)	4.45 (0.68)	4.90 (0.55)	4.64 (0.74)	2.285	.088	n.s
Organisational learning	5.44 (0.69)	5.00 (0.96)	5.63 (0.99)	4.88 (1.45)	1.816	.154	n.s
Job satisfaction	5.49 (0.81)	5.03 (1.06)	5.13 (0.97)	5.40 (1.29)	.716	.546	n.s

Notes: a. Values across gender categories are mean scores
   b. Values in parentheses are standard deviations
   c. F = Statistic and Sig = Level of Significance, n.s. = Not Supported
   d. * $p<0.05$, and ** = $p<0.01$ (Level of Significance).

Table 4-20   Summary of the Tested Hypotheses and Findings

Hypothesis	Description	Comment	Evidence
H1	*Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher self efficacy will enhance task-oriented leadership style*	Opposite effect	Table 4-15, Table 4-16
H2	*Leadership style that varies between task and relationship-oriented behaviour is predicted to influence self efficacy and higher relationship oriented approach will promote self efficacy.*	Supported	Table 4-15, Table 4-16
H3	*Females and males will not differ significantly in their self efficacy scores*	Supported	Table 4-19
H4	*Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assumed to influence EI and association of task orientation and EI is predicted to be negative*	Not Supported	
H5	*Leadership style which varies from relationship to task-oriented leadership is assumed to influence EI and association of relationship orientation and EI is predicted to be positive*	Supported	Table 4-15, Table 4-17
H6	*Females will score higher in EI components compared to males*	Supported	Table 4-19
H7	*Females will sport more relationship-oriented behaviour*	Supported	Table 4-19
H8	*Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be positively associated with relationship style leadership*	Not Supported	

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Hypothesis	Description	Comment	Evidence
H9	*Leadership style which fluctuates from relationship to task is influenced by the degree of participation in decision making and participation scores will be negatively associated with task style leadership*	Supported	Table 4-16 Table 4-17
H10	*It is envisaged that gender will intervene the association between participation in decision making and leadership style and females are expected to support participation in decision making significantly more than males*	Supported	Table 4-16
H11	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which is scored as job codification and rule observation will be positively associated with task leadership style*	Not Supported	
H12	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task is influenced by the extent of Formalisation in decision making. Formalisation which is scored as job codification and rule observation will be negatively associated with relationship leadership style.*	Not Supported	
H13	*Males and females will not differ significantly in their formalisation scores.*	Supported	Table 4-19
H14	*Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and task leadership style will have a negative impact on OCB.*	Not Supported	
H15	*Leadership which varies from task leadership and relationship will influence OCB and relationship leadership style will have a positive impact on OCB.*	Not Supported	
H16	*Females and males will be similarly influenced from OCB.*	Supported	Table 4-19
H17	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL, and OL will have a positive influence on relationship-oriented leadership style.*	Not Supported	
H18	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task has an influence on OL and OL will have a negative influence on task-oriented leadership style.*	Opposite effect	Table 4-18
H19	*Females are inclined towards organisational learning habits more than men.*	Not Supported	
H20	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be positively associated with relationship leadership style.*	Not Supported	
H21	*Leadership style which varies from Relationship to Task will influence the extent of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with task style leadership.*	Not Supported	
H22	*It is predicted that Gender will influence the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership style females would score higher job satisfaction compared to males.*	Not Supported	

This chapter presents the data analysis of the qualitative and quantitative methods, leading to hypotheses testing and answers to the research questions. The analysis of the Qualitative data identified many attributes that are important for responsible and successful leadership, and highlighted the importance of personal and contextual factors in influencing leadership behaviours. The results also showed support towards emerging trait/personality approaches such as the Big-5 factors or five factor

model as a significant contributor towards leadership effectiveness and leadership behaviour. The quantitative techniques such as correlation, regression and comparison of means were used. The psychometric results (factor analysis and reliability analyses) indicated that some of the examined variables did not factor as expected and yet they had reasonable construct validities and internal consistencies. Correlations suggested internal relationships, nevertheless, more rigorous technique of regressions were also employed. Although this study evidenced that contextual deviations such as age, position, education and experience exerts influence on leadership behaviour, these findings were not subjected to in-depth analysis as in depth analysis of these findings were beyond the scope of this study. Therefore, these findings are left as opportunities for further scholarly investigation. A summary of the factor analysis is given as Appendix G. Results of the hypothesis testing is presented as Table 20, in which nine of the 22 hypotheses were supported. These results will be discussed in Chapter Five which follows.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

> Leadership is *"an improvisational and experimental art'* (Doh, J. P., and S. A. Stumpf. 2005), and *"a concept that pervades all ages, generations, cultures, and domains of life."* (Cleveland, J. N., M. Stockdale, and K. R. Murphy. 2000)

Chapter Five will discuss the research findings, their implications in relation to the existing literature and the research questions that are being investigated. Both qualitative and quantitative study results will be discussed to elucidate the outcomes of the study in the context of their relevance to the research questions being investigated. The realistic and theoretical implications of the findings will also be discussed in the context of the two countries of the Maldives and Sri Lanka, which are undergoing rapid transformations from their traditional cultural attitudes and norms towards modern and contemporary values regarding leadership, gender and other contextual factors.

INTRODUCTION

As discussed in earlier chapters, popular leadership concepts in the Western managerial literature have evolved from the trait based researchers of the early twentieth century to behavioural, contingency, transformational and a number of other approaches in recent decades. These converging ideas postulate the leader's role in establishing vision, direction, managing and facilitating change, as well as enhancing the followers' sense of self efficacy. A divergent note in this evolution of approaches has been the work of the GLOBE Global Leadership and Organisational Effectiveness Research Programme research (House, Hanges, Javidan et al. 2004). This extensive and longitudinal study attempted to extend the boundaries of the convergence by examining divergent socio-cultural contexts. There is little prior research available that specifically explores the leadership ideas and characteristics

of leaders, (Sarros, Cooper, and Hartican 2006), especially strategic leaders in the South Asian island countries like Sri Lanka and the Maldives. Hence, the evolution of this study to find out what are the characteristics that are perceived as important for leadership in the Asian context, and whether there are differences in a contextual framework such as culture and gender and what those differences were.

An innovative multi-method approach was adopted for this study. The study began as a quantitative study using a conceptual model based on the available literature and with preconceived hypotheses. As a testament to cultural intricacies that are more apparent in an Asian environment, where relationships and networking are of utmost importance, an opportunity presented to interview a number of impactful, politicians and influential figure heads of large corporations. Thus, the study evolved to combine both quantitative and qualitative methods with the focus shifting from quantitative to qualitative. Interviews were then designed in a manner that would bring out the importance of the variables that were in the conceptual model, perceived as significant towards attaining responsible leadership. No direct questions were asked that would lead to the variables depicted in the research model nor prompted the interview subjects, except in the last stages of the interview where some questions were directly asked. By then the responses that were sought would have emerged either directly or as latent information. Through this research the gap that exists in the knowledge pertaining to leadership values in Asian island nations such as Sri Lanka and Maldives would be somewhat narrowed through identification of characteristics that are significant to accomplish effective and responsible leadership. The findings from the research are discussed.

DISCUSSION

The results obtained were in many ways fascinating and thought provoking. The questions were mainly clarified through qualitative aspects while quantitative research added further information that enhanced understanding. Ten of the 22 hypotheses generated for the research model were also supported and many inter correlations that were not hypothesised surfaced providing further research opportunities.

As discussed in previous chapters, it is the ultimate aim of every organisation to seek effective and dynamic leadership, after all, among other factors, what differentiates between success and failure in an organisation, is the presence of effective leadership. According to Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (1996), it is difficult to delineate the definite combination of traits that facilitate a person to achieve successful leadership. These factors that are perceived by them as essential for successful and responsible leadership, are manifested differently as the circumstances faced them differ. In each of the interviews, the leaders' stories brought to light highly personal, family and other relationship information. In some cases, leadership experiences shaped by the role of others in the family, have indeed been revealing, as this information not only explained the formative philosophical underpinning, but also described them. The study explores the unique qualities, competencies and values harnessed through these personal experiences. What was clear from the start of the study was that contextual factors have a significant impact on shaping the behaviours and aspiration of these leaders. This finding is in line with Cabrera and Bonache (1999) who believed that just as organisations are shaped by the existent culture, so would the character of the managers/leaders be moulded by it. Therefore, the characteristics that emerged were very much the result of the existing contingencies in the two study countries.

Sri Lanka is a multi-racial, multi-ethnic, mult-ilingual country with a long history of feudalism, colonialism and ethnic war that has resulted in depleting most of its resources, opportunities, hopes and aspiration of its citizens. At the time of data collection, people felt that the country had very little hope, and even less confidence in their ability to resolve the issues in the near future. History has since proven this otherwise. Mistrust and uncertainty are part of their system with hierarchical and bureaucratic attitudes that debilitate those who dare to take risks to build businesses and establish some sense in their chaotic livelihood. Sri Lanka is also a very collectivist society, with a hint of individualism (Fernando 2005), and strong cultural and family values embedded in their lives.

While Maldives has a similar individual value system of the people, what governs the everyday livelihood of its people is a reflection of its history and its unique

geographical challenges. Similar to Sri Lanka, Maldives also has a very hierarchical, bureaucratic system which is clearly described by a statement from a Maldivian.

> *"Maldives has a long history of a government system highly dependent on bureaucracy and red-tape. It was governed on a 'need-to-know' basis and the systems and processes were very much catered to a typical assembly line. The leaders were seen as 'untouchables' and the rule of 'boss is always right,' was widely acknowledged in the public sector. The sub-ordinates main duty was to impress the boss, and fulfilling the formal roles and responsibilities came second. The key attributes that makes a good leadership was non-existent throughout the public sector, from supervisors to directors and from departments to ministries up in the tier. The public sector was seen as uneconomical, inefficient and ineffective."*

From complete obscurity, Maldives emerged as the leading tourist destination through the efforts of smart, educated and frustrated private sector individuals whose dynamic, yet unique management styles brought hope to the country. The mixture of cultural values and Western management philosophies prompted a unique combination of approaches and values to develop the country's private sector which, in turn, prompted policies and procedures to evolve in order to integrate with globalised and transformational thinking. Despite many common elements, perception of responsible leadership differs between these countries.

QUALITIES FOR SUCCESSFUL/RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

The values that emerged as important for successful/responsible leadership were quite unique, although there were similarities between the characteristics that emerged for a study conducted to analyse the characteristics of successful leaders which identified seven key characteristics in an Australian context (Sarros, Cooper, and Hartican 2006). While all the characteristics mentioned in the study conducted for Australians, integrity, courage and humility were common to the values identified by the study subjects for this study, however, the degree of importance attached to the values differed. Furthermore, values such as attitudes, learning orientation, participatory approaches, EQ, flexibility, communication and a whole gamut of competencies as can be evidenced from Figure 4-1 and Table 4-1 in Chapter Four, were described and justified as being of importance to the study

subjects for both countries. Many of the subcomponents of EQ such as self awareness and social skills were repeatedly mentioned as of immense significance in executing responsible leadership. What was quite curious was the fact that very few females talked about intuition and intuitive ability as a necessity for successful leadership, despite being generally associated with intuitive behaviour, and in fact, being discriminated and laughed at for their intuitive ability (Hogarth 2008). Attempts to understand the meaning that lies behind females reluctance to talk about intuition, despite being intuitive and using intuition, brought about fascinating stories which leads to the fact that females, while being intuitive, and letting a combination of rationality and intuition prescribe the frameworks of their decisions, females have stopped stressing intuition and intuitive ability. This thinking is adopted, not because they feel that it is less important, but because of the attached stigma implying a weakness according to stereotypical thinking. Their attitude is that, for peace of mind, it is best left unspoken even if they believe it is useful trait/skill/attribute. At the same time, females continue to use their intuitive ability to their advantage. In this sense, intuition coupled with rationality is a component for responsible leadership. Men on the other hand, saw it as a necessary skill. Sri Lankan females did not fit the stereotypically female qualities found in literature. A very concise statement from a Sri Lankan respondent summarised the qualities necessary for responsible leadership.

"But…again (important) qualities of leadership…bring to my mind…a quotation from a 19th century German philosopher. Frederich Neiche…in one of his books says that 'ideal or a true leader must have the soul of Christ and the spirit of Caesar'. I think that is very true…you must be brave, courageous, but at the same time compassionate, and be able to understand the needs of others. I think that really describes to me what the true responsible leadership should be…"

One must have integrity, commitment, assertiveness and flexibility; and yet have compassion, people oriented inclusive approaches and foresight, coupled with courage, determination and conviction, to attain goals and lead the people forward. While having many values that are common to the world in general, specific connotations emerged that underlie the war torn, corrupt insecure environment of constant uncertainty and political upheaval, and the undercurrents that were part of

these two countries, when the interviews were conducted. The values that emerged, thus, reflect how their circumstances are shaping and moulding their values, expectations and behaviours.

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND APPROACHES

The study provides evidence that perceptions are increasingly becoming universal throughout the world in regards to leadership styles and approaches. While distinct style and characteristics of leadership vary in different parts of the world, ranging from highly 'paternalistic' authoritarian to 'country club', it appears that successful Sri Lankans and Maldivians of both genders tend to have a balance between the two extremes. This is probably a sign of change in the region, after all, for centuries leadership values of these islands have been attuned to paternalistic societies. There is also a definite inclination towards transformational styles and contingent approaches showing that in this part of the world successful business and public leaders are beginning to adhere to inclusive decentralized methods while still practicing task oriented behaviours as when they see them fitting the circumstantial constraints. In general, their tendency was to move towards contingent approaches. The leadership behaviours between Sri Lanka and Maldives also differed in many aspects, once again as a reflection of the contextual realities facing both nations. From the latent information on the interviews, it is quite obvious to the listener that their styles and approaches are very much value driven while still adhering to best practice methods that that have evolved with a combination of Western values and contextual contingencies adherent in the societies.

The strikingly transactional nature of Sri Lankans females, unlike the popular belief that females are more transformational and relationship oriented in comparison to males (Eagley and Carli 2004), was a surprise find. The discussions following this find, led to conclusions that the challenging nature of their jobs and the circumstantial realities of the task oriented nature of their situation, brought out this behaviour. To some extent, they may have been influenced by the stereotypical attitudes and beliefs that success is associated with masculinity (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001), and therefore, may have been subconsciously emulating male behaviours. Clarification of this hunch, brought interesting comments,

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suggesting that these behaviours should not be gendered and should be viewed as just behaviours that can emerge from anyone depending on circumstances. The respondents believe that they rise to situations employing what they feel are the most effective behaviours. Whether they are seen as transactional or transformational was not an issue for them, after all, they do not allow prejudice to rule their behaviour. The significance of this finding lies in the fact that in these two culturally intense societies, women have been raised to accept and abide by dependence, passivity, while men were raised to value characteristics such as independence, aggression, competitiveness, and confidence. These views that emerged were verified by the data analysis which revealed that males and females of these two countries adhered to transformational styles equally, while men had a higher preference towards mixed styles. Mixed styles are similar to the emerging leadership behaviour of androgyny which is a combination of both masculine and feminine styles of leadership, which literature suggests to be essential to achieving goals (Park 1997). Indeed, the interviews clearly indicate that in this part of the world, there is a strong preference towards androgynous leadership behaviour compared to the other two polarities of either task or relationship styles. Preference to androgynous leadership behaviours by these leaders may be a manifestation of the contextual contingencies that are shaping them and the world. On the other hand, partiality towards androgynous leadership style by these high profile leaders also raises another interesting question as to whether all successful leaders are androgynous? It appears that these countries are in a transition and whether this extends to the lower levels of leadership is to be established, raising yet another opportunity for research. Nevertheless, there is a need to use outright transactional or task oriented behaviours sometimes, because that is what is expected, as few respondents admitted. It has nothing to do with their preference or their natural inclination. Therefore, the results indicated that the styles that will be used, and are being used are contingent on several contextual factors as can be seen from the interview excerpts that were incorporated into the text, especially in Chapter Four. Given that the women respondents in this study were highly assertive, successful and extremely powerful women, and competing with men by any standards, their responses may not fit well with the stereotypically female traits found in females holding lower positions. After all, these females are right at the top and have achieved these positions by competing with the 'best of the best' and in fields that have traditionally been associated with males.

PERCEPTION ON GENDER DIFFERENCES

Contemporary attitudes adherent in these societies among the general population, suggest that women are fragile creatures incapable of doing what men can do, despite these two countries having had female rulers leading the countries. The interviews suggested that women are defying and will continue to challenge these views proving to themselves and to the world, that they are neither fragile nor incapable. An executive of a large company in Maldives stated,

> *"Until the turn of this millennium, the vast majority in leadership roles such as the Ministers within the Public sector and CEOs and GMs within the private sector were predominantly men. While women too may have had the passion and conviction, it is said that Maldivians have long believed that the important qualities of emotional toughness and emotional resonance were more readily found in men and that they would therefore do better in such positions. This belief no longer holds true and today it is being challenged in every way Firstly stiff competitions from equally capable females are fast changing the gender composition within leadership positions. A strong indicator of this shift in gender was the last parliamentary elections held in 2009 in which many females managed to knock off very strong male candidates. Another indicator is that there are many new private ventures led strictly by females and other businesses in which females play key roles as representatives/active directors in major public firms."*

General belief in the society is that females must act like a man to be successful just as literature indicates (Koshal, Gupta, and Koshal 1998). There was an equal number of those who ignored the negative criticism and behaved as the situations demanded, and treated the consequences and attitudes as a 'headache' that would pass with time, by being persistent. It was interesting to note that the difference in attitudes of the Asian females who were interviewed, and how their attitudes differed from the attitudes of Western females who react to these sorts of behaviours with depression and defeat (Davidson and Cooper 1984). What Western perception would see as inhibiting attitudes, was accepted by females of these island nations as part of the culture, and as part of being females, and they have decided to treat negative attitudes as nuisances rather than letting them hinder their progress. Their attitude was that, they will not let the Western conception of women's frailty, which is the perception norm even in the Asian organisations, deter them from their aims. That

attitude is not only less stressing on them physically, but is also more advantageous to them as females. The fact that men often ignore them, or avoid giving them a challenging time because of the perceived fragility of females, is in fact an advantage, as they feel that they can go about doing what they want with relatively less interference. What was also interesting was that, although some of the females emulated male behaviour, they refused to let that affect them by refusing to let the resulting negativities affect their performance. Women who have achieved powerful positions were extremely competent and intelligent, and did not want to let anything stand in their way of achieving their goals. In this sense, they alternated their styles back and forth and were versatile in their actions and behaviours, dependent upon the needs of the moment in question. Thought provoking ideas emerged in regards to gender socialisation and stereotypical attitudes. What shapes males and females in these two societies seems to lie in the inherent values instilled from childbirth and the values and the aspirations of the parents and teachers during the formative years of a child's life. Similar thoughts have been echoed in past research (Park 1997).

Women in these societies are brought to believe they are inferior and would remain as second class citizens. The consequential lack of confidence in females due to being 'brainwashed' to believe that they are inferior to boys, carries forward through to their adulthood, shaping them to become who they are. Self confidence has been identified by Maldivians as the main hindrance to females accessing leadership positions along with other social and cultural barriers which are again tied to the nurturing of the children as they grow up. And on the other polarity, there are women who are so determined to excel that they proceed to 'rub everybody up the wrong way', and then become a deterrent both to themselves and to other women by becoming a stereotype for all women. Stereotypical attitudes have been known to affect the way people's capabilities are perceived (Koshal, Gupta, and Koshal 1998). Sri Lankans identified male attitudes as a deterrent to their accession to top leadership roles rather than self confidence. Nevertheless, the attitudes towards these sorts of hindrances are very much culturally inclined as this study found. A series of discussions held with lower level leaders to elucidate the findings of this study gave rise to fascinating findings. A curious development from this study was that, while males vocalise strongly about relationship oriented behaviours as being of importance in attaining effective leadership, they fail to recognise relationship

oriented behaviour when adopted by females, as relationship behaviour. Females on the other hand, while naturally behaving in relationship oriented ways, are not aware that this style of leadership is a preferred style of leadership as many studies have shown (Newsweek 2006). This suggests that women may be inhibiting their natural inclinations towards what is being recognised as an effective means of leading, and are probably adapting a more task oriented behaviour to suit what they falsely believe is the right way forward.

APPROACHES TO HARNESS ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

The study uncovered that organisational learning is a concept that is quite new to the region. Generally, people were quite ignorant of what this concept entailed although some concepts of organisational learning are practiced unintentionally and without much knowledge of what that entails. A clear and obvious gap thus exists in the management and leadership structure, as this concept is lacking in the system. This is something that needs to be addressed, to attain better competitive advantage and to meet the challenges of the dynamic transformations that are part of the Asian environment at present. While the concept of organisational learning is generally accepted as an essential quality for successful leadership, there is acknowledgement that this is not yet part of the existing system. The centralised leadership structures, which at the moment are in a transition, more or less inhibit organisational learning in many ways. Paternalistic, hierarchical, centralised decision making is to blame.

CONTEMPORARY GAPS FOR LEADERS

The perception of these leaders reveals that there is a huge gap between what is reality and what should be, in terms of practices and behaviour if they were to compete in the global arena and gain competitive advantage. While a selected few from the two countries are aware of the turbulent organisational arena, the majority of people from both countries are blind to the present day dynamics. Both Maldivians and Sri Lankans are being thrown headlong into the global world and global ways of doing things, without really having a proper understanding of what that entails. Their tendency towards avoidance of uncertainty as mentioned by Hofstede (1980), makes them suspicious of new ways of doing things and use of

survival strategies rather than taking risks and moving forward. This trend was more apparent with Sri Lankans than Maldivians which is probably due to the slashing that the country has taken under occupation, and the war that has debilitated the county for over two decades. People need to be made aware, and given the relevant training and knowledge in regards to what is happening around the world, and what is possible. A Maldivian lady expressed her thoughts.

> *"…we lack the right knowledge to deal with many of the incredibly fast changes that are racing by us. I think, we are…as the saying goes…'jack of all trades and master of none.' We as leaders sometimes feel that being a leader that we know everything. They feel that to admit to not knowing something is a weakness. That should not be. That is a gap that exists in our country."*

A Sri Lankan female respondent also expressed her opinion on this.

> *"I think competency gap lies in our lack of knowledge and willing to receive information and act according to what is right. We try and stick to the old methods while we are trying to move forward. Lack of trust, inability to delegate…also I see as competency gaps."*

There is fear that the old value systems are disappearing or some of it has disappeared, and that these values need to be brought back into the system in order to retain their unique culture, and yet practice the modern techniques and gain competitive advantage. Power needs to be understood as something that can be used without being autocratic and forceful. This requires a complete change of mindset after all; autocratic ways of exercising power has been the norm for centuries due to the paternalistic nature of the society and the high power distance which is associated with developing nations (Kanungo and Jaeger 1990). Traditional ways of looking at women as frail creatures need to be left behind and females considered as valuable assets in terms of economic growth and in gaining a competitive advantage. A very experienced and prominent leader from Maldives wrapped up the gap that exists in the country very clearly.

> *"…narrow vision and unrealistic expectation of reality.…Knowledge and understanding of what is happening around the world…Our inability to convert the information around us to constructive knowledge…that is where our gap lie…Our top leadership has failed to see the changes and adapt accordingly. The flexibility that should have come with the changing circumstances and new and challenging*

demands were not met. In my opinion, what is happening in our country at the moment could have been avoided if we were learning and flexible and adaptable. Unfortunately we are at present facing the stark reality of the consequences of having failed to look at the country with a broader vision…."

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS IMPORTANCE TOWARDS LEADERSHIP

The concept of EI is a term that is not yet explored with little thought having gone into it in these two countries. In fact, the concept of EI was met with significant skepticism, especially from males, although many leaders had a high regard to EI. Being paternalist societies, where being male makes it a complete taboo to be seen as emotional, this view was not surprising. Some of the leaders, although cynical about it, did talk of the possible benefits of EI in terms of this concept being a tool for effective leadership. A Maldivian said,

> *"I think we have to be sensitive, we have to relate to people, we have to be able to care, we have to be able to feel… I don't think any of my staff is afraid of me, ...I don't think any of them would have any issues coming to me with any problems they have – personal…professional … That makes me more accessible to my staff and enables me to stop problems early on. I don't have to wait for external manifestations of a problem before I can begin to feel that things are not right and that there are problems…I am there…Emotional intelligence is a very jargon concept. I assume it to mean being able to….not being entirely on a rational detached terms. Not being able to relate and…reason on a personal level. This is wrong. They want a boss who is willing to relate to them...Although I am younger than some of my staff…I think that the feeling of comradeship and collegial leadership helps a lot and you cannot actually sustain that unless…we can relate to people's emotions invest in the emotional stakes."*

Some of the prominent leaders are using techniques of EI without really being aware that this concept is actually EI and that it is a highly acknowledged subject of the recent past. On the other hand, some of them had a high regard towards the idea of EI and talked highly of its benefits. A Maldivian said

> *"EQ is the key to manage people…today we do not buy and sell products, what we sell and buy are relationships through which to sell our products….to build relationships, nothing is as important than*

emotional strengths...which we can only through emotional intelligence..."

OPINION ON PARTICIPATORY APPROACH

General opinion on participatory approach seems to be that while it is helpful, how it is used and when it is used is very much contingent on the circumstances and types of people involved.

> *"I encourage participation...I think it is good to get people to participate...but there is a question of when, how and to what extent and within what context. Sometimes too many opinions confuse the decision maker...and of course one cannot please everybody. Hence a right balance has to be maintained. What I do is I discuss the issues, but I make the final decision...of course with due respect and consideration to all different views."*

In societies such as Maldives and Sri Lanka, it is also viewed as an impossible task to exercise participatory approaches. The flexibility that is allowed to exercise participatory strategies can become politicised and it often becomes chaotic to do so. In the context of the study countries, especially in the case of Sri Lanka, a leader expressed his opinion on participation in decision making giving a clear picture of how context comes into play.

> *"It can be only successful up to a point. I think, participation in decision making of all stakeholders is important. But on the other hand if you especially , I am talking in terms of developing countries like ours, if you leave the decision making to others, or to different stake holders to sit down and come to a consensus, it will never happen. So what is important is again the role of the leader become important. You must get the participation of all the stakeholders, but when it comes to decision time, one person or the leader must be able to decide, to take control and decide on behalf of the whole group, taking all their views into consideration."*

Nevertheless, employing participatory approaches and skills is viewed as a crucial strategy to exercise responsible leadership, as well as being an ethical imperative irrespective of whether it works or not. This view is consistent with literature which suggested use of participatory approaches on moral grounds irrespective of outcome (Locke and Schweiger 1979). A Sri Lankan leader confirmed this view.

"It is a crucial aspect to practicing leadership in a responsible manner....without a culture of participatory decision making leadership cannot be expressed effectively. We should involve, delegate, seek opinions...not necessarily implement all the suggestions...but at least make compromises and take the opinions of the subordinates and colleagues into consideration ...when making decisions...as it affects not only the leader it is only ethical to incorporate as many view points as possible into the decision making equation...."

The respondents' answers also show that employing participatory approaches is often gendered. Women are often ignored and their thoughts are seen as insignificant. In this sense, a large proportion of the labour force, especially that of Sri Lanka, is under utilised and denied the right to express their thoughts or to contribute towards the development of the nation. According to a concerned respondent, "an enormous pool of talent that can be harnessed to lead society into economic prosperity" is being wasted by curbing their participation in the development of a society whose misfortunes or prosperities are also shared by them equally.

WORK RELATED SATISFIERS AND FRUSTRATIONS

It is interesting to note that while these countries had so much in common in terms of what frustrates them, what satisfies them was quite different, although there were some common elements. Within a strikingly goal oriented country with a task driven approach, Sri Lankans in general sought satisfaction through a mix of tangible achievements such as reaching targeted goals and being appreciated. Generally, this view is echoed by all males, although Sri Lankans stood out in their preference towards this attitude.

"I would say what gives me the most satisfaction is seeing what is considered impossible to achieve by many people...being achieved successfully. And being appreciated as well... gives me... immense satisfaction."

What satisfies females of both countries, more so than the Maldivian females were the intangible factors of a sense of achievement, appreciation by the people and a

happier workforce rather than just an achievement of goals. A Maldivian female expressed her views on what satisfies her, stressing the importance of intangible factors as a driver of her satisfaction.

> *"What gives me greatest satisfaction is to know that I have lived up to the expectations of my people and that I have achieved what I was attempting to achieve. It gives me great pleasure to know that I have done my best even if it means my best was not enough to get what I want."*

There were so many things that have frustrated, and continue to frustrate the leaders of these two countries. What stands out most is rigidity towards new ideas and bureaucracy, and these two things seem to be the root cause for all other frustrations. A prominent leader from Sri Lanka spoke of his frustration.

> *"Mainly lack of understanding and openness to new ideas,... What also frustrate me are hierocracy, lies and our bureaucracy which is basically our downfall. I get frustrated with laziness, and downright stubbornness."*

This view is shared even by Maldivian leaders, both males and females alike. They abhor the bureaucracy, the inflexibility and the centralised decision making that slows things down and keeps their hands tied; unable to exercise any autonomy and move forward with the changing times and the changing tides which they realise are the only ways forward. A general feeling of frustration was evident among all these leaders.

EXPLANATION FOR THE SUPPORTED HYPOTHESES

The quantitative techniques such as correlation, regression and comparison of means, which are designed for use with larger samples, were employed as a component of this study, with full awareness and knowledge of possible consequences of a small sample. As a lot of preparation work had gone into the study by the time the research direction changed from quantitative to qualitative, it was decided to conduct the quantitative analysis anyway, as a minor component, in order to demonstrate the knowledge of the techniques and also with the hope that these techniques may tease out the really strong relationships which do exist. Despite the low sample for quantitative analysis, the psychometric results (factor analysis and reliability

analyses) indicated that although some of the examined variables did not factor as expected, they had reasonable construct validities and internal consistencies providing confidence in using them for hypothesis testing in future, but with possible adjustments to reflect the contingent cultural and organisational context.

Out of the 22 hypotheses that were tested, only nine were correlated with leadership styles. Self efficacy was predicted to have a positive relationship with task oriented style and relationship oriented leadership styles. However, task oriented leadership style had a completely opposite effect on self efficacy while relationship style was correlated as predicted. Self efficacy was hypothesised to enhance task oriented leadership style, or in other words, to have a positive relationship with task style leadership. Interestingly, what emerged was the exact opposite, where self efficacy was negatively correlated with the total sample results (Table 15) and a negative correlation of self efficacy with task leadership style for females and also a positive correlation with relationship oriented leadership style, also for females (Table 16), while there was no effect on males themselves. This suggests that the effect of the correlation, that is seen across the total sample, may be a manifestation of female perception only. This curious finding may have two explanations. Firstly, this may very well be an effect of multicollinearity (Lani and James 2009). On the other hand, this may have something to do with the negative stereotyping and the lack of confidence on female capability, manifesting itself as a task behaviour on the part of females in order to reach their targets or get things achieved by people. The positive relationship with self efficacy and relationship leadership for females could be that females feel that once self confidence is established and people's confidence in female capability increases, it is easier to get things done without having to resort to task oriented approaches. This view supports the positive correlation of self efficacy with relationship oriented style of leadership behaviour hypothesised (H2).

It was envisaged that relationship oriented leadership will be positively correlated. This was supported and not surprising as literature is rife with EI and its compatibility with relationship oriented and communal approaches (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003). Furthermore, this study was also done on highly successful people and successful individuals have been positively linked to components of EI (Hopkins 2005, Goleman, 1998a #267). It was predicted that

females will have higher EI as well as a greater propensity towards relationship oriented styles and this was both supported. Literature states that women are more aware of their emotions, show more empathy, and are more adept interpersonally and thus, associated with relationship oriented approaches (Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen 2003).

PDM was predicted to have a negative association with task oriented approach. Consistent with literature, the prediction was supported. Literature points to the possibility of people in power resisting PDM and viewing PDM as a threat to their power (Crandall and Parnell 2001). According to Schlesinger and Klein (Schlesinger and Klein 1987), resistance to PDM could also be due to the fact that in order to accommodate PDM, it is often a requirement to change the existing styles of those people in power to become more flexible and adaptable, and people in authority are reluctant to do so. Hence, more participatory approaches are associated with less task behaviour. It was also envisaged that PDM will have a different gender orientation and this prediction was supported as well. While recognizing the effect of multicollinearity (Lani and James 2009), other possible explanations may lie in PDM having a negative effect on task style leadership of males and no effect on females. Female's indifference towards participation may lie in the organisational culture apparent in the institutions in which they belong, after all, organisational culture has been linked in literature to participatory approaches (Parnell and Crandall 2001)and thus, this finding may not be a conclusion that one can generalise on without further research into this effect. Another possible explanation is that although females do employ PDM approaches they may not want to be advertised for that, due to possible perceptions of them seeking help in decisions inplying incompetency. Furthermore, these female subjects who participated in this study may belong to organisational cultures that have a good balance of task and relationship approaches where, depending on the circumstances, different degrees of participation approaches are applied to the work and hence, do not see this as an issue. A possible opportunity lies here for this to be investigated further. These views were actually emphasised by the subjects of the qualitative study. A female voice from Maldives expressed her thoughts.

"It is frustrating that our actions are often misjudged. For example, if I were to seek advice on decisions, I am regarded as incompetent and if I don't ask, I am considered arrogant. But the same behaviour from males is regarded differently...their need for advice is viewed as...using inclusive approaches, and if men do not ask any participation from their subjects in decision making, they are regarded as extremely competent and confident. Either way we as females are judged negatively. So my view is that...it really does not matter what people think...as long as my conscience is clean and if I am convinced that what I do is the best that I could do... and best action for my staff ...I seek advice as and when appropriate. Sometimes, I do, and sometimes I don't, depending on the urgency and the quality of the decision that is on the table. I have stopped thinking about this or making it an issue."

Based on literature, it was also hypothesised that formalisation would be addressed similarly by males and females. This was supported. Formalisation is a regulatory approach to control processes and procedures (Agarwal 1993) and it is imperative to abide by the existing formalisation framework, irrespective of gender and hence, it is argued that male and female occupants would accomplish tasks similarly within the framework of organisational rules (Eagley and Johannesen-Schmidt 2001). This is more so in a very autocratic style of leadership, apparent in the two study countries.

Organisational citizenship behaviour was predicted to affect males and females similarly and this was supported as stated in literature. This relationship was predicted based on the literature that argued that different components of OCB may be linked to males and females (Heilman 2001) and hence, the overall effect of OCB in terms of its scores, may not differ. But individual differences would be expected, especially given the fact that females are always associated with relationship oriented behaviour and consistent with their nature, they would be more akin to engage in OCB. As Heilman and Chen (Heilman 2001, 431) pointed out, *"Being a helper is central to female gender stereotype prescriptions, which dictate that women be nurturing and socially oriented (communal)."* Nevertheless, this finding is not surprising, given the collectivist nature of the study countries consistent with Hofstede (1993). Irrespective of gender, they help each other and people usually do not mind lending a helping hand to anyone in need.

Organisational learning was found to be negatively correlated to task leadership style, although organisational learning was predicted to have a positive influence on task oriented approach. This is not surprising given the fact that there has not been much research attempting to specifically link leadership and organisational learning phenomena (Berson, Nemanich, waldman et al. 2006), and therefore, the outcome may not be what is stated in the very little literature available on the subject. Besides, the subject of organisational learning is a new concept to the study environment, and in depth knowledge of its benefits may not have not been accepted and widely recognised in the countries studied. Thus, there is a need to educate the study countries on the benefits of organisational learning, a concept that is widely accepted as a tool to deal with the change (Mossholder, Settoon, Amenakis et al. 2000) and is also recognised as a means to achieve competitive advantage (Senge, Roberts, Ross et al. 1995).

Overall, this research conducted in the Maldives and Sri Lanka suggests that, what is important for effective, thus, responsible leadership, in the context of Maldives and Sri Lanka, has many common components with the Western world. However, the unique cultures and the history behind their development have influenced what features they stress, as evidenced in Chapter Four. These attitudes can be understood through the value systems embedded in these sorts of cultures. These two countries are bounded by collectivist approaches rather than individualism, altruistic and humane actions, rather than profligacy, and possess a strong bond with religion, duty and superstitious beliefs as opposed, to rationality. Gender differences were minimal in terms of their perception of what is important to responsible leadership, although differences did exist in the degree of importance assigned to the values that have been identified by both males and females. From the degree of attention given to the values identified as important to attain responsible leadership, it suggested that achievement of responsible leadership is a concern to males rather than to females. Discussion on this subject with independent observers revealed interesting findings. The independent comments suggest that for females, leadership means responsibility and a conscious effort to be responsible is not necessary for them to achieve that. In the Asian culture, females from birth to adulthood have been conditioned to be responsible to the functioning of a unified and a harmonious home front as sisters, daughters and as wives and mothers, while boys have been raised to believe that the

females at home will take care of them. Except in rare cases as a child, Asian boys grow up with very little responsibility towards taking care of themselves, and it is a foregone conclusion that when they leave home with a wife, that there is an unwritten rule that he will be treated no differently from how he grew up. Therefore, to females, leadership and responsibility cannot be separated. Males felt that there is a necessity to constantly stress on responsibility, if leadership does not want to lose focus on ethical matters. There are two different perspectives on how they look at responsibility and leadership, yet to both males and females, responsible leadership is important and must be achieved. These different perceptions are not surprising, after all women's ways of thinking are different from those of men (Gilligan 1982). It is like taking two different roads to the same destination.

In terms of leadership styles, most successful leaders in Asia do not practice transformative or transactional approach, relationship or task approach, as an 'either or' practice, but rather as approaches that are taken selectively and situationally. Obviously, there is no single best style of leadership but rather a combination of several according to the situation. Adherence towards inclusive and decentralized ideas appears to be emerging, although cultural intricacies prevent them from exercising this despite their belief that this is the way forward. All of the influential leaders, irrespective of gender, prefer mixed approaches or androgynous leadership approaches which is discussed in literature, as the future of effective leadership (Park 1997). Significant gender differences are evident with surprising tendency of Sri Lankans, especially Sri Lankan females using more task oriented and transactional approaches to reach their goals rather than the stereotypical, communal or relationship oriented approaches that are attached to being feminine. Discussions on this finding, both with the respondents and with others, led to suggestions that females are often perfectionists, especially these powerful women. They have achieved the status they have through rigorous and challenging experiences with culture, traditions, and beliefs and against all odds. Hence, an obsession with success drives them to seek perfection making them appear task oriented, although their natural tendency is to be relationship oriented people. Their task behaviour does not exclude them from practicing relationship oriented approaches and hence they feel that they maintain a good balance while stressing on tasks to achieve goals. Attitudes and outlook is very much culture driven. Given the powerful positions of the women

interviewed, the softer side of women and their more emotional approach appears to have diminished in significance. The study suggest that national culture, context, values and beliefs manifest themselves through the attitudes, perceptions and behaviours of both males and females resulting in unique styles and approaches that cannot be judged based on the Western measures of success or effectiveness. Responsible leadership in these Asian communities is a function of culture, traditions, morals and organisational context rather than a need to achieve a goal that is separate from the contextual factors surrounding it.

The above discussion explained the results in Chapter Four. Throughout the discussions, the answers to the research questions and to the postulated hypotheses were addressed. What emerged from this chapter is that, while there are similarities between western world and the study countries, the unique culture and the historical development of the study region does exert influence on what is perceived as important for responsible and effective leadership. This chapter also highlighted that there is no one best style that would lead to effective leadership, but a combination of several styles which is dependent on situation as well as individual values inherent in the person brought on by the unique culture and tradition, determines the style applied. Next chapter, Chapter Six, will conclude the study with limitations, and opportunities for further research.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSIONS

"The challenge of leadership is to be strong, but not rude, be kind, but not weak, be bold, but not bully; be thoughtful, but not lazy; be humble, but not timid; be proud, but not arrogant; have humour, but without folly." (Jim Rohn, American speaker and author)

This Chapter which concludes the study, reconciles the results presented in Chapter Four and Chapter Five, and presents conclusions, limitations, recommendations and future research opportunities based on the outcomes of the findings.

This study used a multi-method and a pluralistic approach in understanding the leadership dynamics in the context of Sri Lanka and Maldives. The main focus of this research has been on the examination of contemporary leadership theories and research on responsible leadership and on determining their context and relevant implications to the study region. In depth field interviews were combined with empirical survey results in arriving at the conclusions of this research endeavour. The findings of this research represent an exploratory stage in the development of a body of conceptual and empirical research, addressing relevant issues of South Asia. As this research entails some of the critical assumptions in societal and organisational contexts, studies of this nature inevitably raise theoretical implications given that studies of top national leaders from Asian countries in the non-political managerial context have been rare. For example, while researchers have investigated traits, competencies and other characteristics of top managers in these countries, few attempts, if any, have been made to understand the leadership mindset from the perspectives of the national elite, and to integrate them in terms of corporate level leadership culture. As a result, previous researchers may not have been able to provide the leadership phenomenon in the context of the geographical area represented in this study.

DETERMINANTS OF LEADERSHIP

Rather than just compiling a list of traits, values or competencies leading to successful leadership outcomes, this research also explored the understanding, motivation and experience base of the strategic leaders. Caution may need to be exercised in interpreting the findings as some of the fundamental philosophies and practices are often embedded in the societal heritage, and accumulated experiences passed through family or organisational successions. This study focused on identifying the critical variables of leadership from a wide range of perspectives, and many of the findings may be applicable to other topics related to this main issue. For example, all previous research emphasised that the higher the self efficacy and competency base of the leaders, the greater would be the performance (Gist 1987). The findings of this research endorses such logic only up to a point, as a number of other factors need to be considered in these relationships. The degree of goal complexity, for instance, calls for experience, mental agility and other behavioural antecedents.

The results detailed in Chapter Four suggest that responsible leadership is often determined by the imperatives of contextual complexity. The competencies, values and experiences as well as a series of other factors, matter significantly, but the role of socio-cultural solutions, context and personal relationships reveal the depth of their convictions and commitments. The key findings indicate a cross-demographic link between learning, practice, circumstantial illuminations as illustrated in Figure 6-1

Figure 6-1   Antecedent Factors to Responsible Leadership
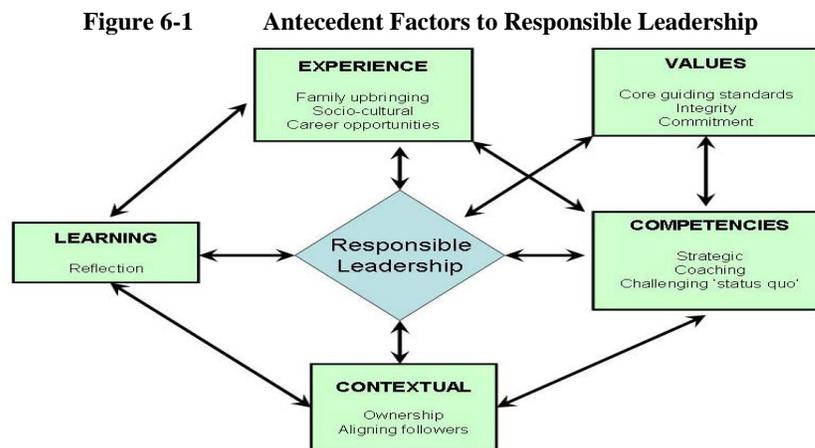
To attain responsible leadership in the context of the Maldives and Sri Lanka requires much more than high competencies and skills. It necessitates a combination of values, experiences and competencies to operate within a flexible, learning environment that further enhances knowledge, and aptitude, to deal with global forces and to operate within a contingent framework. Leadership that would emerge from such a combination would differ from country to country and from situation to situation, and one cannot verify nor be certain what kind, or approach is needed to optimise the prevailing opportunities.

These kinds of research endeavours implicitly or explicitly cannot be without limitations, particularly when they explore the subjective domains of acknowledged leaders.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

What transpired from this study should be interpreted within the context of the limitations of the research design. The qualitative component of this study is based on self evaluated thoughts and may contain some bias in their rating and their important.

Furthermore, the quality of these findings rest very much on the researcher's interpretation of the data. A possibility exists that the researcher's preconceived notions and prejudices may have influenced the interpretations of the study.

While the background of the respondents who took part in the qualitative study is strength of this research, that in itself can be a limitation, given that the respondents in this study are not average. Therefore, these findings may not be generalised as applicable to all the Maldivians or to all the Sri Lankans.

The smallness of the sample is another limitation; after all, the possibility exists that a larger sample may have produced different results. Given the fact that there are numerous contextual effects besides what was examined, selective examination of the variables may be a drawback to this study.

The strength of the data is enormous, yet, in its strength lies a weakness when generalised to this study. The small sample, yet rich in data, challenged the researcher to develop a way to present to the reader, as much information as possible without violating privacy. That seemed an impossible task despite trying to express as much information through visual means such as graphs.

Number crunching, whilst an effective means of analysing data did not hold much strength for the analysis, due to the small sample. Text analysis methods available to analyse text were also found to be insufficient to express the wealth of information that emerged from these respondents.

The framework of this study also restricted the researcher from conducting an in depth analysis on all the interacting relationships. Most of the contextual factors such as age and education were only looked at briefly, in response to research questions, in order to verify whether they influenced the leadership behaviour of the study countries and whether there were any differences within a national context.

STRENGTHS AND RECOMMENDTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As a pioneering endeavour, it is hoped that the findings of this study will lead to further scholarly interest.

1. Collective thoughts, views, frustrations, aspirations and hopes of the top leaders in these countries have emerged as never before recorded, highlighting what is important and what needs to be done. Evaluation of all their thoughts, which are part of the study, and yet, beyond the scope of this study, would offer many research opportunities.

2. Despite extensive literature on the study variables, individually or in combination with other variables, the amalgamation of variables such as

those employed in this study and on these study countries, have never been conducted.

3. The findings also caution the use of Western theories on non-Western countries despite the influence of Western culture in these countries. The importance of this lies in the fact that this study reinforces the wisdom of not generalising on theories and research based on environments that are foreign to the culture in question. Dependence on such generalisation has been the cause of many business failures (Chen 1995).

4. The study also established that Western instruments, while measuring some underlying features, may not always measure what it is intended to measure in a non-Western context. Taking the leadership instrument for example, this instruments was developed at a time when leadership was viewed as 'either or', without considering that there can be an 'in between', or that different perceptions are possible, subjective of the culture.

5. Furthermore, this study also found that the Western designed instruments are versatile and have the capacity to measure much more than they are designed for.

6. It was also established that the quantitative study instruments had good reliability, and hence, their validity was also established.

7. Additionally, the data for this study was unique and originated from the top echelon within leadership, whom are ultimately responsible for establishing ethical, moral and responsible leadership in their respective countries. No one else within these countries would be as knowledgeable as these respondents collectively, concerning what is important to achieve responsible leadership, and what is lacking in the current system. Hence, the rich data that transpired, especially through the interviews of these eminent respondents, is probably the only such data of its kind available to date.

8. Therein lies many opportunities to do an in depth investigation.

9. The limitation imposed by the research prevented the researcher from conducting an in depth analysis on all the emerged relationships. Hence, this study presents numerous opportunities to the academic world to follow through and enrich the knowledge base of leadership.

The study concludes with the view that competencies and skills by themselves do not determine responsible leadership. Responsible leadership is a phenomenon that presents unique perspectives subjective of context. While context plays a major role in the outcome of leadership, caution must be exercised in that none of the contextual influences such as, culture or gender can be viewed as a standalone influence on a leader. What transpires from each leader is unique, irrespective of gender, and is dependent on a variety of factors, that are determined by individual values, culture, and environmental as well as organisational context. No one, at any given point in time, faces a situation that is exactly the same. Therefore, the behaviour that emerges in response to a situation would reflect, not only the leader's values, past experiences, but also his/her priorities, expected results and a whole mix of other influences that cannot necessarily be attributed to gender or just culture alone. Similarly, despite some similarities with the perception of the western world, what is perceived as important for responsible leadership in the Maldives and Sri Lanka were context driven and unique to the countries. Leadership styles, approaches, attitudes and behaviours were more androgynous and mixed, and did not follow a particular pattern or style, that is generally identified or associated with stereotypical thinking in relation to the Asian culture or gender alone.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Research

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT: CURTIN BUSINESS SCHOOL

8th February 2008

Influence of gender on responsible leadership: Evaluation in the two island nations of Maldives and Sri Lanka

CONDUCTED

BY

MARIYAM SHAKEELA
(12527135)

SUPERVISORY COMMITTEE

Dr. C.A.L. PEARSON: Email: cecil.pearson@cbs.curtin.edu.au
PROFESSOR CHATTERJEE: Email: samir.chatterjee@cbs.curtin.edu.au

Curtin University of Technology
School of Management
Kent St, Bently, WA 6001
8th February 2006

Dear Participant,

My name is Mariyam Shakeela. I am conducting a research for a dissertation entitled, "Influence of Gender on Responsible Leadership: Evaluation in the two island nations of Maldives and Sri Lanka"; as a doctoral student in the School of Management at Curtin University of Technology, Perth, Western Australia. This study which will employ a pluralist approach, will be conducted as a cross cultural, one shot, correlational research, to investigate relationships between relevant determinants of leadership behaviour in terms of gender and organisational properties and valued outcomes. The participants of this study would include change masters such as presidents/prime ministers, cabinet ministers and corporate executives and individuals at various leadership positions within organisations.

The success of this study depends on your support in answering and completing this questionnaire. Your input therefore, is invaluable and crucial for the proposed research and for my PhD. The study cannot be completed without it. Therefore, in view of the importance of your contribution to this study, may I respectfully request you to complete the questionnaire? The information provided by you will be of immense importance in enriching the knowledge base of leadership attributes and behaviors.

Attached is the questionnaire which assesses the quantitative aspect of the study, along with a letter of consent to be signed by you according to the regulations set by HREC (Human Research Ethics Committee). Should you have any queries my supervisory committee and I may be contacted by e-mail at the following contact details.

Dr. C.A.L. Pearson: Email: cecil.pearson@cbs.curtin.edu.au
Professor Chatterjee: Email: samir.chatterjee@cbs.curtin.edu.au
Mariyam Shakeela: Email: shakeela@simdi.com

Your agreement to take part in this study is highly appreciated. Hoping for a favourable reply, I thank you in advance.

Yours respectfully and sincerely

Mariyam Shakeela

Student ID: 12527135

Curtin University of Technology
School of Management
Kent St, Bently, WA 6001
8th February 2007

Dear Participant,

Before administering the questionnaire, I would like to reassure you that, as a participant in this study, you have the following rights. 1) Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. 2) You are free to refuse to answer the questionnaire. 3) The information acquired from you will be held securely and in the strictest confidence. 4) The answers you give will not identify you. 5) You will not be discriminated in any manner for refusing to participate in the study.

I also would like to inform you that the information gathered, and excerpts from the interview may be used as part of the final research report and thesis, and may possibly be published. However, under no circumstances will your name or identifying characteristics be included in any publication without prior consent. I would be grateful if you would sign this form to indicate that you are aware of the purpose of this study and you are willingly submitting the information for the stated purpose. Should you have any queries, please contact my supervisory team or me at the following e-mail addresses.

Dr. C.A.L. Pearson: Email: cecil.pearson@cbs.curtin.edu.au
Professor Chatterjee: Email: samir.chatterjee@cbs.curtin.edu.au
Mariyam Shakeela   Email: shakeela@simdi.com

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. Your participation is very much appreciated.

Yours respectfully and sincerely

Mariyam Shakeela
Student ID: 12527135

I have read and understood the contents of this letter and willingly submit the information.

_____ (Name)
_____ (Signature)
_____ (Date)

Please answer all the questions

1   Gender   Male ☐   Female ☐

2   Your age in years
     Under 20 ☐   21-30 ☐   31-40 ☐   41-50 ☐   Over 50 ☐

3   What is your highest formal education?
     High School ☐   Trade/ Vocational/Certificate   ☐   University ☐

4   What is your management position in the organization?
     Supervisor ☐   Middle ☐   Executive ☐

5   How long have you been in the workforce?
     Less than 1 year ☐   2-5 years ☐   5-10 years ☐   Over 10 Years ☐

6   How many years have you been working in your present field of work?
     Less than 1 year ☐   2-5 years ☐   5-10 years ☐   Over 10 Years ☐

7   Is your work environment male or female dominated?
     Male dominated ☐   Female Dominated ☐

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 20 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Very Rarely	Rarely	Slightly rarely	Neither Rarely Nor often	Slightly Often	Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----- 1. I speak in a manner not to be questioned
----- 2. I help my staff with their personal problems
----- 3. I insist that everything be done my way
----- 4. I never refuse to explain my actions
----- 5. I see to it that the staff are working up to capacity
----- 6. I criticise a specific act rather than a particular member of the staff
----- 7. I don't ask for more than the staff can get done
----- 8. I rule with an iron hand
----- 9. I wait for my staff to push new ideas
-----10. I push the staff for greater effort
-----11. I put the welfare of the department /section above the welfare of the staff
-----12. I let others do their work the way they think is the best
-----13. I emphasize meeting deadlines
-----14. I decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by my staff
-----15. I stand up for my staff even though it makes me unpopular with others
-----16. I act without consulting the staff
-----17. I get the approval of the staff on important matters before going ahead
-----18. I resist changes in ways of doing things
-----19. I do personal favours for my staff
-----20. I give in to my staff during discussions

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 25 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Very Rarely	Rarely	Slightly Rarely	Neither Rarely Nor often	Slightly Often	Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----- 1. I associate different internal physiological cues with different emotion.
----- 2. I relax when under pressure
----- 3. I "Gear up" at will for a task
----- 4. I know the impact that my behaviour has on others
----- 5. I initiate successful resolution of conflict with others.
----- 6. I calm myself quickly when angry.
----- 7. I know when I am becoming angry.
----- 8. I regroup quickly after a setback.
----- 9. I recognize when others are distressed.
-----10. I build consensus with others.
-----11. I know what senses I am currently using.
-----12. I use internal "talk" to change my emotional state.
-----13. I produce motivation when doing uninteresting work.
-----14. I help others manage their emotions.
-----15. I make others feel good.
-----16. I identify when I am experiencing mood shifts.
-----17. I stay calm when I am the target of anger from others.
-----18. I stop or change an infective habit.
-----19. I show empathy to others.
-----20. I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed.
-----21. I know when I become defensive.
-----22. I know when I am thinking negatively and head it off.
-----23. I follow my words with actions.
-----24. I engage in intimate conversations with others.
-----25. I accurately reflect people's feelings back to them.
===

The following 11 items describe features of a work setting. Please use the seven point scale to describe the extent you agree they are applicable in your work place.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----- 1. A person can make his own decision without checking with anybody else
----- 2. Most people here make their own rules on the jobs
----- 3. The frequency to participate in the decisions on the adoption of new programs
----- 4. The employees are constantly being checked on for rule violations.
----- 5. A feeling of being own boss in most matters
----- 6. The frequency to participate in the decision to hire new staff
----- 7. How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work
----- 8. People here are allowed to do almost as they please
----- 9. The frequency to participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies
----10. People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rules
-----11. The frequency to participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the professional staff

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 10 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----1) I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
----2) If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
----3) It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
----4) I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
----5) Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
----6) I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
----7) I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities
----8) When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions
----9 If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.
---10) I can usually handle whatever comes my way.
===-

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 24 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----1) I always complain about things that are not important (trivial) ®
----2) I always make a big issue of small matters ®
----3) I always find fault with what the organisation is doing®
----4) I always pay attention to matters that are negative rather than on matters that are positive®
----5) I always complain about work ®
----6) I help new workers to adapt even though not required for me to do so.
----7) I willingly help others who have problems with their work.
----8) I help others who have heavy workload.
----9) I am always ready to offer help to those around me.
---10) I help to do the work of those co-workers who are absent from work.
---11) I try to prevent myself from creating problems for my co-workers.
---12) I do not abuse the rights of others.
---13) I always consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.
---14) I take steps to avoid problems with other workers.
---15) I read and follow all announcements, memos, and others given out by the organisation.
---16) I keep up to date with changes in the organisation.
---17) I am confident that if I do my work honestly, I will be rewarded accordingly.
---18) I help organise get togethers.
---19) I attend meetings that are not compulsory, but are considered important.
---20) I do not extra time for breaks.
---21) I often work beyond office hours even though not being asked to.
---22) I am one of the organisations most honest employees.
---23) I am always punctual.
---24) I do not spend time on personal calls.

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 5 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

---1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job
---2. I frequently think of quitting this job ®
---3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job
---4. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job
---5. People on this job often think of quitting ®
==

Using the scale as illustrated below, please score each of the 8 items to indicate the frequency in which they are encountered by you in your managerial work

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

----1. Our ability to creativity is respected by the leadership.
----2. This organisation can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change.
----3. This organisation publicly recognises those who are innovative.
----4. The reward system here encourages innovation.
----5. Assistance is readily available for developing new ideas.
----6. In this organisation there are adequate resources devoted to innovation.
----7. There is adequate time available to pursue creative ideas here.
----8. This organisation gives me free time to pursue creative ideas.

Thank you for participating.

APPENDIX B

Interview Questions

Questions for Interview

1. What qualities do you feel that a successful leader should have?
2. How would you describe your basic leadership style? Give specific examples of how you practice this?
3. Have you observed any differences in leadership styles between men and women?
4. In your opinion what kind of behaviour contributed to your effectiveness?
5. What do you think are the prominent competency gaps for leaders? Be it corporate or political.
6. Outline your idea of what is responsible leadership.
7. As a leader, what approach do you take to get people together to establish a common approach to a problem?
8. What approach do you take in getting your people to accept your ideas/vision or goals?
9. What do you see as the respective construction of gender in managerial/corporate leaders?
10. Governance is topical. What approaches are you seeing as successful in ensuring good governance in your office?
11. How does emotional intelligence contribute towards successful leadership?
12. What is your opinion on participatory decision making?
13. What is your approach to harness organisational learning?
14. As a leader what things give you the greatest satisfaction at work?
15. How do you prepare people to be managerial/corporate/political leaders?
16. What things frustrate you the most? How do you usually cope with them?
17. When you choose various positions of leadership, what are the criteria for your choice?
18. Think about a mentor/influencer. Tell me what characteristics stand out about them.
19. Would you describe yourself as a transactional or a transformational leader?

APPENDIX C

Global Internet Poll
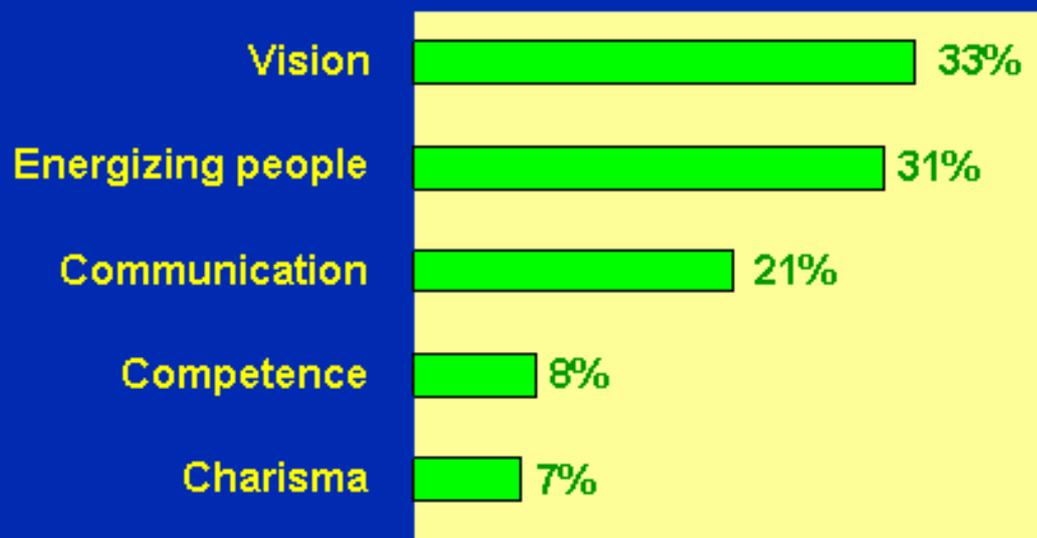
APPENDIX D

Q1 Leadership Traits

Nationality	Gender	Name	TRANSACTIONAL					COMMUNAL							RELATIONSHIP									
			Firm/Decisive	Arrogance	Plans	Goals	Implementation	Passion	Charisma	Knowledge/analysis	Trust/integrity	Positive thinking/optimism	Courage/risk taking/initiative	Vision	Intuition	Delegating/Inclusiv	humility	listening	Communication	Motivations skills	EQ/ empathy	Coach/mentor	Cool/patient	Innovation
sl	m	mahen						1			1			1						1				
sl	m	SLFM					1			1	1			1			1	1	1					1
sl	m	prthb	1									1	1	1		1		1						
sl	m	jay		1				1						1		1					1	1		
sl	m	hux	1	1	1										1	1	1		1					1
sl	m	anuraB		1			1		1		1			1							1	1		
sl	f	anila	1		1						1			1				1	1		1		1	1
sl	f	hthr						1						1	1				1		1			
sl	f	leon	1		1					1	1			1	1						1			
sl	f	indrani									1					1		1	1					
sl	f	rohni				1					1	1	1								1			1
sl	f	Mshm	1							1	1		1	1				1	1	1	1			
Mld	m	AS							1	1	1		1		1			1		1	1			1
mld	m	latheef						1		1	1	1		1		1		1	1	1	1			1
mld	m	doc	1								1		1	1		1					1			
mld	m	Asol					1		1	1			1	1				1	1	1				
mld	m	sobir			1	1				1		1	1	1		1		1	1			1		
mld	m	mj									1			1				1			1			1
mld	m	muj	1			1					1			1					1		1	1		
mld	m	hem									1				1			1	1				1	
mld	f	suz					1				1			1				1	1	1	1			1
mld	f	aysha	1				1	1		1	1	1	1			1		1	1		1		1	1
mld	f	rash	1						1					1				1	1	1	1			
mld	f	MS	1				1		1		1	1	1	1	1			1		1	1			1
mld	f	zah									1			1				1	1		1			

APPENDIX E

Q2 Perception on Leadership Styles

			TRANSACTIONAL								MIXED								TRANSFORMATIONAL											
sl	m	mahen									1								1		1		1	1						TF
sl	m	SLFM	1	1									1									1						1	1	TC
sl	m	prthb	1	1	1						1					1				1						1				MX
sl	m	jay									1	1																			MX
sl	m	hux									1	1							1												MX
sl	m	anuraB					1				1	1																			MX
sl	f	anila			1	1													1			1	1								TF
sl	f	hthr	1											1					1	1	1			1	1	1		1			TF
sl	f	leon		1	1		1																								TC
sl	f	indrani	1	1	1	1	1																								MX
sl	f	rohni	1	1		1					1	1	1			1				1										MX
sl	f	Mshm								1									1	1	1	1	1	1			1				MX
mld	m	AS													1		1		1		1	1			1	1	1	1			TF
mld	m	latheef				1								1				1				1	1		1						TF
mld	m	doc	1								1	1	1	1			1		1	1				1	1						TF
mld	m	Asol		1		1		1	1					1	1	1	1	1	1				1	1							TC
mld	m	sobir									1	1																			MX
mld	m	mj											1	1					1												MX
mld	m	muj						1											1							1					MX
mld	m	hem			1									1		1		1	1	1	1										MX
mld	f	suz																				1	1								TF
mld	f	aysha																	1			1	1		1						TF
mld	f	rash			1				1										1	1	1	1				1	1	1			TF
mld	f	MS	1								1	1		1	1				1							1			1	1	MX
mld	f	zah				1										1					1					1					MX

APPENDIX F

Responsible Leadership

nationality	Gender	Name	Participatory approach	Unbiased leadership	Self awareness and Respect	Teamwork	Willingness to be redundant	Accountability	Decision making and ownership	Integrity / honesty	People skills (EQ)	Results	Flexibility/adaptability to change	Planning, Monitoring & Evaluation	Succession plan	learning	Self confidence
mld	m	AS			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1		1	1
mld	m	Asol	1	1	1	1				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
mld	m	lathf	1		1				1	1	1		1			1	
mld	m	doc	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1
mld	m	sobr	1		1	1				1	1		1			1	1
mld	m	mj	1		1	1					1	1	1			1	
mld	m	muj			1	1					1	1	1	1			
mld	m	hem	1		1	1	1			1	1	1	1			1	1
mld	f	ays	1	1	1	1				1	1	1	1		1	1	1
mld	f	MS	1		1	1			1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1
mld	f	rash	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1				1
mld	f	suz	1		1					1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
mld	f	zah	1		1	1	1			1	1		1			1	1
sl	m	slfm	1	1	1	1				1	1		1		1	1	1
sl	m	anurB		1	1			1		1	1		1	1			1
sl	m	prthb	1		1					1	1	1	1				1
sl	m	jay	1		1					1	1	1	1	1		1	1
sl	m	hux			1	1			1		1	1	1			1	1
sl	m	mahe	1		1	1	1		1		1		1	1			
sl	f	mshm	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
sl	f	ani	1		1		1		1	1	1	1	1				1
sl	f	hthr	1		1	1		1	1		1	1	1	1			1
sl	f	leon		1	1				1	1	1	1	1			1	1
sl	f	indr			1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1		1	
sl	f	rohn	1		1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1

APPENDIX G

Factor Analysis

APPENDIX   G   PART 1

FACTOR ANALYSIS FOR WHOLE SAMPLE

Table G.1   Leadership

	Items	Factors					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
1	I speak in a manner not to be questioned	**0.811**	0.196	0.218	-0.137	-0.023	-0.022
3	I insist that everything be done my way	**0.806**	0.000	0.137	-0.146	0.057	0.226
8	I rule with an iron hand	**0.854**	-0.030	00.23	-00.29	-0.054	0.141
16	I act without consulting the staff	**0.841**	0.018	-0.272	0.122	-0.112	-0.177
18	I resist changes in ways of doing things	**0.557**	-0.209	-0.230	-00.53	0.474	0.335
5	I see to it that the staff are working up to cpacity	0.181	**0.826**	-0.006	-0.067	-0.137	-0.038
10	I push the staff for greater effort	-0.061	**0.859**	0.012	0.162	-0.015	-0.004
13	I emphasise meeting dead lines	-0.058	**0.825**	0.003	0.039	0.259	0.014
2	I help my staff with their personal problems	0.242	0.133	**0.871**	0.004	-0.040	-0.058
19	I do personal favours for my staff	0.051	-0.169	**0.796**	0.086	0.157	0.158
12	I let others do their work the way they think is the best	-0.080	-0.055	-0.181	**0.878**	0.117	0.086
15	I stand up for my staff even though it makes me unpopular with others	0.100	0.382	0.391	**0.519**	-10.22	-0.176
17	I get the approval of the staff on important matters before going ahead	-0.258	0.138	0.121	**0.668**	0.188	-00.31
20	I give in to my staff during discussions	0.328	-0.057	0.385	**0.605**	-0.147	0.244
5	I see to it that the staff are working up to capacity	-0.146	-0.093	0.236	0.059	**0.801**	0.134
7	I don't ask for more than the staff can get done	-0.257	0.086	0.110	0.382	**0.552**	-0.133
14	I decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by my staff	0.365	0.213	-0.228	-0.014	**0.696**	-00.71
6	I criticise a specific act rather than a particular member of the staff	-0.143	0.165	0.430	0.291	0.329	**0.579**
9	I wait for my staff to push new ideas	-00.35	-0.117	0.221	0.212	0.067	**0.779**
11	I put the welfare of the department/section above the welfare of the staff	0.369	0.412	-0.060	-0.090	0.099	**0.680**
Eigenvalues		3.667	2.672	2.294	2.238	1.996	1.786
Percentages of Variance Explained		18.333	13.362	11.468	11.190	9.981	8.930
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		18.333	31.694	43.162	54.352	64.333	73.263

    a. N = 64

    b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Questions, 1, 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16 and 18 measured task style and questions 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 15, 17, 19 and 20 measured relationship style.

Table G.2   Emotional Intelligence

Items		Factors			
		1	2	3	4
20	I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed	**0.836**	0.162	0.247	0.085
11	I know what senses I am currently using	**0.835**	0.199	0.065	-0.126
5	I initiate successful resolution of conflict with others	**0.830**	0.149	0.085	0.295
10	I build consensus with others	**0.813**	0.253	0.244	-0.106
4	I know the impact my behaviour has on others	**0.810**	0.059	0.197	0.299
21	I know when I become defensive	**0.786**	0.180	0.122	0.057
23	I follow my words with actions	**0.786**	0.152	0.125	0.162
15	I make others feel good	**0.782**	0.189	0.293	0.135
9	I recognise when others are distressed	**0.779**	0.223	0.222	0.019
16	I identify when I am experiencing mood shifts	**0.774**	0.232	0.176	-0.086
7	I know when I am becoming angry	**0.737**	0.225	-0.098	0.473
20	I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed	**0.719**	0.147	0.081	-0.286
8	I regroup quickly after a set back	**0.584**	0.281	0.290	0.426
6	I calm myself quickly when angry	0.341	**0.808**	0.093	0.163
1	I associate different psychological cues with different emotions	0.098	**0.788**	0.056	0.181
12	I use internal talk to change my emotional state	0.317	**0.749**	0.181	-0.239
14	I help others manage their emotions	0.236	**0.699**	0.457	-00.05
24	I engage in intimate conversations with others	0.258	**0.577**	0.503	0.097
19	I show empathy to others	0.328	**0.502**	0.423	0.347
2	I relax when under pressure	0.113	0.059	**0.778**	-0.018
25	I accurately reflect people's feelings back to them	0.258	0.335	**0.758**	0.085
13	I provide motivation when doing uninteresting work	0.163	0.556	**0.620**	0.090
3	I gear up at will for a task	0.314	0.095	**0.576**	0.251
17	I stay calm when I am the target of anger from others	0.442	0.273	**0.641**	-0.337
18	I stop or change an infective habbit	0.051	0.510	0.286	**0.573**
Eigenvalues		8.703	4.177	3.423	1.519
Percentages of Variance Explained		34.813	16.708	13.694	6.077
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		34.813	51.522	65.215	71.293

    c. N = 64

    d. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Questions 1, 6, 11, 16 and 21 measured self awareness; Questions 2, 7, 12, 17 and 22 measured managing emotions; Questions 3, 8, 13, 18 and 23 measured motivating yourself; Questions 4, 9, 14, 19, and 24 measured empathy; and Questions 5, 10, 15, 20 and 25 measured social skill.

Table G.3 Participation in organisation and Formalisation

	Items	Factors		
		1	**2**	**3**
9	The frequency to participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies	**0.843**	0.257	-0.144
3	The frequency to participate in the decisions on the adoption of new programs	**0.799**	0.124	-0.021
11	The frequency to participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the professional staff	**0.768**	-0.046	0.182
6	The frequency to participate in the decision to hire new staff	**0.749**	0.075	0.062
8	People here are allowed to do almost as they please	0.085	**0.793**	-0.070
1	A person can make his own decision without checking with anybody else	0.139	**0.783**	0.063
2	Most people here make their own rules on the jobs	-0.183	**0.734**	0.189
7	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work	0.442	**0.727**	-0.118
5	A feeling of being own boss in most matters	0.145	**0.628**	-0.202
10	People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey all the rule	-0.048	0.122	**0.917**
4	The employees are constantly being checked on for rule violations	0.158	-0.191	**0.887**
Eigenvalues		2.803	2.797	1.785
Percentages of Variance Explained		25.483	25.429	16.227
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		25.483	50.912	67.139

a. N = 64
b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Questions 3, 6, 9 and 11 measures participation in the organisation; Questions 5, 1, 7, 8 and 2 measures job codification; and Questions 4, and 10 measures rule observation.

Table G.4 Self Efficacy

	Items	Factors
		1
9	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution	**0.887**
6	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort	**0.845**
10	I can usually handle whatever comes my way	**0.843**
4	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events	**0.834**
1	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough	**0.827**
8	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	**0.813**
5	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations	**0.777**
3	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals	**0.732**
7	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	**0.707**
2	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want	0.629
Eigenvalues		6.284
Percentages of Variance Explained		62.835
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		62.835

a. N = 64
b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table G.5   OCB

	Items	Factors			
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
15	I read and follow all announcements, memos, and others given out by the organisation	**0.892**	0.078	-0.084	0.106
16	I keep up to date with changes in the organisation.	**0.830**	0.212	-0.246	0.170
17	I am confident that if I do my work honestly, I will be rewarded accordingly	**0.779**	0.201	-0.201	0.163
13	I always consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.	**0.692**	0.390	-0.263	0.114
14	I take steps to avoid problems with other workers.	**0.578**	0.454	-0.413	0.117
19	I attend meetings that are not compulsory, but are considered important.	**0.563**	0.460	-0.194	0.233
12	I do not abuse the rights of others	**0.540**	0.481	-0.387	0.131
10	I help to do the work of those co-workers who are absent from work.	**0.489**	0.213	-0.196	0.368
23	I am always punctual.	0.205	**0.756**	-0.120	0.212
24	I do not spend time on personal calls.	-0.046	**0.756**	0.018	0.185
22	I am one of the organisations most honest employees.	0.439	**0.646**	-0.033	0.153
20	I do not extra time for breaks	0.349	**0.612**	-0.082	0.112
21	I often work beyond office hours even though not being asked to	0.483	**0.599**	-0.153	0.270
11	I try to prevent myself from creating problems for my co-workers.	0.479	**0.544**	-0.444	-0.142
4	I always pay attention to matters that are negative rather than on matters that are positive	-0.135	-0.352	**0.801**	0.104
2	I always make a big issue of small matters	-0.199	-0.039	**0.785**	-0.165
1	I always complain about things that are not important (trivial)	0.034	0.132	**0.784**	-0.259
3	I always find fault with what the organisation is doing	-0.424	-0.140	**0.743**	-0.024
5	I always complain about work	-0.523	-0.137	**0.716**	-0.093
6	I help new workers to adapt even though not required for me to do so	-0.106	0.006	-0.056	**0.815**
8	I help others who have heavy workload.	0.263	0.268	-0.106	**0.803**
7	I willingly help others who have problems with their work	0.423	0.227	-0.123	**0.738**
9	I am always ready to offer help to those around me	0.452	0.177	-0.165	**0.720**
18	I help organise get togethers.	0.091	0.257	-0.049	**0.704**
Eigenvalues		5.558	3.931	3.814	3.489
Percentages of Variance Explained		23.157	16.377	15.893	14.539
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		23.157	39.534	55.427	69.966

a.   N = 64

b.   Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table G.6   Job Satisfaction

	Items	Factors	
		1	**2**
3	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job	**0.947**	0.103
1	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job	**0.917**	0.243
4	Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job	**0.839**	0.190
2	I frequently think of quitting this job	0.103	**0.907**
5	People on this job often think of quitting	0.250	**0.855**
Eigenvalues		2.516	1.659
Percentages of Variance Explained		50.317	50.317
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		33.180	83.498

a. N = 64
b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Table G.7   Organisational Learning

	Items	Factors
		1
3	This organisation publicly recognises those who are innovative.	0.908
4	The reward system here encourages innovation.	0.898
5	Assistance is readily available for developing new ideas.	0.859
6	In this organisation there are adequate resources devoted to innovation	0.858
1	Our ability to creativity is respected by the leadership	0.853
2	This organisation can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change	0.815
7	There is adequate time available to pursue creative ideas here.	0.797
8	. This organisation gives me free time to pursue creative ideas	0.766
Eigenvalues		5.719
Percentages of Variance Explained		71.490
Cumulative percentage of Variance Explained		71.490

a. N = 64
b. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Questions 1, 2, 3and 4 measures support for innovation and questions 5, 6, 7 and 8 measures resource supply

APPENDIX G   PART 2

FACTOR ANALYSIS BY COUNTRY

Table G.8   Descriptives of Scale Variables by Country

		Maldives		Sri Lanka		Total	
		Mean	Std. Dev	Mean	Std. Dev	Mean	Std. Dev
Leadership behaviour							
q8a	I speak in a manner not to be questioned	3.41	1.56	3.72	1.82	3.56	1.69
q8b	I help my staff with their personal problems	5.06	1.50	4.75	1.72	4.91	1.61
q8c	I insist that everything be done my way	3.06	1.22	3.50	1.46	3.28	1.35
q8d	I never refuse to explain my actions	4.38	2.27	4.78	1.83	4.58	2.05
q8e	I see to it that the staff are working up to capacity	5.47	0.84	4.84	1.17	5.16	1.06
q8f	I criticise a specific act rather than a particular member of the staff	5.34	1.41	4.91	1.35	5.13	1.39
q8g	I don't ask for more than the staff can get done	5.03	1.51	4.91	1.25	4.97	1.38
q8h	I rule with an iron hand	2.31	1.71	3.41	1.79	2.86	1.82
q8i	I wait for my staff to push new ideas	4.13	1.54	3.84	1.61	3.98	1.57
q8j	I push the staff for greater effort	5.56	1.32	5.00	0.98	5.28	1.19
q8k	I put the welfare of the department /section above the welfare of the staff	3.91	1.30	4.06	1.11	3.98	1.20
q8l	I let others do their work the way they think is the best	4.31	1.09	4.75	1.32	4.53	1.22
q8m	I emphasize meeting deadlines	6.00	0.95	5.47	1.41	5.73	1.22
q8n	I decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by my staff	4.28	1.57	4.25	1.37	4.27	1.46
q8o	I stand up for my staff even though it makes me unpopular with others	5.44	1.13	5.03	1.12	5.23	1.14
q8p	I act without consulting the staff	3.22	1.62	3.84	1.55	3.53	1.60
q8q	I get the approval of the staff on important matters before going ahead	4.91	1.55	5.03	1.36	4.97	1.45
q8r	I resist changes in ways of doing things	3.25	1.63	3.66	1.54	3.45	1.58
q8s	I do personal favours for my staff	3.94	1.76	4.25	1.48	4.09	1.62
q8t	I give in to my staff during discussions	4.28	1.55	4.47	1.16	4.38	1.36
Emotional Intelligence							
q9a	I associate different internal physiological cues with different emotion.	4.66	1.38	4.38	1.72	4.52	1.55
q9b	I relax when under pressure	3.88	1.45	3.97	1.26	3.92	1.35
q9c	I "Gear up" at will for a task	5.38	1.13	5.09	1.47	5.23	1.31
q9d	I know the impact that my behaviour has on others	5.34	1.54	5.16	1.32	5.25	1.43
q9e	I initiate successful resolution of conflict with others.	5.34	1.31	4.88	1.31	5.11	1.32
q9f	I calm myself quickly when angry.	5.41	1.43	4.59	1.62	5.00	1.57
q9g	I know when I am becoming angry.	5.59	1.36	4.97	1.38	5.28	1.40
q9h	I regroup quickly after a setback.	5.56	1.22	5.16	1.32	5.36	1.28
q9i	I recognize when others are distressed.	5.84	1.11	5.38	1.31	5.61	1.23
q9j	I build consensus with others.	5.50	1.16	5.13	1.36	5.31	1.27
q9k	I know what senses I am currently using.	5.53	1.08	4.94	1.22	5.23	1.18
q9l	I use internal "talk" to change my emotional state.	5.06	1.52	4.59	1.41	4.83	1.48

q9m	I produce motivation when doing uninteresting work.	5.31	1.31	4.75	1.34	5.03	1.34
q9n	I help others manage their emotions.	4.94	1.27	4.81	1.38	4.88	1.32
q9o	I make others feel good.	5.34	1.18	5.09	1.47	5.22	1.33
q9p	I identify when I am experiencing mood shifts.	5.34	1.12	5.00	1.32	5.17	1.23
q9q	I stay calm when I am the target of anger from others.	5.09	1.40	4.69	1.28	4.89	1.35
q9r	I stop or change an infective habit.	4.97	1.31	4.50	1.67	4.73	1.50
q9s	I show empathy to others.	5.19	1.47	5.19	1.45	5.19	1.45
q9t	I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed.	5.59	1.19	5.25	1.30	5.42	1.24
q9u	I know when I become defensive.	5.31	1.31	5.00	1.50	5.16	1.41
q9v	I know when I am thinking negatively and head it off.	5.06	1.70	5.00	1.24	5.03	1.48
q9w	I follow my words with actions.	5.56	1.44	5.53	1.24	5.55	1.33
q9x	I engage in intimate conversations with others.	5.19	1.35	4.75	1.41	4.97	1.39
q9y	I accurately reflect people's feelings back to them.	4.69	1.23	4.25	1.50	4.47	1.38
Decision Making and Formalisation							
q10a	A person can make his own decision without checking with anybody else	3.84	1.69	4.06	1.32	3.95	1.51
q10b	Most people here make their own rules on the jobs	3.41	1.66	3.97	1.26	3.69	1.49
q10c	The frequency to participate in the decisions on the adoption of new programs	4.56	1.13	4.72	1.05	4.64	1.09
q10d	The employees are constantly being checked on for rule violations.	3.72	1.17	4.22	1.58	3.97	1.40
q10e	A feeling of being own boss in most matters	3.88	1.45	4.56	1.24	4.22	1.39
q10f	The frequency to participate in the decision to hire new staff	4.59	1.16	4.91	1.09	4.75	1.13
q10g	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work	3.94	1.46	4.44	1.37	4.19	1.42
q10h	People here are allowed to do almost as they please	3.75	1.81	4.16	1.55	3.95	1.68
q10i	The frequency to participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies	4.78	1.31	4.91	1.20	4.84	1.25
q10j	People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey	3.63	1.26	4.25	1.52	3.94	1.42
q10k	The frequency to participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the	4.31	0.86	4.53	1.02	4.42	0.94
Self Efficacy							
q11a	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	5.75	1.16	5.50	0.92	5.63	1.05
q11b	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	4.91	1.03	5.28	0.99	5.09	1.02
q11c	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	5.03	1.20	5.50	1.02	5.27	1.13
q11d	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	5.28	1.14	5.63	1.07	5.45	1.11
q11e	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	5.03	1.18	5.47	0.92	5.25	1.07
q11f	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	5.66	1.07	5.63	0.98	5.64	1.01
q11g	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	5.44	1.19	5.34	1.04	5.39	1.11
q11h	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	5.44	1.41	5.47	1.02	5.45	1.22
q11i	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	5.34	1.41	5.56	0.98	5.45	1.21
q11j	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	5.38	1.07	5.50	0.92	5.44	0.99
OCB							
q12a	I always complain about things that are not important (trivial) ®	2.63	1.29	2.94	1.39	2.78	1.34
q12b	I always make a big issue of small matters ®	2.44	1.41	2.50	1.50	2.47	1.45

q12c	I always find fault with what the organisation is doing®	2.44	1.24	2.78	1.50	2.61	1.38
q12d	I always pay attention to matters that are negative rather than on matters that are positive®	2.88	1.36	2.94	1.48	2.91	1.41
q12e	I always complain about work ®	2.16	1.30	2.44	1.44	2.30	1.36
q12f	I help new workers to adapt even though not required for me to do so.	5.16	1.39	4.81	1.62	4.98	1.51
q12g	I willingly help others who have problems with their work.	5.56	1.13	5.31	1.38	5.44	1.26
q12h	I help others who have heavy workload.	4.94	1.29	5.16	1.39	5.05	1.34
q12i	I am always ready to offer help to those around me.	5.59	1.13	5.31	1.45	5.45	1.30
q12j	I help to do the work of those coworkers who are absent from work.	4.66	1.64	5.50	1.27	5.08	1.52
q12k	I try to prevent myself from creating problems for my coworkers.	5.47	1.14	5.41	1.16	5.44	1.14
q12l	I do not abuse the rights of others.	5.81	1.33	5.56	1.16	5.69	1.25
q12m	I always consider the impact of my actions on coworkers.	5.72	1.08	5.22	1.13	5.47	1.13
q12n	I take steps to avoid problems with other workers.	5.44	1.05	5.34	1.04	5.39	1.03
q12o	I read and follow all announcements, memos, and others given out by the organisation.	5.47	1.14	5.31	1.15	5.39	1.14
q12p	I keep up to date with changes in the organisation.	5.63	1.18	5.31	1.15	5.47	1.17
q12q	I am confident that if I do my work honestly, I will be rewarded accordingly.	5.53	1.39	5.13	1.29	5.33	1.35
q12r	I help organise get togethers.	5.22	1.13	4.72	1.57	4.97	1.38
q12s	I attend meetings that are not compulsory, but are considered important.	5.25	1.27	5.31	1.23	5.28	1.24
q12t	I do not extra time for breaks.	5.03	1.36	5.38	1.48	5.20	1.42
q12u	I often work beyond office hours even though not being asked to.	5.31	1.71	5.94	1.29	5.63	1.54
q12v	I am one of the organisations most honest employees.	5.22	1.41	5.63	1.29	5.42	1.35
q12w	I am always punctual.	4.97	1.47	5.72	1.33	5.34	1.44
q12x	I do not spend time on personal calls.	4.66	1.98	4.84	1.59	4.75	1.78
Job Satisfaction							
q13a	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job	5.81	1.28	5.38	1.29	5.59	1.29
q13b	I frequently think of quitting this job ®	2.91	1.89	2.53	1.44	2.72	1.68
q13c	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job	5.84	1.19	5.34	1.31	5.59	1.27
q13d	Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job	4.91	1.17	4.97	1.18	4.94	1.17
q13e	People on this job often think of quitting ®	3.28	1.46	2.84	1.42	3.06	1.45
Organisational Performance							
q14a	In my workgroup decisions are based on the best available information	5.44	1.27	5.53	1.22	5.48	1.23
q14b	My team members are willing to put in a great deal of effort to get successful decisions	5.31	1.12	5.41	1.13	5.36	1.12
q14c	My colleagues and I do not approach our jobs in a professional manner	2.59	1.62	2.53	1.74	2.56	1.67
Organisational Learning							
q15a	Our ability to creativity is respected by the leadership.	5.78	1.10	5.38	1.29	5.58	1.21
q15b	This organisation can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change.	5.91	1.20	5.34	1.38	5.63	1.32
q15c	This organisation publicly recognises those who are innovative.	5.56	1.05	5.19	1.40	5.38	1.24
q15d	The reward system here encourages innovation.	5.13	1.16	5.22	1.39	5.17	1.27
q15e	Assistance is readily available for developing new ideas.	5.25	1.22	5.38	1.34	5.31	1.27
q15f	In this organisation there are adequate resources devoted to innovation.	4.88	0.98	5.13	1.34	5.00	1.17
q15g	There is adequate time available to pursue creative ideas here.	4.69	1.03	5.22	1.50	4.95	1.30
q15h	This organisation gives me free time to pursue creative ideas.	4.69	1.18	5.16	1.63	4.92	1.43

Maldives - PCA ANALYSIS

Leadership behaviour

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 6 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 71% of the variance in the data.

Table G.9   Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Section 1 statements

		Factors					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
a	I speak in a manner not to be questioned	0.830	0.079	-0.048	0.161	0.195	-0.032
c	I insist that everything be done my way	0.728	-0.071	0.161	0.000	-0.069	-0.139
h	I rule with an iron hand	0.706	-0.067	0.125	0.001	-0.144	-0.269
p	I act without consulting the staff	0.671	0.151	-0.240	-0.436	-0.069	0.136
r	I resist changes in ways of doing things	0.639	-0.351	0.334	-0.038	-0.228	0.238
t	I give in to my staff during discussions	0.582	0.160	0.004	0.522	-0.203	0.213
j	I push the staff for greater effort	-0.014	0.778	0.066	0.067	0.206	0.099
e	I see to it that the staff are working up to capacity	-0.148	0.764	0.148	0.008	0.150	-0.077
o	I stand up for my staff even though it makes me unpopular with others	0.181	0.744	-0.113	0.088	-0.192	0.182
m	I emphasize meeting deadlines	0.004	0.598	0.465	0.444	0.036	0.122
d	I never refuse to explain my actions	0.011	0.034	0.870	0.187	0.124	-0.036
n	I decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by my staff	0.420	0.203	0.587	-0.301	0.074	0.186
k	I put the welfare of the department /section above the welfare of the staff	0.410	0.308	0.584	0.049	-0.347	0.039
b	I help my staff with their personal problems	0.138	0.272	-0.159	0.779	0.097	-0.020
s	I do personal favours for my staff	-0.080	-0.022	0.253	0.703	0.027	0.109
f	I criticise a specific act rather than a particular member of the staff	-0.115	0.256	-0.011	0.340	0.793	-0.065
g	I don't ask for more than the staff can get done	-0.062	-0.103	0.419	-0.001	0.777	0.187
i	I wait for my staff to push new ideas	-0.001	-0.177	0.369	0.281	-0.578	0.013
l	I let others do their work the way they think is the best	-0.018	0.021	-0.036	-0.020	-0.029	0.907
q	I get the approval of the staff on important matters before going ahead	-0.193	0.249	0.208	0.254	0.146	0.599

Emotional Intelligence

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 5 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 71% of the variance in the data.

Table G.10 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Section 1 statements

		Factor			
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
s	I show empathy to others. **(Empth)**	0.836	0.214	0.054	0.201
d	I know the impact that my behaviour has on others **(Empth)**	0.790	0.221	0.326	0.110
g	I know when I am becoming angry. **(MngEm)**	0.775	0.373	0.245	0.029
e	I initiate successful resolution of conflict with others. **(SoSkl)**	0.754	0.442	0.119	0.052
o	I make others feel good. **(SoSkl)**	0.692	0.454	0.048	0.410
f	I calm myself quickly when angry. **(SlfAw)**	0.686	0.465	0.224	0.128
t	I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed. **(SoSkl)**	0.558	0.435	0.444	0.257
l	I use internal "talk" to change my emotional state. **(MngEm)**	0.476	0.351	0.400	0.004
v	I know when I am thinking negatively and head it off. **(MngEm)**	0.359	0.790	0.237	0.034
r	I stop or change an infective habit. **(Mtvte)**	0.360	0.693	-0.189	-0.045
y	I accurately reflect people's feelings back to them. **(SoSkl)**	0.181	0.675	0.099	0.444
k	I know what senses I am currently using. **(SlfAw)**	0.323	0.633	0.372	0.072
p	I identify when I am experiencing mood shifts. **(SlfAw)**	0.310	0.614	0.220	0.247
x	I engage in intimate conversations with others. **(Empth)**	0.268	0.609	0.300	0.243
w	I follow my words with actions. **(Mtvte)**	0.397	0.606	0.484	0.041
n	I help others manage their emotions. **(Empth)**	0.378	0.525	0.270	0.363
h	I regroup quickly after a setback. **(Mtvte)**	0.479	0.480	0.413	0.185
c	I "Gear up" at will for a task **(Mtvte)**	0.142	0.021	0.775	0.157
u	I know when I become defensive. **(SlfAw)**	-0.110	0.481	0.751	0.105
a	I associate different internal physiological cues with different emotion. **(SlfAw)**	0.488	-0.071	0.602	0.064
j	I build consensus with others. **(SoSkl)**	0.449	0.397	0.583	0.277
i	I recognize when others are distressed. **(Empth)**	0.433	0.492	0.549	0.098
m	I produce motivation when doing uninteresting work. **(Mtvte)**	0.403	0.426	0.450	0.172
q	I stay calm when I am the target of anger from others. **(MngEm)**	0.049	0.314	0.262	0.808
b	I relax when under pressure **(MngEm)**	0.167	-0.013	0.063	0.874

Decision making and formalisation

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 4 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 74% of the variance in the data.

Table G.11 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Decision Making and Formalisation Statements

		Factor			
		1	2	3	4
i	The frequency to participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies (**PaDis**)	0.875	-0.073	0.180	0.075
f	The frequency to participate in the decision to hire new staff (**PaDis**)	0.804	0.129	-0.048	0.281
g	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work (**JobCd**)	0.658	0.438	0.420	-0.124
c	The frequency to participate in the decisions on the adoption of new programs (**PaDis**)	0.614	-0.269	0.460	-0.234
k	The frequency to participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the	0.502	-0.334	-0.205	0.413
h	People here are allowed to do almost as they please (**JobCd**)	0.150	0.894	0.202	-0.137
b	Most people here make their own rules on the jobs (**JobCd**)	-0.122	0.812	0.062	0.079
e	A feeling of being own boss in most matters (**JobCd**)	-0.003	0.075	0.842	0.069
a	A person can make his own decision without checking with anybody else (**JobCd**)	0.235	0.269	0.766	0.087
j	People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey	-0.041	0.215	0.251	0.794
d	The employees are constantly being checked on for rule violations. (**RleOb**)	0.295	-0.363	-0.094	0.735

Self efficacy

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 2 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 66% of the variance in the data.

Table G.12 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Self Efficacy Statements

		Factor	
		1	2
g	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	0.885	0.031
f	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	0.861	0.147
i	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	0.819	0.351
a	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	0.785	0.236
h	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	0.778	0.104
j	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	0.687	0.416
d	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	0.644	0.376
e	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	0.522	0.480
b	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	-0.026	0.905
c	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	0.427	0.490

OCB

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 5 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 74% of the variance in the data.

Table G.13 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for OCB Statements

		Factor				
		1	2	3	4	5
X	I do not spend time on personal calls. **(Cons)**	0.865	-0.097	0.076	-0.046	0.062
L	I do not abuse the rights of others. **(Crtsy)**	0.741	0.374	0.032	0.321	0.030
r	I help organise get togethers. **(CvkV)**	0.735	0.228	0.327	-0.037	-0.049
s	I attend meetings that are not compulsory, but are considered important. **(CvkV)**	0.706	0.262	0.316	0.099	-0.082
m	I always consider the impact of my actions on coworkers. **(Crtsy)**	0.701	0.514	0.018	0.256	-0.158
u	I often work beyond office hours even though not being asked to. **(Cons)**	0.587	0.473	0.252	0.181	-0.056
v	I am one of the organisations most honest employees. **(Cons)**	0.578	0.407	0.107	0.023	0.003
t	I do not extra time for breaks. **(Cons)**	0.500	0.285	0.493	0.035	0.122
o	I read and follow all announcements, memos, and others given out by the organisation.	0.065	0.922	-0.016	-0.019	-0.072
p	I keep up to date with changes in the organisation. **(CvkV)**	0.291	0.814	0.245	0.113	0.144
q	I am confident that if I do my work honestly, I will be rewarded accordingly. **(CvkV)**	0.365	0.697	0.328	0.057	-0.057
i	I am always ready to offer help to those around me. **(Altrm)**	0.166	0.594	0.534	0.325	-0.107
n	I take steps to avoid problems with other workers. **(Crtsy)**	0.449	0.569	0.343	0.064	0.298
e	I always complain about work ® **(Spt)**	-0.377	-0.580	-0.435	-0.123	0.342
g	I willingly help others who have problems with their work. **(Altrm)**	0.300	0.487	0.586	0.242	-0.056
h	I help others who have heavy workload. **(Altrm)**	0.309	0.443	0.564	0.194	-0.092
k	I try to prevent myself from creating problems for my coworkers. **(Crtsy)**	0.516	0.342	0.534	0.107	0.179
c	I always find fault with what the organisation is doing® **(Spt)**	-0.314	-0.334	-0.692	-0.026	0.154
a	I always complain about things that are not important (trivial) ® **(Spt)**	0.103	0.033	-0.823	-0.192	0.138
d	I always pay attention to matters that are negative rather than on matters that are positive®	-0.365	-0.097	-0.668	-0.030	-0.212
f	I help new workers to adapt even though not required for me to do so. **(Altrm)**	0.167	0.089	0.022	0.903	-0.119
b	I always make a big issue of small matters ® **(Spt)**	0.025	-0.074	-0.410	-0.743	-0.082
j	I help to do the work of those coworkers who are absent from work. **(Altrm)**	0.244	0.253	0.390	0.185	-0.723
w	I am always punctual. **(Cons)**	0.509	0.244	0.312	0.115	0.639

Job Satisfaction

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 2 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 77% of the variance in the data.

Table G.14 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Self Efficacy Statements

		Factor	
		1	**2**
c	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job	0.933	0.038
a	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job	0.910	-0.200
d	Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job	0.803	-0.120
b	I frequently think of quitting this job ®	-0.041	0.866
e	People on this job often think of quitting ®	-0.133	0.834

Organisational learning

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 2 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 77% of the variance in the data.

Table G.15 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Organisational Learning Statements

		Factor	
		1	**2**
a	Our ability to creativity is respected by the leadership. **(SupIn)**	.915	-.013
d	The reward system here encourages innovation. **(SupIn)**	.868	.153
e	Assistance is readily available for developing new ideas. **(ReSup)**	.812	.187
c	This organisation publicly recognises those who are innovative. **(SupIn)**	.781	.363
b	This organisation can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change. **(SupIn)**	.736	.451
h	This organisation gives me free time to pursue creative ideas. **(ReSup)**	.133	.951
g	There is adequate time available to pursue creative ideas here. **(ReSup)**	.101	.891
f	In this organisation there are adequate resources devoted to innovation. **(ReSup)**	.484	.649

Sri Lanka – PCA ANALYSIS

Leadership behaviour

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 6 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 87% of the variance in the data.

Table G.16 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Section 1 statements

		Factor					
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
H	I rule with an iron hand	0.947	-0.053	0.073	0.013	0.015	0.090
P	I act without consulting the staff	0.903	0.027	0.045	-0.187	0.156	-0.181
C	I insist that everything be done my way	0.865	-0.175	-0.014	0.200	0.142	0.309
A	I speak in a manner not to be questioned	0.808	-0.238	0.218	0.248	-0.001	0.060
L	I let others do their work the way they think is the best	-0.120	0.927	0.051	-0.162	0.061	0.121
Q	I get the approval of the staff on important matters before going ahead	-0.267	0.809	0.033	0.050	-0.058	-0.078
T	I give in to my staff during discussions	0.255	0.739	-0.275	0.166	-0.426	0.118
G	I don't ask for more than the staff can get done	-0.365	0.653	0.207	0.165	0.156	0.301
O	I stand up for my staff even though it makes me unpopular with others	0.111	0.616	0.198	0.566	-0.108	-0.249
F	I criticise a specific act rather than a particular member of the staff	-0.087	0.550	-0.026	0.438	0.372	-0.500
J	I push the staff for greater effort	0.062	0.119	0.918	-0.054	-0.061	0.108
M	I emphasize meeting deadlines	-0.023	0.056	0.886	-0.092	0.197	-0.161
E	I see to it that the staff are working up to capacity	0.518	-0.066	0.739	-0.071	-0.161	0.013
B	I help my staff with their personal problems	-0.010	-0.005	-0.013	0.950	-0.102	-0.012
S	I do personal favours for my staff	0.132	0.081	-0.337	0.877	-0.004	0.211
N	I decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by my staff	0.173	-0.056	0.207	-0.092	0.850	-0.202
R	I resist changes in ways of doing things	0.369	-0.150	-0.133	-0.225	0.779	0.254
D	I never refuse to explain my actions	-0.434	0.239	-0.259	0.294	0.629	0.027
I	I wait for my staff to push new ideas	0.031	0.298	-0.141	0.172	0.026	0.892
K	I put the welfare of the department /section above the welfare of the staff	0.375	-0.330	0.421	-0.140	-0.103	0.598

Emotional Intelligence

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 5 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 84% of the variance in the data.

Table G.17 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Section 1 statements

		Factor				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
u	I know when I become defensive. **(SlfAw)**	0.924	-0.043	0.188	-0.081	-0.012
k	I know what senses I am currently using. **(SlfAw)**	0.906	-0.024	0.031	0.167	0.144
v	I know when I am thinking negatively and head it off. **(MngEm)**	0.902	0.117	-0.024	0.148	0.024
p	I identify when I am experiencing mood shifts. **(SlfAw)**	0.834	0.107	0.234	0.159	0.154
i	I recognize when others are distressed. **(Empth)**	0.824	0.199	0.076	0.154	0.143
d	I know the impact that my behaviour has on others **(Empth)**	0.812	0.203	-0.093	0.428	0.060
o	I make others feel good. **(SoSkl)**	0.732	0.149	0.056	0.345	0.432
t	I provide advice and emotional support to others as needed. **(SoSkl)**	0.676	0.061	-0.003	0.417	0.501
e	I initiate successful resolution of conflict with others. **(SoSkl)**	0.651	-0.010	0.020	0.617	0.329
j	I build consensus with others. **(SoSkl)**	0.650	0.102	-0.010	0.371	0.608
w	I follow my words with actions. **(Mtvte)**	0.578	0.098	-0.060	0.537	0.255
y	I accurately reflect people's feelings back to them. **(SoSkl)**	0.149	0.864	0.134	0.086	0.317
m	I produce motivation when doing uninteresting work. **(Mtvte)**	-0.034	0.844	0.325	-0.072	0.268
b	I relax when under pressure **(MngEm)**	-0.034	0.809	0.041	-0.037	0.011
c	I "Gear up" at will for a task **(Mtvte)**	0.276	0.740	0.104	0.284	-0.096
x	I engage in intimate conversations with others. **(Empth)**	0.141	0.645	0.530	-0.033	0.243
s	I show empathy to others. **(Empth)**	0.254	0.640	0.495	0.145	0.170
a	I associate different internal physiological cues with different emotion. **(SlfAw)**	-0.009	0.169	0.913	0.134	0.078
f	I calm myself quickly when angry. **(SlfAw)**	0.180	0.177	0.897	0.013	0.160
r	I stop or change an infective habit. **(Mtvte)**	-0.143	0.509	0.606	0.344	-0.141
n	I help others manage their emotions. **(Empth)**	0.104	0.522	0.600	-0.035	0.424
g	I know when I am becoming angry. **(MngEm)**	0.506	-0.182	0.172	0.780	-0.059
h	I regroup quickly after a setback. **(Mtvte)**	0.328	0.352	0.203	0.751	0.001
l	I use internal "talk" to change my emotional state. **(MngEm)**	0.095	0.269	0.492	-0.138	0.751
q	I stay calm when I am the target of anger from others. **(MngEm)**	0.361	0.260	0.173	0.095	0.740

Decision making and formalisation

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 4 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 87% of the variance in the data.

Table G.18 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Decision Making and Formalisation Statements

		Factor			
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
c	The frequency to participate in the decisions on the adoption of new programs **(PaDis)**	.901	.236	.050	.004
f	The frequency to participate in the decision to hire new staff **(PaDis)**	.888	-.276	-.188	.146
k	The frequency to participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the	.844	.328	.133	.039
i	The frequency to participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies **(PaDis)**	.641	.634	-.309	.013
h	People here are allowed to do almost as they please **(JobCd)**	.103	.920	-.054	.205
g	How things are done here is left up to the person doing the work **(JobCd)**	.146	.875	-.152	.281
j	People here feel as though they are constantly being watched to see that they obey	-.031	-.136	.952	.102
d	The employees are constantly being checked on for rule violations. **(RleOb)**	.019	-.076	.930	-.080
b	Most people here make their own rules on the jobs **(JobCd)**	.064	.117	.127	.914
a	A person can make his own decision without checking with anybody else **(JobCd)**	-.018	.406	.015	.741
e	A feeling of being own boss in most matters **(JobCd)**	.163	.068	-.555	.728

Self efficacy

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 1 factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 77% of the variance in the data.

Table G.19 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Self Efficacy Statements

		Factor 1
d	I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.	0.933
h	When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions	0.932
e	Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.	0.918
i	If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.	0.916
a	I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.	0.909
c	It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.	0.909
j	I can usually handle whatever comes my way.	0.896
b	If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.	0.882
f	I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.	0.860
g	I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities	0.595

OCB

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 5 factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 85% of the variance in the data.

Table G.20 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for OCB Statements

		Factor				
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
p	I keep up to date with changes in the organisation. **(CvkV)**	0.835	-0.326	0.287	0.097	0.014
o	I read and follow all announcements, memos, and others given out by the organisation.	0.823	-0.273	0.322	0.057	0.021
q	I am confident that if I do my work honestly, I will be rewarded accordingly. **(CvkV)**	0.753	-0.195	0.307	-0.011	0.100
s	I attend meetings that are not compulsory, but are considered important. **(CvkV)**	0.734	-0.189	0.396	0.150	-0.040
j	I help to do the work of those coworkers who are absent from work. **(Altrm)**	0.670	-0.288	0.426	0.275	0.198
m	I always consider the impact of my actions on coworkers. **(Crtsy)**	0.603	-0.417	0.516	-0.025	0.037
l	I do not abuse the rights of others. **(Crtsy)**	0.512	-0.610	0.441	0.069	0.081
d	I always pay attention to matters that are negative rather than on matters that are positive®	-0.093	0.898	-0.036	0.194	-0.250
b	I always make a big issue of small matters ® **(Spt)**	-0.252	0.894	-0.125	-0.077	0.011
e	I always complain about work ® **(Spt)**	-0.325	0.890	-0.074	-0.007	0.007
c	I always find fault with what the organisation is doing® **(Spt)**	-0.311	0.815	-0.107	0.102	0.006
a	I always complain about things that are not important (trivial) ® **(Spt)**	0.126	0.754	-0.035	-0.308	0.427
n	I take steps to avoid problems with other workers. **(Crtsy)**	0.461	-0.615	0.498	-0.004	0.175
w	I am always punctual. **(Cons)**	0.242	-0.170	0.795	0.308	0.096
v	I am one of the organisations most honest employees. **(Cons)**	0.342	-0.120	0.782	0.108	0.276
t	I do not extra time for breaks. **(Cons)**	0.270	0.030	0.757	-0.006	-0.010
u	I often work beyond office hours even though not being asked to. **(Cons)**	0.440	-0.168	0.740	0.259	0.175
k	I try to prevent myself from creating problems for my coworkers. **(Crtsy)**	0.460	-0.541	0.559	0.032	0.079
f	I help new workers to adapt even though not required for me to do so. **(Altrm)**	-0.190	0.074	0.128	0.925	-0.017
r	I help organise get togethers. **(CvkV)**	0.057	0.035	0.096	0.872	-0.077
h	I help others who have heavy workload. **(Altrm)**	0.289	-0.034	0.118	0.844	0.327
g	I willingly help others who have problems with their work. **(Altrm)**	0.486	-0.051	0.094	0.628	0.533
i	I am always ready to offer help to those around me. **(Altrm)**	0.472	-0.106	0.116	0.636	0.545
x	I do not spend time on personal calls. **(Cons)**	-0.056	-0.015	0.242	0.138	0.902

Job Satisfaction

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 1 factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 74% of the variance in the data.

Table G.21 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Job Satisfaction Statements

		Factor 1
q13a	Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job	0.936
q13c	I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job	0.922
q13d	Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job	0.852
q13b	I frequently think of quitting this job ®	-0.746
q13e	People on this job often think of quitting ®	-0.830

Organisational learning

A PCA analyses performed on the leadership statements in resulted in 1 factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 accounting for 83% of the variance in the data.

Table G.22 Varimax Rotated Factor Matrix for Organisational Learning Statements

		Factor 1
c	This organisation publicly recognises those who are innovative. (SupIn)	0.958
d	The reward system here encourages innovation. (SupIn)	0.956
a	Our ability to creativity is respected by the leadership. (SupIn)	0.939
e	Assistance is readily available for developing new ideas. (ReSup)	0.921
g	There is adequate time available to pursue creative ideas here. (ReSup)	0.918
f	In this organisation there are adequate resources devoted to innovation. (ReSup)	0.911
h	This organisation gives me free time to pursue creative ideas. (ReSup)	0.843
b	This organisation can be described as flexible and continually adapting to change. (SupIn)	0.836

REGRESSIONS BY COUNTRY

Table G.23 Regression output for Maldives Leadership behaviour factors

	Coefficient	t	p
Leadership behaviour			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3			
Age	-0.545	-3.557	0.001
Factor 4			
Position	0.379	2.371	0.025
Gender	-0.489	-3.061	0.005
Factor 5	-	-	-
Factor 6			
Education	-0.282	-1.914	0.066
Position	-0.396	-2.694	0.012
Length of time in workforce	0.383	2.642	0.013
Emotional Intelligence			
Factor 1			
Education	-0.360	-2.747	0.010
Length of time in field	0.264	2.010	0.054
Gender	-0.582	-4.518	0.000
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3			
Age	-0.441	-2.823	0.009
Gender	-0.322	-2.059	0.049
Factor 4	-	-	-
Decision making and formalisation			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3			
Age	0.558	4.403	0.000
Education	-0.417	-3.235	0.003
Environment	0.232	1.796	0.083
Factor 4			
Length of time in workforce	-0.503	-2.260	0.031
Length of time in field	0.389	1.748	0.091
Self efficacy			
Factor 1			
Length of time in workforce	0.303	1.914	0.066
Gender	-0.476	-2.806	0.009
Environment	-0.353	-2.112	0.044
Factor 2	-	-	-
OCB			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3	-	-	-
Factor 4	-	-	-
Factor 5	-	-	-
Job Satisfaction			

	Coefficient	t	p
Factor 1			
Education	-0.369	-2.344	0.026
Gender	-0.504	-2.997	0.006
Environment	-0.324	-1.889	0.069
Factor 2	-	-	-
Organisational Performance			
Factor 1			
Gender	-0.371	-2.186	0.037
Organisational Learning			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2			
Education	-0.306	-1.852	0.074
Position	0.430	2.597	0.015

Table G.24 Regression output for Sri Lankan leadership behaviour factors

	Coefficient	t	p
Leadership behaviour			
Factor 1			
Age	0.307	2.154	0.040
Length of time in field	-0.548	-3.951	0.001
Gender	0.505	3.638	0.001
Environment	0.387	2.888	0.008
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3	-	-	-
Factor 4			
Gender	-0.410	-2.465	0.020
Factor 5			
Position	-0.422	-2.675	0.012
Length of time in workforce	-0.437	-2.463	0.020
Length of time in field	0.324	1.843	0.076
Factor 6	-	-	-
Emotional Intelligence			
Factor 1			
Position	-0.477	-2.845	0.008
Length of time in field	0.337	2.006	0.054
Factor 2			
Education	-0.432	-2.624	0.014
Factor 3			
Gender	-0.352	-2.063	0.048
Factor 4			
Gender	-0.373	-2.203	0.035
Decision making and formalisation			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3			
Position	0.342	2.034	0.051
Gender	0.386	2.296	0.029
Factor 4			
Education	0.388	2.374	0.024

Length of time in workforce	-0.286	-1.750	0.091
Self efficacy			
Factor 1	-	-	-
OCB			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Factor 2	-	-	-
Factor 3	-	-	-
Factor 4	-	-	-
Factor 5	-	-	-
Position	-0.419	-2.527	0.017
Job Satisfaction			
Factor 1	-	-	-
Organisational Performance			
Factor 1			
Position	0.437	2.740	0.010
Environment	-0.486	-3.046	0.005
Organisational Learning			
Factor 1	-	-	-