

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CONFLICT LEVELS AS PREDICTORS OF ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

Ph.D. THESIS

by

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**DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE
ROORKEE – 247667 (INDIA)
JULY, 2014**

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A THESIS

*Submitted in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the degree
of*

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by

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in this thesis entitled “**LEADERSHIP STYLE AND CONFLICT LEVELS AS PREDICTORS OF ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING**” in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from July, 2010 to July, 2014 under the supervision of Dr. Santosh Rangnekar, Associate Professor & Head and Dr. Mukesh Kumar Barua, Associate Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee, India.

The matter presented in this thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(ARUNA B. BHAT)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of our knowledge.

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Supervisor

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Date:

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Signature of Supervisors

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ABSTRACT

“Organisational Learning” is one of the main focus areas of contemporary research studies and the researchers are interested in identifying the predictors of learning to devise ways of improvement. The present study tries to examine the relationship of constructs of Leadership Style (which includes Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Laissez Faire Leadership) and Conflict Levels (which includes Individual Conflict, Group Conflict and Organisational Conflict) with Organisational Learning of executives in select Indian organisations. The novel contribution of this study is the choice of unique predictor variables i.e Leadership Style (LS) and Conflict Levels (CL) to predict Organisational Learning (OL). The independent and dependent variables have been defined and explained in the light of available relevant literature. Also, the conditional effect of demographic features like gender, sector, industry, experience, income and education level which are a potential source of variation in behavioural outcomes on the casual relationship of leadership style, conflict levels and organisational learning was examined.

For the purpose of this study, primary data using cross sectional research design was adopted to collect responses from 375 executives (Junior, Middle and Senior) of thirty four Indian organisations (both public and private sector). Standardised instruments were used to collect the responses from varied nature of industries which include Electrical, Manufacturing, Service, IT-ITES (Information Technology and IT Enabled Services) and PME (Power, Mining and Exploration).

The data has been analysed using SPSS v 20.0 software. Since the data is multivariate, therefore it was subjected for missing values, normality, reliability, validity and non-multicollinearity. Further, Exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Component Method was carried on to obtain the factor structure. Afterwards, Descriptive Statistics, Correlation Analysis, Independent Sample t- tests, one way ANOVA and Regression Analysis were employed for testing the research hypotheses. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was performed using IBM AMOS v20.0 to compare the Proposed Model (Styles and Levels as predictors of OL) and the Alternate Model (OL as a predictor of the Styles and Levels).

The research findings show that from highest to lowest the average LS of Indian executives are Transformational, Transactional and Laissez faire. The average CL from highest to lowest is

Organisational, Group and Individual. Average Mechanisms is found higher than average Phases of OL. Transformational Leadership Style (TFM) has been found as a significant predictor of OL while Laissez Faire (LF) is a negative predictor of OL. Among CL, Group Conflict (GC) negatively affects OL. Significant differences are observed in Transformational Leadership style across industry, income, education and gender while in case of Transactional style the significant differences are found across industry, income and education and in Laissez faire the significant difference is only in income level. LS and CL independently as well as together explain significant variance in OL. The significant differences in conflict levels are across industry in Individual Conflict (IC) as well as in Organisational Conflict (OC). In OL, the significant differences are found across industry and sector in both Phases and Mechanisms. Transformational leadership style positively predicts Electrical, Manufacturing and IT-ITES executives and also varies across gender while Individual Conflict (IC) negatively predicts Electrical, Manufacturing and Service executives. The results of goodness of fit indices indicate proposed model better and acceptable as compared to alternate model.

Finally based on discussion, the conclusion and implications have been derived. Future scope has been explained. Here, in this study only two predictor variables (LS and CL) have been taken into consideration which was not studied together in previous researches and hence an addition in the existing literature. This study provides empirical evidence that LS and CL together as well as independently predict OL.

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Aruna B. Bhat

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LIST OF IMPORTANT ABBREVIATIONS

S.No.	Abbreviations	Full Form
1	LS	Leadership Style
2	TFM	Transformational Leadership Style
3	TSL	Transactional Leadership style
4	LF	Laissez Faire
5	OC	Organisational Conflict
6	GC	Group Conflict
7	IC	Individual Conflict
8	CL	Conflict Levels
9	OL	Organisational Learning
10	OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
11	T&D	Training & Development
12	NPD	New Product Development
13	MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
14	OLD	Organisational Learning Diagnostics
15	OCS	Organisational Conflict Scale
16	SD	Standard Deviation
17	PCA	Principal Component Analysis
18	MD	Mean Difference
19	CV	Control Variables
20	DMS	Decision Making Style
21	EI	Emotional Intelligence

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INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins with the definitions and concepts of each of the study variables- Leadership Style (LS), Conflict Levels (CL) and Organisational Learning (OL). It presents a brief introduction incorporating the idea behind this research and then moves forward with discussion of the variables and their related factors. At the end it presents the rationale, scope, objectives, and research questions of the study, chapterisation and ends with chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In this competitive and turbulent business world, most companies are under severe pressure of organisational transformation to keep pace of the environmental changes. These new organisations must be flexible, adaptable, dynamic and value adding for all stakeholders. This adaptation to new situations cause improvement to organisations and add them an edge over their competitors. The role of a leader becomes more demanding and important while such organisational improvement and evolution. Leaders are facing more challenges due to environmental complexity and the dynamic nature of organisations (Riaz and Haider, 2010). In order to remain competitive in the market, effective leadership is required. In fact, a leader is responsible for not only leading the organisation but also providing his followers with the necessary motives and tools that are needed to achieve organisational goals. Thus, a leader's role is very delicate and every action or decision must be very strategic. Leaders can predict future likelihoods and plan alternative strategies to meet uncertainties. In order to face the market challenges, there is an urgent need to bring about a change in the organisations which is possible through the process of organisational learning and this change can be brought about by a leader by transforming the old culture to a new one. In the recent years researchers have begun to explore the role of leadership in organisational learning outcomes (Vera and Crossan, 2004; Berson *et al.*, 2006). A few researchers have explored the specific practices through which leadership could stimulate organisational learning (Crossan and Hulland, 2002; King, 2002). Organisational learning is the sum of individual learning (Argyris and Schön, 1978; Fiol and Lyles, 1985; Huber, 1991; Crossan *et al.*, 1999; Starbuck and Whalen, 2008). As organisational learning involves a different team/ group members who bring various types of information and different solutions to the problems, some difference in opinion is inevitable and desirable. This creates an opportunity to study the problem deeper and find out the best solution of all alternatives. Possible examples of disagreement occur when there are opinion

differences with reference to goals, tasks, or actions that are not very relevant or important to an individual but create an atmosphere of conflict. So in this process of learning, conflict plays a role. Many researchers have emphasised on the positive role of conflict in organisational learning (Senge, 1990a; Argyris and Schön, 1996; Kasl *et al.*, 1997; Van Offenbeek, 2001; Ellis *et al.*, 2003). Conflict can happen at individual, group and organisational level and can create shared understandings, as a mechanism through which learning occurs. Hence in this research on organisational learning two predictor variables- Leadership Style (LS) and Conflict Levels (CL) are being considered.

For any organisation to be successful it is necessary that leaders recognise the value of learning as a continuous process. Productive organisational learning is essential for both the organisations and for the quality of working life. Organisations cannot expect to stay alive or boom in increasingly dynamic and competitive environments without acquiring a capability to learn. Leaders motivate their followers by providing them proper guidance and sharing their knowledge with them so as to improve their ability and values. Because of rapid changes in the market, managers have many responsibilities to shoulder. This rapid change requires the right kind of leadership, adaptability, learning abilities and quick decision making. In that case the study of leadership style becomes important. In addition to this, there are individual differences which sometimes create a conflicting situation. Though conflict is said to be inevitable in organisations, yet managing the conflict and choosing a right strategy is also important. The basic principles of how and at what level to use conflict in organisational learning that would add to the capacity to take effective action through diffusion of knowledge and skills should be known. Therefore this study bears significance in terms of knowing right leadership style and conflict level so as to make effective organisational learning.

The present dynamic and volatile environment necessitates the need to focus on risk-taking and innovation, therefore traditional styles adopted by the managers which insist on the fulfilment and enforcement rules are now considered unsuitable for the organisations. In such a scenario, developing new competencies and capabilities has gained significance and this places learning at the centre of organisations. The Indian organisations need to adjust to this new environment and come up with fundamentally different standards, strategies, relationships, priorities (Nilakant and Ramnarayan, 1998). Due to globalisation of Indian economy and change in business environment, the need of organisational learning was felt. Like people, organisations should learn in order to adapt themselves to the environmental changes. For this change to

happen effective leadership style is required. Researchers have shown that leaders mostly adopt both transformational as well as transactional styles depending upon the situation (Bass, 1985; Avolio and 1991; Avolio, *et al.*, 1999; Avolio and Locke, 2002; Bass, *et al.*, 2003; Rukmani *et al.*, 2010). But does this statement hold good for Indian organisations as well? This inquisitiveness has stimulated the present study. Also, the conflict at three levels: Individual, Group and Organisational play a role in organisational learning. Henceforth, it has to be studied in relation with its effect individually as well as collectively on organisational learning. The predictor variables in this research (i.e. LS and CL) are beyond the variables already been studied in the extant literature. Subsequent sections introduce each of the study variables -the predictor variables (LS and CL) and the dependent variable (OL).

1.2 LEADERSHIP STYLE (LS)

1.2.1 Leadership

Leadership is defined as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of a vision or set of goals (Robbins *et al.*, 2009). It is a process of influencing group activities to the accomplishment of goals in a given situation. Leadership is a characteristic of an individual. It is thus a continuous process of influencing behaviour. Leadership is something that emerges, grows and is achieved. The leadership process involves setting a direction for the organisation, aligning people with that direction through communication and motivating people to action. Leadership creates change in an organisation. Leadership is thus a capability to persuade a group of people towards the achievement of goals (Lussier, 1999; Robbins and Coulter, 2001; Schein, 1992). Leadership has roots in the beginning of civilization. Egyptian rulers, Greek heroes, and biblical patriarchs all have one thing in common—leadership. Our work environment, worker motivations, leaders, managers, leadership style, and numerous other work-related variables have been studied for almost two centuries.

Organisations need strong leadership in order to be effective. To achieve the organisational vision, the present leaders have to challenge the status quo and motivate the members of the organisation to achieve the goals. Leaders establish direction by creating the future and helping their followers to overcome hurdles and cope with the organisational change. A person can have a leadership role because of the position which he/ she has in the organisation but that doesn't assure his/ her role as a good leader who can lead effectively (Robbins *et al.*, 2009).

Renowned management consultants, organisational experts and academicians are of the view that leadership should be practised at all levels in an organisation and in order to sustain

leadership, it should be embedded in the organisations' culture (Alimo- Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2006). Organisations have also realised that strengthening the connection between and configuration of efforts of individual leaders and the systems through which they influence organisational operations can develop leadership by considering the culture and feasibility necessary for organisational learning (Popper and Lipshitz, 2000b). In the present day, organisations are in desperate need of good and effective leaders who are capable of producing results which can add to the organisational success.

Leadership mainly deals with fulfilment of needs, and a successful leader should accommodate both task and people consideration. This work is based on the behavioural tradition of leadership. Adair (1979) presented a “three circle model” which is based on three core management responsibilities: achieving the task, managing the team/ group and managing individuals (Figure 1.1). This model is useful for fulfilling the demands of modern business management. According to the author, leadership is not exclusively an inborn capability but can be trained to a person to become a successful leader. This model takes into account the main functions of leadership which include planning, initiating, controlling, supporting, informing and evaluating which are vital for any organisation to develop leadership qualities.

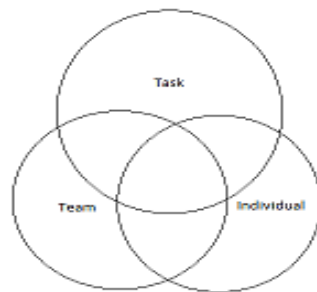


Figure 1.1: Developing leaders using action- centred- leadership (Source: Adair, 1979).

According to Burns (1978), leadership is one of the most pragmatic and least unspoken phenomena on earth. Burns defined leadership as “inducing followers to pursue common or at least joint purposes that represent the values and motivations of both leaders and followers”. He was the first to conceptualize leadership as a social process involving both leaders and followers who work together for a common goal. Leadership according to him is of two types:

Transformational and transactional. His theory stresses more on social restructuring by ethical elevation of followers' values and needs.

According to Khaleelee and Woolf (1996), leadership is a process by which a person exerts an authority over other person to organise the activities and relationships in a group or organisation. Leadership implies an influence / inspiration to his followers. A leader is able to give verbal expression to the feelings of his followers, makes decisions on their behalf and communicates his/ her decision to others (Rice, 1965). Leadership requires a mind set and actions to create a sense of direction to the followers and inspiring them to achieve to the vision of the organisation. Leadership should be developed at all levels of hierarchy and effective leadership is a mandate for an organisational success (Nicholls, 1994).

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand the needs that are to be accomplished and involves individual and collective efforts to achieve shared goals (Yukl, 2006). According to Northouse (2001, 2010) leadership is a process occurring in the group which involves influencing and goal attainment. Leadership has been defined as “the art of influencing, directing, guiding, and controlling others in such a way as to obtain their willing obedience, confidence, respect, and total cooperation in the accomplishment of an objective” (Iannone, 1987, p. 34).

Leadership is a multi level construct as it involves the leader, follower and the association between them (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Steers *et al*, 1996).The effectiveness of any organisation is based on the leader characteristics and the followers who are being motivated by their leaders to perform well. The interaction between leaders and his followers play a very important role in bringing out the best performance which helps to achieve the organisational goals (Liu *et al.*, 2003).

1.2.2 Leadership Theories

As the focus of leaders has changed over time, it has influenced and shaped the development and progression of leadership theory. Leadership theories are broadly classified into four types: Trait theory, behavioural theory, contingency theory and the contemporary theory.

Trait Theory

This theory differentiates leaders from non-leaders by focusing on personal qualities and characteristics. This theory assumes that the leader's personal traits are the key to leadership success. Leaders differ from their followers in terms of traits which remain unchanged across time. A review in the late 1960s of twenty different studies identified nearly eighty leadership traits but only five of these traits were common to four or more of the investigations. According to Stogdill (1974) who reviewed more than hundred such studies concluded that while leaders were found to be superior to non-leaders in specific abilities like intelligence and physical size yet there were no specific traits that distinguished leaders from non-leaders. By 1990s after a lot of study and analysis it was concluded that leaders have some particular traits but they vary to a great extent. A breakthrough came when researchers began organising traits around the Big Five personality framework. Some traits of leaders were identified which could differentiate them from non-leaders. This theory lacks predictive value and the fact that an individual exhibits the traits and others consider that person to be a leader does not necessarily mean that the leader is successful in achieving his goal. Personality has been found affecting the leadership in various circumstances (Phipps and Prieto, 2011).

Behavioural Theories

Failure of early trait studies led researchers to search for behavioural aspects of leaders in 1960s. They began to look if there was something unique the way leaders behave. Leadership according to this approach is the result of effective role behaviour. Herein, Leadership is shown by a person's act more than by his traits. This is an appropriate new research strategy adopted by Michigan Researchers in the sense that the focus is laid on behaviour in place of traits.

The Michigan Studies

This study came up with two dimensions of leadership behaviour- Employee oriented and Production oriented (Katz and Kahn, 1978). The employee oriented leaders emphasised on interpersonal relations, took a personal interest in the needs of their employees and also accepted individual differences while the production oriented leaders emphasised on technical/task aspects of job and their concern was to accomplish the task of their group. The conclusion of Michigan studies strongly favoured the leaders who were employee oriented in their behaviour and was associated with higher group productivity and greater job satisfaction. These findings led to the widespread belief that the employee oriented leadership style was always superior than production oriented style.

The Ohio State University Studies

It was in the late 1940s that the most comprehensive and replication of the behavioural theories began at Ohio State University. The researchers tried to identify independent dimensions of leader behaviour and concluded with two categories that accounted for most of the leadership behaviours described by the employees in an organisation. These two dimensions were called as *initiating structure* and *consideration*. Initiating structure is the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his role and those of employees in the search for goal attainment. An initiating structure leader assigns members of his group to particular tasks in the attainment of deadlines. Consideration is the extent to which a person is characterised by mutual trust, respect for employees' ideas and regard for their feelings. A leader high in consideration takes care of his employees in their personal problems and also expresses his support and appreciation. The most fascinating factor for the employees to get motivated to work is the appreciation. It has been found from a review of 160 studies that both initiating structure and consideration were associated with effective leadership and employees high in consideration were more satisfied with their jobs and had more respect for their leaders.

Contingency Theory

According to Yukl (2006), Least Preferred Co worker (LPC) contingency model describes the situation that moderates the relationship between leadership effectiveness and a trait measure called LPC score. Fiedler created the LPC questionnaire which measured a key factor in individual's basic leadership style. The LPC questionnaire contained set of 16 contrasting adjectives like pleasant and unpleasant, efficient and inefficient etc. The respondents had to rate on a scale of 1 to 8 based on the coworker they had least enjoyed working with. Based on the responses Fiedler could determine their basic leadership styles. Low LPC leaders are supposed to value task success. High LPC leaders are supposed to value interpersonal success. The LPC score and effectiveness is dependent on a complex situational variable called favourability or situational control. The three contingency dimensions which determine leadership effectiveness are leader-member relations, position power and task structure. The best scenario for the leader and the level of success achieved is when the relationship with the subordinate is good, the leader has substantial power, and the task is highly structured (Yukl *et al.*, 2002). The knowledge of an individual's LPC score and an assessment of the three contingency dimensions help to achieve the maximum leadership effectiveness (Fiedler *et al.*, 1977). Fiedler concluded that task oriented leaders tend to perform better in favourable as well as

unfavourable situations whereas relationship oriented leaders perform better in moderately favourable situations. The major criticism of this model was that it failed to achieve statistical significance and also it does not explain how a leader's LPC affects group performance.

Contemporary theories

Various types of leaders are found in any organisation. They may be identified from their unique and component behaviour. They try to stick to the organisations' rules, policies and mission. They try to influence their followers by motivating them. Some leaders bring about various changes in the organisation by applying their discretion while other leaders possess magnetic energy to influence their followers. In fact, leadership is a phenomenon that occurs across all groups of people in spite of culture, geography, or nationality. Leadership has been one of the most studied areas in business and still creates inquisitiveness (Phills, 2005). Leadership involves the hypothesis that one person exerts intended influence over another wherein the leader guides, provides structure, and facilitates actions and relationships within a group (Yukl, 2006). The main contemporary theories include transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership.

1.2.3 Leadership and Management

Concepts of Leadership and management are mostly considered overlapping. Leadership is an ability to influence/ persuade others (generally the followers). It is the process of guiding others for a particular objective and demonstrates the powers of an individual over other. Leadership is a dynamic activity concerned with changing attitudes and hence more inspirational than management (Zaleznik, 1977). Leaders have attributes like vision, trust, selflessness, creativity, communication, risk taking ability (Capowski, 1994; Kahai *et al.*, 2003). Management is considered as an art while other scholars have defined it as a science. It is a process which helps to attain the organisational goals along with managerial activities (Reed, 1989). Managers hold a particular role in an organisation. Managers achieve the organisational goals through the key functions of organisation like planning, staffing, organizing, controlling etc. while leaders provide direction, inspire their subordinates and communicates with them (Kotter, 2001). The credence of leadership is also reflected in various studies which have linked leadership with performance, satisfaction effectiveness (Klagge, 1997; Rehman and Kalita, 2011; Omolayo and Ajila, 2012).

Hence it may be understood that leadership is a broader role of management as it is concerned with interpersonal aspects of role (Watson, 1983; Kotter, 1990; Handy, 1993). A manager may show leadership qualities at certain situations. A leader is dynamic, innovative, courageous and independent while at the same time a manager is consultative, analytical and a planner. There is a line of reasoning which distinguishes between leadership and management. It considers leadership as a process that is ahead of the responsibility of manager's role requirements as mandated by rules and regulations (Bass, 1990a). A leader plans for long term, provides an inspiring work environment and makes employees feel important (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Gardner, 1989). Leaders and managers also differ in terms of personality (Rubin *et al.*, 2005), working pattern and relations with others (Harvey, 1996; Havaleschka, 1999; Judge *et al.*, 2002). In order to carry out the smooth functioning of the organisation, both leaders and the managers should work together hand in hand. Both are necessary for success in an increasing complex and volatile business environment (Kotter, 2001).

1.2.4 Leadership Style

Organisations have evolved from those with an authoritarian style to ones with a more comfortable work environment, and then to organisations where people are empowered, encouraged, and supported in their personal and professional growth. The behaviour exhibited by a leader during the supervision of subordinated is known as leadership style (Rao, 2009). There are as many leadership styles as there are leaders. Leaders play a great role in organisational set up. They develop teamwork, inspire employees to perform better, create confidence in them, provide good working condition and are representatives of their subordinates. An effective leader is the only panacea to maintain the employees' efficiency (Nayak, 2011).

According to Nelson and Quick (2000), leadership style is a universal trait which is applicable in all situations. It doesn't vary with the situation. A leader can have three basic styles: autocratic, democratic and laissez faire (Lewin *et al.*, 1939). The autocratic style is directive, powerful and controlling in relationships or it is boss centred and dictatorial (Likert *et al.*, 1973). The democratic style is collaborative, responsive and interactive in relationships while laissez faire style is no leadership and hence abdication from the responsibilities.

Leadership style is the manner to create relationships between leaders and followers as well as among the other employees in the organisation. Leader has the capacity to direct the behaviour

of his followers. Leadership style directly affects the success and growth of any organisation. Leadership styles can be traced by the style characteristics, inherent leadership philosophy and management skill set which is typical of each style (Warrick, 1981).

Leadership style is essential in achieving organisational goal (McCull Kennedy and Anderson, 2002). Transformational leaders achieve better organisational outcomes than transactional leaders (Burton and Peachey, 2009; Rohmann and Rowold, 2009). Leadership style can influence organisational effectiveness through organisational culture (Tojari *et al.*, 2011). The two types of leadership style (participative and supportive) can affect organisational performance indirectly (Agbonna and Harris, 2000). Leadership style has been found affecting almost all the functional characteristics of an organisation.

The positive atmosphere of any organisation is due to its culture, values and leadership behaviour (Ekvall and Ryhammar, 1999). Leadership style has been found as an essential environmental feature which affects the morale and achievement of subordinates in an organisation (Ye *et al.*, 2011). Leadership style affects the innovative atmosphere of an organisation and hence builds in maintaining the innovativeness culture in the organisation.

LS also provide learning opportunities by enhancing the intrinsic motivation of the employees and builds supportive atmosphere.

1.2.5 Dimensions of Leadership Style

According to Singh (1982), leadership helps in the process of enhancing organisational systems, climate of an organisation which in turns helps in motivating employees. Leadership style is mainly situation based (Reddin, 1970) and it has mainly three dimensions- Task orientation, Relation orientation and Effectiveness. According to Dayal (1976), leadership style is either autocratic or participative. Some early scholars' also categorised leadership into task oriented and people oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Fiedler *et al.*, 1977). Task oriented leaders are instrumental in contributing to their group's effectiveness by setting targets and allocating labour and hence search for the ways to accomplish these assignments. People oriented leaders tend to motivate their employees by making them feel appreciated for the work they do. These leaders stress more on employee relationships than task related issues. In a study carried out by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) three dimensions of leadership style were extracted by using factor analysis. These include: employee centeredness, production centeredness and a dimension which affects both products and processes. Two dimensional leadership styles are

based on various parameters which include support to followers and guidelines in communication with them. This dimension includes directing, coaching, participating and delegating (Johnson, 1998).

1.2.6 Dimensions of leadership style for the present study

In mid 1980's, the major change in leadership research was brought about by a political historian. The term 'transformational leadership' was first coined by J.V. Downton in 1973 and then the further research was carried by Burns. Burns' (1978) book on great leaders differentiated transformational leaders who influence followers to transcend personal interests and transform them for the collective goal attainment from transactional leaders, who were related to their followers on mutually beneficial transactions. Burns believed that "leaders are more skilful in evaluating followers' motives, anticipating their response to a proposal, and estimating their power bases, than the reverse" (p. 20).

Bass and Avolio's (1995) is widely recognised and accepted in the extant literature. The present study also adopts this framework of leadership. The reason being that it takes into consideration the present dynamic nature of organisations and the importance of leaders in such organisations. Thus this framework possesses a sound theoretical basis. Earlier in 2000, Tambe and Krishnan also studied LS of Indian executives under the transformational and transactional dimensions along with four outcome variables (perceived effectiveness of the leader, subordinate satisfaction, subordinate's intention to quit and subordinate's willingness to put in extra effort) as suggested by Bass and Avolio (1995).

According to Judge and Bono (2000), transformational leadership theory has gained much attention among the researchers. Bass and his colleagues provided a detailed insight in the development of this theory. They conceptualized the constructs of transformational leadership and transactional leadership in a more systematic manner which provided researchers the basic concepts of the theory and a complete framework.

1.2.6.1 Transformational Leadership Style (TFM)

Transformational leaders are those who are able to boost their followers from their little preoccupations and gather for a common purpose to accomplish things never thought possible. They are also found to raise follower motivation and performance (Bass, 1990a; Yukl, 2006; Kearney and Gebert, 2009). Transformational leaders create a sense of trust, esteem, loyalty,

and respect towards their followers and are stimulated to perform extra-role behaviours (Bass, 1985; Katz and Kahn, 1978). Leaders high in transformational behaviours achieve the greatest performance from followers because they are competent enough to inspire followers to raise their criteria for success and develop innovative problem solving skills (Bass, 1985; Yammarino and Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders help their followers understand the importance of task outcomes, move them towards higher order needs and encourage followers to sacrifice their personal interests for the sake of organisation. The societal and technological changes in the marketplace and workforce over the last twenty years have resulted in the need for more transformational leaders than transactions in order to remain effective. Transformational leaders empower their followers by developing them into individuals who are truly dedicated to their work which focuses on quality, service, cost-effectiveness, and quantity of output. As the organisational hierarchy moved towards more flat structure, there was a need to change of establishing a colleague relationship to leader follower relationship. Transformational leaders have been found to create a positive climate for both team and organisation (Rowe, 2007). The main components of transformational leadership are: idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behavioural), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.

Idealised influence (Attributed): This component identifies leaders who are capable of building trust in their followers. They encourage power, increase optimism and superiority in their followers by going beyond their own individual interests and stressing on the interests of the group members. Followers want to get identified with such leaders and hence they become reference models for their followers. The leader is ready to take the risk and share with followers and deals steadily rather than arbitrary. High scores on this component identify leaders whom their followers attribute these special qualities. (Bass, 1999; Sharma and Bhal, 2004). This dimension measures the degree of followers' respect for their leader (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997; Hinkin and Tracey, 1999).

Idealised influence (Behavioural): This component identifies leaders who show high integrity. They talk about their most important values and beliefs and focus on a desirable vision. These leaders consider the fair and moral consequences of their behaviour. They help their followers in building a sense of vision or mission for the team and for the organisation. High scores on this component are typical for leaders who make positive and highly valued behaviours, like

supremacy, consciousness, confidence, self-control, high moral judgment and self-efficiency (Howell and Avolio, 1993; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Rowe, 2007).

Inspirational Motivation: This component identifies leaders who inspire their followers. They create team spirit and show enthusiasm. Inspirational leaders express and share goals in a simple and logical way. They provide vision to their followers and the ways to attain it. They encourage positive expectations about what needs to be done and motivate their followers to achieve their goals. Inspirational leaders are able to promote followers' emotional commitment and stimulation to a mission (Bass, 1999; Bass and Riggio, 2006). This dimension measures the leader's ability to provoke confidence in the leader's vision and values. The leader clearly communicates his/her expectations that followers want to gather and create a sense of loyalty among the followers.

Intellectual Stimulation: This component encourages followers to be creative and innovative. The transformational leaders help their followers to think about old problems in new ways by developing their own values and beliefs. The transformational leaders stimulate their followers to rethink old problems and re-evaluate them. This component is concerned with the extent to which followers are given with challenging tasks and stimulated to solve problems in their own innovative ways (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997; Hinkin and Tracey, 1999). In this component, creativity is given priority and no public criticism of the follower's mistakes is encouraged.

Individualized Consideration: This component is a measure of the degree to which the leader cares about the individual follower's concerns and developmental needs. The leaders act as mentors to their followers by paying attention to their career needs and provide them with a sense of competency so that the followers prove to be committed to the organisation (Bass, 1990b; Bass and Riggio, 2006). Followers are developed to a higher level potential by delegating tasks to them. Ideally, followers do not have a feeling that they are being checked.

1.2.6.2 Transactional Leadership Style (TSL)

The transactional leadership was first described by Max Weber in 1947 and then studied in depth by Bass in 1981. The transactional leadership is based on the theory that the leaders are motivated by a system of rewards and punishments. In this leadership when a follower completes his task on time, then the leader may reward him monetarily or non- monetarily and if the job is not done properly then the leaders may punish him. This type of leadership

involves reward as well as punishment for a designated action. Transactional leadership is a process in which the followers have to fulfil the expectations of their leaders and leaders in turn provide them the reward. The basis of transactional leadership is leader follower exchange. The subordinates perform according to the direction given by leaders and in turn receive the reward or punishment from them. The reward can be positive if subordinates comply with the direction of leaders like praise and recognition, monetary benefit, hike in salary or it can be negative like punitive action or demotion. As this leadership is based on exchange, it does not search for motivating followers beyond the point that is required to avoid punishment or gain extrinsic rewards which causes performance and satisfaction to suffer (Burns; 1978; Peters and Austin, 1985; Bryman, 1992). According to Bass 1985, transactional leader is one who works within the existing framework, avoids taking risks and maintains time constraints and standards and results. They also deal with criticisms and followers in turn work with the procedure given by their leaders and do not try out new methods for fear of reproach (Lee, 2008). A transactional leader does not allow his followers to take challenges to explore new methods of solving problems but ask them to follow the simple ways to deal with the problems (Amabile, 1998). Transactional leaders give rewards to their followers only after they achieve some level of performance and follow the old traditional ways to deal with those problems which does not enhance their innovativeness (Waldman *et al.*, 1990; Jung, 2001).

Transactional leadership has three main components:

Contingent Reward: A contingent reward transactional leader emphasizes on role clarification and task requirement. The followers are provided with reward contingent after they fulfil their job requirements and obligations (Bass, 1998). This system is purely based on exchange between a leader and a follower. Such transactional leader discusses with his followers what is required and how that can be achieved and the reward the followers would get in exchange after they complete their work satisfactorily. These types of leaders establish a “give and take” relationship with their followers.

Management by Exception (Active): The leaders monitor followers’ performance and when the standards are not met, they take corrective actions. Leaders who practice management by exception- active do not get mixed up with their followers until some failure or deviation occurs (Bass, 1990a). The leader sets up some pre- determined procedures for specific failures and enforces the punishment when desired.

Management by Exception (Passive): The leaders do not interfere until the problem becomes serious. They take action only after mistakes are made and brought to their attention. Such leaders discourage the exceptional work of their followers and only challenge the status quo of their followers (Hater and Bass, 1988; Barbuto, 2005).

1.2.6.3 Laissez faire Leadership Style (LF)

Robbins (2009) defined laissez faire leaders as those who “abdicates responsibilities and avoids making decisions” (p. 475). These types of leaders are not involved in work at all. They provide complete freedom to their followers who have the power to do what they want. This type of leadership is twofold. Firstly, the leaders are aware that the followers know their job well and secondly the leader is in a very powerful position and does not want to put pressure on his followers (Goodnight, 2004). These leaders are not involved in any activity nor do they participate or communicate with their followers. Laissez their leaders do not provide any direction or guidance to their followers in a difficult situation and sometimes the process may go out of control and hence this style is also called as “hands off” leadership style. This leadership leads to chaos, inefficiency, low productivity and negative consequences. This style is useful when 1) followers are experienced and highly skilled 2) outside experts are hired and 3) followers can successfully complete the task on their own.

1.3 CONFLICT LEVELS (CL)

1.3.1 Conflict

Conflict is defined as a process that starts when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about (Robbins *et al.*, 2009; Sanghi, 2011). Conflict is frequently occurring in organisations, and it affects the individuals’ as well as organisational life. Since decades, and the research work on conflict has been summarized in various books, journals, handbooks, review articles (e.g. Mayo, 1945; Mack and Snyder, 1957; Pondy, 1967; Fink, 1968; Rummel, 1976; Thomas, 1976; Hocker and Wilmot, 1985; Pruitt and Rubin, 1986; Putnam and Poole, 1987; Wall and Callister, 1995; Jehn and Mannix, 2001).

Conflict is a breakdown and collapse in standard mechanism of making decisions (March and Simon, 1958). Conflict is also defined in terms of incompatibilities of goals (White, 1961; Boulding, 1963; Seiler, 1963; Walton and Dutton, 1969). It occurs among independent parties as they experience negative reactions, disagreement on specific issues and interference in

terms of goal accomplishment (Barki and Hartwick, 2001). Conflict is also perceived differently by different people. When one perceives his goals to be incompatible with those of other then there is conflict and the vice versa.

Conflict occurs within groups, between individuals and between organisations. It occurs when two parties have mutual exclusive goals and they intend to defeat each other (Rao, 2009). Differences in opinions and disagreements in behavioural aspects may be a prominent reason amongst the employees. Thus, conflict in the organisational perspective refers to the situations which takes place when two or more people working within the same organisation recognize differences, beliefs, goals or values which have an effect on their ability to work together and impede their performance (Jameson, 1999). Pondy (1989) suggested that conflict should be welcomed into the organisation as it is advantageous and should be stimulated as and when possible. The same notion was carried forward by Van de Vliert and De Dreu (1994) who recommended that conflict should be encouraged and stimulated (by way of creating or extending conflict issues, or by promoting contentious conflict behaviours) rather than prevented depending upon the situation. Conflict has the tendency to trigger tensions in order to exploit existing capabilities and come up with novel responses (MacDonald, 2011). In conflict, personality has a role as it can lead towards verbal aggressiveness and hostile responses as well as integrative responses are also possible (Ohbuchi and Fukushima, 1997).

Conflicts may arise due to different points of view regarding the priority objectives, different points of view regarding the methods used, differences in perception, different nature of task, competition regarding insufficient resources, differences in power & culture and ambiguity. Conflict includes all forms of intolerance and the results which come out due to incompatible influence between individuals, groups and organisations (Talmaciu and Maracine, 2010). According to Dodgson (1993), conflict has been perceived in psychological learning theories as an essential condition for triggering a learning process. According to Boulding (1963), conflict is awareness by employees involved in the conflict that discrepancies or incompatible wishes or desires exist among them.

According to Dhar and Dhar (2003), organisational conflict is defined as “an interactive process manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities” (p.3). Organisational conflict arises from the problems within work activities and goal incompatibilities. The main cause of conflict in organisations is the communication failure

followed by personality clashes, goal differences, lack of cooperation, competition for limited resources and non-compliance with rules and regulations. Conflict involves the measurement/analysis, intervention and learning outcomes at individual, group and organisational levels. According to Rahim (2002), conflict in organisations is due to reasons like behavioural preferences which vary from person to person and when resources are in short supply. Researchers have examined the perceptions of managers about the effects of conflict on their organisational decisions. Some suggest that conflict play a very harmful role in decision making (Dhar and Dhar, 2003) while others consider it important for decision where quality was important. So in order to clearly identify and understand the constituents of conflict, the level at which conflict proves to be dysfunctional needs to be identified.

1.3.2 Conflict Theories

Conflict was studied in organisations in mid 1930's where it was viewed as bad. It was considered synonymous to negative, violence, destruction and irrationality. Conflict was seen as a dysfunctional process arising from poor communication, failure of managers to fulfil the requirement of their employees, lack of trust between employees and a non-conducive atmosphere. This traditional view/ Classical view of conflict were based on the assumption that all conflicts are bad and cannot be avoided in the organisations. It creates chaos and confusion by disrupting the smooth functioning of organisational processes and builds anger, resentment and lack of cooperation.

Human Relations View of conflict (where it was believed that conflict is a natural process which occurs in all groups and organisations) accepted that the conflict was inevitable and cannot be avoided. The conflict can benefit a group's performance at some point of time. This view dominated conflict theory from the 1940s through the mid 1970s.

Interactionist view (which has a broader scope recognizes that conflict may be helpful and constructive in some cases) considers that conflict is not an organisational defect but a social aspect and cannot be avoided in organisations. Conflict is desirable for normal and smooth functioning of organisational activities. A minimum level of conflict is normal for organisational life as it encourages conflict on the grounds that a harmonious, peaceful and cooperative group has the chance of becoming apathetic, stagnant and non-responsive to change and innovation.

1.3.3 Conflict and Communication

Communication is necessary for carrying out smooth business. In order to achieve better performance and effectiveness, good communication is required. Practical experience has shown that there is no communication without conflict. Conflict and communication have a symbiotic relationship. Organisational communication is a process by which individuals inspire the meaning in the minds of others by either verbal or nonverbal messages (Richmond *et al.*, 2005) while organisational conflict is a process of social communication where individuals/groups try to confront each other. Organisational communication is the main element of organisational climate (Drenth *et al.*, 1998) while as conflict helps in developing creative ideas and solving problems. It is impossible to imagine communication without conflict as people have different aspirations, opinions and objectives and to study personality traits and behavior, the communication is a must (McLeod and Chaffee, 1973). In order to carry on activities in an efficient way, proper communication is necessary.

Various causes of conflict include limited resources, organisational design and decision making system while communication can be enabled by downward, upward, horizontal and diagonal directions. Proper communication helps organisations to minimize conflict which helps in improving their performance (Moemeka, 1998). Galbraith (1977) supported this view that conflict do arise when people in an organisation work together. According to Kankanhalli *et al.* (2007) conflict in global virtual teams (GVT) arises due to communication delays and other related factors which can lead to ineffective teamwork (McGrath, 1991) and other serious consequences. Communication is also an important aspect related to group conflict. The level of communication within the group is always useful. As the communication and information sharing increases within a group, the conflict decreases (Moye and Langfred, 2004).

1.3.4 Conflict Levels

Organisations are made of a network of multi- role systems connected with each other based on different hierarchical power structures. As the perceptions and needs of individuals are different, their roles and goals differ too. Because of this, an organisation is a cauldron of problems where there are inequalities in power structure, overlapping role boundaries and multiple claims over organisational resources. Conflict was considered as a negative phenomenon by Mayo (1945) but it has a positive phenomenon for organisational growth as well. It is a distinct concept of social behaviour where two parties try to get something they both cannot have. The concept of conflict is multidimensional as it involves various dimensions

based on the situation. Conflict levels can be studied in terms of balancing of powers where the level of potentiality and disposition / manifestation comes into picture (Rummel, 1976).

Conflict can be studied at three levels- individual, group and organisational (Figure 1.2)

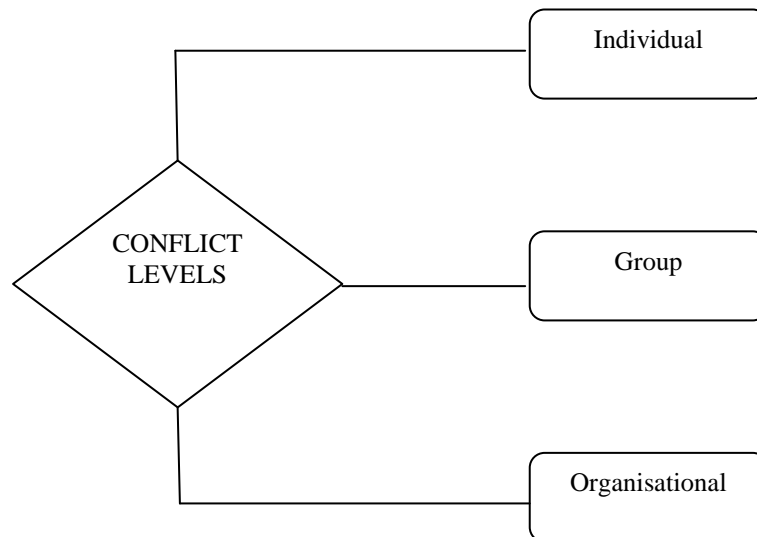


Figure 1.2: Visualisation of Conflict Levels

1.3.5 Dimensions of Conflict

Pondy (1967) identified four main dimensions of conflict- antecedent conditions, affective conditions, cognitive conditions and behavioural conditions. Additional to this, Fink (1968) identified two main dimensions of conflict which included antagonistic- psychological relations and antagonistic behaviour. Bercovitch (1983) identified three main dimensions of conflict based on relationship between individuals and groups, namely -intrapersonal, interpersonal and interdepartmental conflicts. Reed (1989) identified collective and individual conflict as the two forms of conflict. In collective conflict, a number of employees join together for carrying out a rational plan in pursuit of a given aim while an individual conflict is more dynamic in nature but short lived. Pinkley (1990) studied conflict in terms of relationship versus task conflict, emotional versus intellectual conflict and compromise versus win conflict. Jehn *et al.*, (2008) studied conflict types and dimensions with group outcomes. He categorised conflict dimensions in terms of emotions, norms, resolution efficacy and importance. Rao (2009) enlisted three main dimensions of conflict: individual, group and organisational who are further categorised into inter and intra sub dimensions. Conflict can also be studied in terms of its peculiarity which includes interpersonal and intergroup conflicts (Talmaciu and Maracine, 2010). Nelson and Quick (2000) studied conflict in terms of interorganisational, intergroup and interpersonal

dimensions. Interpersonal dimension also includes inter-role, intra-role and person- role conflict Mayer (2010) enlisted conflict in three dimensions- cognitive, behaviour and emotional. Pinkley (1990) uncovered three main dimensions of conflict: relationship versus task, emotional versus intellectual and compromise versus win.

1.3.6 Dimensions of Conflict for the present study

Conflict conceptualisation for this study is under three main heads: Individual Conflict, Group Conflict and Organisational Conflict where the main reasons for organisational conflict include unfair practices, structural incompatibilities, lack of recognition, unethical practices and ineffective communication (Dhar and Dhar, 2003).

1.3.6.1 Individual Conflict (IC)

This type of conflict is internal to the person and probably the most difficult one. It is also known as personal conflict. The basis of this conflict starts from “needs”. These needs are responsible for the behaviour of an individual in his workplace, home, play and other activities which one pursues. The needs have to be satisfied in one way or the other. When these needs are especially satisfied in the workplace the individual feels contented and show good job performance. Non satisfaction of these needs disappoints individual and creates a frustrating situation in front of him/her and ultimately affects the job performance. Every organisation is goal oriented and progressive towards the same. The goals of organisational life are in direct conflict with the goals set by an individual in the organisation. This difference of opinion creates an atmosphere where employees feel frustrated and threatened. Every individual in the organisation does not get opportunities to grow and hence there are fewer chances to be creative. Though the individual working in the organisation is capable of bringing innovative changes yet due to conflicting situation he feels depressed and hence doesn't want to take any risk. The individual in the organisation is forced to do the unrelated task which he actually is not interested. The individual is caught in a web build by himself. He faces a conflict internally as the smooth way of fulfilling his need does not occur. This type of conflict occurs because of two main reasons: conflict arising due to divergent goals and multiple roles which an individual plays.

1.3.6.2 Group Conflict (GC)

This type of conflict occurs between two or more groups. For example, between human resource department and marketing department in an organisation. The literatures on group

conflict suggest that some conflicts are constructive while other types can be destructive. When the conflict is related to the difference in goal of the two groups, then each member of the group will experience stress and pressure to fight with other members of the group (Keller, 2001). In order to deal with group conflict, it is important to understand the factors that may boost the probability for conflict to occur (Mooney *et al.*, 2007). Various researchers have studied the conditions that lead to conflict, some with varying influence on the different conflict types (e.g., Jehn, 1995; Jehn *et al.*, 1999; Pelled, 1996b; Pelled *et al.*, 1999; Vodosek, 2007).

The group conflict is studied in terms of inter group and intra group conflict.

Intergroup conflict usually occurs over authority, incompatible goals, resource allocation, differences in values or perceptions, task interdependence and competition over reward system/incentives between two or more groups (Rao, 2009). Intergroup conflict is unavoidable in organisations where there are a large number of subsystems carrying out various day to day activities. Such complex organisations have differentiated subsystems with different goals, norms and structures and hence conflict between the groups becomes. These subsystems have a different attitude of working towards the achievement of organisational goals. This *interdependence* of the subsystems on various jobs, resources and information and the *heterogeneity* among them often result in conflict between two or more groups. “Intergroup conflict implies each member of a group is in conflict with those of another, quite often the actual dispute is carried out between representatives (e.g., Department heads, or labor-management negotiators” (Roloff 1987, p. 501). Intergroup conflict thus requires actively setting the interest of one group against the other. When there is a challenge from one group to the other, the other group may experience threat as a result of which they try to protect their social identity and thus defend their group. According to De Dreu and Weingart (2003), intragroup conflict is a process resulting from the tension between group members due to real or perceived differences. Intragroup conflict arises as a result of differences among the members of a group with regard to goals, functions or activities of a group (Rahim and Bonama, 1979). This conflict is unavoidable and as such research continues to focus on unpacking the complex conflict process.

The interaction between the groups is a result of intergroup relations. Intergroup conflict between two groups arises due to group competition which dates back to Realistic Group Conflict Theory. According to this theory, the discrimination and prejudice have their roots in

perceived conflicts of interest between groups. The theory was established when Campbell in 1965 noted the social psychology, anthropology and sociology aspects in intergroup relations. He found out that the common theme in all his experiments and theories was intergroup attitude and behaviour towards compatibility of goals. When the goals of group are compatible, the results are positive and hence the relations are good and when the goals of the group are incompatible the relations become negative. Both the groups try to achieve the goal but at the cost of another.

The group conflicts are valid as they are based on real competition for limited resources. The theory is based on three premises: Firstly the theory suggests that as the competition for resources increase between the groups, the conflict as well as threat has also started breeding in. Secondly, as the conflicts between the groups grow, there is more hostility towards the source of the threat. Thirdly, the theory suggests that as the competition over the resources is present, there is an increment in intergroup hostility instead of decreasing it. The basic foundation of this theory is that it does not require that actual competition over resources exist. It is only the perception of group members that leads to conflict. In some cases, status incongruence also builds conflict (Rao, 2009). When members of a particular group consider themselves as having higher status than the other group, then conflict can also set in. Intergroup conflict is also observed in the case of member heterogeneity where personality differences play a role. Where there is low formalization in the organisation the potential for intergroup conflict also increases.

Intragroup conflict is defined as conflict within a group. According to Jarboe and Witteman (1996), "An intragroup conflict exists whenever a group member perceives a difference between what is presently occurring between him or her and the group and what he or she desires to occur" (p. 316). It is the disagreement between the members within the group. This conflict arises between the members of a group that share common goals, values, interests or other similar characteristics. According to Brewer and Brown (1998) intragroup conflict is a disagreement between the members of two or more groups which arises because of prejudice and biases against other group members. This type of conflict occurs in workplaces where the daily routine work is divided into separate groups or departments. The best example of intragroup conflict would be members of a finance group discussing and finalising the value/price of a product. Intragroup conflict effect paradoxically on group performance as it creates hindrance in information sharing and processing which generates negative feelings between

group members and affects productivity. Group outcome depends on the way the intragroup conflict is handled (Rahim, 2001). The researchers have found that intragroup conflict has a potent and harmful effect on group effectiveness (DeDreu and Weingart, 2003). Intragroup conflicts are social phenomenon that is mostly seen at higher analytical levels (Fink, 1968; Jehn and Bendersky, 2003). Intragroup conflicts can be understood by considering the processes at a lower level of analysis (Smith- Crowe *et al.*, 2007) and the way these processes interact (Korsgaard *et al.*, 2008).

1.3.6.3 Organisational Conflict (OC)

According to Roloff (1987), “Organisational conflict occurs when members engage in activities that are incompatible with those of colleagues within their network, members of other collectivist, or unaffiliated individuals who utilize the services or products of the organisation” (p. 496). Conflict is a natural process and hence it exists in most organisations. As human beings interact in the organisations, the difference in their values and attitudes create tension. People working in the organisations may have difficulty working together in an effective manner as they have the fear of developing conflict from normal attempts to collaborate their efforts (Kabanoff, 1985). As organisations have to face unstable environments/conditions and the same survival skills apply in all these organisational settings, there is a greater chance of developing conflicts. The managers need to be flexible and develop coping skills in order to adjust to the changes that take place in operational procedures, manpower, product line, financial environment, and even corporate values and/or vision.

Organisational conflict is essential component for productivity (Rahim, 2001). Organisational conflict can be functional as well as dysfunctional. It can result in creative solution to the problems. Little or no conflict brings organisations to stagnation, poor decision making and ineffectiveness. Moderate level of organisational conflict is necessary for organisational survival (Rahim, 1983, 1985; Rahim and Bonoma, 1979). Organisational conflict can be destructive (Neuhauser, 1988) as it is a source to increase stress, decrease productivity and affect the quality of service given to the customers. De Dreu and Beersma (2005) discussed the outcomes related to conflict like job satisfaction, individual health & well being and organisational commitment while Jehn and Mannix (2001) studied conflict in affective and substantive forms where proper diagnosis and level to diagnose the conflict is important in order to lead to high performance.

1.4 ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

1.4.1 Organisational Learning

Organisational Learning (OL) is the foundation of competitive advantage and therefore it is a very significant topic for both researchers as well as academicians (Edmondson and Moingeon, 1998; Stata, 1989). Organisational Learning is a process of acquiring, distributing and interpreting information so that organisations learn (Huber, 1991; Macdonald, 1995). Organisational Learning is a concept and includes some activities that take place in an organisation (Tsang, 1997; Elkjaer, 1999; Lundberg, 1995). Organisational Learning includes sum of individual learning (Argyris and Schön, 1978). It also means collective learning (Cook and Yanow, 1993) or by humans as social beings (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Richter, 1998). Thus, Organisational Learning implies the individuals learn as agents for the organisation (Ortenblad, 2001). Organisational learning involves rational decisions so that organisational members can learn and share their knowledge (Simon, 1991).

OL is defined differently by different scholars. According to Schulz (2001), OL includes a number of processes that bring a change in organisational knowledge. Organisations learn in terms of experiences gained from the past as well as the current which affect the behaviour and organisational outcomes. OL dates back to March and Simon (1958) in their book “Organisations” where they have suggested that organisational learning depends on various organisational processes which help in organisational decision making. Further, Senge (1990b) defined OL as ‘a continuous testing of experience and its transformation into knowledge which is available to the whole organisation for achieving their organisational mission’. The central idea underpinning OL is “system thinking” which includes a number of complex structures that play essential part in learning enhancement; however the external and internal environmental factors can act as constraints in organisational functioning. Gnyawali and Steward (2003) adopted a contingency perspective to define OL where environmental conditions play an important role in nurturing OL, and develop a need for learning. Organisations continuously interact with the environment, tries to understand it and adapt to the changes essential for learning. Organisations learn through creating shared understanding (Walsh, 1995) and not only by reacting to outside stimulus.

OL is more of collective effects of individual learning within an organisation. OL is sum of individual parts like groups and is based on various observations which are drawn from behavioural studies (Levitt and March, 1988). Organisations learn through behavioural routines

like rules, procedures, conventions, strategies and technologies (Cyert and March, 1963; Nelson and Winter, 1982), interpretations from the past (Lindblom, 1959) and from target orientation (Simon, 1955, Siegel, 1957).

Argyris and Schön (1978, p.2-3) studied learning in terms of *Single loop learning* ('permits the organisation to carry on its present policies or achieve its present objectives') and *Double loop learning* ('error is detected and corrected in ways that involve the modification of an organisation's underlying norms, policies and objectives'). Kim (1993) developed a model for OL (which integrated Argyris, March and Olsen's model) and analysed all the probable breakdowns in the information flow which is the backbone of OL. Argyris and Schön, (1978)- who proposed qualitative learning, suggested that OL occurs when organisational members act as learning agents, respond to the external and internal changes, identify and correct the errors in organisational theory and find out the results which frame the image of an organisation.

Pareek (2003) defined OL as "a process by which an organisation acquires, retains and uses inputs for development, and the process results in an enhanced capacity for continued self-learning and self-renewal". OL is a continuous series of interlinked actions which bring about several changes. These changes occur in potential behaviour of employees through information processing (Huber, 1991). OL improves actions through better knowledge and understanding (Fiol and Lyles, 1985). The three main subsystems of OL are: Acquiring an input and examining it, retaining the input & integrating the same so that they are used whenever needed and finally using adaptive systems so that the learning take place in the organisations (Figure 1.3). Every organisation develops various mechanisms to deal with its experiences, retain purposeful processes and discontinue the non-functional ways to transact with the issues. This leads to self learning which finally helps in self renewal (Pareek, 2003).

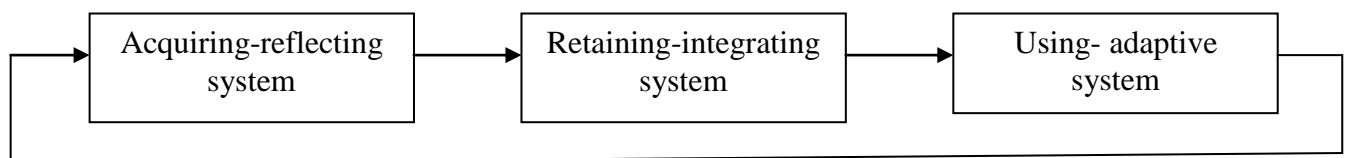


Fig. 1.3: Organisational learning system (Source: Pareek, 2003)

1.4.2 Organisational Learning Theories

Notions of organisational learning gained attention in nineteen fifties when they were thrown into an ongoing debate between economists and behaviourists. According to Behavioural Theory of Firm (Cyert and March, 1963), organisational learning was captured in a learning cycle whereby organisations respond to the external changes by considering their past experiences and relying on their Specific Operating Procedures (SOPs). The concept of ambiguity gained strong support in a limited rational adaptation perspective in OL theory.

Levinthal and March (1981) introduced a learning model which focused on search for new technologies to enhance OL. In late 1980's there was a considerable increase in research on OL theory. Levitt and March (1988) introduced the notion of OL as encoding of lessons in routines. This notion was linked to bureaucracy theory (Schulz, 1998), theories of culture (Cook and Yanow, 1993; Weick, 1991) and later the concept of knowledge based theories came into existence (Grant, 1996).

Organisational learning was promoted as a strategic element necessary for sustainable business competitiveness (Garratt, 1987; Edmondson and Moingeon 1996; Senge, 1990b; Senge *et al.*, 1999) and a key requirement for innovation and strategic renewal. According to March *et al.* (2000), a broad theoretical framework for understanding the dynamics of organisational rules was developed. This theoretical framework included the recognition of problem, focus on rule ecologies and the accumulation of competencies. Due to rapid technological changes, a need was felt for flexible and multi-skilled workforce. In order to react to the competitive pressures, individuals at all levels of organisation were expected to learn analytical and critical aspects.

1.4.3 Organisational Learning and Learning Organisation

Although some scholars often cited the terms interchangeably (Boje, 1994; Hawkins, 1994; Hedberg, 1981; Nevis *et al.*, 1995), organisational learning and learning organisation are two distinct terms and OL can be used as an approach to build learning organisation (Huysman, 2000). Though the mix of terms was used (Fulmer *et al.*, 1998; Klimecki and Lassleben, 1998; Preskill and Torres, 1999; Weick, 1991), yet most of the literature differentiated the two terms (Easterby-Smith, 1997; Tsang, 1997; Edmondson and Moingeon, 1996; Argyris, 1999). In the late 1980s and early 1990s the term *learning organisation* was often used interchangeably with organisational learning (Romme and Dillen, 1997; West and Burnes, 2000). OL is an activity in organisations and needs no efforts to carry on while LO is an ideal form of organisation and demands activity (Ortenblad, 1991). They also differ in terms of moral foundation, traditional

and social perspective (Snell, 2001). OL means learning by humans as social beings (Brown and Duguid, 1991) while LO is a continuous process of change and development/ learning (Pedler *et al.*, 1991; Swieringa and Wierdsma, 1992). According to Chatterjee (2011), OL specifically deals with the capacity of an organisation to gain insights about the successes and the failures and to evaluate the same through observations and experimentations while LO deals with creating, acquiring and retaining knowledge in organisational memory so as to come out with new experiments.

LO is a natural extension of OL. Organisational Learning occurs when organisational members act as learning agents, respond to organisational changes and detect errors in organisational set up (Pareek, 2003) and it is apparent to include logical and critical issues that have the prospective to unite individuals, teams into highly successful competitive strategies (Matlay, 2000) while LO is one that can respond to new information by bringing about changes in processes and evaluating them (McGill *et al.*, 1992). An organisation can be called as LO when it has the capacity to change and modify the behaviour of knowledge to bring about new developments through internal reframing of processes and managerial practices. According to Pedler *et al.* (1991, p.1), LO is also defined in terms of “continuous transformation and improvement through the learning activities of all its employees”.

Table 1.1: Difference between OL and LO

Organisational Learning	Learning Organisation
Character of the content	
Processes	Organisation form
Amount of normativity	
Descriptive	Normative
Exists naturally	Needs activity
Neutral	Preferable
Necessary	Not necessary
Reachable	Non reachable
Known	Unknown
Group of target	
Academicians	Consultants/ Practitioners

(Source: Ortenblad, 2001)

Table 1.1 gives a snapshot of difference between OL and LO. It differentiates between the two on basis of character content, amount of normativity and group of target. OL as a character is a process / activity, exists naturally, is necessary for the organisations and mostly used by academicians while LO is an organisational form, requires an activity to gear up and mostly used by practitioners and consultants.

This discussion invariably evidenced that organisational learning and learning organisation are two separate entities but overlapped in many cases. Jones and Hendry (1994) referred organisational learning as a process going on in learning organisation while learning organisation is a detailed kind of organisational learning (Easterby- Smith, 1997; Huysman, 1996). Added to this, Ang and Joseph (1996) illustrated OL as a set of activities in which an organisation undertakes to learn while in LO, the thrust is less on actions and more on structural dimensions that help an organisation to learn. In short, OL and LO are two different aspects.

1.4.4 Organisational Learning in Indian Organisations

Literature on OL has seen many reviews that helped in the consolidation and organisation of the varied research (Shrivastava, 1983; Fiol and Lyles, 1985; Huber, 1991; Dodgson, 1993; Crossan *et al.*, 1995; Miller, 1996; Easterby-Smith, 1997; Kakar *et al.*, 2002). Previous studies dealt with theoretical analysis of OL as no such empirical studies were carried on in this field. There was a need for empirical studies (Miner and Mezias, 1996; Easterby-Smith, 1997). Daft and Weick (1984) explored the process of interpretation which occurs before the organisational learning takes place. During 1990's there was an increase in number of publications on OL (Crossan and Guatto, 1996). As the number of studies increased on OL, the difficulty of unclear boundaries of OL came into picture. OL shares the meaning similar with other concepts like knowledge management, intellectual capital, organisational knowledge (Spender, 1996).

In India, the methodology of learning dates back to historical ages when education was given in “gurukuls” which was interactive as well as peer-to-peer system. After the rigorous training of doing service and at the same time gaining traditional and religious knowledge about multiple disciplines and skills, the students used to come out as responsible citizens who indirectly helped in developing transformational leaders (Kelloway *et al.*, 2000, 2003). After gurukul education, other educational methodologies were developed which were designed as per the market requirements.

Due to liberalisation of Indian economy, the organisations required new skills and innovations to face the uncertainties of environment which brought a change in the existing structure. Indian organisations were running in a very secure and stable environment and the learning was taking place at the single loop level but due to globalisation there was a need to shift to double loop learning (Bhatnagar, 2006). At this point of time, OL assumed importance in India (Ramnarayan and Bhatnagar, 1993; Shukla, 1997). It was not only technology and infrastructure which could make the organisations competitive but their ability to innovate, create and use the energies of people alongwith HRM policies and other aspects for carrying future research in this field (Pio, 2007; Som, 2007). This challenged the Indian industrial settings to look into new direction and develop the strategies to face the market.

The growing competition created a lot of pressure on Indian organisations to prepare and develop their employees in order to cope with the challenges brought about by economic liberalisation (Rao *et al.*, 2001; Som, 2002). Shulka (1997) described OL on theoretical perspective believing that in order to build a learning organisation, the organisations have to look for more solve problem techniques by scanning the environment, sharing the information and experimenting while on measurement side Pareek (1988) conducted Indian studies on learning orientation. Ramanarayan and Bhatnagar (1993) explained various facilitators like effective HRD system, participative LS, collaboration and team work which enhance OL. To add to this, Ramnarayan (1996) carried out a number of studies which focused mainly on the nature and characteristics of OL in Indian context. These studies identified the enablers and inhibitors to OL where OL was regarded as “functional myopia” (Stata, 1989, Senge, 1990a; Senge 1990b; Leonard-Barton, 1992; McGill *et al.*, 1992; Nevis *et al.*, 1995), command and control orientation (Slater and Narver, 1995), preoccupation with day to day routines (Stata, 1989), insufficient external orientation (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990), Lack of urge for change (McGill *et al.*, 1992; Nonaka, 1994).

1.4.5 Dimensions of Organisational Learning

Researchers have identified multidimensionality of OL and came out with a number of dimensions. Nonaka and Johansson (1985) studied OL and identified four tenets by which OL can be measured: Level of shared knowledge, integration, on-the-job- training and continual education. March (1991) categorised OL into two main dimensions – Exploration (of new possibilities) and Exploitation (of old certainties). Crossan *et al.* (1995) discovered dimensions

of OL based on three perspectives: unit of analysis (individual, group, organisational and inter-organisational), cognitive/ behavioural and learning performance relationship. Pareek (2003) identified two main dimensions of OL which he called as “Phases” and Mechanisms”. The more frequently these dimensions are used, the stronger is the organisational learning (Pareek, 2003).Continually, Leroy and Ramanantsoa (1997) also identified cognitive and behavioural dimensions of OL. Bontis *et al.* (2002) also identified three main dimensions of OL which include learning at individual, group and organisational level which was same as that of Crossan *et al.* (2005), but integrated it with organisational performance. Chiva *et al.* (2007) identified five dimensions of OL- experimentation, risk taking, interaction with external environment, dialogue and participative decision making.

1.4.6 Dimensions of Organisational learning for the present study

Present study focuses on the normative concept of OL as a continuum from no learning to full learning and also proposes mechanisms that are useful in making OL effective in manager level employees. As discussed, various studies have been conducted to map the learning capabilities. It is clear from the studies that in order to make OL useful, the organisations have to obtain, preserve and use inputs for their development which helps them in self- learning and self renewal. Therefore this study considers the measurement side of OL characterised by Pareek (2003) as it has received maximum literature support till date in India which includes phases (same as that of Lewin’s three step change model: unfreezing, moving and refreezing) and mechanisms which are sub divided into innovation, implementation, stabilisation, experimentation, mutuality and teamwork, planning, temporary systems and competency building.

1.4.6.1 Phases of OL

1.4.6.1.1 Innovation

Innovation research has emanated from many fields of knowledge like science, management, psychology, economics and sociology, and hence conceptualised in various ways (Gopalakrishnan and Demanpour, 1997; Tang, 1998). Innovation is something novel and must be useful (Gronhaug and Kaufman, 1988; Cooper, 1998). Innovation is also defined as successful implementation of creative ideas. Innovation contributes to the firm’s performance in some way or the other related to new management practices (Schienstock *et al.*, 2009). Innovation is a process of creating/ modifying an idea and developing it to produce products, services, processes/ policies which prove to be new to the organisation (Zhuang 1995; Nohria

and Gulati, 1996). Innovation in terms of products means creating new products by which the organisations adapt and sometimes transform themselves in changing environments (Eisenhardt and Tabrizi, 1995). According to Pareek (1998), innovation is concerned with exposure of the organisation to a new idea or practice, acquiring the new input and reflecting on its costs and benefits. Innovation helps an organisation to continuously grow.

1.4.6.1.2 Implementation

It means realisation of an application or execution of a plan, idea or design. Implementation is an action taken so that something can really happen. According to Yeo (2006), successful implementation of strategies in a learning process helps an organisation to increase work commitment among employees and develop positive attitude. Implementing the right culture and values helps the employees to frequently share the information necessary for organisational growth and success. An organisation is more successful when its employees learn faster and implement the knowledge faster than the competitors (Rampersad, 2007). Implementation is related to how the organisation integrates the new inputs and retains them (Pareek, 1998) and developing new technology and implementing the same (Klein and Sorra, 1996; Klein *et al.*, 2001).

1.4.6.1.3 Stabilisation

It is concerned with the continued use of innovation and its usage by the organisation (Pareek, 1998). The experiences gained by the employees while using the innovation need to be reviewed. Such a review helps in finding out the gaps and the changes required to make the innovation more successful and useful. Stabilisation also helps in developing collaboration and detects the possible changes to be undertaken.

1.4.6.2 Mechanisms of OL

1.4.6.2.1 Experimentation

Experimentation is a process/practice of making experiments in order to support or disapprove the existing system/theory. An organisation needs to build up positive attitude towards experimentation by trying out new methods to deal with problems/ issues (Pareek, 1998). In order to experiment, the organisations should encourage its employees to try out new ways and means to deal with the issues. Experimentation helps the employees to come out with new ways to meet and experiences. Organisations that have a powerful ability to innovate tend to make a habit of learning from experimentation. Learning from experimentation is a sequence of events

which involves testing an idea, gathering data, finding results and then adapting the same as needed. Experimentation is a method of experiential specific knowledge of why and how to implement new knowledge and changes, so that organisational learning takes place (Ng, 2011).

1.4.6.2.2 Mutuality and teamwork

According to Ramnarayan and Bhatnagar (1993), collaboration and teamwork are the important factors which facilitate organisational learning. Organisations require mutual support, mutual respect, work collaboration, learning aspiration and effective teams to solve problems (Pareek, 1998). Without teamwork and mutual support from its employees, the organisational learning cannot be effective. An appropriate culture should be developed so that the teams can enjoy mutual support, respect from peers and collaborative work culture. The effective way to tackle any problem (process/product) is through the use of some form of teamwork (Blanchard and Waghorn, 1997; DeToro *et al.*, 1997).

1.4.6.2.3 Contingency and Incremental planning

Planning is process of thinking and organising the activities so that a desired goal is achieved. Organisational Learning varies from certainty and rigidity on one end to tentativeness and agility on the other. Incremental or contingency approach to planning promotes OL (Pareek, 1998). An active contingency planning helps individuals, teams and organisations to develop working relationships that can sense critical issues during a crisis. Contingency planning can be a tool for organisational learning (Choularton, 2007). Contingency planning helps in identification of information gaps. Effective planning requires continual review and learning from past experiences.

1.4.6.2.4 Temporary systems

Temporary systems in OL include task groups, task forces and problem identification teams. These systems act as mechanisms to generate new ideas, identify problems, arrange and maintain new and old practices and organise review meetings chaired by senior management. The rationale behind the use of temporary systems in organisations is to make the organisation responsive to face the dynamic nature of market (Sharp *et al.*, 2000). According to Harrington (1997) and Porter and Lilly (1996), people involvement in project teams is beneficial to the organisation. In order to learn continuously, the project teams should take into account their personality factors and work together to remain competitive. Temporary systems are more

flexible as they are not part of organisational structure and can be dissolved according to the needs (Pareek, 1998).

1.4.6.2.5 Competency building

Competencies are the primary resources that an organisation needs to build. Competencies are referred to collective learning; diverse production skills and integration of various technologies that exist in the organisation (Prahalad and Hamel, 1990, p.64). Skills of employees are also termed as firm competencies (King and Zeithaml, 2001). In order to make organisational learning effective, the organisations should develop resources that can be used when needed (Pareek, 1998). Organisations develop a portfolio of competencies to outperform their competitors (Nordhaug and Gronhaug, 1994). Competencies lead to superior firm performance and are linked to learning and performance (Murray, 2003; Murray and Donegan, 2003; Tippins and Sohi, 2003). These dimensions/factors contribute towards OL. They are interlinked with each other. The OL dimensions for the study are visualised in Figure 1.4.

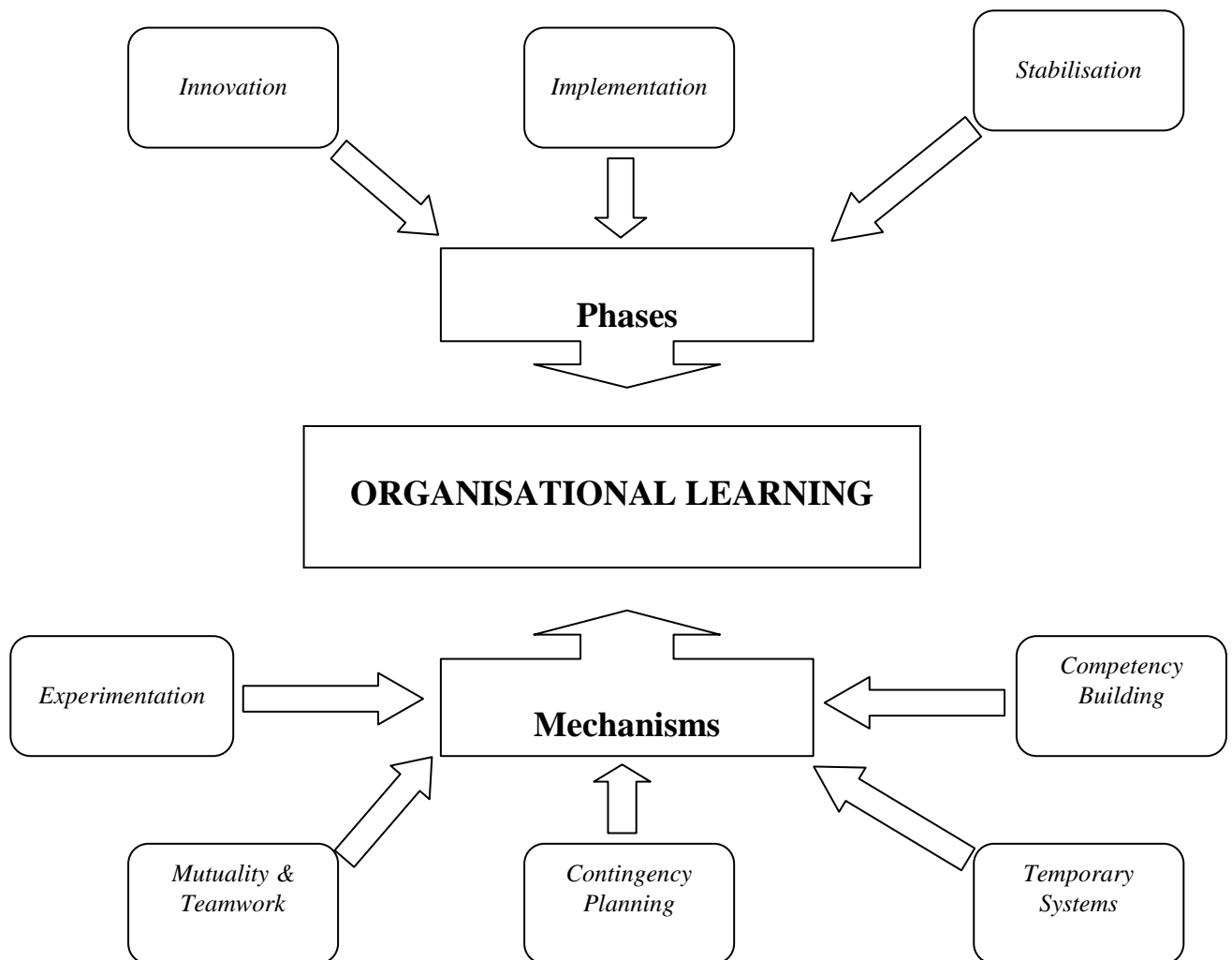


Figure 1.4 Visualisation of OL dimensions for the study

1.5 RATIONALE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Present study extends the understanding of the antecedents of OL by examining the predictive role of LS and CL. This will add to the extant theoretical pool of OL. Literature has mentioned that there is an inherent relationship of leadership vis-a-vis OL (Singh, 2010), and OL consists of a set of criteria which includes leadership commitment, experimentation & rewards, teamwork & collaboration and clarity of purpose and mission (Laise, 2004). It means leadership style plays a very important role in enhancing OL and influences the learning capabilities of organisational members. Also, conflict seems to be a very important factor in promoting OL. Hence, it becomes important to gaze whether such a relation of individual characteristics (leadership style and level of conflict) and OL exist? If yes, then which leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez faire) and conflict level (Individual, group or organisational) are associated with the organisational learning and how to focus on leadership (Spears and Lawrence, 2001)? Therefore this study is a pioneer inventiveness to explore whether and to what degree the leadership style and the level of conflict affect organisational learning in Indian context.

Conflict plays a positive role in organisational learning (Argyris and Schön, 1996; Van Offenbeek, 2001) and leads to long term effectiveness (Rahim, 2002). The presence of tension & conflict are essential characteristics of the learning organisation (Luthans *at al.*, 1995; Tompkins, 1995). In order to enhance organisational learning, conflict at a particular level has to be diagnosed. Organisational members interact with each other on day to day basis and there exist chances of disagreements on various issues. This calls for learning and using various strategies to deal with various situations effectively. Therefore the aforesaid three conflict levels might be expected to affect OL. Moreover, these effects may be different at different levels as the roles and perceptions of individuals vary in groups as well as at organisational level. Thus it becomes important to know how the individual conflict/ group conflict/ organisational conflict affect organisational learning. Also, the leadership style which affects most on OL has to be studied. Henceforth, the purpose of this study is to measure the average styles and the conflict level of Indian executives and their effect on OL.

Lastly, the present study also examines the role of demographics (age, gender, education, sector, experience) in perceiving leadership style, conflict level and organisational learning. The study on variations caused by these attitudinal features could add more understanding to

these concepts and would improve the organisational effectiveness leading to explore the unanswered issues.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study will take into account executives (senior, middle and junior) of Indian organisations from both public and private sector. Although there are several leadership styles and conflict levels, the concern here remain only with the discussed leadership styles and their factors (Transformational, Transactional and Laissez faire) and levels (Individual, Group and Organisational). Likewise, there are various OL models but here the concern is only the measurement dimensions of OL which are already discussed: Phases (Innovation, Implementation and Stabilisation) and Mechanisms (Experimentation, Mutuality & Teamwork, Contingency Planning, Temporary Systems and Competency Building). The variables (LS, CL and OL) will be studied independently as well as in proposed association i.e LS and CL as predictors of OL. To study each variable separately, descriptive statistics and the differences across various attitudinal features like age, gender, education, level and industry will be explored.

1.7 OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

The following are the objectives (O) and the relevant research questions (RQ):

O1: To study the leadership style of executives in select Indian organisations.

RQ1: Which leadership style is more prevalently used by Indian executives?

RQ2: Do various leadership styles vary across attributes like age, gender, tenure, education, industry etc.?

O2: To study the conflict levels in select Indian organisations.

RQ3: Which conflict level is mostly reflected in Indian organisational executives?

RQ4: Do conflict levels vary across attributes like age, gender, tenure, education, industry etc.?

O3: To study the organisational learning in select Indian organisations.

RQ5: How much is the organisational learning in Indian organisations?

RQ6: Does organisational learning vary across attributes like age, gender, tenure, education, industry etc.?

O4: To study leadership style and conflict levels as predictors of organisational learning?

RQ7: How do leadership styles and conflict levels predict organisational learning?

RQ8: Which leadership style predicts organisational learning?

RQ9: Which levels of conflict predict organisational learning?

O5: To open new vistas of research.

RQ10: What potential research insights can be gained from the present study?

1.8 CHAPTERISATION

Chapter I give the insight about the introduction to the study and its three variables. It also highlights Rationale, Scope, Objectives and Research Questions of the study. Chapter 2 presents the extensive literature review on the two independent and one dependent variable and their associations. It discusses the relevant literature regarding the variables and represents the proposed relationships amongst the variables. Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology and describes the research design, hypothesis formulation within the objectives, the methods/ways to accomplish the objectives, the sample, standardised instruments for data collection, analysis of data using various tools and techniques. Chapter 4 reveals the analysis and results of the hypotheses. Chapter 5 deals with the discussion on the results obtained. It will highlight the accomplishment of the objectives. Chapter 6 highlights the conclusion and the implications of the study. Chapter 7 gives an insight about the limitations and the scope for the future research. This helps in opening new vistas of research.

1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the major concepts of the study- Leadership, leadership theories, difference between leadership and management, Leadership Style (LS), dimensions of leadership style, dimensions of LS for the present study (TFM, TSL, LF), conflict, conflict theories, difference between conflict and communication, Conflict Levels (CL), dimensions of conflict, dimensions of conflict levels for the present study (Individual conflict, Group conflict and Organisational conflict), Organisational Learning (OL), Organisational learning theories, difference between organisational learning and learning organisation, OL in Indian organisations, dimensions of OL and dimensions of OL for the present study (Phases and Mechanisms and their sub dimensions). In the end, the rationale, scope, objectives and research questions and chapterisation were discussed. Leadership is the prime focus of organisations to achieve organisational goals and enhance the performance of individuals as well as of organisation. Researchers have mainly found the three main leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez faire) which have an impact on organisational learning. Like people, organisations should also learn in order to adjust to the market fluctuations. The critical factor for the organisations now is the ability to learn and use its existing knowledge to have an edge over its competitors. Also, the conflict affects organisational learning at various levels.

Previously conflict was found detrimental to the organisations but now it has been found as an important factor affecting the organisational growth and survival. Different LS and CL are assumed to affect OL differently. The present study will reveal the relationship between LS, CL and OL while answering the unexplored questions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 1 discussed about the concepts and the theories related to Leadership Style (LS), Conflict Levels (CL) and Organisational Learning (OL). In continuation with the previous chapter, the present chapter discusses the relevant literature on LS and its factors, conflict and its levels, organisational learning and its factors and the literature highlighting the association of two independent variables with the dependent one. At the end, the proposed relationships are shown along with chapter summary of this section.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a process in which two parties (leaders and followers) interact with each other so as to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2006). Previous studies (e.g. Davis, 2003; Spears and Lawrence, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Hirtz *et al.*, 2007) have shown that leaders adopt a particular style in running an organisation so as to achieve their targets (Chen and Chen, 2008). Leaders create conducive working environments which have a positive effect on the job satisfaction of employees (Heller, 1993; Bogler, 2001, 2002; Timothy and Ronald, 2004). Organisations where leadership is strong and right person is at the right job improves their performance (Voon *et al.*, 2011). According to Shamir *et al.* (1993), leadership style influences subordinates by motivation mechanisms which affects the conduct of individuals. Leadership style also has an influence on decision style (Park, 1996), organisational performance (Idris and Ali, 2008) through its culture (Kasper, 2002; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000), effectiveness in public sectors (Pedraja-Rejas *et al.*, 2006), effectiveness, results and success of organisation (Rahman, 2001) and so on. Additionally, leadership style in any particular decision requires considering factors like relevance of decisions, commitment level, and probability of success and team competence (Vroom, 2000). Supportive LS is more frequently suitable for small organisations followed by participative LS (Pedraja- Rejas *et al.*, 2006).

Most researchers have been fascinated by the issue that what kind of leadership style would be appropriate for organisational effectiveness. Should leaders adopt transformational LS by considering the needs of their followers or might motivate their employees using reward and punishments (Gardner and Stough, 2002; Aarons, 2006; Black, 2006)? This question needs to be answered so that the right kind of leadership style will dominate the other styles for the better performance of organisations (Russ *et al.*, 1996). The success of any organisation

depends on the factors that assist and encourage employees to achieve the organisational targets (Tojari *et al.*, 2011).

Early conceptualisations categorised leadership styles as either autocratic, democratic or laissez faire (White and Lippitt, 1960). In late 60's four leadership styles were identified which included directing, coaching, supporting and delegating according to Situational Approach to leadership by Harsey and Blenchard. The theory of leadership developed by Burns (1978) known as Transformational leadership had two dimensional constructs (Transformational LS and Transactional LS) with the two at opposite ends of the same continuum. Bass (1985) refined the theory of transformational leadership and viewed them as complementary constructs. According to Bass (1997), transformational leadership is not a replacement for transactional leadership but rather they complement each other. Leaders in an organisation exhibit both the styles depending on situation (Moore and Rudd, 2006). According to Bass (1985), the leadership of great men and women was not transactional but transformational.

Transformational theory by Bass (1985) has gained a lot of recognition in measuring the style of leaders in organisations. It has become an area of interest among researchers (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Previous leaders models failed to explain a “full range” of leadership styles, ranging from charismatic and inspirational leaders to avoidant leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1995, 2004). The full range model of leadership was developed to increase the scope of leadership style investigated in the field. This model was developed in order to broaden the thinking of this field about what actually means a full range of leadership and what it includes against the paradigms of *initiation of structure* and *consideration* (Ohio State University Studies) as discussed in previous chapter. This model considers that differences in leadership style are based on active/ passive distinction. The leadership ranges from laissez faire to transactional and finally transformational (Bass and Avolio, 1995, 2004). Every leader portrays a frequency of both the transactional as well as transformational factors, but every leader's contour involves more of one and less of another (Bass, 1999). In order to measure the leadership style, various instruments have been developed by various researchers time to time (Tichy and Devanna, 1986; Conger, 1989; Kouzes and Posner, 1997; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2005; Vecchio and Brazil, 2007) but Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) measures the basic concepts of transformational, transactional, laissez faire leadership along with the outcome of leadership and Bass subscribes to Burns's (1978) belief that by considering the needs of followers, transformational leaders move beyond their self- interests to work for the betterment

of their followers as well as for the organisation and become leaders themselves. For the last 30 years various studies have been carried out in both public and private sectors to investigate the leadership style ranging from CEOs of major corporations to supervisors and then to project leaders. The MLQ report has highlighted the lower and higher order effects of LS with an aim to expand the dimensions of leadership as measured in previous surveys.

2.1.1 Selection of Leadership style framework

The MLQ structure has been developed so that it can measure the LS in individuals, teams and help in organisation development as well as in individual counselling (Bass and Avolio, 1995). The previous leadership measures were used for measuring autocratic vs democratic style, directive vs participate and task vs relationship oriented leadership only and failed to incorporate key factor like inspirational motivation which is an important criterion for transformational leadership. LS by MLQ (Bass and Avolio, 1995) was finalised because it measures LS on three main aspects: Transformational, transactional and laissez faire and also provides an insight about the outcomes of leadership (how effective followers perceive their leaders at different levels of organisation and how satisfaction the leaders have provided to their followers by providing them favourable working conditions). The MLQ has been used in both private (Avolio, *et al.*, 1991; Keller, 1992) and public organisations (Cowen, 1990; Koh *et al.*, 1991).

2.1.2 Flow of literature review

The next section will deal with the studies and findings related to the variables of this study. Additionally, the studies will discuss the variables independently as well as the association of each predictor variable with the dependent variable. Section 2.2 will discuss the studies of LS based on MLQ; section 2.3 will deal with the studies on conflict levels providing early (section 2.3.1) and recent views (section 2.3.2) on conflict and its levels. Section 2.4 will highlight the contemporary studies on OL along with the studies based on its constituent's i.e Phases (section 2.4.1) and Mechanisms (section 2.4.2). Section 2.5 will discuss the studies relevant to the association of LS and OL. Section 2.6 will present the studies linking CL and OL directly or indirectly. Tabular formats have been incorporated to have a glance of the literature on the variables.

2.2 STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP STYLE BASED ON MLQ

As mentioned previously, the MLQ framework, a psychometric instrument that has been validated in a broad range of research programmes was developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) and has been widely accepted for studying leadership style of leaders in organisations. Avolio *et al.*, (1999) re-examined the components of transformational and transactional LS using MLQ on 3786 respondents in 14 independent samples in US and foreign firms. The models were tested using MLQ and it was found that MLQ survey represented best by six lower order factors and three correlated high- order factors. The psychometric evaluation of MLQ was carried on time to time and it was found that the instrument is reliable and valid (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Lievens *et al.*, 1997; Kanste *et al.*, 2007; Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2008; Rowold and Heinitz, 2007) but only in few cases the instrument needed refinement in terms of its factor structure (Edwards *et al.*, 2012; Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008; Schriesheim and Cogliser, 2009; Tejada *et al.*, 2001). Table 2.1 gives a detailed picture on studies based purely on MLQ and those utilising the LS framework since 1995-2012.

Table 2.1: Studies using MLQ framework (1995-2012)

Authors	Sample	Findings
Druskat, (1994)	6359 subordinates of leaders of Roman Catholic church	Women leaders exhibit more transformational leadership as it is more person centred style as compared to male leaders and displays higher levels of feminine attributes (Ross, 1990).
Bass and Avolio, (1995)	Conceptual	MLQ was constructed and validated. Results show that transformational leadership is associated with organisational sales increase, market share, earnings and ROI, individual & group performance. They show greater unit cohesion, commitment, lower turnover and create safer work environments.
Lowe <i>et al.</i> (1996)	Meta analysis	Sufficient internal consistency and reliability of MLQ was found along with an indication of positive relationship of transformational leadership with effectiveness.
Banerji and	100 pairs of supervisors and	Factors of transformational leadership were

Krishnan, (2000)	subordinates from four multinational companies operating in India	analysed for leader's preference for unethical behaviour. Results show that Inspirational leadership is negatively related to leader's preference for bribery and favouritism; intellectual stimulation negatively relates to preference for bribery; individualised consideration and charisma does not relate to leader's ethical preferences. Organizational culture moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and ethics.
Barling <i>et al.</i> (2000)	49 managers and 187 subordinates	Positive associations: Three factors of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation & individualised consideration) and contingent reward of transactional leadership and EI. Negative associations: MBE-P as well as MBE-A of transactional and laissez faire leadership.
Flood <i>et al.</i> (2000)	79 technology firms in US and Ireland	Laissez faire leadership relate negatively to team effectiveness.
Tambe and Krishnan, (2000)	98 officers from a large manufacturing organisation in India	Transformational leadership had a significant correlation with rational Decision Making Style (DMS) alone and along with dependent DMS.
Garg and Krishnan, (2003)	100 from a software consulting firm in India include trainees, engineers and project leaders.	Transformational leadership was positively related to decentralisation and centralisation. Also value based leadership related positively to both decentralisation and formalisation.
Bono and Judge, (2004)	26 independent studies on topics of leadership and personality	Personality traits were related to TSL and with only three dimensions of TFM. Also extraversion was strongly positively related to transformational leadership.

Burbuto Jr. (2005)	186 leaders and 759 followers from various industries, government agencies and educational settings.	Internal motivation was positively related to transformational LS whereas external motivation related positively to transactional behaviour.
Schepers <i>et al.</i> (2005)	226 from a Dutch high technology company	Transformational leadership (intellectual stimulation) positively influences perceived usefulness of the technology. No relationship was found between transactional leadership and technology usage.
Zhu <i>et al.</i> (2005)	170 from different organisations in Asia and western countries	Firstly Transformational LS is positively associated with HRM practices and organisational outcomes and secondly human capital enhancing HRM mediated the relationship between CEO transformational leadership and perceived organisational outcomes and absenteeism.
Stashevsky and Koslowsky, (2006)	252 student participants	Transformational leadership associate positively with team performance
Skogstad <i>et al.</i> (2007)	2273 Norwegian employees	Laissez faire leadership was found as destructive leadership behaviour as it was associated positively with role conflict, role ambiguity and conflict with co-workers.
Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, (2009)	163 R&D personnel and managers at 43 micro and small sized Turkish software development companies	Transformational leadership positively relates to creativity at both individual and organisational levels. Additionally, TFM influences employees' creativity through psychological empowerment and positively associates with organisational innovation.
Rowold and	244 leaders from a large	Individualised Consideration of

Schlotz, (2009)	government agency in Germany	Transformational LS was found negatively related to dissatisfaction which is proved by other researchers as well. Overall transformational leaders increase performance without adding too much burden to the employees. MBE- passive of transactional leadership was positively associated with chronic stress. Laissez faire was negatively related to performance pressure.
Bodla and Nawaz, (2010)	157 from public education institutes and 108 from private education institutes.	Both the sectors show same degree of transformational LS and Laissez faire style but vary in their transactional LS. Public sector dominates transactional LS over private sector.
Wei <i>et al.</i> (2010)	101 teams, 497 team members and 101 team leaders in a large multinational company in China	Team empowerment climate mediates the relation between transactional leadership style and subordinates' creative performance. In addition to this, transactional leadership style is positively related to subordinates' creative performance in teams with higher empowerment climate but negatively related to subordinates creative performance in lower empowerment climate.
Birasnav <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Literature review of traditional and contemporary theoretical and empirical research studies	Transformational leadership affects the employees' perception of human capital benefits. TFM leaders also involve in KM processes, establish organisational culture and encourage communication among employees.
Ye <i>et al.</i> (2011)	229 medical equipment personnel	Leadership style (both transactional & transformational) influence job independency of managers. No relation has been fund

		between LS and work challenging.
Andrews <i>et al.</i> (2012)	16 supervisors and 179 supervisees in a hospital	Leadership style mainly transformational has an effect on satisfaction in the retention of nurses. Differences existed in leader-staff analogy in interpretation of LS.

Table 2.1 confirmed that MLQ for assessing the leadership style has been widely accepted and used since its inception. It has been validated so many times and its factor structure has been confirmed from time to time. Transformational leadership has been considered as visionary (Westley and Mintzberg, 1989), charismatic (Conger, 1989) or new leadership (Bryman, 1992). Transformational leadership has been found positively associated with employee satisfaction (Bass and Avolio, 1993), leadership effectiveness, innovativeness (Bass, 1995), emotional intelligence (Barling *et al.*, 2000; Modassir and Singh, 2008), organisational learning (Berson *et al.*, 2006; Bass, 2000), employee engagement (Tims *et al.*, 2011; Papalexandris and Galanaki, 2009), empowerment & team effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003), team productivity (Burke *et al.*, 2006), better sales growth (Batley, 1996) and EI (Küpers and Weibler, 2006; Leban and Zulauf, 2004) so on. It is the most preferred type of leadership style as it is related to the effectiveness (Lim, 1997). Transactional leadership is also preferred in some situations and it has been found positively related to EI (Barling *et al.*, 2000), positive emotions (Rowold and Rohmann, 2008), subordinates' creative performance in teams with higher empowerment climate (Wei *et al.*, 2010) and negatively relates to technology usage (Schepers *et al.*, 2005), subordinates creative performance in lower empowerment climate (Wei *et al.*, 2010) and job satisfaction in government organisations (Voon *et al.*, 2011). Laissez faire leadership is related to negative outcomes like confusion, inefficiency, low productivity and is detrimental to the organisation. Important noticeable point here is that MLQ framework has been applied in almost on all types of samples and sectors.

2.3 STUDIES ON CONFLICT LEVELS

According to Hitt *et al.* 2006 who stated that “One survey showed that managers spend approximately 25% of their time dealing with conflict” (p. 436). In some fields (such as hospital administration and management of municipal organisations), managers can spend as much as 50% of their time managing conflict. Managers rate conflict management as equal to or higher in importance than planning, communication, motivation, and decision making”.

As from the above statement, it is clear that conflict over time has gained a lot of importance (Luthans, 2008) due to rise of globalisation and organisational changes which bring turbulence and uncertainty. Conflict has been considered good as well as bad in the organisations. Conflict is a fact of life in organisations as well as other areas, as people fight for jobs, power, possessions, acknowledgement and security (Suliman and Abdulla, 2005). It helps in improved problem solving, stimulated creativity and also has a positive effect on productivity (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2004) while it can result in low quality of work (Hitt *et al.*, 2006) and can have negative effect on motivation and productivity of employees. The study of conflict at a particular level (Individual, Group and Organisational) is necessary in order to come out with appropriate strategies to deal with the conflict. This section and its sub sections will highlight early views as well as recent views on conflict studies.

2.3.1 Early views on conflict and its levels

Whenever human beings interact and fight for limited resources or share different objectives, conflict is likely to occur. In any organisation people do different kinds of jobs based on their goals, time orientation, management style and structure formation (Labovitz, 1980) and hence a need was felt to understand the causes and consequences of conflict. Table 2.2 summarises some of the important studies based on the levels (organisational, group and individual) focused in this study.

Table 2.2 : Early studies on conflict and its levels

Guetzkow and Gyr, (1954)	Conflict is categorised into two sections: Task related called substantive conflict and emotion based called affective conflict.
Simmel, (1955)	In case of conflict in organisations, low similarity leads to restricted interaction while more sharing in common can develop ground for conflict.
Coser, (1957)	Conflict prevents the developmental process of social system by forcing towards innovation and creative things. Also conflict within and between groups prevent to accommodate the relations which lead to creativity.
Tannenbaum, (1962)	Hierarchical control can be a reason for organisational conflict to occur. The author conceptualised “control” between two or more groups where one group is controlling the other and hence leading to dispersion of power.

Goldman, (1966)	Conflict is defined in terms of process theory necessary for change to occur. If there is no conflict there is no interaction and no human actions.
Pondy, (1967)	Organisational conflict involves wide variety of behaviours. In formal organisations, three main conflicts namely bureaucratic, bargaining and system conflicts exist. Based on the type of conflict, the conflict resolution strategy is developed.
Walton and Dutton, (1969)	A model was developed to integrate the contextual determinants of organisational conflict. Mutual dependence, common resources, asymmetries, rewards, organisational differentiation, role dissatisfaction, ambiguities, obstacles in communication and personal skills and traits were the antecedents of the model.
Cormick, (1971)	Dispersion of power is the main hindrance in goal attainment in organisational conflict.
Schmidt and Kochan, (1972)	Conflict is differentiated from competition in the context of intra organisational perspective. The main reasons for conflict escalation are 1) goal incompatibility which doesn't allow one party to attain the goal under same conditions 2) interference in opportunity and 3) interdependent activities in various subunits of organisations and 4) limited resource attainment which doesn't allow continuous work flow.
Kochan <i>et al.</i> (1975)	An empirical model of intraorganisational conflict was tested among government officials. It was found that various dimensions like goal incompatibility and ability to interfere with goal attainment of organisational conflict affect the collective bargaining process.
Cook, (1977)	Conflict between organisations arises due to interdependence on common supply of inadequate resources.
Gregory, (1983)	This study describes the importance of organisational culture related to conflict in organisations.
Murray, (1989)	When heterogeneous groups are associated with higher levels of conflict it leads to better recognition of groups.

Pelled, (1996a)	Conflict and power do exist when a critical factor for turnover is considered. The author defines conflict as unidimensional and a destructive force that affects performance negatively leading to turnover.
Jehn, (1997a)	Grounded theory of multidimensional intragroup conflict was used in this study. Relationship conflict (group conflict) was not found beneficial to performance and satisfaction. Process conflict also affects performance negatively.
Jehn <i>et al.</i> (1999)	A model has been developed which studies various types of diversity (informational, social category and value) affecting performance and group conflict as intervening variable and it was found that social category diversity enhanced relationship conflict in workgroups and value diversity was positively related to conflict.

The above mentioned studies on conflict reveal that conflict at organisational level as well as group level take place more frequently than individual / personal level. Conflict has been studied with various variables and attributes like diversity, performance, communication, creativity and it is suggested that conflict is not a maladaptive behaviour or bad always but fosters change through problem solving, generation of new ideas and better recognition of groups.

2.3.2 Recent views on conflict and its levels

Schulz-Hardt *et al.* (2002) in a two factorial experiment with 201 employees and managers studied the role of decision making groups in considering the conflict management and social support as main functions. According to Hart (1998) decision making groups are “think tank” of the organisation as they consider all the alternatives for a conflict, scrutinise them and come out with a solution that proves useful for the organisation. Homogeneous groups chose the alternatives that exhibited a net group combination bias while heterogeneous group are not involved in combination bias. The authors have suggested that there should be a culture of debate where the groups can communicate freely which can help in reducing emotional conflict into task conflict.

Jehn and Bendersky, (2003) in their study developed a comprehensive model of the effects of intragroup conflict from a contingency perspective. The employees in an organisation become more responsible and interdependent due to decentralisation (Nohria, 1991) and hence number of conflicts increases due to more homogenous workforce (Williams and O'Reilly, 1998). The authors studied the type of conflict that exist, the organisational outcomes that are expected and the conditions that stimulate the conflicts to occur. A Conflict Outcome Moderated (COM) model was presented which has an effect on conflict- outcome relationship. The authors conclude that conflict is detrimental as well as beneficial to organisations based on circumstances where conflicts should be handled properly and where conflicts should be discouraged.

Bradford *et al.* (2004) in a study on simulated networks found that task conflict and interpersonal conflict have a negative effect on network member satisfaction. Conflict management also proves to be positively related to satisfaction. The authors considered interpersonal conflict and task conflict and three approaches (confrontation, accommodating and collaboration) to manage conflict. The authors came with the conclusion that collaboration approach of conflict management is useful for reducing both interpersonal and task conflict while accommodating approach reduced interpersonal and confrontation minimised task conflict. The authors suggested that conflict being multi-dimensional affect the quality of relationship between network members and hence it is important for managers to use appropriate strategy for solving a particular type of conflict. It is important to measure the interpersonal conflict in organisations so that the strategy is developed to manage and face the situation in a logical way (Knapp *et al.*, 1988; Lee, 1990, 2002).

Holt and DeVore (2005) conducted a meta analysis to give a clear picture regarding culture (individualistic vs collectivistic), gender and organisational role (superior, subordinate and peer) along with the conflict style. Understanding conflict and the ways to deal with it becomes a prime concern directly related to accomplishing a goal and the way the conflict is resolved so as to maintain peace (Blumberg, 1998).The authors have considered Blake and Mouton's dual concern theory (Blake and Mouton, 1964) as a base for this study which proposed that individuals are motivated by two main reasons regarding interpersonal conflict: the aspiration to achieve their goals (concern for production) and the wish to retain interpersonal relations (concern for people). The authors concluded that conflict with peers (more power and status)

has a negative outcome than conflict with subordinates (Phillips and Cheston, 1979; Rahim, 1986).

Medina *et al.* (2005) evaluated the relation between task and relationship conflict (group conflict) and their influence on satisfaction, wellbeing and propensity to quit a job taking relationship conflict as a mediator as well as a moderator. The study was conducted on 169 employees from service organisations. Conflict is a multidimensional construct (Cosier and Schwenck, 1990; Jehn, 1995) where on one hand it improves effectiveness and on other side it reduces creativity and innovation (De Dreu and Van de Vliert, 1997). The authors concluded that relationship conflict is negatively related with affective reactions while task conflict does not relate directly to the affective reactions. Open discussions regarding the type of conflict and its management should be discussed and constructive solutions should be encouraged.

De Dreu and Beersma, (2005) in their theoretical study addressed the importance of satisfaction, organisational commitment, individual health & well being and turnover intentions with relation to conflict and its management. Conflict is beneficial under specific conditions and enhances performance (Thomas, 1992; Tjosvold, 1998) while it can be dysfunctional in some cases like lower job satisfaction, increases absenteeism and turnover (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). The authors have added valuable inputs to the conflict theory by providing relevant processes and empirical supports.

Ikeda *et al.* (2005) in their study have discussed the organisational conflict which marketing executives are facing due to number of activities which take place in marketing section which are highly dependent and engage authority, hierarchical power and groups (Tjosvold, 1998). Marketing environment is very competitive which keeps on changing every now and then based on the customer requirement which stimulates conflict to emerge but can also be beneficial in stimulating the creative ideas. Vertical conflicts (occurs in groups of different hierarchical levels) and horizontal conflicts (occurs between individuals of same levels) are mostly seen in marketing departments. The main reason which authors have highlighted based on field survey results are the use of power which can create conflicting situation, the communication barriers and different expectations & problems with the organisational set up.

Kaushal and Kwantes (2006) studied the role of culture (values and beliefs) and personality attributes (self monitoring and EI) in relation to conflict resolution strategy. The conflict

resolution strategies can provide alternative to deal with particular type of conflict (Phillips and Cheston, 1979). Conflict arises due to misalignment of goals or difference of opinions/ actions between two parties but it can have both negative and positive consequences. The conflict occurs both at personal/ individual and group level and is prejudiced by social culture. Authors have shown that cultural attributes like procedural justice, fairness and responsibility attributions play a major role in determining the choice of conflict resolution strategy (Mayer, 2010). Also, high self monitors are superior in dealing with interpersonal conflict and develop strategies of collaboration in managing conflicts (Warech *et al.*, 1998).

Matsuo, (2006) investigated the influence of customer orientation on innovativeness taking three types of conflict into consideration (relationship, task and process) by using structural equation modelling on 193 sales departments in Japanese firms. The results suggested that customer orientation was positively associated with task conflict but negatively associated with process conflict. Customer orientation provides a common goal for the hard work of individuals within a department and minimises destructive conflict and hence positive relation exist between task conflict and innovativeness (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990). Customer orientation also helps an organisation to become accustomed towards external environment and helps in integrating internal resources as well.

Kellermanns and Eddleston (2007) in their study examined the role of cognitive and process conflict in relation to family firm performance. Cognitive conflict revolves around the disagreement related to work at hand and the strategies being followed (Jehn, 1997a; Mooney *et al.*, 2007). Decision making process is improved by cognitive conflict and also it helps in identifying the best solution for a problem (Jehn, 1995). On the other hand, process conflict takes into account the capabilities of individuals that can be utilised judiciously to complete a given task (Jehn and Bendersky, 2003). It was found that cognitive conflict was negatively related to family firm performance due to disagreements among the family members which sometimes can be misunderstood as personal attacks. In order to make healthy atmosphere and perform well, an open culture is encouraged.

Menguc and Auh, (2008) explored the role of transformational leadership in dealing with task and relational conflicts and improving market orientation and performance on CEOs and marketing managers. The study adopted a cultural basis for examining the role of different types of conflict and market orientation and found that transformational leadership enhances

market orientation due to the fact that transformational leaders generate a culture which matches with culture that market orientation needs for promotion (Slater and Narver, 1995). Also, transformational leadership relates positively to market orientation and in turn firm performance (Deshpande and Farley, 2004).

Gelfand *et al.* (2008) in a conceptual paper re-established the organisational basis of conflict by developing a macro-theory of conflict cultures considering active vs passive conflict management norms and agreeable vs disagreeable conflict management norms. The authors advocated that conflict management processes are socially learned and socially reinforced processes. The conflict culture is linked with various theories of organisational behaviour making it a core element at individual and unit level. Conflict has been shown as associated with organisational outcomes on both positive and negative fronts.

Goncalo *et al.* (2010) predicted that when confidence emerges at a high level at the start of a group formation, there are chances that the members will experience process conflict. The study was conducted on undergraduate students. Process conflict arises during early stage as the issues like division of labour, deadline fixation and other procedural activities are discussed at length (Gersick, 1988) but it is also necessary that the group members are vigilant to find out alternative approaches for completing the job (Vancouver and Kandall, 2006). If so, then there are less chances of process conflict to gear up. The authors suggested that the groups should be informed proactively to develop a strong sense of collective efficacy, overcome difficulties and reach towards success. Group interaction and task performance helps to develop interactions which in turn lead towards better performance and interactions (Mcgrath, 1991).

Kotlyar *et al.* (2011) in a laboratory study examined the role of leaders (charismatic, pragmatic and shared leadership) in influencing member commitment to generate decisions via their impact on group conflict. Team commitment in a team is of utmost importance in implementation of a solution to a problem (Hitt and Tyler, 1991). Relationship conflict generates member animosity which affects the quality of a decision (Simons and Peterson, 2000) which can reduce member commitment. The findings show that pragmatic leaders enforce team commitment to the decision where leaders have the ability to manage conflicts in a better way which in turn helps in team decision process.

Ul Haq, (2011) studied a theoretical model in which organisational politics mediates the relationship between interpersonal conflict and job outcomes on a sample of 264 employees from six organisations. An extensive research was carried out to find out what actually conflict is and how it is related to perception of organisational politics. Most of the studies have proved that conflict has negatives outcomes (Jehn and Mannix, 2001; Amason, 1996; Jehn, 1997a) and so do the organisational politics (Drory and Romm, 1990; Ferris *et al.*, 1989; Vigoda, 2000). When organisational members understand the occurrence of conflict, their behaviour is unexpected and hence interpersonal conflict shows positive relation to intent to quit from the organisation. The politics exist in organisations when employees face higher levels of conflict and vice versa. In order to take a proper strategy for handling the conflicting situation the managers should be capable enough to identify the situation.

Summary: As can be seen from the above studies, conflict proves to be beneficial to the organisation in certain circumstances. Conflict is a fact of life in any organisation as long as people compete for resources, power, security and recognition (Henry, 2008). Conflicts when resolved in a better way improve decision making outcomes and quality of work. It also improves organisational performance when good communication, time management and cooperation are properly employed (Knippen and Green, 1999).

2.4 CONTEMPORARY STUDIES ON ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

OL concept gained a prominent place among behaviourists and economists during 1950's but the economic models developed for the concept were not accepted by many researchers. According to March and Simon (1958), the Classical Economic Theory of firm was overly simplistic and it was not supported by empirical evidence. They suggested that the organisational processes like decision making play a very crucial role in organisational behaviour. In doing so, they stimulated many ideas related to organisational learning which made a remarkable progress time to time. This concept gained momentum in Behavioural Theory of Firm (Cyert and March, 1963). According to this theory, firm is a multifarious adaptive system capable of producing outcomes and not affected by external conditions. OL was considered as "learning cycle" in which external entities play a role. This theory was extended to understand the organisational decision making and focuses on the social processes and contextual factors that affect organisational decisions made by individuals or groups (Argote and Greve, 2007). Thereafter, OL appeared in many scholarly work (March and Oslon, 1975; Levinthal and March, 1981; Nelson and Winter, 1982; Levitt and March, 1988; Schulz,

1998; Cook and Yanow, 1993; Grant, 1996). Learning has been related to performance (Druskat and Kayes, 2000). The same concept has been defined by many researchers in their own ways. Research on OL increased dramatically in late 1980's when the field of OL got into various networks based on new ideas. Vast number of papers was published on OL during the period of 1990-2002 where the main focus was the development of concept of organisational learning and the factors which can facilitate OL (Bapuji and Crossan, 2004).

There are numerous definitions and concepts of OL and no universal acceptance on this concept. OL is considered as a product of organisational members' involvement in sharing experiences (Curado, 2006). OL is sum of individual learning but not enough for OL to occur. OL is considered as a social process while individual learning is a cognitive process (Tetrick and Da Silva, 2003). OL starts with key individuals in the organisations which are related to changes taking place in the organisation (Cook and Yanow, 1993). OL is also considered to be associated with renewing process (Czarniawska, 2003). The differences in approaches on OL has hampered to develop a unique or conceptual model that can serve as a fundamental framework for academic research (Pawlowsky, 2003).

Regardless of its heavy presence in academia and a continuously growing field, the term has failed to describe in a single notion. As the research on OL is carried out by scholars from various disciplines like psychology, sociology, business & management and ecology, there is a general lack of cumulative work (Huber, 1991) resulting in a number of approaches and voices. Various scholars have identified the key debates in OL literature by coming out its theoretical underpinnings and discussing main constructs (Easterby – Smith *et al.*, 2000; Fiol and Lyles, 1985). The main theme of OL moves around the notion of what actually learning is? It is followed by the question of whether learning occurs because of adopting new insights or a change in behaviour (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2000, Weick, 1991). Though organisational learning has gained importance in managing organisations yet it is unclear whether it is applicable to all organisations and all situations (Burnes *et al.*, 2003).

Hence it is worth mentioning that although different OL definitions and notions exist, yet there are mainly five perspectives on which the literature of OL is based. It includes Management Information System (MIS), cognitive perspective, behavioural perspective, sociological perspective and objective perspective. MIS, a management science stream takes care of the processes of knowledge attainment and information management. The knowledge which is

embedded in the systems of organisations helps the employees to learn (Lam, 1998). It mainly focuses on the effective MIS design and includes the relationship between explicit knowledge (captured by MIS and stored in organisational memory) and tacit knowledge (the know how in heads of individuals). Cognitive perspective focuses on various processes that help in acquiring new insights, interpretation processes and levels of learning. It also helps in understanding the changes in cognitive maps (Casey, 2005; Tsang, 1997) and helps to learn in terms of cognitive patterns related with information processing and interpretation of events. Behavioural perspective of OL operates learning in terms of routine based mechanisms in changing/responding to the processes that take place regularly. Researchers have argued that OL is a combination of both cognitive and behavioural perspectives (Crossan *et al.*, 1995; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2000). Learning involves actions and changes in behaviour and can contribute toward single loop learning and double loop learning. Single loop and double loop concepts have already been discussed in the previous chapter. Sociological perspective considers organisations as social systems. These systems have a complex structure and a culture that either enhances or inhibits learning. These social constructs also include internal politics, conflict and power differentials pertaining in organisations. The objective perspective relates to how learning can boost productive outputs, market share and profitability. This perspective also keeps organisation at its competitive edge by coming out with innovations and adopting new technologies.

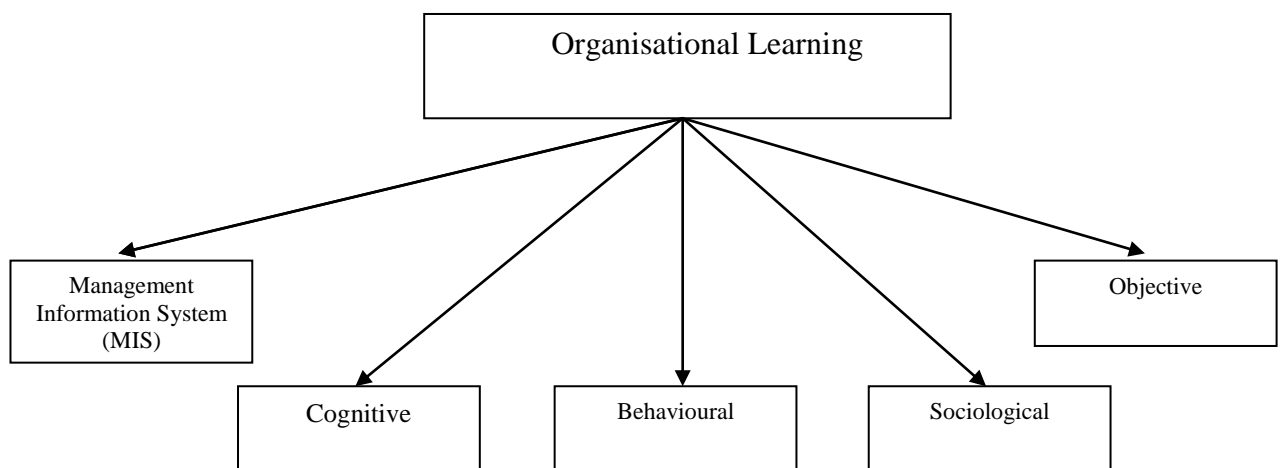


Figure 2.1: Major trends in OL literature

The above mentioned trend in OL provides an outline for analysing the contemporary researches related to the construct. Table 2.3 provides the relevant work on OL.

Table 2.3: Contemporary Research Avenues in OL literature

Reference	Research Design	Orientation	Main findings
Parkhe, (1991)	Conceptual; This study focuses on OL and adaptation as critical processes that moderate diversity's impact on alliance longevity. Qualitative	Objective	Learning has been found affecting diversity of firms and their relation on longevity of firms.
Andreu and Ciborra (1996)	Conceptual; This study focuses on learning aspects of capability development and finds the use of importance of IT for enhancing the same. Qualitative	MIS	OL model is presented which shows that IT can contribute to core capability formation in an organisation.
Buckler, (1996)	Conceptual; Develops an understanding of how learning can be stimulated by referring various theories, concepts and techniques. Qualitative	Behavioural	Developed two models namely "taught model" & "discovery model" to achieve continuous improvement and innovation in business processes.
Matlay, (2000)	Empirical study; Collected data from a 1996-1998 through telephonic surveys, in depth interviews and case studies. Both qualitative and quantitative research	Management Information System (MIS) How OL takes place in small learning organisations?	Confirmed that both incidental and intentional learning takes place in small businesses.

Murray, (2003)	Empirical study; Investigated large contractors in New South Wales construction industry by means of preliminary interviews, reviewing published documentation and attending meetings. Qualitative	Behavioural To explore the relation between organisational competencies and firm performance	Confirmed that competencies are necessary for enhancement in firm performance and competencies are linked to OL.
Yeo,(2003)	Empirical; Study was conducted through in-depth interview. Data was collected from four organisations in Singapore (both private & public). Quantitative	Cognitive/ Behavioural	A theoretical model was developed which shows an influence of OL on organisational performance and success.
Jorgensen, (2004)	Conceptual; Discusses the importance of practices and structures that enhance OL. Also discusses the concepts of human capital and social capital. Qualitative	MIS	Proposes an integrated group of workforce strategies that support organisational change, builds human capital and recognises the value of learning.
Bryson <i>et al.</i> (2006)	Conceptual; A case study of large New Zealand wine company was developed using in-depth interviews of all levels of staff. Qualitative	Behavioural	Managers' role of job design and organisational characteristics promote work environment suitable for enhancement of learning.

Baldwin- Evans, (2007)	Empirical; The study compares the employees' view of T&D with that of employers and what actually employees want to learn by carrying out in-depth interviews (with senior HR executives from various sectors) and web based survey. 5360 people participated. Qualitative and Quantitative both.	Behavioural	Employee engagement, quality, value and impact, critical role of managers, employee productivity and concentration on the learner were focussed for improving OL.
Bennet and Bennet, (2007)	Conceptual Builds a unique relationship between stories and organisations to investigate the use of stories as strategy and vice versa. Qualitative	MIS	Stories may be used as specific strategies or a part of generic strategy of learning.
Kane and Alavi, (2007)	Empirical; The study is based on the effect of IT on exploration and exploitation in OL. Knowledge repositories and groupware was utilised to introduce IT-enabled learning mechanisms. Qualitative	MIS	Results indicate the use of IT to support OL and organisational & environmental conditions also affect OL.
Tosey and Mathison, (2008)	Conceptual; Debates on a number of principles which reflect a pattern as well as practical experiences in OL. Qualitative	Behavioural	Talks about metacommunication which is usually tacit knowledge and helps to interact with each other.

Madsen, (2009)	Empirical; Approaches the issue of fatal U.S coal mining accidents from 1983 to 2006. Qualitative	Sociological	Organisations learn through past experiences to prevent future damage.
Gino <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Empirical; The study focuses on different types of experiences that affect team creativity. Data comprised of 180 undergraduate students. Quantitative	MIS	Task experience of any type enhanced creativity in teams. Additionally, direct experience was more useful than indirect one.
Van der Vegt <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Empirical; The study highlights the importance of performance feedback on team members. Data was collected from 218 individuals in 46 teams. Quantitative	Sociological	Results show that team learning mediates the relationship between power asymmetry and team performance.
Jabar <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Empirical; The paper explores the influence of OL through strategic technology on technology transfer and New Product Development (NPD). Data was collected from 335 manufacturing organisations through online survey questionnaire. Quantitative	Sociological	Results indicate that absorptive capacity, nature and type of alliance and learning environment affect technology transfer which in turn helps in building innovative capabilities in developing new products.

Table 2.3 discussed the contemporary and relevant work on OL taking into account the parameters which have been recognised from the earlier major insights. These studies have been measured based on research design, orientation and the findings. The review reveals that

most of the work is qualitative (Parkhe, 1991; Andreu and Ciborra, 1996; Drejer, 2000; Bryson *et al.*, 2006; Elkjaer, 2005; Madsen, 2009; Kane and Alavi, 2007; Buckler, 1996; Tosey, 2008). With respect to the orientation, most of the studies are based on behavioural as well as on MIS perspective (Murray, 2003; Buckler, 1996; Tosey, 2008; Bryson *et al.*, 2006; Evans, 2007; Andreu and Ciborra, 1996; Jorgensen, 2004; Bennet and Bennet, 2007; Kane and Alavi, 2007; Gino *et al.*, 2010; Matlay, 2000). This means that OL is mainly focussing on behavioural and MIS aspects though other constructs like cognitive and sociological are also important in developing the framework of OL. These studies also highlighted the importance of outcomes like firm performance (Murray, 2003), improvement and innovation (Buckler, 1996), perception and role of environment (Stewart, 2003; Kane and Alavi, 2007), creativity in teams (Gino *et al.*, 2010), performance in teams (van der veegt *et al.*, 2010), building human capital (Jorgensen, 2004), employee engagement and productivity (Evans, 2007).

On the basis of ongoing discussion, it is worth to mention that Indian scholars also studied OL to find out its effect on various outcomes. OL is strategically associated with business drivers, market environment, performance appraisal, succession planning, development and growth. Ramnarayan and Bhatnagar (1993) carried out various studies to find out the measures which inhibit and enhance OL with the environmental change in Indian organisations. OLC in Indian organisations consist of capabilities for self reflection and planning, environmental scanning, knowledge dissemination and sharing, and to experiment (Shukla, 1995). Due to economic liberalisation in India, the organisations had to adapt themselves in the new environment by bringing out those changes which could make organisations competitive (Rao *et al.*, 2001; Som, 2002). Pareek (1998) conducted numerous studies on OL as well as on LO to find out various diagnostics which could help in measuring OL in Indian organisations.

Khandekar and Sharma (2005) studied OL and strategic HRM in Indian organisations and found that OL positively affects sustainable competitive advantage. An empirical analysis was carried out where it was found that firm's financial turnover and firm's profit are predictors of organisational learning capability in India (Bhatnagar, 2006). OL is capturing the attention of Indian managers to gain competitive advantage over their competitors by continuously upgrading their OLC. The next section discusses the relevant literature related to the phases of OL i.e innovation, implementation and stabilisation.

2.4.1 Studies on Innovation, Implementation and Stabilisation

Table 2.4 highlights the importance of the innovation and its association with various factors like developing competitive advantage (Ettlie *et al.*, 1984; Damanpour, 1988; Nord and Tucker, 1987), important domain to start entrepreneurial ventures (O'Connor and McDermott, 2004), leadership behaviour that stimulate employees' idea generation (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007).

As mentioned earlier, the framework of OL for this study is based on Pareek (2003). The dimensions of OL have been divided into two parts: **Phases** incorporates Innovation, Implementation and Stabilisation whereas **Mechanisms** constitutes Experimentation, Mutuality and Teamwork, Incremental planning, Temporary systems and Competency building. Table 2.4 and 2.5 presents the studies on these above mentioned OL dimensions and its associated constituents. The important constituents which have gained a lot of interest among the researchers are innovation, teamwork and planning.

Table 2.4 Findings from various studies on Innovation, Implementation and Stabilisation

OL Constituents	References	Concept/ Findings
Innovation	Kars,(2004); Lam, (1998); Therin, (2003); Tohidi <i>et al.</i> (2012); Chanal, 2004); Hsiao, <i>et al.</i> (2013); Stata (1989); Huber, (1991)	Role of OL processes in enhancing OL.
	Skervlavaj <i>et al.</i> (2010); Woodman <i>et al.</i> , (1993); Eisenhardt, (1989); Stalk and Hout, (1990); Eisenhardt and Tabrizi, (1995); Nooteboom, (2000); Lundvall, (1990)	Increasing competitiveness and a success factor
	Ekboir <i>et al.</i> (2009); Prather, (2010)	Introducing successfully a novelty into a social or economic process
	du Plessis <i>et al.</i> (1999); Tushman and Nadler, (1996)	Continuous improvement and efficiency
	Schienstock, (2009); Ho, (2011); Bates and	Impacts performance

	Khasawneh (2005)	and organisational restructuring
	Damanpour,(1991)	Key role in decision making
	Ang and Joseph (1996); Lund, (2008)	Alters existing work routines/reward structures / development of new strategies and change mechanisms
	Johnson, (1998)	Bolsters sustainability
Implementation	Penuel, <i>et al.</i> (2011); Hovland, (2003); Curado, (2006); Sitkin <i>et al.</i> (1994)	For development and analysis/ innovation
	March, (1991); Rajagopal, (2002); Arawati, (2000)	Impacts organisational performance
	Nafukho, <i>et al.</i> (2009); Malhotra, (2001); Mat and Razak (2011); Klein, (1996); Klein <i>et al.</i> (2001); McLaughlin, (1987)	Learning enabler/ Learning from experience
	Umble <i>et al.</i> (2003); Ahire and O'shaughnessy, (1998)	Critical success factor quality upgradation
	McLaughlin, (1987)	Requires a strategic balance of pressure and support
Stabilisation	Eraut and Hirsh, (2007)	Bring out new perspective
	Fang <i>et al.</i> (2010); Bunderson and Boumgarden (2010)	Knowledge transfer and information sharing

As can be seen from the table 2.4, the most important characteristic among Phases of organisational learning is innovation. It is the key constituent of most of the studies on organisational learning and is an important factor for the success and competitive advantage of

organisations (Woodman *et al.*, 1993). It is most often used as generation of new ideas. Innovation can be of many types: incremental, technological, process, radical, organisational, product, managerial, operational or institutional. In this study, we have considered only organisational innovation. All these three factors of Phases contribute towards OL. Table 2.5 gives a description of factors of Mechanism of OL with its related constructs. OL is a key factor in enhancing organisational performance (López *et al.*, 2005) and also manages knowledge so as to link it to the culture of an organisation (Lopez and Ordas, 2004). OL in hospitals help them to systematically collect, analyse, store and use information which is relevant to the organisation (Lipshitz and Popper, 2000).

2.5: Experimentation, Mutuality and Teamwork, Incremental Planning, Temporary systems and Competency building

Experimentation	du Plessis <i>et al.</i> , (1999); Ng, (2011); Garvin, (1993); March, (1991); Costanzo and Tzoumpa, (2008); Chiva <i>et al.</i> (2007)	Integral part of learning
	Edmondson,(2003); Singer and Edmondson, (2006)	Performance improvement
Mutuality and Teamwork	Gallie <i>et al.</i> (2009)	Employee welfare
	Cohen and Bailey, (1997)	Enhances productivity
	Delarue <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Improves organisational performance and employee retention
Incremental planning	Chapman, (1983)	To solve a problem
Temporary systems	Sosik, (1997); Goodman and Goodman, (1976)	Enhances group / task effectiveness
	Keller, (2001)	Quality improvement
	Bennis, (1965)	Key element for dealing future

		organisational problems
	Fern, (1982), Freeman, (1995); Pareek (1998); Cooke , (2001)	Idea generation
Competency building	Hargadon and Sutton, (2000); Bergenhengouwen <i>et al.</i> (1997); Khan, (2011) Spetzler, (2007)	Developing capabilities
	Barney, (1992); Wright and McMahan,(1992)	Embedded in firms culture
	Pareek, (1998); Drejer, (2000)	Organisation endeavours to learn
	Spetzler,(2007)	High quality decisions

As seen in table 2.4 and 2.5, OL framework (Pareek, 1998) has interrelated constituents. Organisational innovation can enhance growth and competitiveness only after proper implementation (Edquist, 1997). Competency building in an organisation can take place only when resources are effectively utilised and experimentation with improvisation is properly done (O'Reilly and Tushman, 2004). Competence also has an effect on innovation success (Ritter and Gemunden, 2003). Project groups of temporary systems also play a major role in achieving the organisational goals. Gupta *et al.* (1994) found group control has a positive association with performance which in turn increases productivity. These groups make proper use of resources, eradicate unnecessary work and gain more relevant and effective knowledge (Pearson, 1992). Knowledge has been considered as an element of successful corporate strategy (Itami, 1987). All these constituents, Phases (Innovation, Implementation and Stabilisation) and Mechanisms (Experimentation, Mutuality & teamwork, Incremental planning, Temporary systems and Competency building) constitute OLD (Organisational Learning Diagnostics) (Pareek, 2003) has been incorporated in this study.

2.5 LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING STUDIES

This section deals with the views on the leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez faire) that have been considered in a variety of researches during the last fifteen years (e.g. Nafukho *et al.*, 2009). The aim of this section is to highlight the studies which link leadership styles with organisational learning and other learning concepts like innovation in sectors like health care (Franco and Almeida, 2011) and organisational effectiveness (Pounder, 2001) and others as well. Transformational and transactional leadership has a direct impact on

organisational learning (Trautmann *et al.*, 2007; sSkerlavaj, 2009). At the end of this section, the summary of the studies will be presented.

Eagly *et al.*, (2003) in a meta analysis of 45 studies found that female leaders were more transformational as compared to males who mostly exhibit transactional and laissez faire style. Transformational leadership style of females was also related to effectiveness while transactional leaders showed negative relation with effectiveness.

Jung *et al.* (2003) advocated the importance of leadership style for improving organisational innovation. The study was conducted on 32 Taiwanese companies in electronic and telecommunication. The results showed a positive relationship of transformational leadership and organisational innovation. Moreover, transformational leadership relates positively with empowerment and innovation supporting organisational climate. Leaders influence organisational members' work attitudes and motivation which in turn affect their collective achievement of organisational goals (Amabile, 1998) and also in enhancing performance (Ho, 2011).

Kahai *et al.* (2003) in a study on 39 student groups working in a simulated electronic meeting system context found that transactional leadership was linked with greater group efficacy and solution originality than transformational leadership. In another study on 56 projects it was found that at high levels of exploration of OL, increased autonomy from leaders helped in enhancing learning effectiveness.

Krause (2004) in her paper studied the influence based leadership as a determinant of innovation on a sample of 339 middle managers from different German organisations. The Lazarus theory of innovation was used as a basis for the study. By applying Hierarchical regression analyses, she found that leadership promotes organisational innovativeness by influencing the attitudes of organisational members, their behaviour or both (Mumford *et al.*, 2002; Northouse, 2001; Yulk, 2002).

Vera and Crossan, (2004) in their study found that leadership style (transformational/transactional) has an impact on organisational learning at organisational, individual and group levels. Transformational leaders focus on experimentation, risk taking and multiple solutions

for a problem while transactional leaders focus on prior logic, incremental change, effectiveness, safety and stability (Bass, 1985).

Amitay *et al.* (2005) tested the relation between leadership styles of organisational unit members and the level of organisational learning in 44 community clinics in Israel and found that leaders play a significant role in emphasizing organisational values like culture (Schein, 1992) and these values ultimately affect organisational learning mechanisms. Negative correlation was found between transactional leadership and OL. Teachers who are given personal attention and encouraged to solve problems in a better way by looking the problem in a different angle and share responsibilities by their principals are appreciated. This in turn makes teachers creative who think reflectively and improve upon their decision making and other understandings.

Berson *et al.* (2006) in their theoretical review suggested a model which links leadership with new and existing learning at multiple levels of perspectives. Leaders provide contextual support, obtain necessary resources for learning to occur, integrate learning across group & organisational levels. It was also found that leaders are necessary for integrating new and existing knowledge in the organisational policies. The authors conclude that MPE-A of transactional leadership and authoritarian forms of leadership actually inhibits learning.

Castiglione, (2006) aims to relate transformational leadership with OL in library settings which created awareness among the library professionals to determine their organisational culture. Transformational leadership is useful when an organisation is experiencing quick changes in the market and transactional works best when environment is stable (Vera and Crossan, 2004). Various factors are responsible for library professionals to adapt a particular style such as education level, experience in library work and personal values.

Aragon-Correa *et al.* (2007) in their paper on a sample of 900 firms from different nature of organisations studied the effect of transformational leadership on firm innovation and performance (Tohidi *et al.*, 2012). They concluded that some characteristics of transformational leadership are important for firm innovation like vision, effective communication and sharing values (Adair, 1990; Quinn, 1988) and encourage an atmosphere for teams to innovate (Tushman and Nadler, 1986). In addition to this, transformational leaders provide direction,

vigour and support in bringing change and organisational learning (Blackler and McDonald, 2000).

Garcia-Morales *et al.* (2008) analyses empirically the leader's perception on different strategies and innovation which influence the relation between transformational leadership and organisational performance. The study was conducted on a sample of 408 employees including CEOs, consultants and academicians. OL and transformational leadership are precursors for firms to generate innovation by providing favourable environment and decision making that generate and implement the knowledge (Van de Ven, 1993). Transformational leadership has been found affecting slack knowledge, absorptive capacity, tacit knowledge, OL and innovation which in turn create positive relations for improving organisational performance.

Zagorsek *et al.* (2009) in their study on 753 undergraduate students examined the influence of transformational and transactional leadership on organisational learning. They found that the influence of leadership is more on behavioural and cognitive changes of organisational learning. An important finding of this study was that transformational as well as transactional (contingent reward) leadership had an equal effect on OL.

Kurland *et al.* (2010) in their paper explored the influence of principals' leadership style on school organisational learning. For school improvement, leadership, vision and OL are important factors. The data was collected from 1474 teachers at 104 elementary schools in Israel. It was found that transformational style of teachers was very significant in improving organisational learning and predicted school organisational vision which proves to be a motivator for school OL. Transformational leaders have a positive and motivating effect on the leadership of teachers and students (Koh *et al.*, 1991).

Singh (2010) in his paper on 331 software professionals studied leadership styles and OL in Indian organisations. A leader is required to benchmark all organisational processes at regular intervals so as to come out with the best practices. Leadership can improve the processes and results of OL activities (Lam, 2002). Transformational as well as transactional leadership improve the efficiency of OL which in turn brings a positive effect on functioning of learning organisation (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

Hsiao and Chang (2011) aim to investigate the effect of transformational leadership on organisational innovation by taking organisational learning as a mediator on a sample of 330 post secondary school teachers. They came with the conclusion that when teachers adopt both transformational leadership and OL at the same time, organisational innovation is enhanced.

Chang, (2012) explored the mediator effect of support for innovation and OL in the relationship of transformational leadership and organisational innovation. Data of 96 was collected from vocational high schools in Taiwan. Transformational leadership affects organisational innovation by stimulating the consciousness of their followers and motivating them to surpass their own self- interest for the sake of organisation. Organisations can improve upon their innovations by making their leaders transformational through effective training (Jung *et al.*, 2003). The role of teachers is to endorse organisational innovation by considering both transformational leadership and OL simultaneously.

Nafei *et al.* (2012) in their paper on a sample of 285 investigated the relationship between leadership style and organisational learning in Saudi banks. The study reveals that LS has a significant direct effect on OL. Additionally, the level of performance can be enhanced by considering the needs and desires of the employees to increase their involvement in the achievement of OL.

Table 2.6: Summary of views on three leadership styles

Author	Focused Style	Findings
Vera and Crossan (2004) Sahgal and Patahk (2007) Zagorsek <i>et al.</i> (2009) Castiglione (2006) Singh, (2010) Sarros and Santora, (2001)	Transformational/ Transactional	Transformational leaders take into account the risk taking and experimentation while transactional leaders focus on effectiveness and prior logic. Transformational and transactional both affect OL.
Berson <i>et al.</i> (2006) Amity <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Transactional	Transactional leadership is detrimental to learning.
Kahai <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Transactional	Transactional leaders enhance group efficiency.

Eagly <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Laissez faire	Male leaders tend to adopt laissez faire as compared to female leaders.
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Summary: Table 2.6 gives a summary of literature discussed so far on leadership styles and its association with organisational learning. Leaders are facilitators of OL as they develop the climate for learning in organisations (Hawkins, 2008; Sadler, 2001). The most useful and necessary leadership style which is beneficial for the organisation is transformational. Transactional leadership style is also considered useful in some cases. Furthermore, the laissez faire style is considered detrimental due to inefficiency and delays. Leadership also has some dark side (Hogan and Hogan, 2001) where managerial derailment and other factors are considered. The important point here is to discuss how leadership works and does it really matter to have good leadership in organisations (Phills, 2005).

2.6 CONFLICT LEVELS AND ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING STUDIES

After going through the literature on conflict and organisational learning, a few studies have related the two concepts directly. According to Mac Donald, (2011) conflict created by a diverse number of thoughts is very crucial for organisational learning. Conflict is necessary for learning as it gives an opportunity to come out with various options and hence the individuals explore the reasoning for their positions (Argyris and Schön, 1978; Rothman and Friedman, 2001). Conflict also contributes toward long term goals and hence becomes a part of group and organisational learning (Fiol and Lyles, 1985). Also, conflict has been shown to enhance employee performance and individual creativity (Schulz-Hardt *et al.*, 2008). Conflict also results in negative consequences like absenteeism, turnover and individual well being (Spector and Bruk-Lee, 2008). Some of the studies which link these two variables are discussed here.

Parkhe, (1991) in a study on interfirm diversity and organisational learning plays an important role as moderator for alliance longevity and effectiveness. The author has divided diversity into Type I (deals with reciprocal strengths and the differences that aid the formulation) and Type II (deals with differences in partner characters which negatively affect the longevity) and are influenced by organisational learning processes and adaptation. As these two groups work in continuation, there are likely chances of having a conflict, which can be resolved considering crucial aspects of learning, adoption of multi firm and pursuing multicultural perspectives in joint decision making.

Fiol, (1994) in his study broke the notion of consensus into two main dimensions: consensus around interpretation and framing of communication. Over a period of two years in a large financial institution the author described the ways by which the analysts frame their arguments and maintain diversity through differences in their interpretation. This in turn helps the organisation to gain unity and develop collective learning through generating diversity and building consensus. Learning can be in terms of changing/ modifying ones understanding/behaviour (Friedlander, 1983) or change in potential behaviour (Huber, 1991). Learning also takes place by sharing the common understanding and not only acquisition of information. In order to make organisational learning a continuous process, managers should encourage different conflicting views to emerge and share the issues which can overlook those differences and come out with various alternatives.

Mohammed and Ringseis, (2001) utilised 37 student groups who are directly involved in multi-decision making issues. Groups like task forces, cross- functional teams and other governing bodies consider decision makers from various functional areas and multiple departments who provide an insight about the decision to be taken. Although the goal is same for everyone yet the ideas differ which sometimes create a conflicting situation. Cognitive consensus (similarity among group members on how important issues are defined) comes into play when all the decision makers come out with their different alternatives for a single issue. The discussion on similarities and differences among the group members enhance individual learning (Rohrbaugh, 1979, 1981).

Rahim, (2002) in his paper on organisational conflict discusses interpersonal, intragroup and intergroup levels of conflict and the use of appropriate style to handle a particular type of conflict. By taking proper structural intervention the effectiveness and organisational learning can be enhanced. Until and unless the conflict is not managed properly and the realisation for learning is not felt by the organisational members, organisations cannot learn. The negativity of the organisational members enhances conflicting situations which in turn affect the performance of organisation. In order to maintain long term effectiveness, conflict management strategies are designed to enhance creative thinking (Munduate *et al.*, 1999) which helps to improve organisational learning. Also, substantive conflict in groups makes better decisions as compared to other conflict types (Amason, 1996) and also enhances group performance.

Tompkins and Rogers, (2004) in his study highlighted the importance of conflict as a facilitator for team learning as it enhances the capacity to take corrective actions which are beneficial for the organisation through diffusion and sharing of knowledge and skills. The study was carried on teams from aeronautical industry where author found that the teams achieved organisational learning through four stages: collaborative climate, collective understanding, collective competency and continual improvement. Conflict occurred at all the four stages but the ways of dealing with conflict helped the teams to become successful. At stage I, relationship conflict came into picture which helped the members to understand the different working styles. At stage II, the members of team looked for various alternatives, insights and goals which developed task conflict but the entry of champions (serve as facilitators for unifying the team) made the conflict to its minimum. At stage III, conflicts over methods developed but these differences resulted in enhanced performance of teams (Jehn and Chatman, 2000; Kabanoff, 1985). At stage IV, task and process conflicts showed a positive effect in continuing OL through debates and healthy discussions and it also has an effect on group outcomes (Jehn *et al.*, 2008). Conflict can prove a catalyst for promoting OL in this study.

Chang and Gotcher, (2010) in their study explored the use of conflict- coordination learning (CCL), a conflict management strategy which can improve capabilities and hence improvement in marketing channel value. The study was conducted on 101 distributors within the food industry in Taiwan. Channel conflict hampers the channel members to achieve their targets as they perceive to be involved in some unnatural behaviour (Stern and El-Ansary, 1977). Also, task conflict has been shown affecting channel efficiency in a positive way, building on innovation and discouraging channel members to involve in any sort of disagreement (Vaaland and Hakansson, 2003). Channel values can have an influence on conflict learning processes through organisational culture which in turn promote generative or adaptive learning (Argyris and Schön, 1996). Marketing channel conflict values can affect the organisational learning either by involving any change in actions or by a change in channel member organisational norms and values (Lukas *et al.*, 1996).The authors have concluded that conflict in marketing channels can be both functional and dysfunctional and can be understood in terms of managing conflict from an organisational learning perspective (Menon *et al.*, 1996).CCL relates positively to co-created values and enhances joint profit performance.

2.7 PROPOSED RELATIONSHIP

The hypotheses related to the study variables independently as well as the predictive associations will be framed in the next chapter. The three proposed relationships are seen in figure 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4. The hypotheses will decide upon the positive/ negative direction of the associations.

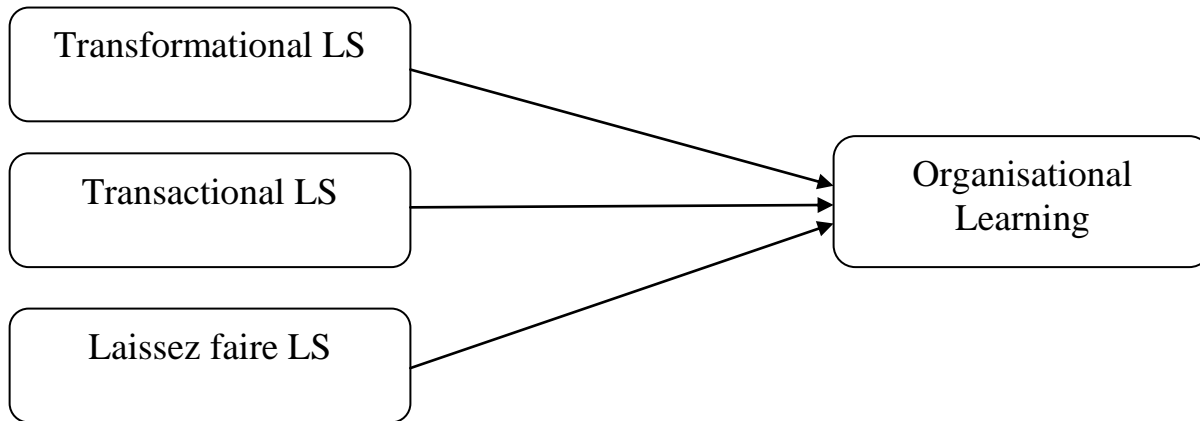


Figure 2.2: Proposed relationship of LS with OL

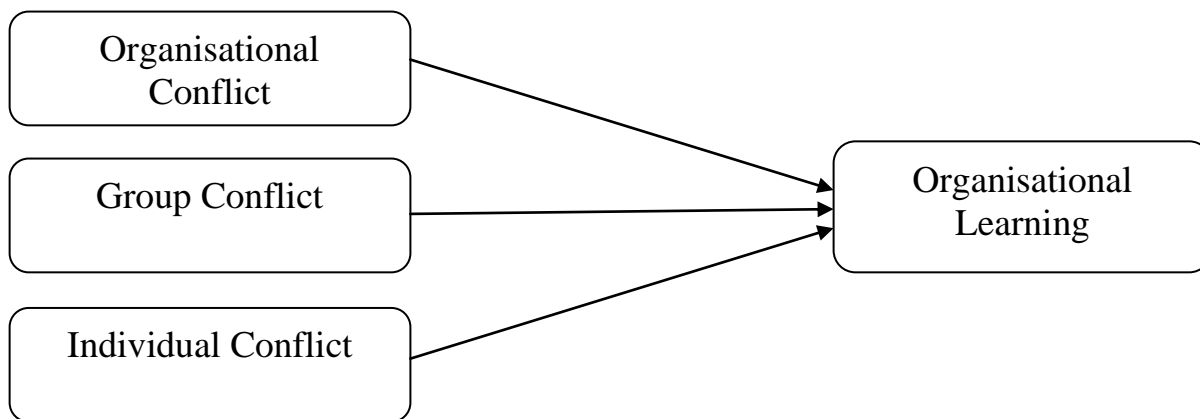


Figure 2.3: Proposed relationship of CL with OL

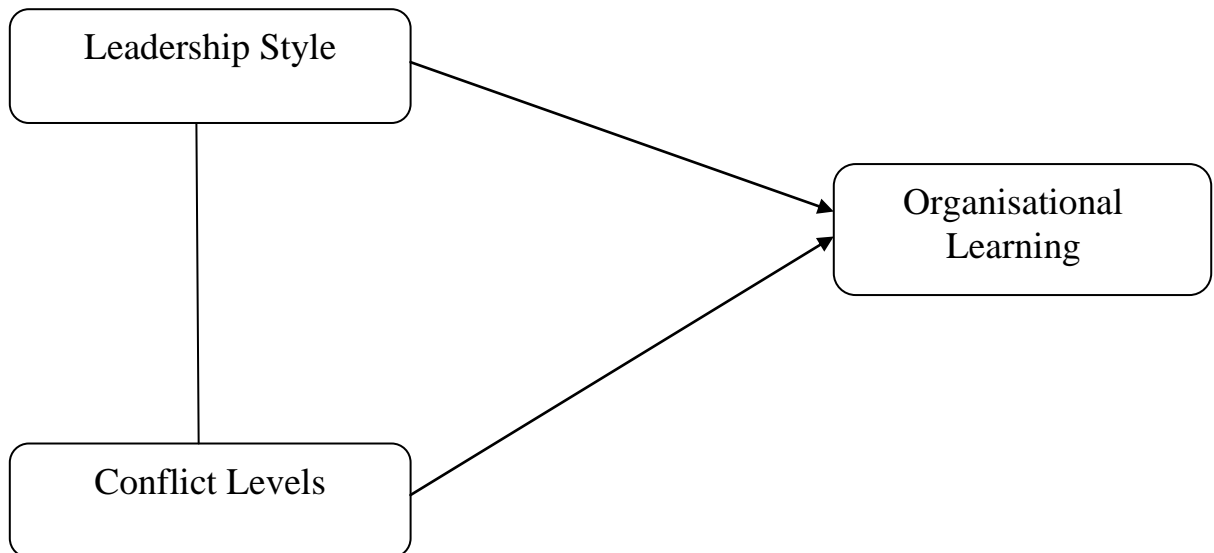


Figure 2.4: Proposed relationship of LS and CL with OL

2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

A comprehensive, relevant and logical review of literature has been done by considering the focused variables (i.e. leadership style, conflict levels and organisational learning) of the present study. The accessible literature on sub-variables of the all the three main variables has been reviewed. Specifically the chapter highlighted the reason for selecting the leadership style framework. Afterwards studies on leadership style based on MLQ (1995- 2012) has been discussed, studies on conflict levels inclusive of early views on conflict and its levels (before 1999) as well as recent views on conflict and its levels (since 2000), contemporary studies on OL (1991-2011) and the studies relevant to the constituents of OL (phases and mechanisms) are incorporated in the current research. Next, the studies on association between LS and its constituents and OL have been discussed along with studies on conflict & its levels and OL. The final section of the chapter visualized the proposed relationship amongst the study variables.

The literature review confirmed the significance of leadership in predicting the learning behaviour of organisations. Also, conflict and its levels (organisational, group and individual) have an impact on organisational learning. Though there are studies carried on the association of leadership style and organisational learning yet there is a dearth of literature on the association of conflict levels and organisational learning specifically in Indian organisations. Also the present study finds out the variations caused due to various demographic attributes on the relation of the independent variables with the dependent one. Based on these facts, the

present study adds to the literature on the focused variables and their relations. The next chapter will highlight the hypotheses based on the literature surveyed so far.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the premises of Organisational Learning (OL) which is achieving the expected outcomes as a result of Leadership Style (LS) and Conflict Levels (CL). The review of literature has enabled us to characterise the dimensions of study variables and to test the theoretical assumptions in Indian context. This chapter begins with the introduction of the methodology approach designed for the study. A brief explanation of research design followed by objectives of the study and the hypotheses based on the objectives are discussed. Afterwards, the approaches to test the hypotheses and accomplishing the objectives are highlighted. The target population along with the sample description is provided. Next, the data collection instruments are discussed. The data collection method is highlighted and data analysis techniques are described at the end of this chapter.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The present study is non- experimental or survey based cross sectional research design. The potential participants of the study were executives of Indian organisations. Based on the responses, the study explored LS, CL and OL as well as the association of two independent variables (LS and CL) with the dependent variable (OL). For collecting the responses, through survey method, standardised instruments are being used.

3.3 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of the study is to assess the learning capability of executives in Indian organisations and to explore the LS and CL dimensions in predicting OL. Following are the objectives of the study:

- O1. To study the leadership style of executives in select Indian organisations.
- O2. To study the conflict levels in select Indian organisations
- O3. To study organisational learning in select Indian organisations.
- O4. To study leadership style and conflict levels as predictors of organisational learning.
 - O4a: To study leadership style as predictor of organisational learning.
 - O4b: To study conflict levels as predictor of organisational learning.
- O5: To open new vistas of research.

3.4 HYPOTHESES

The hypothesis within each objective is framed on the basis of literature surveyed and presented in the previous chapter. The hypotheses are:

3.4.1 Hypotheses within O1

(O1: To study the leadership style of executives in select Indian organisations)

Transformational leadership style has been associated with increased sales and performance, motivation, organisational unit effectiveness, job satisfaction, innovation, TQM outcomes, better decision making capability and idea generation (e.g. Bass and Avolio, 1995; Powell, 1995; Hater and Bass, 1988; Sosik *et al.*, 1997; Thiagarajan and Zairi, 1998; Prabu *et al.*, 2000; Voon *et al.*, 2011; Krause, 2004; Tambe and Krishnan, 2000; Sosik, 1997). Transactional leadership is also considered good in some cases like providing rewards to the followers on the adequacy of follower's performance (Bass and Avolio, 1994a) and relates positively to job independency, external motivation and EI (Ye *et al.*, 2011; Barling *et al.*, 2000). Laissez faire is considered ineffective for the organisation (Bass and Avolio, 1994a), increases attrition rate of students (Frischer and Larsson, 2000) and is associated with work of low quality and quantity (Lewin *et al.*, 1939), relates positively with role conflict, workplace stress and psychological stress, (Skogstad *et al.*, 2007). Hence, based on the above details, the hypothesis is:

H1: Indian executives have transformational leadership style as their major LS, followed by transactional and laissez faire as the least preferred LS.

The literature has shown that MLQ is widely used instruments for measuring leadership style and has been reported conceptually different, but mutually correlated (Antonokis *et al.*, 2003; Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Hence the hypothesis based on this is:

H2: There is a mutual correlation among the constructs of MLQ.

The literature review has shown that there are differences in leadership style across demographics like gender, sector, experience, and nature of the industry. Based on this, the hypotheses are:

H3a: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across industries.

H3b: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across the public and private sector.

H3c: Leadership style of Indian executive varies across levels of experience.

H3d: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across males and females.

H3e: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across levels of income.

H3f: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across educational qualification.

3.4.2 Hypotheses within O2

(O2: To study the conflict levels in select Indian organisations).

Organisational conflicts are unavoidable and studies have shown that managers spent twenty percent of their time in managing conflicts (Rahim, 2000). Conflict at all levels is detrimental if not managed properly. Moderate level of conflict at any level enhances performance (Tjosvold, 1998). Conflicts in Indian organisations are due to lack of trust, personality differences and struggle on power (Sasidhar *et al.*, 2012) which mostly are untouched approaches. Conflict varies according to gender and level/ status in an organisation (Thomas *et al.*, 2008; Brewer *et al.*, 2002) and also role conflict varies across gender (Grey, 1996). Hence, based on this, the hypotheses are:

H4: Indian executives face organisational conflict more frequently than group and individual conflict.

H5: Conflict levels are mutually correlated but conceptually different.

H6a: Conflict levels vary across industries.

H6b: Conflict levels vary across public and private sector.

H6c: Conflict levels vary across levels of experience.

H6d: Conflict levels vary across male and female.

H6e: Conflict levels vary across levels of income.

H6f: Conflict levels vary across educational qualification.

3.4.3 Hypotheses within O3

(O3: To study the organisational learning of executives in select Indian organisations).

Organisational learning enhances safety and quality by improving upon the existing skills and knowledge (Carroll and Edmondson, 2002), acts as a critical factor for strategic alliance longevity and effectiveness (Parkhe, 1991), help in implementing success, impacts innovation by improving the professional expertise (Vakola and Rezgui, 2000) and develop competitive advantage. Based on the above statements, the hypotheses are:

H7: Indian executives learn more in terms of phases (Innovation, implementation and stabilisation) than mechanisms (Experimentation, mutuality & teamwork, incremental planning, temporary systems and competency building).

Organisational learning was found positively correlated with motivational climate and organisational ethos for one company (Pareek, 1998) and it was found that the phases and mechanisms of organisational learning were strongly correlated with perceived organisational performance and management styles. Collaborative climate of OL varies with age, sector, educational level and managerial level (Schein, 1996). Thus it can be stated that:

H8: There is mutual correlation between phases and mechanisms of organisational learning.

H9a: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across industries.

H9b: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across public and private sector.

H9c: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across levels of experience.

H9d: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across male and female.

H9e: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across levels of income.

H9f: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across educational qualification.

3.4.4 Hypotheses within O4

(To study leadership style and conflict levels as predictors of organisational learning).

According to Richmond *et al.* (1983), leadership style, use of power and the conflict style play a crucial role in organisational outcomes. Rahim (2001) also noticed that leaders' power and conflict handling style has an impact on job performance. Leadership style improves student learning by taking into account the initiatives that challenge the change in school practices (Mulford and Silins, 2003). Also, leadership style constitutes a process of collective learning efforts required for the accomplishment of goals (Yulk, 2006). Hence, the hypotheses are:

H10: Leadership style and conflict levels together predict organisational learning.

3.4.4.1: Hypotheses within O4 (a)

O4 (a): To study leadership style as predictor of organisational learning.

Many studies have shown that leadership style is a catalyst for organisational learning in organisations as well as in schools (Vera and Crossan, 2004; Nafei *et al.*, 2012; Berson *et al.*, 2006; Mulford and Silins, 2010; Kurland *et al.*, 2010; Lam, 2002). Transformational leadership has a positive influence on organisational innovation (Hsiao and Chang, 2011), building of teams by guiding them in a right direction and providing cohesion (Tushman and Nadler, 1986). Transformational leadership inspire their followers through motivation and stimulate them towards organisational innovation (Elkins and Keller, 2003) while transactional leaders are more efficient in enhancing knowledge to their followers (Bryant, 2003; Hoyland, 2003) and providing them monetary / non- monetary awards for their good results. Laissez faire is

related to negative outcomes like absenteeism, low performance and delays and is considered as non-leadership style (Eagly *et al.*, 2003; Spinelli, 2006). Based on the above, the hypothesis is:

H10a: Leadership style predicts organisational learning.

H10a1: Transformational LS positively predicts organisational learning.

H10a2: Transactional LS positively predicts organisational learning.

H10a3: Laissez faire LS negatively predicts organisational learning.

3.4.4.2: Hypotheses within O4 (b)

O4 (b): To study conflict levels as predictor of organisational learning.

Conflict has been shown to enhance organisational learning (Rahim, 2002), improves quality of strategy and performance (Menon *et al.*, 1996). Conflict and conflict management helps in strengthening the co-operation and boosting productivity during innovation. Also, conflicts generate new ideas/procedures which enable innovation to take place (De Dreu, 1997). The hypothesis here is:

H10b: Conflict levels predict organisational learning.

H10b1: Organisational conflict positively predicts organisational learning.

H10b2: Group conflict negatively predicts organisational learning.

H10b3: Individual conflict negatively predicts organisational learning.

O5 will be accomplished by the findings of this study which will be discussed in the “implications” chapter based on results and discussion of this study and scope for future will open new doors for research.

3.5 ACCOMPLISHING THE OBJECTIVES

The following techniques will be useful for accomplishing the objectives through hypothesis testing:

Table 3.1: Techniques for accomplishing the objectives of study

Objective	Hypotheses	Techniques
O1	<i>H1</i>	Descriptive statistics of the variable and its factors
	<i>H2</i>	Correlation Analysis
	<i>H3a, H3c, H3e, H3f</i>	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups.
	<i>H3b, H3d</i>	Independent sample t-test to check the difference

		across two sub groups.
O2	<i>H4</i>	Descriptive statistics of the variable and its factors
	<i>H5</i>	Correlation Analysis
	<i>H6b, H6d</i>	Independent sample t-test to check the difference across two sub groups.
O3	<i>H7</i>	Descriptive statistics of the variable and its factors
	<i>H8</i>	Correlation Analysis
	<i>H9a, H9c, H9e, H9f</i>	One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) to check the variance across sub-groups
	<i>H9b, H9d</i>	Independent sample t-test to check the difference across two sub groups
O4	<i>H10</i>	Regression Analysis
O4(a)	<i>H10a, H10_{a1}, H10_{a2}, H10_{a3}</i>	Regression Analysis
O4 (b)	<i>H10b, H10_{b1}, H10_{b2}, H10_{b3}</i>	Regression Analysis

Summary: The descriptive statistics will present the details about the variable and its constituting factors. Correlation analysis will provide the relation between the variables. Additionally, one way ANOVA will give an insight about the variance existing in subgroups like across levels of experience (junior, middle and senior) or across levels of income (less than 5 lakhs, between 5-10 lakhs and above 10 lakhs per annum). Independent sample t-test will help in checking the difference across two sub-groups like between males and females or between public and private sectors. Moreover, the predictive relationships will be identified using regression analysis.

3.6 TARGET POPULATION

The potential participants of this study are junior, middle and senior level executives of Indian organisations with annual turnover of above 100 Crores INR. Data was collected from a heterogeneous nature of thirty four organisations both public and private sector manufacturing, electrical designing, IT-ITES (Information Technology and IT Enabled Services), service and PME (Power, Mining and Exploration). Data collected from such varied nature of organisations helped increase statistical power and achieve greater heterogeneity. The sampled organisations

were from various states of India like Delhi (including NCR), Maharashtra (Pune and Mumbai), Uttarakhand (Haridwar, Roorkee, Rishikesh, Kotdwar and Pantnagar), Madhya Pradesh (Satna and Jabalpur), Haryana (Faridabad) and Andhra Pradesh (Hyderabad and Secunderabad) due to ease of availability of personal contacts in these states. Manufacturing organisations are into construction material, building solutions, glass and mirror manufacturing, automotive parts manufacturing, turbochargers manufacturing, wire and cable manufacturing, instruments manufacturing, consumer durables, cement manufacturing and FMCG. Electrical organisations include designing, coating and polishing of electrical equipments. IT-ITES organisations are indulged into business process outsourcing and consultancy. Service organisations include data service providers, developmental services, health and hospitality. PME organisations include hydropower and thermal power generation.

3.6.1 Sample

The data of 375 was finalised with a description as follows:

The major part of data belong to males (93%), are engineering graduates (34.93%), belong to middle level (43.47%) with income level of 5-10 lakhs slab (45.6%), from manufacturing industry (42.4%) and are from private sector (88%). Next are from service organisations (17.33%), are Other Graduates (32.53%), belong to junior level (29.06%) with income level of < 5 lacs slab (35.47%). Rest other respondents are from electrical organisations (16.27%) in the income level of >10 lacs (18.93%) have Management degree (17.6%) and belong to senior level (27.47%).

Rest other respondents belong to IT-ITES (15.2%), PME (8.8%) and are other Post Graduates (14.93%). Majority of the respondents of PME industries are from public sector (90.9%). Public sector neither has any respondent from electrical organisation nor IT-ITES. Most of the female participants are from IT-ITES industries (12.28%), belong to junior level (16.51%) and are in the income slab of < 5 lacs (10.53%).

Table 3.2: Sample Statistics (N=375)

Demographic Variables	Sector		Gender	
	Public 45(12%)	Private 330 (88%)	Male 349 (93%) (7%)	Female 26
Age (in years)				
<30 (105)	08 (7.62%)	97 (92.38%)	88 (83.81%)	17 (16.19%)
30-45 (222)	21 (9.54%)	201 (90.54%)	213 (95.95%)	09 (4.05%)
>45 (48)	16 (33.33%)	32 (66.67%)	48 (100%)	0
Industry				
Electrical (61)	0	61 (100%)	57 (93.5%)	4 (6.5%)
Manufacturing (159)	10 (6.3%)	149 (93.7%)	149 (93.7%)	10 (6.3%)
Service (65)	5 (7.7%)	60 (92.3%)	62 (95.38%)	3 (4.62%)
IT-ITES (57)	0	57 (100%)	50 (87.72%)	7 (12.28%)
PME (33)	30 (90.9%)	3 (9.1%)	31 (93.94%)	2 (6.06%)
Level of experience (in years)				
Junior (<5yrs) (109)	8 (7.34%)	101 (92.66%)	91 (83.49%)	18 (16.51%)
Middle (5-15 yrs) (163)	14 (8.58%)	149 (91.42%)	157 (96.32%)	6 (3.68%)
Senior (>15 yrs) (103)	23 (22.33%)	80 (77.67%)	101 (98.05%)	2 (1.95%)
Annual Income (INR)				
< 5 lacs (133)	2 (1.50%)	131 (98.5%)	119 (89.47%)	14 (10.53%)
5-10 lacs (171)	21 (12.28%)	150 (87.72%)	162 (94.74%)	9 (5.26%)
>10 lacs (71)	22 (30.98%)	49 (69.02%)	68 (95.77%)	3 (4.23%)
Education				
Management (66)	1 (1.5%)	65(98.5%)	55(83.33%)	11(16.67%)
Engineering (131)	20(15.26%)	111(84.74%)	123 (93.90%)	8 (6.10%)
Other graduates (122)	9 (7.37%)	113(92.62%)	117(95.90%)	5 (4.1%)
Other Post graduates (56)	15 (26.78%)	41(73.22%)	54(96.43%)	2 (3.57%)

Source: Primary data

3.7 INSTRUMENTS FOR DATA COLLECTION

As stated in Chapter I and II, the framework for this study is based on MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) by Bass and Avolio,(1995), OCS (Organisational Conflict Scale) by Dhar and Dhar, (2003) and OLD consisting of Phases and Mechanisms by Pareek, (1998; 2003). The measuring instrument for data collection from the executives was in the form of above mentioned questionnaires which consisted of close-ended questions. The description of each standardised scale is as follows:

3.7.1 MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) – Leader version

Developer: Bass and Avolio, (1995). MLQ is a structured, verbal and omnibus psychometric instrument for leadership styles.

Structure: 45 items, 4 factors (Transformational LS consisting of 20 items divided into 5 sub-factors, Transactional LS consisting of 12 items divided into 3 sub- factors, Laissez faire LS consisting of 4 items and Outcomes of LS consisting of 9 items with three sub groups; Extra effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction). Each item has five options: 0-4: 0 (Not at all), 1 (Once in a while), 2 (Sometimes), 3 (Fairly often), 4 (Frequently, if not always).

Higher the value of any factor, higher are the chances of that leadership style prevailing in the organisation with the outcome of leadership. The respondents are required to judge how often the behaviour described in the questionnaire is exhibited.

Sample items: “I articulate a compelling vision of the future” (Transformational), “I look at problems from many different angles” (Transformational), “I provides assistance to others in their efforts” (Transactional), “I avoid making important decisions” (Laissez faire), “I want my group to be effective” (Outcome of Leadership: Effectiveness).

Reliability and Validity: High

3.7.2 : OCS (Organisational Conflict Scale)

Developer: Dhar and Dhar (2003)

Structure: 20 direct items and no factor structure.

Each item has four options: 1 (Never), 2 (Sometimes), 3 (Often), 4 (Always).

Sample Items: “Promotion policy has always been a reason for disagreement among the employees of our organisation”, “Open and effective communication between people working

in this organisation cannot be generalised”, “Intelligent and meritorious people are always seen as a threat”.

Reliability and Validity: High

3.7.3 : OLD (Organisational Learning Diagnostics)

Developer: Pareek, (2003)

Structure: 23 items categorised into two dimensions: **Phases** and **Mechanisms**, 8 factors (3 in Phases and 5 in Mechanisms)

Measures: Two dimensions: **Phases** consisting of three factors (Innovation, Implementation, Stabilisation) and **Mechanisms** consisting of five factors (Experimentation, Mutuality & teamwork, Incremental planning, Temporary systems and Competency building).

Each item has five options: 0 (Never), 1 (Occasionally), 2 (Sometimes), 3 (Frequently), 4 (Always).

Phases include 23 items (8 items in Innovation, 7 items in Implementation, 8 items in Stabilisation) while Mechanisms include items which appear more than once (11 items in Experimentation, 12 items in Mutuality & teamwork, 10 items in Incremental planning, 6 items in Temporary systems and 6 items in Competency building).

The scoring is totalled and each total is multiplied by 25 and then the product is divided by number of items of each factor and finally value obtained is written as POLI (Potential for Organisational Learning Index). Higher the score, higher is the potential of the organisation to learn on that dimension (Pareek, 2003).

Sample items: “Innovations are rewarded” (Innovation), “Detailed plans for reflecting contingency approaches are prepared” (Implementation), “Task groups are created to evaluate and report on plus and minus aspects of innovations” (Stabilisation), “Various groups are encouraged to prepare alternative forms of implementation” (Experimentation), “Experiences and concerns of the organisation are shared with other organisations” (Mutuality & teamwork), “Records of experiences are maintained” (Incremental planning), “Task groups are created for implementing and monitoring new projects and experiments” (Temporary systems), “Relevant existing skills are utilised in implementing change” (Competency building).

Reliability and Validity: High

3.8 DATA COLLECTION METHOD

In order to collect the responses from the respondents, three standardised scales (MLQ, OCS and OLD as described in section 3.6) were used. The organisations were selected at random and the data was collected through training programmes, personal contacts and online methods by e-mails. Respondents were provided sufficient time to answer the questions. After establishing rapport, the respondents were asked to tick mark their choice. There was no right or wrong answer to the statements. The availability and participation of respondents were taken care of and was confirmed by properly submitting the filled-out questionnaire (no reward was given to them for participation). At the beginning only it was stated to respondents to answer all the questions and provide the demographic details as well. It was assured to the respondents that their identity will be kept confidential and the data will be used for academic purpose only. A total of 580 questionnaires were used for this study (by all modes) out of which 465 were received back.

3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

3.9.1 Data Cleaning and preparing for analysis

After receiving data of 465 by various modes of collection, it was subjected to missing value analysis since data is multivariate. Those with missing information on demographics like education, income level, experience, name of organisation were omitted from this study. Also those where the majority of questions were unanswered after proper checking were also discarded. The responses with tolerable missing values were taken into consideration by substituting the missing value of items with the mean value of appropriate construct called as Mean substitution. After this procedure, the sample size reduced to 432. Next, the data was checked for normality (whether the data is normally distributed) by calculating the Skeweness (Asymmetry of data) and Kurtosis (Peakedness of distribution) coefficients which lie within the acceptable range of ± 1 standard deviation. With the deletion of outliers (some observations far from the centre of data), the sample size was finally ceased at 375. Cronbach alpha (α) was used to check the reliability of the study variables (to measure the internal consistency of the instrument). Hair *et al.* (1995) and Indrayan and Sarmukaddam (2001) set 0.60 as the acceptable value of Cronbach alpha for instruments. In order to check for non multi-collinearity (where the correlations among the independent variables are strong), VIF (Variance Inflation Factor: quantifies the severity of multi-collinearity) values were calculated (the values should remain below 10).

3.9.2 Flow of data analysis

After checking the appropriateness of data set by Reliability and Validity Analysis, the factor analysis will be carried on. Factor Analysis by using Principal component method and varimax rotation will be employed for obtaining the factor structure of all the three variables. MLQ is a widely used instrument for assessing leadership style but being a non- Indian scale, the factor analysis has to be carried out so as to ascertain that the instrument retains its normal factor structure. Culture also plays a role in expressing the findings using MLQ (c.f Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997). Krishnan and Singh (2007) conducted three studies using Grounded Theory Approach to develop and validate a new instrument in Indian context and found that there is significant variance over and above the variance explained by MLQ developed by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio, (1995). OCS being an Indian construct and having no factors of this instrument makes it compulsory to identify its factor structure. OLD, an Indian instrument has well defined factor structure and hence it will be retained as it is. Factor Analysis of MLQ and OCS will help in confirming whether the data fits in an appropriate factor structure or some items needs to be dropped. Reliability and Validity analyses will ensure that the factor structures are sufficiently consistent and measures what it claims to measure respectively. Afterwards, descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, standard error of the mean) of all the constructs will be calculated to summarise about the data and observations related to the constructs. In order to explore the associations amongst the study variables, correlation analysis will be carried on. The relationship of study variables with the demographics of respondents will be explored. Also, the variations across sub- groups like industry, sector, experience, gender, income level and education will be investigated using independent sample t-tests (for independent variable having two mutually exclusive groups) and ANOVA (for independent variable having more than two mutually exclusive groups). Afterwards, Regression analysis will be carried on to calculate the regression coefficients (β) of MLQ and OCS which independently and together predict OLD. Coefficient of Determination (R^2) and Adjusted R^2 will be employed to find out the variance in OLD due to contributions of MLQ and OCS independently as well as jointly. All the above mentioned tests for getting the results of hypotheses will be carried on using the software IBM SPSS v20.0. Ultimately, an alternate model (OL as predictor of LS and CL) will be generated by using AMOS v20.0 to compare the model fit indices of the original model with the alternate one.

3.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter highlighted the research methodology approach to be carried on for data analysis which will be discussed in the next chapter. It started with the Research design, Objectives and the development of hypotheses based on the objectives. Afterwards it presented the hypotheses testing procedures and the techniques to accomplish them along with a target population and sample description. Then the description on instruments and the data collection methods have been presented. Lastly, the data cleaning, preparing for analysis and flow of data analysis has been discussed.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of data analysis. It begins with the screening of data using normality, reliability and non- multicollinearity analyses. Afterwards, the factor analysis of all the three scales along with reliabilities and validities will be explored by using Principal Component Analysis. Next, Descriptive statistics and Correlation results will be discussed. Further, the variation and the differences in the variables across demographic attributes like industry, sector, experience, gender, income level and education level will be diagnosed. The concluding section will present the prediction of OL through LS and CL. Finally the results of hypotheses are highlighted and at the end the comparison of Original and Alternate Model is presented.

4.2 DATA SCREENING

The final data of 375 after employing missing value approach and deletions of outliers was subjected to screening for normality, reliability and non- multicollinearity analyses. Table 4.1 highlights the calculated coefficients for normality (skeweness and kurtosis), reliability (Cronbach alpha) and non- multicollinearity (VIF: Variation Inflation Factor). The results show that the data is normal and further analysis can be done (after deleting outliers and the negative skeweness which is within the limits). The data was tested for non- multicollinearity and the value of VIF below ten confirmed the same.

Table 4.1: Normality, Reliability and Non- multicollinearity Coefficients

N= 375 Scale	Skeweness		Kurtosis		Cronbach Alpha	VIF
	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE		
MLQ	-0.338	.126	-0.136	.251	.801	1.00
OCS	.502	.126	.072	.251	.843	1.00
OLD	-0.386	.126	-0.285	.251	.933	1.00

Source: Primary data where N= Number of participants, SE= Standard Error, VIF=Variation Inflation Factor at $p < 0.05$

4.3 FACTOR ANALYSIS

The main aim of factor analysis is to reduce a large number of items into factors for which different criteria are available. E.g Kaiser's criteria (eigen value > 1 rule), the Scree test (Cattell, 1966), Cumulative percent of variance extracted and parallel analysis. Factor Analysis by means of Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is employed here to explore the

unidimensionality of the constructs (a set of items measure one thing in common). In PCA, eigen values greater than one (equal to number of factors extracted) rule will be used to test the unidimensionality. Each construct should have only one eigen value (represent the amount of variance in all items that can be explained by a given factor) of its value more than one, which allows all items to have as much variance on the same construct. PCA using orthogonal varimax rotation of MLQ and OCS have confirmed the unidimensionality of these scales. The factor structure of OLD will be retained as the original one developed by Pareek, (1998, 2003) as mentioned in the last chapter. The justification for this will be given in section 4.3.3

4.3.1 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF MLQ

The KMO (Kaiser Meyer Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) for MLQ was 0.694 (KMO varies from 0 to 1.0 and KMO should be .60 or higher to carry on with factor analysis, Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's test of sphericity which tests that all the variables are uncorrelated was also significant ($p < 0.05$). This confirms the factor analysis to be carried on. Table 4.2 highlights the eigen values, percentage of variance explained on each construct by its constituent items and the factor loadings of each item in a factor. According to Stevens, (1992), factor loadings greater than 0.4 are significant for consideration while Harman (1976) considered 0.29 at the 0.05 significance level to be significant but here in this study factor loadings of 0.3 and above are considered. In addition to above three styles of leadership, MLQ also measures three outcomes (Extra effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction of Leadership). These three outcomes are not the targets of this study as they do not measure leadership per se but only the outcomes. Hence, only the items (36 out of 45) pertaining to leadership styles have been included for factor analysis and the remaining nine items which focus on the outcome variables have been excluded. Three factors were extracted with eigen values ranging from 3.720 to 2.313 and explains 58.287 percent of total variance.

Table 4.2: MLQ factor structure, eigen values, variance explained and factor loadings

Item No.	Construct	Item Keywords	Eigen Values	% Variance	Factor Loading
1	Transactional	Provide assistance	3.720	28.757	0.422
3		Fail to interfere			0.421
4		Focus attention on irregularities			0.472
11		Responsible for performance			0.480
12		Wait to go wrong			0.467

14		Strong sense of purpose			0.472
16		Expect to receive			0.480
17		Don't fix			0.583
21		Build others respect			0.643
22		Attention on mistakes			0.735
24		Keep track of mistakes			0.566
27		Attention to meet standards			0.675
2	Transformational	Re-examine critical assumptions	2.989	17.693	0.407
6		Important values			0.473
8		Different perspectives			0.405
9		Talk optimistically			0.409
10		Instill pride			0.408
13		Needs to be accomplished			0.452
15		Teaching and coaching			0.454
18		Go beyond self interest			0.481
23		Moral and ethical consequences			0.527
25		Power and confidence			0.532
26		Vision of future			0.406
29		Aspirations from others			0.494
30		Look at problems			0.464
32		Suggest new ways			0.471
34		Collective sense of mission			0.422
36		Express confidence			0.567
5	Laissez faire	Avoid getting involved	2.313	11.837	0.602
7		Absent when needed			0.652
20		Problems become chronic			0.486
28		Avoid making decisions			0.658
33		Delay in responding			0.560
			Total	58.287	
			Variance		

Note: Item no. 19, 31 and 35 have been dropped from the study due to their weak factor loadings (below 0.4).

The newly obtained three factor structure of MLQ has shuffling of few items. The original MLQ had twenty items in Transformational LS while the new one has sixteen items. Item No.

14 and 21 have shuffled to Transactional LS. The two items of transformational LS (Item No. 19 and 31) have been dropped because of low factor loadings. In case of Transactional LS, the new structure has retained the same number of twelve items. Item No. 35 has been dropped because of low factor loading and item no. 20 has shifted to Laissez faire factor. New Laissez faire factor has added one item from transactional (Item no. 20) and the remaining four items are same.

The rotated component matrix accounted for 58.287% variance. Factor 1 (Transactional) has Eigen Value of 3.720 and variance of 28.757%; Factor 2 (Transformational) has Eigen Value of 2.989 and variance of 17.693% and Factor 3 (Laissez faire) has Eigen Value of 2.313 and variance of 11.873%. Thus, the factor structure of MLQ showed only a few rearrangement of items.

4.3.2 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF OCS

The KMO for OCS was 0.868 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant ($p < .05$). The OCS instrument was not categorised into factors and hence there was a need felt to undergo factor analysis. The original instrument has twenty items on a four point scale and the reasons for organisational conflict have been categorised into five factors: Unfair practices, structural incompatibilities, lack of recognition, unethical practices and ineffective communication. After performing PCA using orthogonal varimax rotation, three factors were extracted namely F1 (Individual Conflict: IC), F2 (Organisational Conflict: OC) and F3 (Group Conflict: GC). Nine items loaded on F1 with eigen value as 5.271 and accounted for 26.353% variance; Seven items loaded on F2 with eigen value 1.729 and variance of 8.645% and four items loaded on F3 with eigen value 1.176 and variance of 5.879%. All the twenty items were retained as the factor loadings of all the items were above 0.3. The rotated component matrix accounted for 40.876% variance. Table 4.3 highlights the eigen values, percentage of variance explained on each construct by its constituent items and the factor loadings of each item.

Table 4.3: OCS factor structure, eigen values, variance explained and factor loadings

Item No.	Construct	Item Keywords	Eigen Values	% Variance	Factor Loading
5	IC	Ineffective superiors	5.271	26.353	0.472
12		Hamper employee dev.			0.716
13		Meritorious people			0.697
14		Dilemma			0.461
15		Task assignment			0.425
16		Risk of penalty			0.502
17		Innovations opposed			0.737

19		Unrelated tasks			0.697
20		Opportunities blocked			0.555
1	OC	Opportunities lost	1.729	8.645	0.661
2		Promotion policy			0.447
3		Overlap in job description			0.515
7		Rigid systems			0.689
8		Performance appraisal			0.524
9		Psychological distance			0.511
18		Incongruent directions			0.562
4	GC	Salary fixation	1.176	5.879	0.858
6		Compensation payment			0.824
10		Communication			0.544
11		Merit not recognised			0.655
			Total	40.876	
			Variance		

Note: IC=Individual Conflict, OC=Organisational Conflict, GC= Group Conflict

4.3.3 FACTOR STRUCTURE OF OLD

The factor structure of OLD developed by Pareek (1998, 2003) will be retained as its original structure in this study. The reason for retaining the original structure is that OLD is an Indian construct and has been applied on Indian samples. OLD is conceptually sound and assesses the Potential for Learning Index (POLI) in organisations. The instrument has been tested and recommended in a number of books and papers (Khandekar and Sharma, 2006). OLD has also been used as original in a number of papers as it has supporting research evidences and the reliability co-efficient of the OLD (above 0.7) indicate that the items in the questionnaire are homogenous in nature and they all measure the same construct satisfactorily well (Khandekar and Sharma, 2006; Singh, 2010). The items in the questionnaire are not discrete but overlapping and there exist mutual collaboration among its constituents.

The KMO for OLD was 0.948, Cronbach alpha was 0.933 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was also significant ($p < .05$). Table 4.4 highlights the dimensions and sub- dimensions of OLD. The items in the Dimension 1 (Phases) are present in an organisation in varying degrees, are interrelated with a feedback loop and appear in sequence. In dimension 2 (Mechanisms), the items are repeated and appear more than once in the sub-dimensions.

Table 4.4 Structure of OLD

Dimensions	Item Nos.	Items	Sub- Dimensions
Phases	1	Share ideas with members	Innovation
	2	Encouraged to attend external programmes	Innovation
	3	Experiences and concerns shared	Innovation
	4	Encouraged to experiment	Innovation
	5	Innovations rewarded	Innovation
	6	Sharing results of experiments	Innovation
	7	Sharing on- going experiments	Innovation
	8	Employee seminars organised	Innovation
	9	Task groups for monitoring	Implementation
	10	Contingency approaches	Implementation
	11	Examine common elements	Implementation
	12	Linking with known practices	Implementation
	13	Records of experiments	Implementation
	14	Review innovations	Implementation
	15	Relevant existing	Implementation
	16	Data based of innovations	Stabilisation
	17	Periodic meetings for review	Stabilisation
	18	Report on plus and minus	Stabilisation
	19	Follow up on experiments	Stabilisation
	20	Widespread debates	Stabilisation
	21	Realistic appraisals	Stabilisation
	22	Implementation plans are modified	Stabilisation
	23	Groups encouraged for preparing alternative forms	Stabilisation

Mechanisms	1,4,5,6,7,8,9,11,17,22,23	Experimentation
	1,3,6,7,8,9,11,14,16,17,19,20	Mutuality
	10,12,13,14,17,18,20,21,22,23	Incremental planning
	9,11,14,16,18,19	Temporary systems
	1,2,6,7,8,15	Competency building

4.4 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Reliability is “an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable” (Hair *et al.*, 1995, p.117). It refers to the degree to which the instrument gives the same results on repeated trials. Reliability is a coefficient which ranges from 0-1 (Traub and Rowley, 1991). Reliability coefficients can be reported as the correlation between scores on two administrations of the same instrument (Cook and Beckman, 2006). Reliability coefficients can also be calculated as the proportion of score variance explained by the differences between subjects. Various methods used by the researchers for assessing reliability are: test-retest, internal consistency, inter rater, parallel forms and split half. The different types of reliabilities are shown in Figure 4.1. In this study, Internal consistency method is being used to analyse the reliabilities of the constructs of three instruments wherein Cronbach alpha (α) describes the degree to which all the items in a test measure the same concept and hence connected to the inter-relatedness of the items (Cronbach, 1951).

Various acceptable limits for Cronbach alpha have been suggested by authors; however these are rules of thumb. Hair *et al.* (1995) and Churchill, (1979) laid down 0.60 as the acceptable limit for scales for exploratory studies while DeVellis, (2003) reported acceptable values of alpha from 0.70- 0.95. A low value of alpha represents low number of questions and poor interrelatedness between items and if the items are correlated to each other, the value of alpha increases. According to Hair *et al.* (1995), value of 0.7 correspond to adequate reliability but a slight lower value can be accepted for exploratory research .The alpha coefficients of MLQ (0.747) and its factors (Transactional: 0.537, Transformational: 0.690 & Laissez faire: 0.522) have fairly good values of reliability. MLQ has been tested for reliability and validity in a number of studies and the instrument has been found reliable in all the settings (Yammarino and Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1997; Bycio *et al.*, 1995).OCS has high reliability values of

0.813 with factor 1 (0.814), Factor 2 (0.636) and Factor 3 (0.655). OLD has high reliability of 0.933 and hence it is justifiable to say that all the scales indicate adequate reliability (values above 0.5).

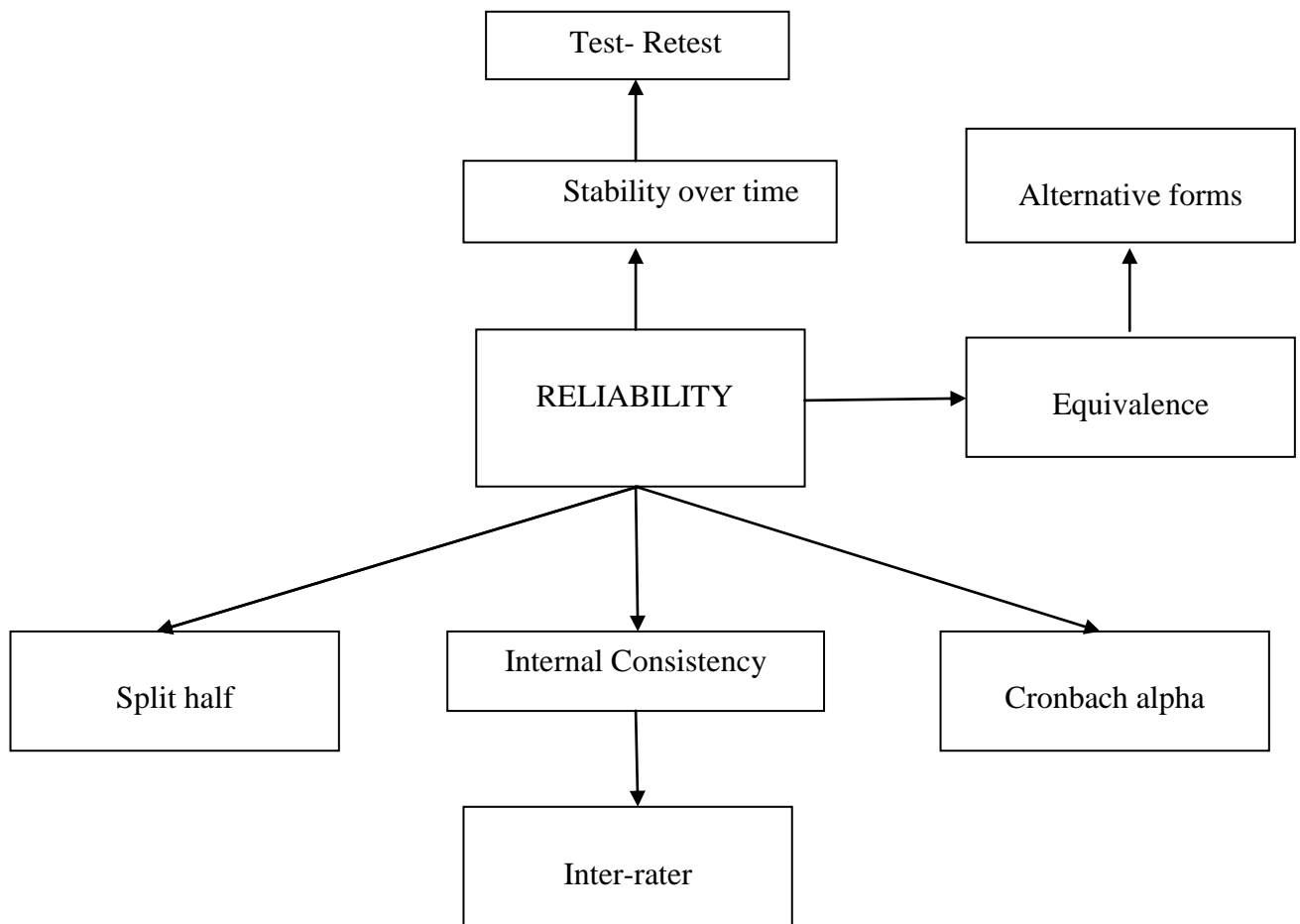


Figure 4.1: Reliability Tests
Source: (Drost, 2011)

4.5 VALIDITY ANALYSIS

Validity is considered to be the extent to which the tool measures what it claims to measure. Validity depends on the measurement measuring what it was expected to measure and not somewhat instead (Kramer *et al.*, 2009). A scale is said to be valid if it measures what it claims to measure (Kline, 1986, p.4). After achieving conformity of scales by factor structure (unidimensionality) and reliability (Cronbach alpha), it is necessary to validate the scale (Hair *et al.*, 1995).

Drost, (2011) categorised validity measurements into four types: Statistical conclusion validity, internal validity, construct validity and external validity which again are segregated into six types as highlighted in Figure 4.2 whereas Groth- Marnat (1997) had categorised the validity

measurements as content related validity (content and face validity), construct related validity (convergent and discriminant validity) and criterion related validity (predictive and concurrent validity).

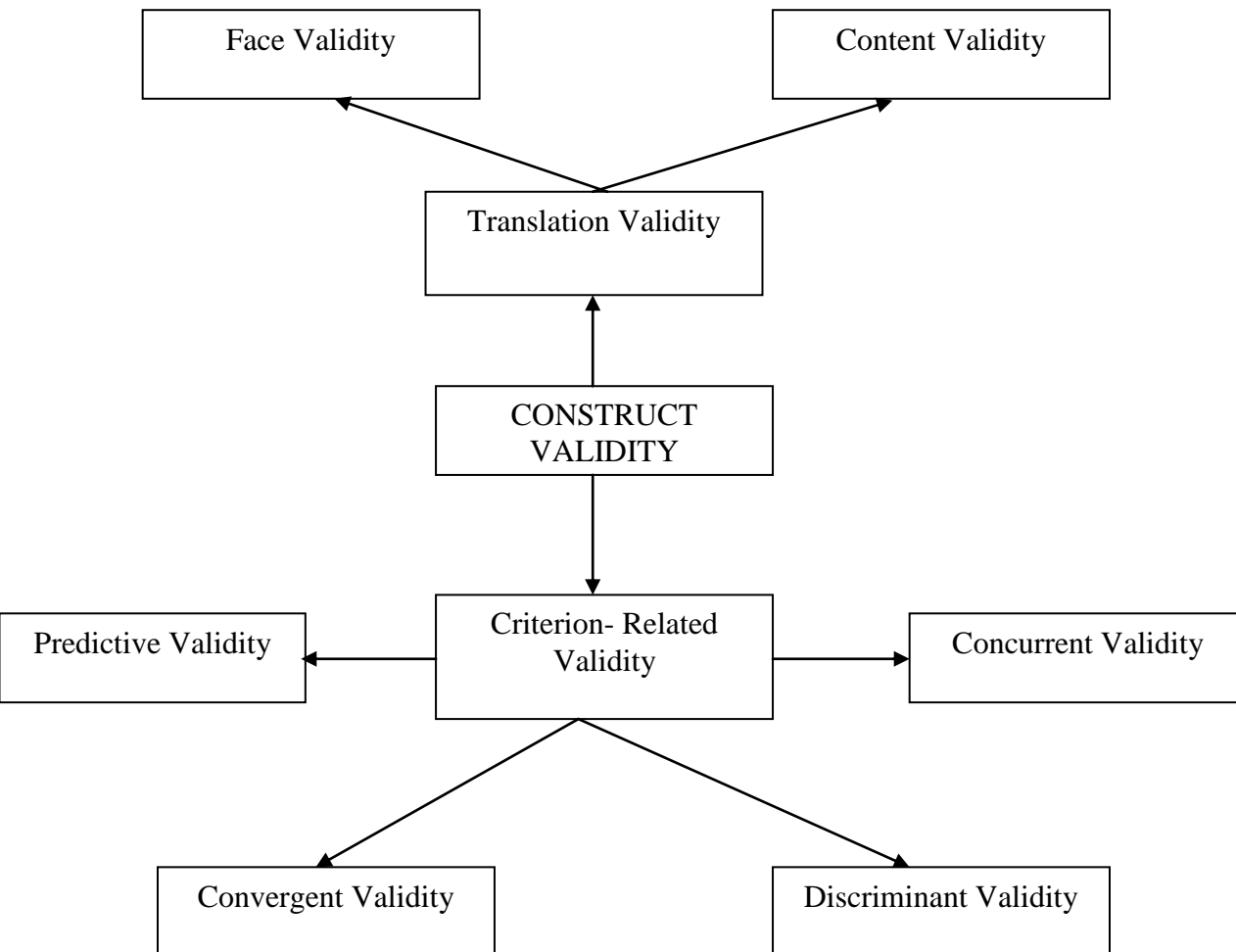


Figure 4.2: Validity measurements
Source: (Drost, 2011)

4.5.1 Content and face validity

Bollen (1989) defined content validity as “a qualitative type of validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges whether the measure fully represent the domain” (p.185). It makes sure that the indicators tap the meaning of a well defined concept. Face validity is established by test users (Groth-Marnat, 1997) and is a subjective judgement on the operationalisation of a construct. All the three instruments used in this study are appropriate as all of them are standardised measures. Discussions regarding the scales were conducted with researchers and managers who were involved in the relevant area.

4.5.2 Construct validity

Construct validity refers to the transformation of a concept/ idea into a functioning and operating reality. Construct validity is examined by measuring convergent and discriminant validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). Convergent validity is measured by testing the convergence across different measures of the same thing and divergent validity is measured by testing the divergence between measures of related but conceptually different things (Cook and Campbell, 1979, p.61). High correlation between items of a construct established convergent validity while low or negative renders discriminant validity. Toth *et al.* (2005) calculated convergent validity by finding moderate correlation ($r \geq 0.40$) between an item and its own construct and if there is high correlation between such item and other construct then there will be a scaling error. In order to test the scales of MLQ and OCS, both convergent and discriminant validity tests were conducted. Table 4.5 and 4.6 show the convergent and discriminant validities of MLQ and OCS in which an item of Transformational LS has a high correlation with its transformational factor (Table 4.5) and an item of FI correlates with FI factor of OCS respectively (Table 4.6).

Table 4.5: Convergent and Discriminant validities of some items of MLQ construct

Item No.	Item	TFM	TSL	LF
9	Talk optimistically (TFM)	0.770	0.065	-0.239
4	Focus attention on irregularities (TSL)	0.251	0.603	-0.370
5	Avoids getting involved (LF)	-0.141	-0.167	0.795

Table 4.6: Convergent and Discriminant validities of some items of OCS construct

Item No.	Item	F1	F2	F3
11	Merit not recognised (F1)	0.647	0.130	0.158
8	Performance appraisal (F2)	0.115	0.652	0.150
4	Salary fixation (F3)	0.063	0.162	0.599

Hence, both the convergent and discriminant validities of the two instruments (MLQ and OCS) have been established and are in harmony with the research standard, thus confirm validity of the instruments.

4.5.3 Criterion Related Validity

Criterion related validity is measured between a test measure and one or more external referents by their correlation (Drost, 2011). This validity is mostly adopted by those researchers who construct the scale by his/ her own for a specific research. As the instruments used in this study are standardised measures and not developed for this specific study only, hence the testing of the instruments for criterion validity is not done here.

4.6 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

4.6.1 Total Scores and Factor wise

Table 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 highlights the mean scores on all the constructs of this study respectively. On LS, the average score of LS is 66.834/132 (50.63%), on CL the average score is 43.298/80 (54.122%) and on OL the average score is 56.125/95 (59.078%). Amongst LS, the highest to lowest average scores are of TFM (37.432/64= 58.487%), TSL (24.981/48= 52.043%) and LF (7.421/20=37.105%). Most variation on LS is on TFM (SD=8.040) and least is on LF (SD=2.940). The LS as a whole has a variation of 9.276 (SD) around the average mean of 69.834. Likewise, CL as a whole has a variation of 9.074 (SD) around the average mean of 43.298. OL scores vary 15.350 (SD) around the mean of 56.125.

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics of Leadership Style Scale (n=375)

Items	Minimum Score	Maximum Score	Mean (n=375)	Standard Deviation
LS1	0	4	2.925	1.142
LS2	0	4	3.136	0.947
LS3	0	4	2.378	1.049
LS4	0	4	2.253	1.359
LS5	0	4	1.176	1.128
LS6	0	4	2.114	1.314
LS7	0	4	0.994	1.113
LS8	0	4	2.888	1.196
LS9	0	4	2.666	1.373
LS10	0	4	2.496	1.447
LS11	0	4	2.106	1.413
LS12	0	4	1.880	1.120
LS13	0	4	2.690	1.438
LS14	0	4	2.416	1.309
LS15	0	4	2.349	1.238
LS16	0	4	1.794	1.040
LS17	0	4	1.544	1.499
LS18	0	4	2.565	1.340
LS20	0	4	1.725	1.517
LS21	0	4	2.272	1.410
LS22	0	4	1.821	1.349
LS23	0	4	2.357	1.798
LS24	0	4	1.714	1.302

LS25	0	4	2.485	1.272
LS26	0	4	2.482	1.344
LS27	0	4	1.842	1.354
LS28	0	4	1.709	1.001
LS29	0	4	2.170	1.897
LS30	0	4	1.973	1.564
LS32	0	4	1.957	1.576
LS33	0	4	1.816	1.546
LS34	0	4	1.482	1.144
LS36	0	4	1.616	1.592
TFM	0	64	37.432	8.040
TSL	0	48	24.981	5.203
LF	0	20	7.421	2.940
LS	0	132	69.834	9.276

Note: LS=Leadership Style, TSL=Transactional, TFM=Transformational, LF=Laissez faire, S.D=Standard Deviation; Item no. 19, 31 and 35 have been dropped from the study due to their weak factor loadings.

Amongst CL, the highest to lowest average scores are of OC (15.841/28=56.575%), GC (8.907/16= 55.668%) and IC (16.435/36= 45.652%).Among the constituents of CL, the maximum variation is on IC (S.D=5.237) and least is on GC (S.D=2.155).

Table 4.8: Descriptive statistics of Conflict Level scale (n-375)

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
CL1	1	4	2.208	0.752
CL2	1	4	2.357	0.883
CL3	1	4	2.178	0.888
CL4	1	4	2.258	0.921
CL5	1	4	2.072	0.860
CL6	1	4	2.341	0.890
CL7	1	4	2.424	1.010
CL8	1	4	2.344	0.948
CL9	1	4	2.306	0.918
CL10	1	4	2.178	0.854
CL11	1	4	2.130	0.911
CL12	1	4	1.981	0.920
CL13	1	4	2.114	1.034
CL14	1	4	2.096	0.908
CL15	1	4	2.253	0.965
CL16	1	4	2.109	0.890
CL17	1	4	1.952	0.943
CL18	1	4	2.024	0.857
CL19	1	4	1.906	0.871
CL20	1	4	2.061	0.867
OC	7	28	15.841	3.541
GC	4	16	8.907	2.155
IC	9	36	16.435	5.237
CL	20	80	43.298	9.074

Note: CL=Conflict Level, IC=Individual Conflict, OC=Organisational Conflict, GC=Group Conflict; SD= Standard Deviation

Amongst the constructs of OL, Mechanisms (113.511/180=63.06%) has more average score than Phases (56.125/92=61.00%). Among the Phases of OL, the highest to lowest average scores are of P2 (17.480/28=62.428%), P1 (19.893/32=62.165%) and P3 (18.752/44= 58.60%); and amongst Mechanisms of OL, the highest to lowest average scores are of M5 (15.306/24=63.775%), M1 (27.466/44=62.422%), M2 (29.077/48=60.577%), M4 (14.517/24=60.487) and M3 (24.186/40=60.465%). Among the constituents of phases of OL, the maximum variation is on P3 (SD=6.007) and least is on P2 (4.867) and among mechanisms of OL, the maximum variation is on M2 (SD=8.615) and least on M5 (4.488).

Table 4.9: Descriptive statistics of Organisational Learning Scale (n=375)

Items	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
OL1	0	4	2.832	1.021
OL2	0	4	2.565	1.034
OL3	0	4	2.042	1.100
OL4	0	4	2.269	1.036
OL5	0	4	2.744	1.091
OL6	0	4	2.706	1.079
OL7	0	4	2.549	1.107
OL8	0	4	2.184	1.130
OL9	0	4	2.581	1.017
OL10	0	4	2.445	1.008
OL11	0	4	2.290	1.033
OL12	0	4	2.442	0.981
OL13	0	4	2.672	1.114
OL14	0	4	2.578	1.088
OL15	0	4	2.469	0.977
OL16	0	4	2.418	1.046
OL17	0	4	2.506	1.146
OL18	0	4	2.362	1.060
OL19	0	4	2.285	1.000
OL20	0	4	2.101	1.052
OL21	0	4	2.274	1.000
OL22	0	4	2.554	0.945
OL23	0	4	2.248	1.082
P1	0	32	19.893	5.758
P2	0	28	17.480	4.867
P3	0	32	18.752	6.007
M1	0	44	27.466	7.832
M2	0	48	29.077	8.615
M3	0	40	24.186	7.055
M4	0	24	14.517	4.649
M5	0	24	15.306	4.488
PHASES	0	92	56.125	15.350
MECHANISMS	0	180	113.511	31.044
OL	0	92	56.125	15.350

Note: OL= Organisational Learning; P1= Innovation, P2= Implementation, P3= Stabilisation, M1= Experimentation, M2= Mutuality & Teamwork, M3= Incremental Planning, M4=Temporary Systems, M5= Competency Building; SD= Standard Deviation

4.6.2 Item wise Scores

Amongst LS, the highest Transformational LS (58.487%) comprises of sixteen items. Most of the respondents (173/375=46.133%) scored 4 (frequently) considered that individuals have different needs, abilities and aspirations from others followed by considering the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (168/375=44.80%). The second highest Transactional LS (52.043%) comprises of twelve items. Most of the respondents (135/375=36%) scored 4 (frequently) consider providing others with assistance in exchange for their efforts (102/375=27.2%) followed by specifying the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. Laissez faire 37.105% rated most on the option “Not all all (0)” (164/375=43.733%). Most respondents agreed that they frequently delay to responding urgent questions (89/375=23.733%) and the least agreed that they frequently avoid making decisions (22/375=5.866%). (Table 4.10)

Amongst CL, the highest conflict is at Organisational level (OC) with 56.575% and comprises of seven items. Most respondents (216/375=57.60%) scored 2 (sometimes) considering that rigid systems of organisation make them uncomfortable followed by the view that sometimes directions received from various authorities tend to be incongruent (204/375=54.4%). Among the Group Conflict (GC) which is the second highest conflict (55.668%), most respondents (186/375=49.60%) are of the view that sometimes open and effective communication between people is not generalised followed by the statement that merit and worth of subordinates is not recognised. Among the least conflict level, Individual conflict (IC) the most rated item is that dilemma is a common feature which leads to conflict. The most scored option in all the three levels of conflict is 2 (sometimes) and the least rated is 4 (almost always). (Table 4.11)

In case of OL, the highest scored factor among Phases is P2 (62.428%) where most respondents scored 3 (frequently done) on the statement that detailed plans reflecting contingency approaches are prepared (154/375=41.066%). The least scored is on the item that newly proposed practices are linked with known practices (6/375= 1.60%) and that is never done (0). The second highest among Phases is P1 (62.165%) where most respondents scored 3 (frequently done) and viewed that employees are encouraged to attend external programmes. Among the Mechanisms, the highest M5 (63.775%) respondents scored 3 (frequently done) and believe that relevant existing skills are utilized in implementing change (151/375=40.266%) followed by M1 (62.422%) who believe that employees are encouraged to attend external programmes most frequently (37.866%). The least scored among Mechanisms is M3 (60.465%) where respondents scored 3 (frequently done) and are of the opinion that Implementation plans

are modified when experience indicates that modification is needed (149/375=39.733%). The least scored is 0 where respondents believe that newly proposed practices linked with known practices is never done (6/375=1.60%).

Based on descriptive statistical results, Transformational LS is major style among the three leadership styles followed by transactional and at the last laissez faire. This results matches with pattern of leadership styles as hypothesised in last chapter (Support for H1: Indian executives have transformational leadership style as their major LS, followed by transactional and laissez faire as the least preferred LS).

In the pattern of conflict levels, Organisational Conflict (OC) is the highest followed by Group Conflict (GC) and the Individual Conflict (IC) is at the last, thus providing support for H4 (H4: Indian executives face organisational conflict more frequently than group and individual conflict). Likewise, in OL the Mechanisms has shown the highest score than Phases (Table 4.12) and hence does not support the hypothesis as described earlier (H7: Indian executives learn more in terms of phases than mechanism).

Table 4.10: Item-wise scores of LS

Item No.	Item	Style	0	1	2	3	4
1	Provide others assistance	Transactional LS	26	18	49	147	135
3	Fail to interfere		21	42	143	112	57
4	Attention on irregularities		29	122	50	73	101
11	Responsible for performance		49	115	52	65	94
12	Wait to go wrong		18	155	107	44	51
14	Strong sense of purpose		48	29	119	77	102
16	Expect to receive		16	168	101	57	33
17	Don't fix		142	65	44	70	54
21	Build others respect		68	48	56	120	83
22	Attention on mistakes		63	128	60	61	63
24	Keep track of mistakes		64	143	55	62	51
27	Attention to meet standards		69	110	67	69	60
2	Re-examine critical		Transformational LS	10	14	44	154
6	Important values	28		137	57	70	83
8	Different perspectives	45		4	9	207	110
9	Talk optimistically	50		33	37	127	128
10	Instill pride	62		20	102	52	139
13	Needs to be accomplished	58		27	34	146	110

15	Teaching and coaching		35	50	128	73	89
18	Go beyond self interest		54	26	51	142	102
23	Moral and ethical		130	4	11	62	168
25	Power and confidence		43	45	56	149	82
26	Vision of future		54	9	134	58	120
29	Aspirations from others		156	6	4	36	173
30	Look at problems		137	3	17	169	49
32	Suggest new ways		142	2	6	180	45
34	Collective sense of mission		70	176	13	110	6
36	Express confidence		181	1	4	159	30
5	Avoid getting involved	Laissez faire LS	140	87	103	32	13
7	Absent when needed		164	105	63	30	13
20	Problems become chronic		127	47	71	62	68
28	Avoid making decisions		22	167	109	52	25
33	Delay in responding		116	51	83	36	89

Table 4.11: Item-wise scores of CL

Item No.	Item	Level	1	2	3	4
5	Ineffective superiors	IC	96	186	63	30
12	Hamper employee dev.		129	157	56	33
13	Meritorious people		128	129	65	53
14	Dilemma		96	189	48	42
15	Task assignment		91	146	90	48
16	Risk of penalty		92	188	57	38
17	Innovations opposed		139	152	47	37
19	Unrelated tasks		129	184	30	32
20	Opportunities blocked		101	179	66	29
1	Opportunities lost	OC	52	216	84	23
2	Promotion policy		51	191	81	52
3	Overlap in job description		88	164	91	32
7	Rigid systems		77	130	100	68
8	Performance appraisal		72	156	93	54
9	Psychological distance		75	153	104	43
18	Incongruent directions		93	204	54	24
4	Salary fixation	GC	83	152	100	40
6	Compensation payment		66	155	114	40
10	Communication		77	186	80	32
11	Merit not recognised		94	178	63	40

Note: IC-Individual Conflict, OC-Organisational Conflict, GC- Group Conflict

Table 4.12: Item-wise scores of OL

Item No.	Item	Dimension	0	1	2	3	4
1	Share ideas with members	P1	10	28	88	138	111
2	Encouraged to attend external programmes		14	42	107	142	70
3	Experiences and concerns shared		43	60	140	102	30
4	Encouraged to experiment		18	67	129	118	43
5	Innovations rewarded		16	34	85	135	105
6	Sharing results of experiments		13	38	97	125	102
7	Sharing on- going experiments		18	45	109	119	84
8	Employee seminars organised		29	73	124	98	51
9	Task groups for monitoring	P2	9	48	107	138	73
10	Contingency approaches		16	49	109	154	47
11	Examine common elements		10	79	130	104	52
12	Linking with known practices		6	60	127	126	56
13	Records of experiments		14	47	89	123	102
14	Review innovations		14	48	106	121	86
15	Relevant existing		13	45	118	151	48
16	Data based of innovations	P3	17	54	113	137	54
17	Periodic meetings for review		20	60	84	132	79
18	Report on plus and minus		18	60	118	126	53
19	Follow up on experiments		15	67	126	130	37
20	Widespread debates		30	63	158	87	37
21	Realistic appraisals		18	64	122	139	32
22	Implementation plans are modified		6	45	117	149	58
23	Groups encouraged for preparing alternative forms		28	54	136	111	46
1	Share ideas with members	M1	10	28	88	138	111
4	Encouraged to experiment		18	67	129	118	43
5	Innovations rewarded		16	34	85	135	105
6	Sharing results of experiments		13	38	97	125	102
7	Sharing on- going experiments		18	45	109	119	84
8	Employee seminars organised		29	73	124	98	51
9	Task groups for monitoring		9	48	107	138	73
11	Examine common elements		10	79	130	104	52
17	Periodic meetings for review		20	60	84	132	79
22	Implementation plans are modified		6	45	117	149	58
23	Groups encouraged for preparing alternative forms		28	54	136	111	46

1	Share ideas with members	M2	10	28	88	138	111
3	Experiences and concerns shared		43	60	140	102	30
6	Sharing results of experiments		13	38	97	125	102
7	Sharing on- going experiments		18	45	109	119	84
8	Employee seminars organised		29	73	124	98	51
9	Task groups for monitoring		9	48	107	138	73
11	Examine common elements		10	79	130	104	52
14	Review innovations		14	48	106	121	86
16	Data based of innovations		17	54	113	137	54
17	Periodic meetings for review		20	60	84	132	79
19	Follow up on experiments		15	67	126	130	37
20	Widespread debates		30	63	158	87	37
10	Contingency approaches	M3	16	49	109	154	47
12	Linking with known practices		6	60	127	126	56
13	Records of experiments		14	47	89	123	102
14	Review innovations		14	48	106	121	86
17	Periodic meetings for review		20	60	84	132	79
18	Report on plus and minus		18	60	118	126	53
20	Widespread debates		30	63	158	87	37
21	Realistic appraisals		18	64	122	139	32
22	Implementation plans are modified		6	45	117	149	58
23	Groups encouraged for preparing alternative forms		28	54	136	111	46
9	Task groups for monitoring	M4	9	48	107	138	73
11	Examine common elements		10	79	130	104	52
14	Review innovations		14	48	106	121	86
16	Data based of innovations		17	54	113	137	54
18	Report on plus and minus		18	60	118	126	53
19	Follow up on experiments		15	67	126	130	37
1	Share ideas with members	M5	10	28	88	138	111
2	Encouraged to attend external programmes		14	42	107	142	70
6	Sharing results of experiments		13	38	97	125	102
7	Sharing on- going experiments		18	45	109	119	84
8	Employee seminars organised		29	73	124	98	51
15	Relevant existing		13	45	118	151	48

Note: In case of Table 4.10: Scores range from 0-4; Table 4.11: Scores range from 1-4, IC=Individual Conflict, OC= Organisational Conflict, GC=Group Conflict and Table 4.12: Scores range from 0-4, P1= Innovation, P2= Implementation, P3= Stabilisation, M1=

Experimentation, M2= Mutuality & Teamwork, M3= Incremental Planning, M4=Temporary Systems, M5= Competency Building.

4.7 CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlation is the relationship among variables. Correlation coefficient measures the linear association between two variables and the values range between -1 and +1. In this study correlation analysis using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient is used here to find out the association among the study variables. Table 4.13 gives the results of Correlation Analysis with demographic attributes like gender, sector, industry, experience, income and education have also been included.

The results show that there is positive significant correlation of income with industry (where electrical=1, manufacturing=2, service=3, IT-ITES=4 and PME=5, $p<.05$). It means that electrical, manufacturing and service industries are in the lower income slab (5-10 lakhs) than other industries. There is negative significant correlation of sector (where 1=public and 2=private, $p<.05$) with industry, income and education which means that most of the employees of private sector are from service, IT-ITES and PME industries. Also, private sector employees are having more income level (above 10 lakhs) than public sector employees and private sector employees are having more of graduates and other post graduates than engineers and management graduates. Industry relates positively with TFM, TSL and IC ($p<.01$). Most of the transformational and transactional leaders are from electrical and manufacturing industries as compared to service, IT-ITES and PME industries and the level at which conflict occurs is at the individual level. Experience (where 1=junior <5 yrs, 2=middle 5-15 yrs. and 3=senior > 15 yrs) relates positively with income (where 1=< 5 lakhs, 2=5-10 lakhs and 3=above 10 lakhs, $p<.05$) and education (where 1= management, 2=engineering, 3=other graduates and 4=Other postgraduates, $p<.05$) but negatively with gender (where 1=male and 2=female) and sector ($p<.05$) and IC ($p<.01$). It means that the senior employees having income above 10 lakhs are more experienced than the junior and middle ones. Also education level increases as the seniority increases and males are more experienced than the females. Those with graduates and other post graduates have more experience than those who are engineers and management graduates.

The public sector has higher experienced employees than private sector. Also education relates negatively with TFM ($p<.01$) which implies that engineers and management graduates are not more of transformational but can be transactional leaders. Income relates negatively with LF(

$p < .01$) which signifies that highly paid employees show less of LF style as compared to low paid employees. Sector shows positive relation with Phases, Mechanisms and OL ($p < .05$) which means that public sector employees show more of organisational learning as compared to private organisations. The variation in the variables across the attributes of gender, sector, industry, experience, income and education will be explored in the next section.

TFM shows positive relationship with TSL ($p < .05$), IC ($p < .01$), phases ($p < .05$), mechanisms ($p < .05$) and OL ($p < .05$) but relates negatively with LF ($p < .05$). This implies that transformational leaders learn in terms of both phases and mechanisms of OL and as transformational leadership increases LF decreases. TSL shows positive relation with IC ($p < .05$). This suggests that transactional leaders are more inclined towards individual conflicts. LF shows negative relation with OL ($p < .05$) which reflects that laissez faire style being an avoidant style are not involved in learning capabilities and try to avoid the learning and other decisions as much as possible.

OC relates positively to IC and negatively to mechanisms ($p < .01$) which shows that conflicts at individual as well as at organisational level do not allow the employees to learn in terms of planning, experimenting or competency building. GC relates positively to IC, OC and phases and negatively to mechanisms ($p < .01$). Again conflicts at any level cannot be beneficial to the organisation as it causes hindrance in the way of organisational learning. Phases and mechanisms relate positively with OL ($p < .05$). The correlation among the leadership styles provides support for H2 (H2: There is mutual correlation among the constructs of MLQ). Also the correlation among the conflict levels also supports H5 (H5: Conflict levels are mutually correlated but conceptually different) and the positive correlation among phases and mechanisms fetched support for H8 (H8: There is mutual correlation between phases and mechanisms of organisational learning).

Table 4.13: Pearson Correlation Coefficients amongst variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Gen.	1														
2	Sec.	.004	1													
3	Ind.	.017	-.478**	1												
4	Exp.	-.218**	-.172**	.067	1											
5	Inc.	-.098	-.313**	.185**	.740**	1										
6	Edu.	-.151**	-.154**	-.074	.152**	.034	1									
7	TFM	.020	-.017	.014*	-.035	-.010	.086*	1								
8	TSL	.041	.015	.015*	.016	.043*	-.033	.521**	1							
9	LF	.020	.071	-.048	-.030	-.080*	.003	-.159**	-.043	1						
10	IC	.028	-.037	.180*	-.102*	-.049	.049	.110*	.179**	.081	1					
11	OC	.039	-.079	-.005	-.082	-.098	.062	-.017	-.012	-.004	.493**	1				
12	GC	-.047	-.008	.062	-.014	-.017	.080	-.023	.017	-.032	.559**	.448**	1			
13	P	.047	.170**	-.045	-.036	-.053	-.091	.120**	-.009	-.098	-.059	-.099	-.109*	1		
14	M	.045	.171**	-.037	-.040	-.051	-.086	.236*	-.018	-.093	-.060	-.102*	-.109*	.994**	1	
15	OL	.047	.170**	-.045	-.036	-.053	-.091	.420**	-.009	-.398**	-.059	-.099	-.109*	1.00**	.994**	1

**p<0.01, *p<0.05, Gen=Gender, Sec= Sector, Ind= Industry, Exp=Experience, Inc=Income, Edu = Education, TFM=Transformational, TSL=Transactional, LF-Laissez faire, P=Phase, M=Mechanisms, OL=Organisational Learning

4.8 TESTS OF VARIATIONS AND DIFFERENCES

After obtaining the necessary results of correlation between the constructs of LS, CL and OL along with the demographics like gender, sector, industry etc. it becomes important to test the actual differences using one-way ANOVA to identify the differences of more than two groups and Independent sample t-test to find the variation between two groups. Table 4.14 highlights the differences among the groups.

Table 4.14: Significant differences across sub-groups

Construct	Variation Across	F/t	Subgroup Codes (i-j) and names	MD(i-j)
TFM	Industry	F=7.00*	1-2 (Electrical & Manufacturing)	3.397*
			2-4 (Manufacturing & IT-ITES)	-3.710*
			3-2 (Service & Manufacturing)	3.710*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	3.387*
			5-2 (PME & Manufacturing)	3.186*
	Income	F=5.98*	1-2 (< 5 lakhs & 5-10 lakhs)	-1.72*
			2-3 (5-10 lakhs & > 10 lakhs)	2.50*
	Education	F=8.43*	1-3 (Management & Other graduates)	3.70*
			2-3 (Engineering & Other graduates)	-3.52*
	Gender	t=1.61*	3-4 (Other graduates & Postgraduates)	-
1-2 (Males & Females)			-	
			-	
TSL	Industry	F=8.76*	2-4 (Manufacturing & IT-ITES)	-2.76*
			2-1 (Manufacturing & Electrical)	-3.00*
			3-4 (Service & IT-ITES)	-2.58*
			3-2 (Service & Manufacturing)	2.76*
	Income	F=4.25*	1-2(< 5 lakhs & 5-10 lakhs)	-1.42*
	Education	F=9.38*	1-3 (Management & Other graduates)	2.65*
			2-3 (Engineering & Other graduates)	1.52**
			2-1 (Engineering & Management)	-2.64*
3-4 (Other graduates & Postgraduates)			-3.32*	
LF	Income	F=3.83*	1-2 (< 5 lakhs & 5-10 lakhs)	1.04*
LS108	Industry	F=11.31*	1-5 (Electrical & PME)	6.00*
			2-4 (Manufacturing & IT-ITES)	-6.92*
			2-1 (Manufacturing & Electrical)	-5.85*
			3-4 (Service & IT-ITES)	-5.90*
			3-2 (Service & Manufacturing)	6.92*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	6.05*
	4-1 (IT-ITES & Electrical)	-6.00*		
	Income	F=3.73*	2-3 (5-10 lakhs > 10 lakhs)	3.22*
	Education	F=11.26*	1-3 (Management & Other graduates)	6.36*
			2-3 (Engineering & Other graduates)	3.72*
3-4 (Other graduates & Postgraduates)			-6.89*	

Postgraduates)				
IC	Industry	F=4.48*	1-4 (Electrical & IT-ITES)	-3.28*
			2-4 (Manufacturing & IT-ITES)	-2.98*
			3-4 (Service & IT-ITES)	-2.61*
OC	Industry	F=3.77*	1-4 (Electrical & IT-ITES)	1.77*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	-2.52*
Phases	Industry	F=9.25*	1-3 (Electrical & Service)	-9.50*
			2-3 (Manufacturing & Service)	-6.62*
			2-5 (Manufacturing & PME)	11.58*
			3-5 (Service & PME)	18.20*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	13.58*
	Sector	t= -3.33*	1-2 (Public & Private)	-
Mechanisms	Industry	F=9.68*	1-3 (Electrical & Service)	-20.61*
			2-3 (Manufacturing & Service)	-13.19*
			2-5 (Manufacturing & PME)	23.91*
			3-5 (Service & PME)	37.10*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	27.88*
	Sector	t= -3.34*	1-2 (Public & Private)	
OL	Industry	F=9.24*	1-3 (Electrical & Service)	-9.50*
			2-3 (Manufacturing & Service)	-6.62*
			2-5 (Manufacturing & PME)	11.58*
			3-5 (Service & PME)	18.20*
			4-5 (IT-ITES & PME)	13.58*
	Sector	t=-3.33*	1-2 (Public & Private)	

*p<.05, MD=Mean Differences; Only significant results have been shown.

TFM=Transformational, TSL=Transactional, LF=Laissez faire, LS=Leadership Style; IC=Individual Conflict, OC= Organisational Conflict; OL= Organisational Learning

TFM shows significant variation across industries. Electrical, IT-ITES, Service and PME has higher TFM LS than Manufacturing (MD=3.397, -3.710, 3.710, 3.186, p<.05 respectively). Also, IT-ITES industries show higher TFM LS as compared to PME (MD= 3.387, p<.05). Employees with income level of 5-10 lakhs show more of TFM LS as compared to 5 lakhs (MD=-1.72, p<.05) and those getting more than 10 lakhs (MD=2.50, p<.05). Employees who are management graduates are more transformational than other graduates (MD=3.70, p<.05) and those who are engineers are also more transformational than other graduates (MD=2.20, p<.05). Post graduate degree holders show more of transformational LS as compared to other graduates (MD=-3.52, p<.05).

TSL varies across industries. IT-ITES, Electrical and Service industries have higher TSL LS than Manufacturing (MD=-2.76, -3.00, 2.76, p<.05 respectively). Electrical industry shows more transactional leaders as compared to Manufacturing (MD=-3.00, p<.05). Employees with income level of 5-10 lakhs are more transactional than > 5 lakhs level (MD=-1.42, p<.05). Transactional leadership is higher in Management graduates than other graduates (MD=2.65, p<.05). Engineers are more transactional as compared to other graduates

(MD=1.52, $p < .05$). Also, Management graduates show more of transactional leadership as compared to engineers (MD=-2.64, $p < .05$) and other post graduates are more transactional than other graduates (MD=-3.32, $p < .05$). Laissez faire leaders are more prevalent in income level of < 5 lakhs as compared to 5-10 lakhs (MD=1.04, $p < .05$). The LS as a whole also varies across industry, income and education. LS is higher in Electrical as compared to PME (MD=6, $p < .05$), Manufacturing (MD=-5.85, $p < .05$) and IT-ITES (MD=-6, $p < .05$) IT-ITES also shows higher LS than Manufacturing (MD=-6.92, $p < .05$), Service (MD=-5.90, $p < .05$) and PME (MD=6.05, $p < .05$). Service shows higher LS than Manufacturing (MD=6.92, $p < .05$). Also, employees in the income level of 5-10 lakhs show higher LS as compared to >10 lakhs (MD=3.22, $p < .05$). The LS also shows difference in education level. LS is higher in Management and Engineering as compared to Other graduates (M.D= 6.36, 3.72, $p < .05$) respectively while Post graduates show more LS as compared to Other graduates (MD=6.89, $p < .05$).

IC shows variation across industries where IT-ITES has more of IC than Electrical, Manufacturing and Service industries (MD=-3.28, -2.98, -2.61, $p < .05$) respectively. Also, OC varies across industries where Electrical and PME have more OC as compared to IT-ITES (MD=1.77, -2.52, $p < .05$) respectively. The results have shown no gender difference in terms of conflict which is in contradiction with the study of Brahnam *et al.* (2005) where it was found that women are more likely to adopt a collaborative conflict style while men tend to avoid conflict as much as possible. In case of conflicting situations, women tend to work collaboratively and try to solve the problem while men tend to avoid the same.

In case of OL, Phases show a variation across industries. Service has more of phases than Electrical, Manufacturing and PME (MD=-9.50, -6.62, 18.20, $p < .05$) respectively while Manufacturing and IT-ITES have more of phases than PME (MD=11.58, 13.58, $p < .05$). In case of mechanisms which again varies across industries show the same trend as that of phases where Service has more Mechanisms as compared to Electrical, Manufacturing and PME (MD=-20.61, -13.19, 37.10, $p < .05$) respectively while Manufacturing and IT-ITES have more of Mechanisms than PME (MD=23.91, 27.88, $p < .05$) respectively. Phases and Mechanisms also vary across sector. In OL, the variation is again on industries where Service shows more OL than Electrical, Manufacturing and PME (MD=-9.50, -6.62, 18.20, $p < .05$) respectively while Manufacturing shows more OL than PME (MD=11.58, $p < .05$) and IT-ITES show more OL than PME (MD=13.58, $p < .05$). OL again varies across sector.

ANOVA and independent sample t-test has shown that TFM, TSL and LS as a whole varies across industry. This provides partial support for H3a (H3a: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across industries). TFM, TSL, LF and LS vary across income providing support to H3e (H3e: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across levels of income). Also, TFM, TSL and LS vary across experience, thus giving partial support to H3c (H3c: Leadership style of Indian executive varies across levels of experience). Moreover, TFM, TSL and LS have shown to vary across education, thus partially supporting H3f (H3f: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across educational qualification). TFM has shown difference in gender, partially supporting to H3d (H3d: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across males and females). As there is no significant difference found in TFM, TSL, LF and LS with sector, hence we can conclude that the hypothesis H3b (H3b: Leadership style of Indian executives varies across public and private sector) is not supported. IC and OC vary across industries only thus providing partial support to H6a (H6a: Conflict levels vary across industries). Phases, Mechanisms and OL as a whole shows variation in industries which provides support to H9a (H9a: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across industries). The results have shown that OL varies across industries like manufacturing and service organisations. This is in contrast to the study of Awasthy and Gupta (2011) who have concluded that there is no difference in learning pattern in manufacturing and service organisations of India. In case of manufacturing sector, leadership plays a crucial role in the enhancement of OL and provides encouragement and promotion of risk-taking and experimentation while in service organisations, learning, development and culture are significant predictors of LO as they are a part of organisational analysis (Perrow, 1970). Service organisations give much importance to individual and organisational learning dimensions as compared to people empowerment and creation of systems to share learning and hence confirms the importance of leadership in promotes learning orientation (Amy, 2008). In addition to this, Phases, Mechanisms and OL also show difference in sector and fetches support for H9b (H9b: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across public and private sector).

4.9 TESTS OF PREDICTION AND CONTRIBUTIONS

This section will discuss the identification of association of dependent variable (OL) with the independent variables (LS and CL). Regression analysis will help in examining how much change in the independent variable is related to how much change in the dependent variable. It will make certain how much each variable will predict OL of Indian executives. Based on the

correlation analysis which has shown the relationship among the two variables and their factors with the dependent variable. TFM has shown positive relation with Phases, Mechanisms and OL while TSL and LF show negative relationship with OL. GC also relates negatively with OL. Both leadership styles and conflict levels have shown mutual correlations. Through Correlation analysis it is confirmed that there is correlation among the study variables with the dependent variable but one cannot assess the strength of association from correlation and hence it cannot be interpreted to what extent the OL is influenced by the variables, LS and CL. In this study as there are more than one variable, multiple regression analysis is being conducted here to get the results. Co linearity (VIF: Variance Inflation Factor) will also help in finding the significant relationships between styles and levels during the analysis and the results are highlighted in table 4.15. In regression analysis, the demographics like gender, sector, industry etc has been controlled as they have been found affecting the predictive variables. In regression, Beta (β) coefficient helps in addressing the hypotheses pertaining to the prediction. Coefficient of Determination (R^2) provides the contribution of independent variables towards the dependent variable. F value gives the significance of the proposed model.

4.9.1 Aggregate Sample Analysis

Table 4.15 describes the prediction of OL through control variables- Gender, Sector, Industry, Experience, Income and Education (Model I), control variables and LS (Model II), control and CL (Model III) and through Control, LS and CL (Model IV). Only Sector has shown significant impact on OL ($\beta=0.178$, $p<.05$). Other control variables also have beta values but they are not significant. Variance in OL through Control Variables is 3.6% ($R^2= 0.036$, $p<.05$). After controlling CV, TFM leadership style positively and significantly predicts OL ($\beta= 0.242$, $p<.05$) and LF predicts OL negatively but significant ($\beta=-0.290$, $p<.05$). TSL has no significant effect on OL. The variance explained by CV and LS is 24.4% ($R^2= 0.244$, $p<.05$). The contribution of LS towards OL is 10.9% ($\Delta R^2=0.109$, $p<.05$). In the same way, after controlling CV in Model III, only GC has shown negative significant prediction towards OL ($\beta=-0.092$, $p<.05$). The variance explained by CV and CL in OL is 14.8% ($R^2= 0.148$, $p<.05$) and the contribution of CL over and above CV in OL is 5.3% ($\Delta R^2=0.013$, $p<.05$). In Model IV with both LS and CL and after controlling CV, the coefficients of TFM ($\beta=0.437$, $p<.05$) and LF ($\beta=-0.297$, $p<.05$) are significant and have increased and that of GC has also increased but remained significant ($\beta=0.059$, $p<.05$). The variance explained by CV, LS and CL in OL is 25.6% ($R^2=0.256$, $p<.05$). The unique contribution of LS and CL in OL is 20.1% ($\Delta R^2= 0.201$, $p<.05$).

From the above results, it can be said that TFM leadership style positively predicts OL while LF and GC negatively predict OL. TSL, IC and OC have no significant prediction towards OL. The VIF values are less than 10 and hence there is no chance of multicollinearity. Only sector has shown significant impact on OL and rest other CV have no significant impact on OL.

Table 4.15: Prediction of OL through Control Variables (CV), LS and CL

		Control & LS	Control & CL	Control LS & CL		
Antecedents		Model I	Model II	Model III	Model IV	VIF
CV	Gender	0.040	0.039	0.038	1.082	1.000
	Sector	0.178**	0.177**	0.174**	1.152**	1.000
	Industry	0.036	0.038	0.038	1.432	1.296
	Experience	0.019	0.014	0.018	2.459	1.030
	Income	-0.012	0.000**	-0.019	2.537	1.109
	Education	-0.058	-0.055	-0.048	1.136	1.024
LS	TFM		0.242**		0.437**	1.001
	TSL		-0.034		0.428	1.001
	LF		-0.290**		-0.297**	1.006
CL	IC			0.020	1.881	1.456
	OC			-0.052	1.486	1.260
	GC			-0.092**	-0.059**	1.000
F		2.272**	1.888**	2.062**	1.795**	
ΔF		-	1.118**	1.618**	1.493**	
R ²		0.036**	0.244**	0.148**	0.256**	
Adjusted R ²		0.020**	0.210**	0.075**	0.225**	
ΔR^2		-	0.109**	0.053**	0.201**	

Note: Coefficients are standardised Beta values (β), ** $p < .05$, OL is dependent variable, ΔR^2 = Change in R², ΔF =Change in F.

4.10 PREDICTIONS OF OL CONSTITUENTS

4.10.1 Prediction of OL constituents through LS

Table 4.16 shows that TFM has significant positive prediction ($p < .05$) while LF has negative significant prediction towards P1, Phases, M5 and Mechanisms. LS except TSL show significant variance in OL constituents. Also, LF shows prediction towards M1 but negative. The variance explained in Phases is greater than variance in Mechanisms. TFM impacts positively on P1 (Innovation, $\beta = 0.067$, $p < .05$) and M5 (Competency building, $\beta = 0.068$, $p < .05$) while the impact on PI and M5 is shown by LF also but negatively.

Table 4.16: Prediction of OL constituents through LS

	P1	P2	P3	PHASES	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	MECHANISMS
TFM	0.067**	0.029	0.021	0.043**	0.051	0.032	0.013	0.024	0.068**	0.038**

TSL	-0.026	-0.008	-0.037	-0.027	-0.029	-0.034	-0.023	-0.051	-0.027	-0.034
LF	-0.25**	0.156	0.060	-0.103**	-0.11**	0.092	0.063	0.057	-0.14**	-0.097**
R ²	0.021**	0.007	0.004	0.011**	0.013	0.009	0.004	0.005	0.023	0.010**
ΔR ²	0.013**	-0.001	0.013	0.003**	0.005	0.001	-0.004	-0.003	0.015	0.002**
F	2.670**	0.833	-0.004	1.353**	1.600	1.094	0.521	0.618	2.858	1.229**

Note: Coefficients are standardised beta values (β), ** $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 =$ Change in R^2 (Adjusted R^2); TFM=Transformational, TSL=Transactional, LF=Laissez faire; P1= Innovation, P2= Implementation, P3= Stabilisation, M1= Experimentation, M2= Mutuality & Teamwork, M3= Incremental Planning, M4=Temporary Systems, M5= Competency Building

4.10.2 Prediction of OL constituents through CL

Table 4.17 shows that only GC shows significant prediction towards P1, Phases, M5 and Mechanisms but negatively. The variance explained in Phases is more than variance in Mechanisms. GC has negative prediction for Innovation (P1, $\beta = -0.131$) and Competency building (M5, $\beta = -0.105$). The two other components of CL (IC and OC) do not predict any of the OL constituents significantly though the β value for most of the cases is negative.

Table 4.17: Prediction of OL Constituents through CL

	P1	P2	P3	PHASES	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	MECHANISMS
IC	0.070	0.033	-0.023	0.028	0.030	0.037	-0.013	0.003	0.086	0.028
OC	-0.070	-0.074	-0.053	-0.071	-0.052	-0.104	-0.059	-0.054	-0.076	-0.074
GC	-0.13**	-0.077	-0.050	-0.093**	-0.120	-0.095	-0.028	-0.087	-0.10**	-0.091**
R ²	0.020**	0.012	0.011	0.015**	0.018	0.022	0.007	0.014	0.015**	0.016**
ΔR ²	0.012**	0.004	0.003	0.007**	0.010	0.015	-0.001	0.006	0.007**	0.008
F	2.524**	1.540	1.342	1.938**	2.277	2.838	0.898	1.784	1.853**	1.985

Note: Coefficients are standardised beta values (β), ** $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 =$ Change in R^2 (Adjusted R^2); IC=Individual Conflict, OC= Organisational Conflict, GC=Group Conflict; P1= Innovation, P2= Implementation, P3= Stabilisation, M1= Experimentation, M2= Mutuality & Teamwork, M3= Incremental Planning, M4=Temporary Systems, M5= Competency Building

4.10.2 Prediction of OL constituents through LS and CL

Table 4.18 shows the prediction of OL constituents both by LS and CL. Here in this prediction analysis, again TFM has been found predicting P1 and M5 positively though the coefficient values have reduced. In case of GC which again predicts P1 and M5 negatively has also reduced coefficients. Also, TFM, LF and GC predict Phases and Mechanisms in which TFM predicts positively while LF and GC predicts negatively. The prediction of LF on M1 has also diminished and not significant. The hypotheses of TFM, LF and GC predicting OL has supported the hypotheses while other hypotheses pertaining to the prediction of OL by TSL,

OC and IC has not fetched any support though conflict has an influence on decision making (Schwenk, 1990).

Table 4.18: Prediction of OL Constituents through LS and CL

	P1	P2	P3	PHASES	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	MECHANISMS
TFM	0.059**	0.024	0.019	0.037**	0.059	0.036	0.015	0.015	0.046**	0.170**
TSL	-0.029	-0.009	-0.031	-0.026	-0.046	-0.068	-0.030	-0.050	-0.033	-0.227
LF	-0.134**	0.077	0.061	-0.098**	0.253	0.223	0.136	0.075	0.190**	0.876**
IC	0.046	0.019	-0.028	0.012	0.018	0.048	-0.027	0.004	0.053	0.097
OC	-0.065	-0.071	-0.053	-0.068	-0.106	-0.253	-0.116	-0.074	-0.090	-0.639
GC	-0.113**	-0.067	-0.044	-0.081	-0.390	-0.348	-0.073	-0.181	-0.182**	-1.173**
R ²	0.038**	0.018	0.015	0.025**	0.029	0.030	0.011	0.019	0.034**	0.025**
ΔR ²	0.022**	0.002	-0.001	0.009**	0.029	0.030	0.011	0.019	0.034**	0.025**
F	2.418**	1.126	0.925	1.576**	1.849	1.906	0.703	1.169	2.159**	1.545**

Note: Coefficients are standardised beta values (β), ** $p < .05$, $\Delta R^2 =$ Change in R^2 (Adjusted R^2)

4.11 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Table 4.19: Summary of results of hypotheses

Hypotheses	Result
H1: <i>Indian executives have transformational leadership style as their major LS, followed by transactional and laissez faire as the least preferred LS.</i>	Supported
H2: <i>There is mutual correlation among the constructs of MLQ.</i>	Supported
H3a: <i>Leadership style of Indian executives varies across industries</i>	Supported
H3b: <i>Leadership style of Indian executives varies across public and private sector.</i>	Not supported
H3c: <i>Leadership style of Indian executive varies across levels of experience.</i>	Not supported
H3d: <i>Leadership style of Indian executives varies across males and females.</i>	Partially supported
H3e: <i>Leadership style of Indian executives varies across levels of income.</i>	Supported
H3f: <i>Leadership style of Indian executives varies across educational qualification.</i>	Partially supported
H4: <i>Indian executives face organisational conflict more frequently than group and individual conflict.</i>	Supported
H5: <i>Conflict levels are mutually correlated but conceptually different.</i>	Supported

<i>H6a: Conflict levels vary across industries.</i>	Partially supported
<i>H6b: Conflict levels vary across public and private sector.</i>	Not supported
<i>H6c: Conflict levels vary across levels of experience.</i>	Not supported
<i>H6d: Conflict levels vary across male and female.</i>	Not supported
<i>H6e: Conflict levels vary across levels of income.</i>	Not supported
<i>H6f: Conflict levels vary across educational qualification.</i>	Not supported
<i>H7: Indian executives learn more in terms of phases (Innovation, implementation and stabilisation) than mechanisms (Experimentation, mutuality & teamwork, incremental planning, temporary systems and competency building).</i>	Not supported
<i>H8: There is mutual correlation between phases and mechanisms of organisational learning.</i>	Supported
<i>H9a: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across industries.</i>	Supported
<i>H9b: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across public and private sector.</i>	Supported
<i>H9c: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across levels of experience</i>	Not supported
<i>H9d: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across male and female</i>	Not supported
<i>H9e: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across levels of income.</i>	Not supported
<i>H9f: Organisational learning of Indian executives varies across educational qualification.</i>	Not supported
<i>H10: Leadership style and conflict levels together predict organisational learning.</i>	Partially supported
<i>H10a: Leadership style predicts organisational learning.</i>	Partially supported
<i>H10_{a1}: Transformational LS positively predicts organisational learning.</i>	Supported
<i>H10_{a2}: Transactional LS positively predicts organisational learning</i>	Not supported
<i>H10_{a3}: Laissez faire LS negatively predicts organisational learning.</i>	Supported
<i>H10b: Conflict levels predict organisational learning.</i>	Partially supported
<i>H10_{b1}: Organisational conflict positively predicts organisational learning.</i>	Not supported
<i>H10_{b2}: Group conflict negatively predicts organisational learning.</i>	Supported
<i>H10_{b3}: Individual conflict negatively predicts organisational learning.</i>	Not supported

4.12 COMPARING PROPOSED AND ALTERNATE MODEL FIT

In order to know the alternate relationship between the study variables, the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using AMOS v20.0 was used. First the proposed model was run keeping the styles and levels as independent and OL as dependent variable. Then an alternate model was run with OL as independent model and other constructs as Dependent variables. Figure 4.3 and 4.4 show the Proposed and the Alternate Model respectively. Table 4.20 shows the model fit indices.

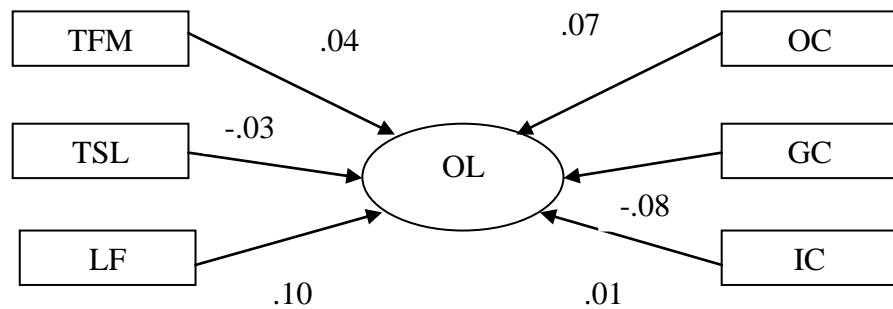


Figure 4.3: The Proposed Model (Styles and Levels as predictors of OL)

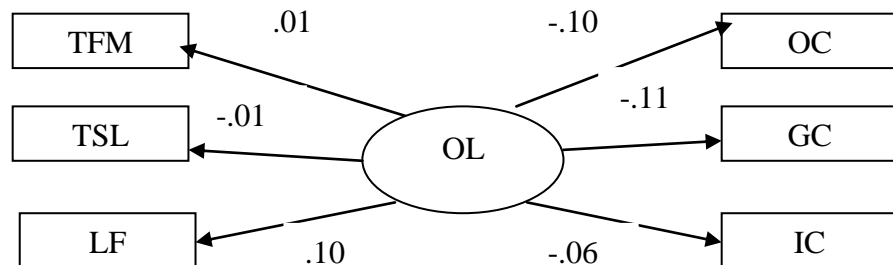


Figure 4.4: The Alternate Model (OL as a predictor of Styles and Levels)

Table 4.20: Mode Fit Indices of the Original and Alternate Models

Model	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	GFI	RMSEA	CFI	PGFI	PNFI
Proposed	29.629	9	0.001	3.292	.887	.059	.949	.305	.299
Alternate	421.21	9	0.000	46.80	-.810	.201	.000	.000	.016

Note: Proposed Model= LS and CL are independent variables while OL is dependent variable. Alternate Model= OL is independent variable while LS and CL are dependent variables.

The findings reveal that the proposed model not only affirms the hypothesized directions of associations of Styles and Levels with OL, but also have comparatively better and acceptable model fit indices than the Alternate Model, as per the statistical literature.

Absolute Fit indices are used to look at how well a model fits the sample data and thus to identify the most superior model. It includes χ^2 , χ^2/df , RMSEA, GFI, CFI etc.

In Table 4.20, the χ^2 Value in both the models is observed to be significant ($p=0.000$). But due to large sample size, the χ^2 can produce significant results. Henceforth, the other model fits indices are used for assessing the adequacy of the model. The χ^2/df is an indication of goodness of fit, where the ratio below 2 is adequate fit. Both the proposed model ($\chi^2/df=3.292$) and the alternate model doesn't have an adequate fit ($\chi^2/df=46.80$).

The RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) denotes that how well the model fits the population covariance matrix, where the 0.05 or less is a close fit, 0.08 or less is a reasonable fit and above this is a poor fit. As per the above, only the proposed model has a close fit (.059) while the alternate model doesn't have (.201).

The GFI (Goodness of Fit) statistic renders the proportion of variance accounted for by the estimated population variance. Though the recommended value of GFI is above 0.90, the proposed model shows value close to 0.90 while the alternate model shows negative value which indicates that the alternate model doesn't show GFI.

Incremental/comparative/relative Fit indices utilize the comparison of chi square value to a baseline model. The CFI (comparative fit index) is an advancement of NFI (normed fit index) and it takes into account the discrepancy, the degrees of freedom and a non-centrality parameter estimate. Value of CFI may range from 0 to 1; the value towards 1 is a very good fit whilst value less than 0.9 can usually be improved substantially. Accordingly, the proposed model's CFI (0.949) is towards 1 and can further be improved, whereas the Alternate model's CFI (0.000) doesn't fit in the above values.

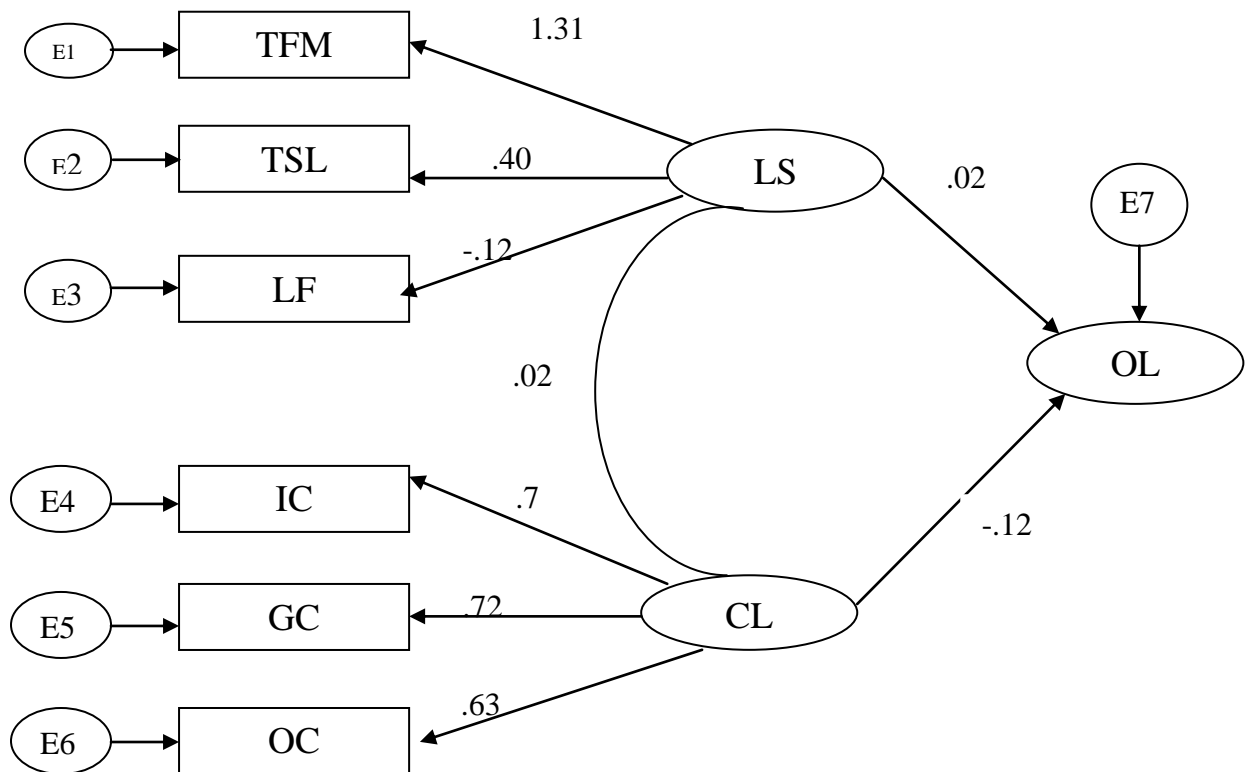
Parsimony Fit Indices namely PGFI (Parsimony GFI) and PNFI (Parsimony NFI), adjust the GFI and NFI, respectively, for the loss of degrees of freedom. While doing so, these indices discipline for model complexity. PGFI and PNFI values of >0.50 or >0.60 indicate a good

parsimony. Therefore, according to this both the models are not good, but the proposed (PGFI= 0.305, PNFI= 0.299) has better parsimony than the alternate (PGFI= 0.000, PNFI= 0.016).

Thus, various fit indices discussed so far indicate that the proposed model (i.e. Styles and Levels as predictors of OL) is a better research model as compared to an Alternate model of research (i.e. OL as a predictor of Styles and Levels).

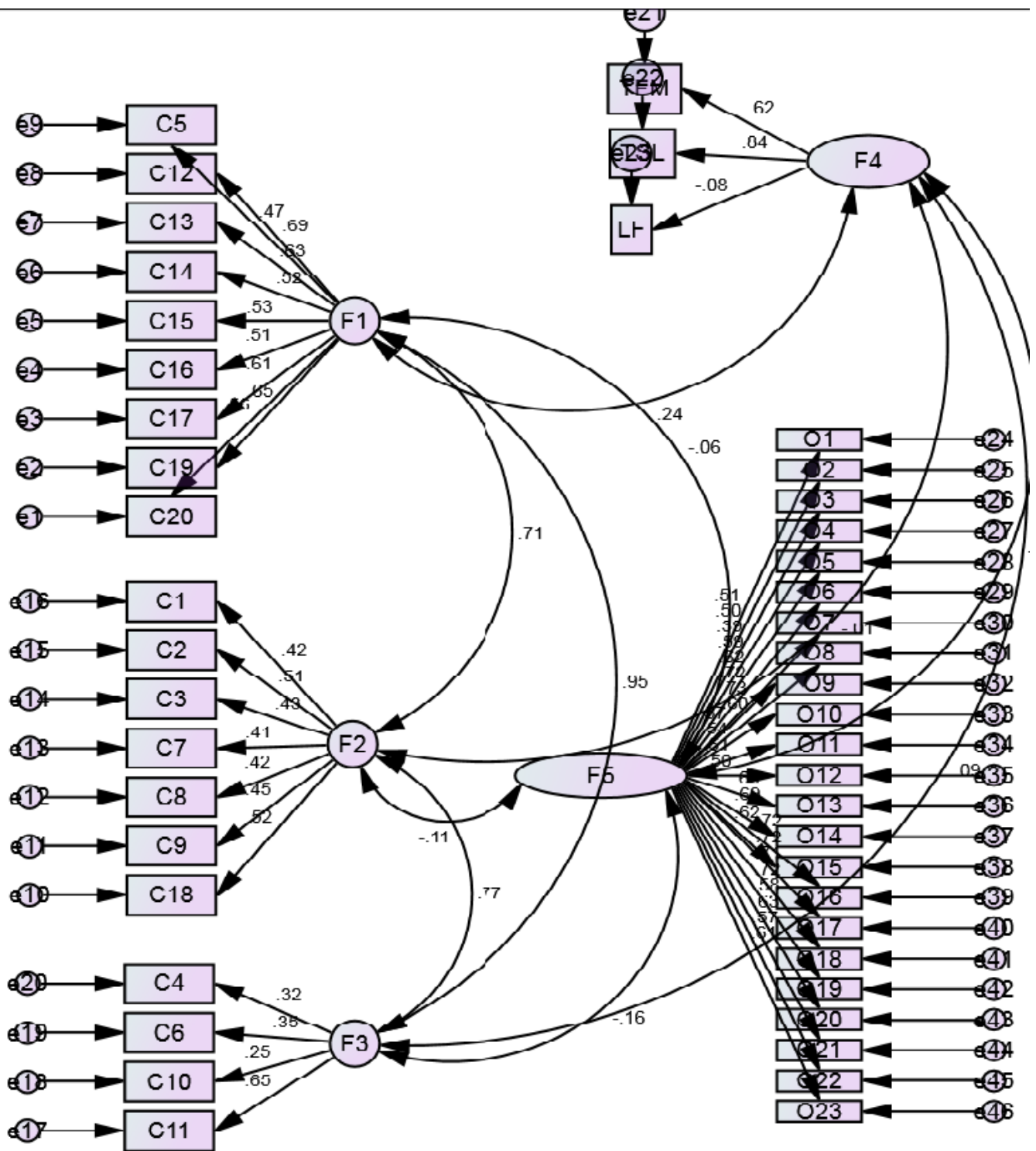
The model fit values of the proposed model are also justified by Structural Model which is a part of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) where latent variables are related to one another. The model fit values show that both TFM and TSL are good indicators of LS which in turn predict OL whereas LS is negatively related. Conflict levels relate negatively to OL. The CFI of the model is 0.944, PCFI as .405 and RMSEA as 0.053 which indicates that the model is fit and better as compared to alternate model.

Structural Model (Proposed)



The proposed model is better than the alternate model is also confirmed and justified by considering the measurement model. The model has Chi square of 1753.285 with Degrees of freedom as 979 ($p < .01$), RFI of 0.700, CFI of 0.856, PCFI as 0.775 and RMSEA of 0.034. All the values indicate that the model is fit and better than alternate model.

Measurement Model (Proposed)



4.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the analyses and results of hypotheses were presented. The chapter started with the screening of data for the analysis followed by Factor analysis, Reliability and Validity Analysis. After that the Descriptive Statistics which included the Total and Item-wise analysis of all the three variables were presented. Next, the Correlation Analysis, Tests of Variation and Differences using ANOVA and Independent Sample t-test were presented. Regression Analysis which helped in finding the associations amongst the study variables and included Aggregate Sample Analysis was conducted. At the end of chapter, the prediction of OL through LS, CL and LS& CL together using Regression Analysis was performed and presented. Finally, the results of hypotheses were presented in tabular form and the Original Model (LS and CL as predictors of OL) was compared with the Alternate Model (OL as predictor of LS and CL). The factor structures of LS and CL has been confirmed and the OL factor structure has been retained as the original one. There are mutual correlations among the leadership styles, conflict levels and learning diagnostics. It was found that Transformational LS is followed by transactional and the least is Laissez faire. The highest scores among conflict levels is Organisational conflict. Indian executive have been found learning in terms of Mechanisms than Phases. LS, CL and OL have been found varying across certain demographics like industry, income, education, sector etc. It has been found that TFM and LF predict OL significantly. Also GC has been found a negative significant predictor of OL. The proposed model has shown better values as compared to alternate model which is justified by using Structural as well as Measurement models.

DISCUSSION

After obtaining results from the previous chapter, it becomes important to discuss the results and the accomplishment of objectives in the hierarchical level. The chapter begins with the introduction followed by the accomplishment of objectives one by one. The results of the hypotheses have been presented and discussed here.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

After obtaining the factor structure of MLQ and OCS, the convenience to interpret the results has become easy. MLQ has acquired a history of research as the primary quantitative instrument for measuring leadership style and is used in almost a hundred studies which appeared in journals, dissertations, book chapters, technical papers and the likes. It has been found that the employees who rate their leaders on MLQ describe new leaders as more transformational who can lead and develop new ventures (Bass, 1990b). The factor structure of OCS has been done and the validity and reliability of the scale have been confirmed. OLD has been retained as the original one because of its well established factor structure and its usage in various studies for knowing the learning pattern in Indian organisations. Thus the initial conditions are satisfied before analysing and interpreting the results.

5.2 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 1 (O1)

O1: To study the leadership style of executives in select Indian organisations.

5.2.1 Average LS

Leadership is one of the most commonly studied areas in literature. The model based on three leadership styles (Bass, 1990b) has received a lot of attention from theorists but the transformational leadership behaviour has gained utmost importance over the past ten years in various set up like hospitals (Alharbi and Yusoff, 2012), banking, health care, government agencies, sports, manufacturing, research and development (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 1998) and corporates in maintaining and improving success (Bhandarkar and Singh, 1990). Leaders are those who have the capacity to bring change so that the best comes out from the workforce leading to creativity and innovation. Leadership affects the organisational efficacy and a relationship of leadership with organisational confidence is created so that the positive outcomes of leadership are evaluated and used for organisational progress (Bohn, 2002). Also, leaders who frequently use the learning tactics like action, thinking, feeling and assessing others show more leadership qualities like inspiring, challenging, encouraging and so on. Leaders who are high on leadership score are more effective in influencing others (Chen and

Silverthorne, 2005). Transformational leaders create conducive environment for learning to take place where people can easily interact, explore new alternatives and provide opportunities for assessment and feedback (Brown and Posner, 2001).

Based on average LS scores, Indian executives are more transformational than transactional and Laissez faire style is least preferred. The results are in contradiction with the study of Jaeger (1986) who found that in countries like Nigeria, Japan, Pakistan and India the most prevalent style of leadership is transactional as it is culture specific where command and control rules and stress is given on power distance (Paracha *et al.*, 2012). But in various organisational setups and in various industrial firms in United States, Canada, India and Japan, transformational leadership is most appropriate and effective than transactional (Bass, 1990b).

Transformational leaders are considered as most effective leaders by their subordinates as they are connected with greater organisational performance and success (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Transformational leaders earn credits with others by considering others' needs over their own personal needs (Avolio and Bass, 1998). The transformational leaders display a sense of power and confidence, consider moral and ethical values, stress on collective sense of mission, look for different alternatives for a problem and motivate their employees. Transformational leaders understand their followers' needs and take actions and initiatives through empowerment. Transformational leaders are overpowering transactional leaders in settings like manufacturing where transactional leaders used to rule (Edwards and Gill, 2012) and this is in line with our study where the sample has maximum number of manufacturing industries (159) as compared to others. Transformational leadership works best when an organisation is experiencing rapid change, and transactional leadership is best suited for organisations operating in stable business environments (Vera and Crossan, 2004). According to Bhandarakar and Singh (1999), transformational leaders inspire, facilitate and channelise the collective energies in the right direction which plays an integral role in schools and working places. Transformational leaders act as role models who play the role of a philosopher, teacher and a facilitator so that the organisational goals are met. Effective leaders like transformational are build by using character education in schools so that the youth understands the importance of leadership (Fertman and Van Linden, 1999). The transformational leadership factors like inspirational motivation, individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation improved the poor state of leadership and leader- follower relationships in Cameroon (Forka, 2012).

Transformational leaders stimulate their followers to think in new ways and try out new ideas and being charismatic, they incite an emotional reaction in followers (Druskat, 1994). According to Lowe *et al.* (1996), transformational LS compliment transactional LS. Both the styles go hand in hand and transformational LS prove to be ineffective in the nonexistence of transactional style at all individual, dyad and group level of analysis (Yammarino *et al.*, 1998). In line with this, it is important that a leader should be both transformational and transactional and the difference lies only in the process of motivation, personality traits and how the goals are set by both types of leaders (Hater and Bass, 1988; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Yeh, 1995). In contrast to transformational leaders, the transactional leaders avoid taking risks, are time constraints and adopt process over substance as a means of control (Bass, 1985). The transactional leaders are effective in stable environments and they believe in reciprocity i.e exchange of some form of reward for performance from their followers. Transformational leaders can perform transactional activities when the conditions demand and raise the level of intellectual consciousness about the outcomes and this transformational leadership is a symbol of friendliness (Krishnan, 2004). This helps in generating beliefs in their followers. The transformational and transactional leadership do not eliminate each other as a leader can be both (Bass, 1985). Personality differences play a role in deciding the style of leadership (Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987). Hence it can be concluded that leaders can be both transformational as well as transactional depending upon the situation.

Our results of having more scores on transformational leadership is in line with Egan *et al.* (1995) who considers transformational leadership more effective than transactional in spite of organisational type, experience and preferences. When the situation is not in favour, a leader must be transformational so as to find out the key factors of situation and choose the right strategy (Somech and Wenderow, 2006). Transactional leadership also known as cost - benefit exchange process has been found effective than transformational leadership when organisation aspire to attain their objectives and aims (Afolabi *et al.*, 2008) and transformational leaders sometimes exploit their followers by using their power for satisfying their personal needs and goals (Franke and Felfe, 2011) and they provide justice and trust to their followers (Ngodo, 2008). Transactional LS has been found a strong positive predictor of performance of his followers and has proved to be associated with increasing performance among soldiers in unstable environment (Bass *et al.*, 2003). Russian managers adopted transactional style as it positively correlated with organisational performance and innovation (Elenkov, 2002). Transactional leaders have a significant effect on employee performance and job satisfaction

(Paracha *et al.*, 2012). The score pattern discloses that the executives adopt transformational LS but sometimes they may act as transactional as well. This is perhaps due to nature of respondents from industries like IT- ITES, manufacturing, PME and service where executives believe in change and motivating employees to get the best results but sometimes rewards/punishments also play a major role.

Laissez faire is an avoidant style of leadership least preferred by executives in Indian organisations. Laissez faire leaders avoid getting involved when important issues arise, avoid making decisions and mostly delay in replying the queries raised by their followers. They are inactive rather than reactive or proactive. In our sample, 37.10% of executives are adopting laissez faire style which is definitely a point of concern. This type of style could lower down the performance and bring stagnation into the organisation where employees can delay in taking any important and serious action/ decision and could lead to inefficiency. Laissez faire leaders should be dealt with caution, but there can be some situations in which highly active leadership is not required and may be not even inviable (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1997). Laissez-faire is operationalised as managers abdicating responsibility and not using their authority. It is definitely a non-response to situations that may seek attention (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 2008).

5.2.2 Correlation among LS

According to Bass (1985) transactional and transformational leadership are two different dimensions where transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership, but not vice versa, though a leader can be both transformational as well as transactional (Bryman, 1992). Transformational leadership is an extension of transactional leadership and a leader can exhibit varying degrees of transactional or transformational leadership (Bass, 1997). The correlation among the styles confirms that they are not mutually exclusive (Robbins and Judge, 2009).

The positive significant correlation of transformational and transactional LS ($r= 0.521$, $p<.05$) is in line with Den Hartog *et al.* (1997); Bycio *et al.* (1995); Judge and Piccolo, (2004); and Zhu *et al.* (2005). It clearly signifies that a leader can be transformational as well as transactional. This is due to the fact that when job and the environment of the follower is unsuccessful in providing the necessary motivation or direction, the leader has to compensate for the deficiencies and provide them what they receive in return (House *et al.*, 1988). It is compulsory for leaders to engage in both transformational and transactional leadership as it clarifies that leaders are not trying to substitute one leadership with another but rather using

both (Moore and Rudd, 2006). The transactional leadership is an obligatory precondition for transformational leadership to be competent as it serves to grow the relationship between the leader and follower (Avolio, 1999) and the appreciation through reward and support increase employee job satisfaction. Transactional leadership is effective in inducing performance in small scale enterprises than transformational leadership. According to Pathak and Patwardhan (2011), the employees by way of their job involved contribute towards organisational effectiveness which can also be related to transformational leaders.

TFM leadership style relates significantly negative with LF ($r = -0.159$, $p < .05$) which is in line with Den Hartog *et al.* (1997) and Judge and Piccolo, (2004). It means as leaders tend to be more transformational in their style, the avoidance behaviour slows down. Most efficient and successful leaders use transformational leadership most of the time followed by some transactional leadership with a minimum use of laissez-faire leadership (Tichy and Devanna, 1986). In other words, the transformational leader cannot be transformational alone but he/she has to adopt some part of transactional and some part of laissez faire style to carry on with the smooth functioning in the organisation. Lastly, there is negative association of transactional and laissez faire style but that is insignificant. This reflects that as the leaders who are transactional try to get the things done by way of either giving rewards or punishments if the standards are not met or not just avoiding the decisions.

5.2.3 Variation in LS

5.2.3.1 Variation in Transformational LS

Higher TFM leadership style of IT-ITES, Electrical, PME and Service executives to Manufacturing ones is due to the profile of respondents. Most of the executives of Electrical are from senior level, have management degrees and most females belong to IT-ITES in junior level category. Being a mixture of senior level and junior level with degrees ranging from management to graduates and other graduates, they show more transformational style as compared to executive belonging to manufacturing where majority of respondents are males and belong to middle level. The males show more of transactional style than females as they are more of directive and autocratic while females are more of participative and democratic which is a characteristic of transformational leader (Druskat, 1994; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

As the executives of manufacturing organisations are mostly engineers, they are concerned with the core electrical job settings where they have to deal with the technicians and other machine operators who are motivated by rewards to produce the units on time. This job profile makes them autocratic leader with high power status and hence they exhibit more of transactional style (Bhat *et al.*, 2012b). Also IT-ITES executives show transformational style more than PME executives. All the IT-ITES executives are from private sector where they have to deal with the clients and customers on day to day basis and understand the needs of the customers which lead them to be more of participative nature. The results are in contrast with the study of Paracha *et al.* (2012) where they found that the transactional style to motivate employees by means of promotions, bonuses and punishments is exhibited mostly by private organisation executives but the trend is changing towards transformational style. Transformational leadership is higher in PME than Manufacturing industries. Most of the PME executives are from public sector where TFM leadership is on higher side than transactional and laissez faire leadership style. In case of private organisations, control is an essential requirement which is a dominant feature of transactional leadership especially of men and hence private sector shows more of transactional style as compared to public sector (Eagly and Johannesen- Schmidt, 2001)

Also the results show that the executives having income level of 5-10 lakhs show more transformational leadership style as compared to executives having income level of < 5 lakhs and also executives having 5-10 lakhs income level show more transformational leadership style as compared to > 10 lakhs income level. The executives having income level of 5-10 lakhs mainly belong to private sector. This is in line with the study of Riaz and Haider (2010) who found a positive correlation of transformational leadership style and career satisfaction where a transformational leader articulates a vision and develops group norms for achieving success depends on his satisfaction with the income level and skill development. It symbolises that the income level of executives in the range of 5-10 lakhs show more of transformational leaders as compared to other styles.

Also, transformational leadership is exhibited more by Management, Engineering and Other Post graduates than Other graduates. This shows that as educational level increases, there is also a change in the leadership perspective towards his followers. It is perhaps due to their awareness towards the benefits of transformational style. Transformational leaders inspire their followers by taking into *individualised consideration* and *inspirational motivation* of their

behaviour so as to achieve extraordinary outcomes and in turn develop their followers' leadership capabilities by stressing upon higher teaching and learning (Bass and Riggio, 2006). This reflects the importance of higher education and learning for transformational leaders to develop their followers in their own ways and the followers are found less dependent in case they are following transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are found to be more effective as they regularly promote greater organisational performance than transactional leaders (Lowe *et al.*, 1996). Leaders who are able to understand the cognitive processes prove more beneficial for organisations to motivate its employees and develop climate for better work settings (Gibson, 2001) and generating high employee engagements (Xu and Thomas, 2011).

Transformational leadership also varies across gender. This is in line with Eagly *et al.* (2003) and Kent *et al.* (2010) who confirmed that female leaders are more transformational than male leaders as females have fewer tendencies to engage in contingent reward and punishments. The reason could be that inconsistency often survive between the predominantly communal qualities that perceivers associate with women (friendly, kind, unselfish) while for male leaders the agentic qualities are important (assertive, masterful, instrumentally competent). Also leadership ability is more stereotypes of men than women (Eagly *et al.*, 2003). Women leaders have exceeded men on the components of leadership style that relate positively to effectiveness, management skills and success (Burke and Collins, 2001; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Pounder and Coleman, 2002).

Focus group participants perceived women as making better leaders than men in public relations due to their socialised traits, empathetic nature and collaborative efforts (Aldoory and Toth, 2004). Women are more transformational as compared to men but women encounter a glass ceiling to advancement into the higher ranks of organisation which hampers their progress and development (Bass and Avolio, 1994b; Tibus, 2010). According to Appelbaum *et al.* (2003) leadership is not gender specific but leader effectiveness and leader emergence are linked to the individual rather than an individual's gender, but Kim and Shim, (2003) developed an approach to understand the gender differences in leadership style among retail managers. Trinidad and Norman (2005) considered leadership and gender as dangerous aspects and difficult to relate. Bass *et al.* (1996) reported that women display certain key characteristics of transformational leadership more frequently than men but they are no less transformational than their male counterparts. Women also see their strengths as being not transformational but transactional who focus on practical aspects, efficiency and task achievement oriented

managerial leadership (Belasen and Frank, 2012). Women succeed in areas where culture allows, but they do not promote themselves as much as men can and they do not choose top leadership positions for socio-cultural reasons which is why they face glass ceiling (Belasen and Frank, 2012).

5.2.3.2 Variation in Transactional LS

Transactional leader (Bass, 1985) is a person who has influence in the existing system and culture, and he likes to avoid taking risks, emphasising more the limits of time and efficiency, and taking control of the performance process rather than the content itself. Perhaps there is a strong likelihood that transactional leaders are more effective in predictable circumstances when a detailed plan is the most effective strategy and when the leader can easily satisfy the subordinates' needs through an exchange only if their performances achieve the basic expectation. For most of the subordinates who have transactional leaders as their superiors use rational (contingent reward) as well as hard (management by exception) approach to deal with them while the subordinates prefer to adopt a soft (inspirational motivation) and rational (individual consideration and intellectual stimulation) approach to deal with their transformational leaders (Deluga, 1990).

Transactional leadership style is shown by IT-ITES, Electrical and Service executives as compared to Manufacturing sector. This may be due to the reason that in IT-ITES, Electrical and Service organisations the concern is more on task as compared to people and both the organisations belong to private sector only where the focus is on task and people consideration is low. In these organisations the focus is 'how to get the maximum output in a short span of time' and hence the leadership style preferred in these sectors is transactional. The results are somewhat in contradiction with Chang and Lee (2007) where manufacturing and service organisations show more of transformational leadership as compared to transactional in enhancing organisational learning. The results also contradict the study of Bodla and Nawaz (2010) where they found that public sector universities dominate transactional leadership style as they use rewards as motivational factors for their subordinates. Also, IT-ITES executives are more transactional as compared to Service executives. IT-ITES executives have to work in virtual settings to deal with customers all day and night and this makes them more concerned towards their task as compared to understanding the needs of their followers and other colleagues. IT leaders often lack interpersonal leadership skills. These technical employees get promoted to become project leaders due to their technical knowledge, not for their people management capabilities (Rosenbaum, 1991). This means the private sector organisations are

motivated by the monetary aspects as they are not concerned with the needs of their subordinates and hence are more concerned towards achieving targets only.

Also, transactional leadership is mostly seen at the income slab of 5-10 lakhs as compared to < 5 lakhs slab. The reason can be attributed to the benefits which they feel at higher income level. When the income level increases, the transactional leadership also increases. These leaders are vigilant in performing the right and timely accomplishment of planned objectives and interfere only when they come to know about the mistakes or noncompliance of standards (Antonakis *et al.*, 2003).

Executives with Management and Engineering degrees are found to be more transactional as compared to Other graduates. This may be due to their awareness and job profile which demands for timely accomplishment of tasks and work related outcomes. Engineers are core technical persons who are engaged in performing their jobs so that the machines and other equipments work smoothly in the organisation. Thus, they are not familiar with other types of leadership style and hence show transactional so that their work is over according to their work schedule. Executives with Management degrees are more transactional as compared to engineers and Other post graduate degree holders show more transactional style as compared to Other graduate degree holders. This can be attributed to the fact that the graduate level executives who come from different streams are not aware of the working pattern, policies and procedures of organisations at the beginning and hence they are more motivated by the perks and monetary benefits. As they gain experience and skills in the organisation, they become conscious about the job and its related issues. Transactional leaders have a tendency to rely on rational and logical thinking and provide extrinsic rewards for completed work assignments to their followers, thus both are mutually benefitted (Howell and Avolio, 1993).

5.2.3.3 Variation in Laissez faire LS

Executives with income level of < 5 lakhs show more of laissez faire style as compared to 5-10 lakhs income level. It indicates the lack of experience and adjustment to the new job environments which is reflected in their behaviour of unwillingness to take any action and delay in decision making. With the rise in income level, the avoidance gets reduced. The laissez faire leaders who are thought as avoiding accepting responsibility and are absent when required resist in expressing their opinion on essential issues (Bass, 1998) and are unable to identify their own feelings and emotions of others at they join any organisation (Gardner and

Stough, 2002). For those subordinates who have laissez faire leaders as their superiors adopt a hard approach to deal with their permissiveness laissez faire leaders (Deluga, 1990).

The new joiners in the organisation are less experienced and hence dependent on their seniors for taking any corrective decision. As expected, the senior managers show characteristics such as being innovative, visionary, persuasive, long-term oriented and courageous to take decisions than juniors (Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999). Due to this reason the executives with lower income level of <5 lakhs show more laissez faire style as compared to senior ones / who have income level higher than the new joiners. Laissez faire is associated with negative outcomes and a form of destructive leadership (Skogstad *et al.*, 2007). Being incompetent it is better to avoid decisions and seek advices from seniors.

5.2.3.4 Variation in overall LS

The variation in overall LS is based on the above discussion and results reveal that LS varies across industries (specifically across Manufacturing and IT-ITES), income level (between 5-10 lakhs and > 10 lakhs) and education (majorly across Other graduates and other post graduates). From IT-ITES to Manufacturing organisations there is a lot of difference in work settings from virtual (online) to personal (daily interactions face to face). Similarly in case of education where management and engineers have more rich and technical expertise respectively than other graduates and post graduates. Income level > 10 lakhs executives are monetarily satisfied and experienced than the entry level executives who have less leadership qualities as compared to their higher income level counterparts. Hence, the nature of jobs, working pattern, qualification standards bring variation across industries, education and income level.

5.3 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 2 (O2)

O2: To study the conflict levels in select Indian organisations.

5.3.1 Average Conflict Levels (CL)

Conflict at Organisational level i.e Organisational Conflict is mostly observed by Indian executives followed by Group Conflict. This is in line with Suliman and Abdulla (2005) who noted that organisational conflict is a fact of life and can be experienced in daily interaction with colleagues in meetings and discussions. As people compete for resources, jobs, power and security there are more chances of conflict to occur in organisations (Henry, 2008). This implies that Indian executives are more concerned towards the conflict which involves disagreement between social entities (Dhar and Dhar, 2003). The deviations in organisational

structure, policies, job requirement play a very important role in escalating organisational conflict. Organisations now a days are getting flatter, have more decentralised structures and the employees are becoming more responsible and independent to take future courses of action which result in new types of conflicts among groups as compared to organisational settings (Nohria, 1991). As more number of women, foreign nationals and people with different educational backgrounds are entering the workforce, more kinds of conflicts are experienced by the employees who lead to diversity in workforce (Fiol, 1994; Jehn and Berdersky, 2003) and it has been found that job satisfaction has an impact on role efficacy and organisational conflict (Dhar *et al.*, 2003).

Majority of the respondents were from Electrical and PME industries and hence the results somehow complement with the findings of Sasidhar *et al.* (2012) who found that personality/ ego clashes and interdependence of parties are more prevalent in Indian private sector and hence lead to organisational conflict. Also communication gap which is a component of Group Conflict (GC) is responsible for conflicts in Indian organisations. The rigid systems of organisations make people uncomfortable to carry on with the daily activity which is also one of the reasons for conflict to escalate.

Next highest Group Conflict (GC) reflects that Indian executives face group conflict more frequently than individual/ personal conflict. According to Sasidhar *et al.* (2012) who compared the Indian and Saudi organisations found that lack of communication and competitiveness for resources are the prime reasons involved in group conflicts in Indian organisations. Group conflict can decrease individual satisfaction and group productivity (Jehn and Berdersky, 2003). In India the conflicts due to personality clashes, lack of trust and power struggle are never resolved (Mack and Snyder, 1957; Sasidhar *et al.*, 2012). Conflict within groups can be productive such as improved decision making and group productivity/ performance (Amason, 1996; Moye and Langfred, 2004) increased group cohesiveness, focus on tasks and increase in loyalty towards the groups but it depends on how carefully the group conflict is managed (Nelson and Quick, 2000).

Emotion and conflict are related to each other and emotion affects conflict orientation, collaboration, negotiation or group decision making (Jehn, 1995, 1997b). In order to resolve conflicts, a certain amount of intuition and the ability to understand the people's emotions and respond accordingly can be beneficial in the workplace (Bodtker and Jameson, 2001) so that

conflict turns out to be productive in solving problems and making effective task completion (Jehn 1997a; De Dreu, 1997).

In case of Individual/ Personal Conflict (IC) personality play a major role and the conflict on reasons like ineffective superiors, threat for meritorious people and innovations opposed shoot up the conflict (Dhar and Dhar, 2003). This individual conflict is mostly found in IT-ITES organisations as compared to other ones where the employees interact on daily basis in virtual settings. In case of IT-ITES industries, the retention has become a problem due to various organisational policies like less compensation paid to employees, job dissatisfaction and no opportunities for career development (Geetika and Ghosh, 2006) Interpersonal conflicts affect organisational outcomes and can have negative effects on employee attitude and behaviour (Ul Haq, 2011). Interpersonal conflicts produce both negative and positive outcomes. Negative outcomes include distrust of others, hostility, reduced job satisfaction and motivation, higher absenteeism and turnover and grievances (Dhar and Dhar, 2003) while positive outcomes include greater self- awareness, creativity and learning (Barki and Hartwick, 2001).

India being collectivist society believes in group orientation and social relations which makes them more prone to group conflicts than individual conflicts. Due to recession faced by Indian organisations in the recent past, the Indian executives have lost jobs in the name of cost cutting which have created a sense of insecurity among them. Also, personality plays a role in developing certain behavioural tendencies which increase their probability to get involved in conflict. Some employees because of their nature prefer to work alone, some try to control the situation while others want to work in groups (Baron, 1989). In India, tendencies toward aggression and irritability of some personality characters have been reported in actual on- the-job. In those cases, self- monitoring helps in reducing the conflicts (Baron, 1989). Subordinates who are using high-obliging style experience more interpersonal conflicts with their supervisors while those who use high integrating style are reported to face more of intrapersonal and intragroup conflict (Hatfield and Hatfield, 1995). Hence, in order to prosper and face the dynamic challenges of market, the employees tend to work collectively, provide flexibility to their job routine and avoid conflicts as much as possible.

5.3.2 Correlation among Conflict Levels

The correlation among the levels confirms the overlap among the conflict levels. All the items were correlated with each other significantly. It means individuals can face any type of conflict

or a number of conflicts at the same time (Dhar and Dhar, 2003). Individual conflict (IC) related positively with Organisational Conflict (OC) and Group Conflict (GC). This implies that employees compete for resources of the organisation as well as are incompatible with the goals and objectives of organisation. Conflict can occur between individuals, among individuals within groups, and between groups and hence people can face any type of conflict in the organisations (Korsgaard *et al.*, 2008). The incompatibility can occur on the level of specified end states and can occur at the behavioural level. Also incompatibility and inappropriateness affects the organisational effectiveness (Camerson, 1986) as individual and group effectiveness is not same as that of organisational effectiveness. Conflict varies across culture where it was found that Anglo respondents consider assertive style of conflict while Chinese prefer non- confrontational style but both prefer direct communication strategies to resolve the conflict (Brew and Cairns, 2004). The organisational conflicts can be dealt by using integrating, obliging or compromising style so that the conflicts can be minimised (Elsayed-Ekjiouly and Buda, 1996). In a sample among turkey organisations, the forcing style was adopted and preferred by those having high power values while avoidance was preferred by most of the employees (Kozan and Ergin, 1999). Furthermore, in another study by Friedman *et al.* (2000), it was found that those who use more integrative style experience lower risk of task conflict which ultimately reduces stress and those who use dominating or avoidance strategy experience higher levels of task conflict. Moderate task conflict is generally related to higher group performance while relationship conflict is associated with lower performance (Peterson and Behfar, 2003). Role of attributions, negative feelings, goal mutuality and goal path uncertainty are related to conflict management styles which are vital factors for deciding upon the strategies of conflict handling and management (Jarboe and Witteman, 1996).

The correlation of IC and OC shows that Indian executives are involved in personal conflicts and at the same time have differences in opinion based on organisational policies and structures. This reflects the role of personality which varies from individual to individual. The attitudes, values, skills and goals play an important role in deciding the behaviour of individuals and the behavioural preferences are reflected in the individual's personality (Rahim, 2002). Organisational members interact with each other to deal with their disagreements constructively which helps them to deal with various situations in an effective way. In a study by Cox (2003), IC had a negative effect on GC and work satisfaction while GC negatively affected work satisfaction and team performance effectiveness. This means that in order to

reduce the conflicts at any level, the administrators have to implement strategies to decrease a stressful work environment and increase team- building activities.

The positive association of GC with OC indicates that organisational members when work in groups face group conflicts within and between group members. Rahim (2001) reported various types of exercises and cases like transactional analysis, management of differences, team building and intergroup problem solving on conflict which could help in minimising the same and the executives could come up with innovative techniques to deal with the conflicts.

5.3.3 Variation in Conflict Levels

The Individual Conflict (IC) is observed more in IT-ITES than Electrical, Manufacturing and Service industries. This is perhaps due to the nature of jobs in IT-ITES where the executives have more daily interactions with their customers than other sectors. The interaction involves dealing with clients and solving their problems. Mostly the customers are not satisfied with the services and other facilities provided by these organisations. Moreover, the executives working in IT-ITES industries have long working hours and work stress with little free time left to complete their projects well in time. The tyranny of shifts that are weekly rotated also makes them irritable and hence chances of interpersonal / individual conflicts increases. Manufacturing and Service sectors have mostly fixed job working hours. Manufacturing sector jobs are output oriented and the rewards/ perks are clearly accomplishable through specific efforts while in Service industry, the quality of customer service becomes the source of performance evaluation and hence the chances of interpersonal/individual conflicts are minimised.

Electrical and PME industries face more of OC than IT-ITES industry. Most of the PME industries are from public sector (30) where the nature of job involves large scale project handling and all the group members are accountable for the single project. The members need higher cohesion, collaboration and confrontation for the sake of maintaining the coordination. This increases group cohesion and hence chances of GC are reduced but the conflicts arise due to organisational policies and structures which create a difference among the executives. Some feel more burden especially those who are juniors and have less experience while seniors prefer to work with the people who are of same cadre and potential. All the electrical executives belong to private sector and hence they have more incompatibility towards organisational procedures and structure as their job is not secured. In case of IT-ITES the employees mostly

do not interact face-to-face and hence lack of opportunity for interaction and technology becomes a source of conflict. There is a possibility for members to hide their emotional reactions and these create conflicting situations in teams (Ayoko *et al.*, 2012).

5.4 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 3 (O3)

O3: To study the organisational learning of executives in select Indian organisations.

5.4.1 Average OL

5.4.1.1 Mechanisms

On an average, the Indian executives are learning in terms of Mechanisms than Phases in overall Organisational Learning. This is in congruence with Khandekar and Sharma (2005) who suggested that in order to remain competitive in the market and promote continuous learning, teamwork, participation and flexibility are key aspects. Many companies have realised that the way an organisation learns in terms of promoting teamwork, competency and planning are the determining factors for the sustainability of business and the leaders play a major role in promoting team effectiveness through learning and sharing (Herre, 2010; Yun *et al.*, 2007). According to Fulmer *et al.* (1998) the presence of innovative policies and practices makes organisations learn and develop competitive advantage over others. The Indian organisations have upgraded their technologies so as to have a highly diverse workforce who are well trained and motivated through learning and continuous deployment of knowledge (Sharma and Khandekar, 2004). OL requires mutual support, mutual respect, and learning from one another, collaboration and effective An effective teamwork can be realised in an atmosphere permitting to the flourishing of new ideas, formulations, ways and means (Gurol, 2007) so as to solve problems. Also OL has been linked with increase in firm performance through strategic HR roles (Bhatnagar and Sharma, 2005).

Highest among the dimensions of Mechanisms is Competency building (M5) followed by Experimentation (M1) and the lowest is of Incremental planning (M3). Through competency building, the executives are sharing their ideas with other members regarding the completed experiments and on- going experiments and are encouraged to attend external programmes (Pareek, 2003). Competencies are a key for firm's success and include system of technology, human beings, organisational and cultural elements and the interaction among these elements help an organisation to grow and mutually learn (Drejer, 2000; Sushil and Kak, 1999). Moreover, not all learning leads to improved performance but it depend on what actually is being learned and how the particular dimension of performance is changing (Singer and Edmonson, 2006).

Some learnings are straightforward while others depend on experimentation for which results are not known *a priori*. In order to gain from experiments, organisations require coordination and teamwork among multiple individuals which can be used in an effective manner to gain new knowledge and insights. Also, in order to try for developing novel solutions for problems, groups/ teams in an organisation must experiment to find out what works and what does not so that one can learn how to deal with things and do better jobs. Experimentation mostly results in failures which can result in decline in performance but without these failures of experiments, learning cannot occur (Singer and Edmonson, 2006). To make organisational learning effective, resources that the organisation can use when needed must be built as they are the primary resources that are required. Also, organisations need to develop flexibility and a positive attitude towards experimentation and try out new ways to deal with issues and problems. OL is enhanced by an attitude of learning rather than an attitude of certitude. A plan can be prepared that can undergo various changes but incorporates learning can be utilised by many areas of organisation depending upon their need and usage. Employee involvement is also an important factor in making organisations learn in a particular way (Gurol, 2004).

5.4.1.2 Phases

On an average basis, Indian executives show learning in terms of Implementation (P2) followed by Innovation (P1) and the least as Stabilisation (P3). This means that they consider implementation of policies and procedures as an important criteria for learning. The detailed plans which reflect the contingency approaches are prepared and implemented which can develop the learning capabilities among the individuals. According to Umble *et al.* (2003), an organisation should consider factors like clear understanding of strategic goals, commitment by top management, excellent project management, extensive training and education and a great implementation team to carry on the process of implementation. The proper implementation of policies and other activities in the organisations have helped them to function in an organised way and thus alleviated many redundancies that were useless for the entire organisation (Rajagopal, 2002). The linking of old practices with the new ones bring various diverse functions and divisions together in an organisation which results in enhanced performance. In case of project teams, the managers implement the cooperative and confirmative approaches to manage conflicts which in turn results in better performance (Cahyono and Hartijasti, 2012).

Innovation (P1) is an essential feature of organisational learning as the change in organisation is an evidence of some degree of learning. The organisations cannot start immediately doing something different but it requires a series of learning activities so as to cope up with the changes that take place with the changing environment (Kars, 2004). The processes of learning and innovation are organisation's internal elements which result in new structures and processes after the innovative activities are implemented. An organisation may encourage innovation in order to facilitate an increased understanding and positive reception of the instrumentality of organisational learning for collective functionality and effectiveness (Hsiao and Chang, 2011; Hsiao *et al.*, 2013).

Innovation brings continuity and change which helps in coming up with new ideas and plans (Bhat *et al.*, 2011). Teams smaller in size tend to have conducive climate for innovation and healthy mental health while larger teams create poorer climate for innovation (Carter and West, 1998). The least scored dimension of Phases is Stabilisation (P3) which means that Indian executives neither feel that periodic meetings for review are held nor any follow up on experiments by the organisation is carried on. This dimension needs to be considered because until and unless there is review on experiments or plus and minus of experiments are discussed the organisations cannot move towards learning aspects. People in an organisation are engaged in learning in different ways but until they are not prompted to reflect their skills on particular types of experiences, the influence of prior learning either remains hidden or even unconscious (Eraut and Hirsh, 2007). Organisational learning culture has been found predicting learning transfer climate as it creates significant variance in organisational innovation (Bates and Khasawneh, 2005) and has an influence on success of technological innovation and implementation (Mat and Razak, 2011). Industries operating within competitive environment tend to pursue innovative ways of developing value-creating activities so as to enhance learning (Weerawardena *et al.*, 2006). Organisational learning considers the individual learning, culture, knowledge management and continuous improvement and hence the management should formulate policies to enhance organisational learning in organizations (Wang and Ahmed, 2003).

5.4.2 Correlation among OL, Phases and Mechanisms

Both Phases and Mechanisms lead towards OL. They show positive significant correlation among each other which was expected and proven too. According to Pareek (2003), both phases and mechanisms are sub-systems of OL and they are present in an organisation in

varying degrees and are interrelated with a feedback loop and both the dimensions appear in sequence i.e one after the other. This means that Indian executives learn in terms of both Phases and Mechanisms and they feel both competency building and innovation as important aspects of OL. The dimensions of OL correlated with motivational climate and organisational ethos for one company (Pareek, 2003) and with performance (Yeo, 2003), hence OLD has been found affecting almost all aspects of organisation. The learning orientation of the organisations is related to the context of making employees committed towards their work and facilitates learning of all its members so as to face the market dynamics and meet the strategic goals (Pedler *et al.*, 1991).

5.4.3 Variation in OL dimensions

5.4.3.1 Variation in Phases

Noticeable significant variation has been found in phases of OL across industry and sector. Service industries have shown higher learning in terms of Phases than Electrical, Manufacturing and PME industries. The participants from Service organisations are mostly from the private sector (60). This is in contradiction with Garvin (1993) who agreed that organisational learning takes place in a public sector by acquiring and transferring knowledge and modifying the behaviour to show new knowledge and insights (Malhotra, 2001). In public sectors the people learn collectively by coming up with new innovations and implementation which involves learning through piloting innovative services and structures. Also Manufacturing and IT-ITES organisations have shown learning in terms of Phases than PME industries. This suggests that private sectors learn in terms of innovation, implementation and stabilisation. The public sector jobs are mostly handling large projects especially PME industries where the activities are interwoven for which the firm is accountable and hence coming out with new innovations every time is a tiresome job. Hence private sector has shown more learning in phases of OL. Variation is also observed in public and private sector where learning takes place in different ways.

5.4.3.2 Variation in Mechanisms

Variation in Mechanisms is observed across industry and sector. Service organisations have shown higher learning in terms of Mechanisms as compared to Electrical, Manufacturing and PME. In Service sectors, the output is usually in small achievements with some changes in operational and executive functioning and hence these organisations tend to build on competencies and carry on experiments for a longer period of time so that the resources can be

utilised when needed. In contrast to this, private sector carries on some novel experiments and other such activities on regular basis as they have to face the dynamic nature of competition and to sustain in the market. Also Manufacturing and IT-ITES organisations have shown more learning in terms of Mechanisms. In order to sustain in the market, the manufacturing and IT-ITES organisations develop competencies for future and also depend on planning for future course of action. The firm's internal resource endowments and resource deployments help an organisation to develop its competencies. These core competencies help to exploit the market and invent new markets for managing innovations through these core competencies (Nonaka, 1994).

Moreover, Mechanisms vary across sector. Private sector tends to develop new innovations and competencies in order to sustain in the market and hence learn collectively. Public sector which involves large projects for a longer period of time also tries to learn new things in order to compete for survival. The organisations develop competencies inside as well as outside the organisation. The organisations tap the external sources of knowledge for their competence development and hence try to develop their skill competencies as well (Cohen and Levinthal, 1990).

5.4.3.3 Variation in OL

The variation in OL is similar to that of the variation in Phases as well as Mechanisms. Both dimensions vary across industry and sector. This could be possibly due to higher level of OL in terms of Mechanisms than Phases. Learning in the organisation is seen as something that needs to be looked in collective terms from the individual, team, and organisation levels. Moreover, having a foundation for understanding the nature of learning inside organisations provide grounds for understanding other aspects and dimensions that make up an organisation and how these are in constant motion with each other and have an effect on each other (Chen, 2005; DiBella *et al.*,1996).

5.5 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 4 (O4a, O4b, O4)

O4a: To study leadership style as predictor of organisational learning.

O4b: To study conflict levels as predictor of organisational learning.

O4: To study leadership style and conflict levels as predictors of organisational learning.

5.5.1 Aggregate Sample Analysis

5.5.1.1 LS as predictor of OL in aggregate sample

LS account for 10.9% significant variance in OL over and above the control variables. Only TFM has been observed as significant positive predictor of OL and LF as negative predictor of OL. TSL has no impact on OL. As per the results, TFM enhances OL while LF degrades OL. It means TFM has a direct impact on OL. This may be due to the fact that transformational leaders prefer relationship rather than control and hence innovation which is a dimension of OL is more encouraged by transformational leaders.

Transformational leaders show innovative work behaviour through idea promotion, idea generation, work commitment and the implementation of idea for the survival of organisations in the global market (Mukherjee and Ray, 2009). Also transformational leaders interact with their followers in a way that raises their motivational and integrity level by mutual understanding (Burns, 1978) and this interaction proves to be a support for innovation to carry on which otherwise terminates if discouraged by leader (Scott and Bruce, 1994). In order to enhance OL, innovation must be carried on a regular basis. Intellectual stimulation of TFM affects organisational innovation and boosts the morale of followers to work hard and achieve targets (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007). Also, a positive relationship between TFM and organisational innovation has been confirmed by many researchers (Amitay *et al.*, 2005; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Jung *et al.*, 2003; Singh, 2010). Leaders are responsible for making long-term goals for the organisations which makes them good decision makers so that they can take rational and quick decisions when need arises. This behavior of leadership is characterised by low tolerance for ambiguity and low cognitive complexity (Bougarides and Cohen, 2001). Transformational leaders have stronger positive association with followers' creativity when there is a high degree of leaders' task and relations support (Cheung and Wong, 2011). Leaders' task support includes ensuring the sufficient resources for proper and complete execution of job whereas relations' support includes the concern for socio-emotional needs of his employees.

Transformational leaders help their followers to achieve success and attain the competitive advantage by emphasising on mission and vision of organisations which are measurable, attainable and result driven. They develop their followers by choosing individuals with excellent interpersonal skills which proves to be an enhancer of OL (Nafei *et al.*, 2012). Transformational leadership is exhibited by adolescents who perceive their parents as

transformational and are more effective leaders (Zacharatos *et al.*, 2000). Organisations having transformational leaders that are engaged in OL enable the members at all levels to learn collaboratively and continuously so that the learning can be used in answering to the social needs and demands of environment for achieving competitive advantage (Kurland *et al.*, 2010).

Transformational leaders create a specific organisational culture (Chan *et al.*, 2005) which encourages conversations and these conversations in turn facilitate learning of individuals and groups within the organisation. Managing human resources is a tactical issue that requires managerial capability. Knowledge being an important organisational resource and in facilitating the acquisition of that knowledge, leadership plays a key role and it is considered as an important aspect in organisations to motivate the employees (Higgs, 2003). Thus, leaders must have the ability to realise formulated vision by managing quality elements to transform the firm into using quality managerial practices and transformational leaders have the capability to inspire, motivate and direct subordinates (Alharbi and Yusoff, 2012).

According to Atwood *et al.* (2010), leaders play a crucial role in transferring learnership which helps in facilitating learning in others. Organisational learning being a systematic process identifies the weak areas and thus promotes goal-orientation, motivation among employees and is critical during organisational change (Argyris and Schön, 1996; Lipshitz *et al.*, 2002). Transformational leaders are imperative in the development of transformational change and organisational learning (Amy, 2008; Popper and Lipshitz, 2000ab). In order to encourage transformational leadership, organisations should foster opportunities for interaction and learning in the workplace.

Also, transformational leadership has been found a significant predictor of OL in Indian manufacturing organisations (Bhat *et al.*, 2012b) as the leaders provide significant enhancement in OL. This is also in line with Reese (2006) who in a study on 52 leaders of a transportation company found LS as significant predictor of OL. Thus, it confirms that TFM has significant prediction towards OL. Also, leaders develop an open and trusting environment where their followers can easily interact with each other (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1996; Pillai *et al.*, 2009). Leaders encourage individual learning by engaging their followers cognitively and emotionally (Amy, 2008) and thus empower critical thinking and autonomy among their followers. Transformational leaders also called as superleaders (Manz and Sims, 1991) make use of *visioning* as a key element in producing exceptional results while *intellectual stimulation*

and *team-building* approach helps them to achieve the desired performance and organisational outcomes (Boehnke *et al.*, 2003; Leithwood *et al.*, 1996; Mannheim and Halamish, 2008).

Laissez faire leadership has negative impact on OL. According to Skogstad *et al.* (2007), LF is positively associated with role conflict, role ambiguity and conflict with co-workers. This means LF plays a negative role in developing collaboration or lessening conflicts. Leaders who rely on laissez faire style try to avoid decision making and responsibilities which are related to their position (Bass, 1990). Also, laissez faire leadership style has been found having negative consequences in a learning study of the teacher-student relationship in classroom settings (Lewin *et al.*, 1939). LF leadership is associated with low quality and quantity of work (Skogstad *et al.*, 2007). Laissez faire leaders do not follow the legitimate interests of organisation and undermine the motivational well-being and job satisfaction of subordinates.

5.5.1.2 CL as predictor of OL in aggregate sample

CL accounts for 5.3% significant variance in OL over and above control variables. Only Group Conflict has been found a significant negative predictor of OL while other two conflict levels (OC and IC) have no significant effect on OL. This is somehow in line with Jehn and Bendersky (2003) who proposed that conflict in certain situations should be encouraged and constructively managed while in others they should be discouraged or resolved as soon as possible. It becomes the duty of a group leader to distinguish among the types and levels of conflict and then decide upon the strategy to be used. In order to improve the group performance, minimal training on the types of conflicts and optimal use of conflict for the outcome of better results is effective. Group conflict can improve groups' productivity and creativity under certain circumstances while it can also damage the group members' satisfaction and their ability to reach to a constructive decision. Leadership style and followers' orientation goes hand in hand as they are considered for enhancing group performance and individual conditions too (Jung and Avolio, 1999). In order to better understand the role of group conflict in achieving positive outcomes, it is important to examine the conflict over time at different periods in a groups' life (Jehn, 1997b; Jehn and Mannix, 2001).

According to Tompkins and Rogers (2004), conflict acts as a catalyst to propel teams towards organisational learning with is in contradiction with our results. Conflict proves to be beneficial in improving organisational learning when there is cohesion among the group and a

collaborative climate is provided to the group members. Also, disagreements among the group members sometimes result in improved performance (Kabanoff, 1985). When the members of a group learn from past mistakes and consider them as a natural cost of experimentation, then only they accept their responsibilities rather than pointing fingers on others. This helps them to build strong groups/ teams where learning becomes an important factor.

Group Conflict being associated with negative outcomes like learning and emotions, it is believed that in order to create an environment of positivity, it is important to separate the effects of conflict types and levels with the emotions. But as the nature of human beings varies from individual to individual and the time they spent at work and the challenges & frustrations they face in their daily work can cause conflicts situations. These situations have to be dealt with positive frame of mind and engaging in after- hour discussions and social events which are totally separated from the workplace (Jehn and Bendersky, 2003).

According to Rahim (2002), managing conflict in contemporary organisations is to enhance organisational learning. The OL can be enhanced by taking into account the knowledge acquisition, knowledge distribution, information interpretation and organisational memorization. In order to obtain higher levels of OL, group members should learn from each other and manage conflicts properly. Strategies like bargaining, mediation and arbitration should be used to deal with conflicts. Moderate levels of conflict are necessary for increasing organisational effectiveness. The conflict levels have to be identified first followed by proper intervention using leadership qualities, organisational culture and organisational design. Then the amount of conflict has to be identified and finally learning and effectiveness can take place once the conflicts are resolved properly. In order to manage conflicts constructively, integration style should be adopted as extroversion, conscientiousness, openness and agreeableness relate positively with the style and hence proves beneficial for the organisations (Antonioni, 1998).

5.5.1.3 LS and CL as predictors of OL in aggregate sample

When the constituents of both LS and CL are entered simultaneously as predictors in the regression analysis, the results reveal that coefficients have improved and the Transformational leadership positively predicts/impacts OL, Laissez faire negatively predicts/impacts OL and Group Conflict negatively predicts/impacts OL. Rest other style (TSL) and levels (OC and IC) have no significant contribution towards OL.

Among LS, the TFM has shown positive prediction towards OL. This is in line with Castiglione (2006) who ascertained that library administrators adopt the elements of transformational leadership to inspire, motivate and empower their staff members to express themselves and look for new opportunities and directions for themselves as well as their stakeholders. Also, the findings of Vera and Crossan (2004) suggested that transformational leadership works best when an organisation wants to learn and expand to cope up with rapid changes. Such style of leadership helps organisations to grow and learn and leads to increased OL. Further, LS has negative prediction towards OL through Laissez faire style. Though the negative effect of laissez faire style is less than the positive effect of transformational leadership, yet the negative effect has not to be overlooked. So in order to enhance more and more learning in the organisations, the laissez faire leaders have to be taken care of and proper training and suggestions have to be given to them for obtaining better results.

CL is another predictor of OL through Group Conflict but negatively related. It means GC reduces OL. Organisations should take proper care in dealing with conflicts at group level. The members should be given proper guidelines and training to carry on the activities related to their task. They should be made aware about the negative effects of conflicts at any stage which can prove ineffective for the whole group. The group members should be involved in some social activities and open discussions beyond their daily job schedule. OC and IC do not contribute towards OL. Looking at the model, it is clear that laissez faire style is the factor which is lessening the OL while GC when managed constructively can be beneficial to the organisational growth and success. This is justifiable on the part that as Group conflict decreases, OL increases which leads to the conclusion that group conflicts should be as low as possible in the organisations so that OL shows an increasing trend. The variance explained by LS and CL in OL is 25.6% (Adjusted R^2 is 22.5%). It means 25.6% part of OL is explained by these two predictor variables.

5.5.2 Prediction of OL constituents by LS and CL

5.5.2.1 LS as predictor of OL constituents (O4a)

Transformational leadership positively affects Innovation (P1), Phases and Competency building (M5) and Mechanisms of OL. It means that some factors of OL are increased with transformational leadership. The leader can encourage the followers' partaking of creative behaviours (Amabile, 1998; Jung, 2001). This means that employees can produce more creative work when they have good relations with their supervisors. The transformational leadership

theory suggests that transformational leaders challenge the thoughts, imagination and creativity of followers through intellectual stimulation (which is a factor of transformational leadership) and find out their values and beliefs and the way they think (Conger, 1999). This helps them to encourage their followers to re-examine their past experience and behaviour and try to come up with novel ideas of problem solving (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Also TFM act as coaches and friends to inspire their followers to undertake more responsibility and to act as leaders themselves (Bass, 1985). In certain situations it is difficult to decide which behavior is relevant and meaningful in carrying out business smoothly (Yukl *et al.*, 2002). All these efforts of transformational leaders are helpful for enhancing their followers intrinsic motivation, take up more challenging tasks and responsibilities and boost their morale to perform in a creative way. Studies have validated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and the subordinates' creativity (Krause, 2004; Lee, 2008; Sosik *et al.*, 1997; Shin and Zhu, 2003). Transformational leadership has a positive influence on team innovation. Organisations facilitate team creativity and innovation by stimulating both support for innovation and climate for excellence. Transformational leaders promote innovation in teams through selection and leadership development programmes (Eisenbeiss *et al.*, 2008).

LS has a positive impact on Phases which includes innovation, implementation and stabilisation. It symbolises that the phases get enriched through transformational leaders. For proper implementation, the organisations should have key people like leaders who can create a clear and compelling vision of how an organisation should work smoothly to satisfy its customers (Umble *et al.*, 2003). Also successful implementation of policies and practices in the organisations require leadership, commitment from people and participation from top management. Moreover, transformational leaders also help to develop competencies among the followers. The organisations which have a focus on continuous development of their employees' competencies provide them the opportunity to face their competitors. Employees develop competencies to develop an effective performance in their jobs. It can be said that transformational leaders contribute positively towards phases as well as mechanisms of OL through inspiring their followers, helping them to be accountable for their jobs and responsibilities and helping them to come up with excellent results and performances. It thus makes clear that transformational leaders lead towards high level of commitment (Bass, 1985) and generate positive emotions and acts a major factor influencing organisational learning at school (Leithwood *et al.*, 1998). Transformational leadership style enhances employees' work engagement through mediation of self efficacy and optimism (Tims *et al.*, 2011).

Transformational leaders provide verbal persuasion and psychological arousal to develop employees' self-efficacy (Bass, 1990). With increased self-efficacy the employees are motivated to solve work related problems, develop novel ideas and reformulate work solutions for better performance (Cheung and Wng, 2011).

Laissez faire leadership negatively predicts innovation, phases, experimentation, competency building and mechanisms. Laissez faire is common but unrealistic and immature way to encounter rapidly growing quality, innovation and effectiveness demands. These leaders escape from their responsibilities and are inclined to delegate their responsibility to others (Frischer and Larsson, 2000). These leaders get themselves involved in paperwork and avoid those situations that lead to the possibility of confrontation. Because of laissez faire leaders the work is suffered and there are more frustrations, disorganisation, disencouragement and aggression which cannot develop the habit of coming up with new ideas or competency development. In a study conducted by Lewin *et al.* (1939) who supported that laissez faire leadership is found to be least satisfying and affects the subordinates' performance. Laissez faire leader is inactive and does nothing unless asked by his colleagues and even then may procrastinate to respond. The subordinates under laissez faire leadership do not feel free to carry on their work but mostly remain uncertain about their own responsibilities and duties and hence are not involved in innovation or any such development of organisation.

5.5.2.2. CL as predictor of OL constituents (O4b)

Group Conflict (GC) is seen as a significant negative predictor of OL constituents like Innovation (P1), Phases and Competency building (M5) and Mechanisms. GC also has a negative impact on other constituents of OL (Implementation: P2; Experimentation: M1; Mutuality & teamwork: M2; Incremental planning: M3 and Temporary systems: M4) as well but they are not significant. It means as group conflict among the group members increases, the organisational learning in terms of innovations and competency building decreases and organisations cannot grow and learn until these two important dimensions are enhanced. With the change in organisational set up from traditional hierarchical and centralised organisations to more flatter and decentralised forms, the groups are being created for identifying good quality of solutions for solving organisational problems (Jehn *et al.*, 1999). But these groups have their own problems of coordination, inequality, motivation and conflict management (Jehn, 1995; Wall and Nolan, 1986). When the group members are not satisfied with each others' work and there is poor communication and excessive conflicts then members are not interested in

learning and giving best outputs. Group conflict is related to decrease in individual satisfaction and group productivity (Jehn and Bendersky, 2003) and also affects goodwill and mutual understanding. Conflicts at any level hinders innovation when not properly diagnosed and managed but work teams have shown innovativeness when the level of conflict was moderate instead of low or high (De Dreu, 2006). Though moderate levels of conflict help in promoting team innovation yet it reduces short- term goal attainment in teams. Hence, it is important to take corrective measures to reduce the conflict and promote the innovation. Jehn's scale for measuring intragroup conflict has been refined to assess the conflicts in a more logical and understandable way (Pearson *et al.*, 2002) and it was found that the scale has got potential to measure the intragroup conflicts with its six item scale as more reliable to capture the relationship and task conflicting situations.

Group conflict can be used to reinforce the power distribution in an organisation by considering conflicts as threats to group cohesion. This conflict can reduce the mutuality and cohesiveness in a group and the individuals may have little choice to accept or reject to the superiors' preferences which can develop a means of control over subordinates and this hinders creativity and risk- taking which proves ineffective for organisations. But this is in contrast with Coser (1957) who suggested that conflicts serve to establish the identity of a group and maintains the balance of power with increase in group cohesion. In case of GC, miscommunication which is a reason for conflict to escalate. Cho *et al.*, (2008) in their study reported that the rational people usually prefer FTF (face-to-face) communication to others so that the interaction takes place through proper channel. By communicating regularly and passing the reliable and useful information can lessen the chances of conflict to occur and can bring new ideas to resolve the work related problems.

Also, conflicts can enhance creativity by motivating people to solve problem that might otherwise go unattended and result in some loss to the organisation. It has been found that groups with conflicting goals are engaged in more effective organisational search and arrived at an optimal decision which proved beneficial to the organisation and increase in team performance by exchanging ideas was also observed (Jehn, 1994). Group conflict has also shown an improvement in group learning and accuracy in situation assessment (Fiol, 1994). Conflicts can stimulate the members of a group to upgrade their knowledge and skills and contribute towards organisational innovation and productivity (Henry, 2008) but our results are contradictory to these statements. Conflict strategies can be developed taking into account the

personality traits which can diagnose the personality and the corresponding strategy of conflict resolution (Moberg, 1998).

5.5.2.3 LS and CL as predictors of OL constituents

In addition to independent effects of LS and CL on OL, the LS and CL together also account for significant variance in some constituent of OL. Here, the prediction is as earlier as in independent effect of LS (positive relation of TFM with innovation, phases, competency building and mechanisms while negative relation of LF and GC with innovation, phases, competency building and mechanisms). But some changes have been noticed. The positive effect of TFM on innovation, phases, competency building and mechanisms have reduced while there is also a change in LF on the same constituents of OL. It attributes that conflicts levels have reduced the values. Transformational leadership has a positive influence on organisational innovation through its influence on followers perception of support for innovation (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009). Also transformational leaders develop commitment among the employees of organisation which is not possible when there is conflict among them. So in order to get maximum support from transformational leaders, the conflicting situations should be avoided and morale of employees should be enhanced to get their jobs done. Also the group conflict has shown the negative impact on OL constituents which means that until and unless the conflict in groups are managed properly or resolved constructively, the organisations cannot perform well. Learning capabilities were enhanced when executives and graduate students were asked to evaluate the extent of acceptance and enhanced capability by using balance sheet visualization (Tanlamai and Soongwang, 2011).

According to Cosier and Rose (1977), improvement in decision making strategies can help minimisation of conflicts and improving performance in organisations. It has been found that poor health and well-being can trigger conflict in the workplace and can reduce the chances of managing conflicts constructively which can have negative long-term consequences leading to feelings of burnouts (De Dreu *et al.*, 2004). Conflicts in organizations should be measured and corresponding strategies should be developed (Van de Vliert and Kabanoff, 1990). Also, decisions which are taken fast in high velocity environments prove to be much more superior and conflict resolution and integration among strategic decisions are also critical in decision making (Eisenhardt, 1989). In order to carry on smooth functioning in the organisations and retain the talent, organisations should focus on learning capabilities and look for strategies

which can help in managing conflicts through proper implementation of Human Resource Information Systems which leaves the HR managers for more long term strategic thinking and action (Bhatnagar, 2007).

5.5.3 Qualitative support

During the period of October 2010 to December 2011, few training programs on organisational learning were conducted in various Industrial organisations in Bhagwanpur Industrial Area of Roorkee in the state of Uttarakhand, India. The responses on the study variables were taken from the participating executives during the training sessions. Based on the responses, the data were analysed to make interpretations about the leadership styles, conflict levels and organisational learning of executives in various organisations. Subsequently, on the basis of data analysis, the reports for improvement were prepared and furnished to the organisational unit heads.

One organisational-unit head showed keen interest in undertaking the study for the entire unit and therefore a project was undertaken from June 2011 to October 2011 in the ABC Ltd. (converted name), a manufacturing firm. All on-roll executives in that unit were surveyed. In the data analysis, few key observations were: Organisations were having transactional leadership more preferred than transformational style, avoidant style was also adopted by some executives, lack of cohesiveness, lack of collaboration and they were also not interested in carrying out innovations and creativity in the organisations. The phases, mechanisms and organisational learning were found to be lower in the unit.

The average levels of compositional attributes were observed to impact the learning capabilities of individuals. Hence, recommendations were made to enhance learning capabilities, innovation, competency building and the benefits of transformational leadership to enhance organisational learning.

It was also suggested to lessen the group conflicts and laissez faire styles. A system of daily reporting was introduced wherein daily morning meetings were held. The agenda for each day was rationally decided and learning approaches was emphasised. Employees were held accountable for their work and they were given adequate resource allocation and proper guidelines for carrying out the activities. Follow ups were pursued in the evening to track the delays and take corrective actions. The tasks were made challenging and interesting with the

introduction of the element of recognition and other benefits of working smoothly in the organisations. Also, the weekly change of leadership was introduced so that employees could understand the use of transformational leadership over transactional and laissez faire. This markedly helped in identifying the leadership styles of executives and their learning in organisations. A change in work culture was also brought through the consent for informal and healthy chats. Rather than secretly gossiping, the employees now began to discuss their ideas and problems. This socialisation helped in enhancing their identification and reducing the conflicts. The efforts could raise a sense of belongingness in the employees. The employees were now driven by the use of transformational leaders in motivation and better performance with all their hard work and efforts. They no longer avoided their tasks. They were no more insecure about losing prestige or about the uncertainty of future. They began to affiliate with their group and it in turn gave rise to cohesiveness, discussions, collaboration, cooperation, etc.

Regular meetings were held to discuss the progress and improvements in the unit. It was interesting to see that organisational learning capabilities were remarkably improved as measured through the perception of the Unit Head. In an interview, the Unit head said that now the executives actually had started to realize their accomplishments as a team work. There was higher cohesion, increased collaboration, much fruitful problem solving discussions (confrontation), use of innovation and creativity in enhancing learning capabilities. It is important to compete in the markets so that one can come up with new innovations and creativity to succeed (Stalk and Hout, 1990). The improvements in phases and mechanisms were due to the enhancement of appropriate leadership style and diagnosing proper conflict levels, as well as due to controlling the detrimental styles of the executives. Subsequently, other surveyed organisations also reported

to have benefited from the survey results based on the training sessions. However, those firms at their own took appropriate measures to work upon the reported weak areas.

Summary: The significant coefficients of regression (beta coefficients) reflect the predictive association and affirm the importance of LS and CL for OL. The significance of R^2 , Adjusted R^2 and F Statistics provide considerable support to the LS and CL together and independently as predictors of OL. It emphasises the importance of members' styles and motives for TE. The Multicollinearity diagnostic VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) affirms that the independent (predictor) variables are not identical. The prediction of OL through LS and CL (together) has few interesting distinctions as compared to the prediction of OL through only LS and only CL.

The case of ABC Ltd. and benefit experiences of other firms (in the same industrial area) provides qualitative support to the framework of this research and point that OL research may focus new personality based variables to reveal novel facts. Based on the training program survey data as well as on other online responses, a number of the research papers related to OL, LS and CL were written and published (Bhat *et al.*, 2011, Bhat *et al.*, 2012abc). The publications also added towards the accomplishment of the objectives of this study and therefore were included in the discussion.

5.6 ACCOMPLISHMENT OF OBJECTIVE 5

O5: To open new vistas of research

This objective is concerned with opening areas for future research through the current research. The study has diagnosed the prevailing leadership styles and conflict levels of Indian executives. So far, relating to the personality characteristics of the respondents, the question of “What” has been answered. New vistas of research have certainly been opened in promising ways with the obtained deeper and important facts about organisational learning, leadership styles and conflict levels of Indian executives. Specifically, the areas for future research will be highlighted in the last chapter after the discussion of the implications and limitations of the research. Hence, this particular objective will be completely accomplished ahead.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has highlighted the accomplishment of all objectives one by one. The variation among the styles, levels and learning capabilities along with the correlation among the variables and its factors have been discussed. Transformational leadership style has been found as a significant predictor of OL and its constituents like Innovation and competency building while Laissez faire style as well as Group Conflict has been found significant negative predictors of OL. Also, the prediction of OL by LS and CL has been discussed. Lastly the qualitative support related to the research has been added along with the accomplishment of objective 5.

**CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND SCOPE FOR
FUTURE RESEARCH**

This chapter will highlight the conclusions and implications of the study based on the literature, results & findings and discussion so far. Also, the chapter elaborates the limitations of the study and it highlights the accomplishment of objective 5 along with scope for future research.

6.1 CONCLUSION

The present study proposed to examine the least explored antecedents (Leadership style and Conflict levels) of Organisational Learning in Indian context. The study began with the theoretical foundations and related constructs of the independent as well as dependent variables. Also, the theoretical linkages among the variables and the criterion variable were established. In order to meet the rapid changes in technology and business environment, learning is seen as a continuous work- based activity for meeting the demands of customers and increasing competition, which is possible only when employees learn so as to enable the organisation to sustain its competitiveness (Senge, 1990a; Senge, 2000; Stata, 1989). In this study, working executives are a part of this research. The executives were asked to respond to the dimension of organisational learning which they feel is highly valued/ frequently done in their organisations. The findings indicate that Indian executives endorse Transformational Leadership style followed by transactional depending on the situation and both the styles complement each other as transformational LS proves to be ineffective in the nonexistence of transactional style. Transactional leadership was found significantly related to leader effectiveness when charisma added unique variance (Waldman *et al.*, 1990) and also physician's transformational leadership style also relates positively to effectiveness in improving health care quality and cost control (Xirasagar *et al.*, 2005). Also, Laissez faire being the last choice of executives is also observed. The correlation among the three styles of leadership affirms that they are mutually exclusive. In Conflict Levels, Indian executives face Organisational Conflict (OC) more frequently than Group Conflict (GC) and Individual Conflict (IC). Indians view conflict as detrimental for personal and organisational well being since tolerance, restraint, patience are embedded in Indian culture (Lather *et al.*, 2010). Conflict being a pervasive phenomenon in organisations, effective management (dealing with conflict constructively) is clearly needed. Executives should have a clear understanding of the sources of conflict in organisational settings (Nelson and Quick, 2000) and the conflicts between groups should be taken proper care so that the groups perform well (Vodosek, 2007). The main reasons which attribute towards conflict in organisational set ups is unfair practices, structural incompatibilities, lack of recognition and ineffective communication (Dhar and Dhar, 2003). In

order to manage conflicts constructively, they are suggested to find the ways and means to work and amend the practices which are not helping in building good relations. The meritorious people should be recognised and rewarded either monetarily or non-monetarily. The organisations should have the provision of a communication environment in which relevant and adequate information is available and the communication flow is such that there is an exchange of ideas and information. As per Moemeka (1998) coorientation (first understand the content and context of message and then react) can help organisations to reduce/ minimise conflicts which arise due to misunderstandings and increase the performance thereafter. Increasing uncertainty and complexity in the working environment of organisations provide prolific ground for the onset of conflicts. Group Conflict (GC) which arises due to incompatibility of goals, improper resource allocation or differences in opinion between or among two groups is considered detrimental if not managed properly (Hinds and Bailey, 2003) and can lead to team/group ineffectiveness, reduced job satisfaction, lowered identification within the team/ group and ill-health. Conflict has been found affecting negatively as well as positively. Conflict brings problems while it can sometimes encourage the consideration of new ideas and approaches (Baron, 1991). It can enhance the quality of decisions and can increase decision makers' motivation to understand each others' ideas while an open discussion on the unsolved issues can positively relate to organisational commitment. In order to solve these types of conflicts, collaboration and understanding is much more effective than avoiding the conflict (De Dreu and Beersma, 2005; Gross and Guerrero, 2000). In order to minimise conflicts, organisations should build those skills that can turn conflicts into opportunities and the ways to develop conflict resolution strategies which can regulate stress and emotions. Also Individual Conflict which arises due to personal differences should not be overlooked, but proper strategy should be framed so that the conflict doesn't escalate.

In case of OL, Mechanisms have dominated the Phases as reported by the respondents. In case of Mechanisms, the highest scored sub- dimension is Competency building (M5) followed by Experimentation (M1) and the least scored is Incremental planning (M3). Only competency building and experimentation will not make executives learn in organizations, but Mutuality & teamwork are also very important to grow and learn. The team concept is an omnipresent tool in the management literature and all processes of human behaviour embrace the core principles of team based work (Delarue *et al.*, 2003). When people work in teams, they have increased autonomy and job control, which helps them to make greater use of their skills and problem-solving capabilities which fosters innovation and creativity (Prather, 2010). Also, an autonomy

which is considered as an essential element of teamwork has been found positively related to productivity (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). Leadership enables the building of teams as the leaders provide them with direction, motivation, energy and increased cohesion (Tushman and Nadler, 1986). These workgroups/ teams create a culture of collaboration and team spirit and help the organisations to achieve their targets (Pearson, 1992). The innovation part of Phases also needs to be taken care of as it is an important factor for growth and competitive advantage of organisations (Woodman *et al.*, 1993). Innovation help to develop creativity among individuals and innovation & learning are coincident. Management should develop those strategies which can explore the qualities and potentials of individuals to perform better in organisations.

Researchers have studied the role of leadership in organisational learning but the types of leadership style and conflict levels together have not been sought in any of the previous research. Earlier, researchers like Amitay *et al.* (2005), Berson *et al.* (2006), Singh (2010) etc. have examined the role of leadership in organisational learning in various settings but the present study is a novel contribution towards the choice of unique predictor variables to predict OL. Based on the analysis and results of the response collected from the respondents, the study provides empirical evidence that LS and CL together as well as independently predict OL and explain significant variance in OL too. Transformational LS positively predicts OL while Laissez faire style and Group Conflict negatively predicts OL. A major part of OL still remains unexplained as these two predictor variables (LS and CL) are not the only variables contributing towards OL but many other factors affect OL. This way the current study extends the work on the concepts of Leadership Styles, Conflict Levels and OL. It also provides significant implications for different researchers and others who are working in the same field and suggests scope for future work.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS

The study bears following implications:

1. The study utilises reliable and valid instruments for measuring leadership style, conflict levels and organisational learning of executives of Indian organisations. These instruments which strengthen the plausibility of concepts and are a source to gather the perceptions of executives working in contemporary environment can be used by academicians and practitioners for evaluating the respective variables.
2. This study exhibits that transformational leadership positively predicts organisational learning more than other styles. Management should develop more transformational leaders

who can face the dynamic challenges of job as well as environment by motivating and boosting morale among their followers.

3. Attention should be paid towards laissez faire leaders and the ways should be developed to reduce the avoidance nature of executives.

4. The identification of leadership style and qualities are important to understand so that right person is placed at right job. New entrants should be provided with proper training and guidelines regarding the type of job they have to handle and the qualities of leaders they have to learn.

5. The importance of leadership style and motivational profiles should be taught to developing managers so that they can succeed in their professional lives. Those having the qualities related to accept change and adapt to new environment easily are suited for soft skill jobs while those who can get the job done from others by way of rewards or punishments are suitable for hard core jobs like sales etc.

6. Conflicts are not always detrimental to organisations but can ignite minds to come up with better solutions. In order to understand and manage conflicts constructively, proper diagnosis is required.

7. IT-ITES executives are advised not to indulge in individual/ personal conflicts as that would hamper their growth and development. They should find out the ways and means to overcome personal conflicts.

8. Manufacturing executives are suggested to follow transformational as well as transactional styles both (depending upon the severity of situation) so as to enhance their learning capabilities and organisational innovation.

9. Private sector executives should also follow transformational leadership style so as to enhance their competencies and teamwork.

10. Private sector should encourage innovation for their growth and long term survival.

11. Public sector executives should work upon teamwork building, planning and competency development.

12. In order to enhance learning and minimise conflicts, the executives must adopt transformational style and should not avoid their decisions when required.

13. Organisational policies should be developed taking into consideration the merit, worth and skills of individuals so that no one feels dejected or ignored.

14. Communication should be effective so that there is proper and adequate flow of information which otherwise leads to conflicting situations.

15. Senior level executives should skip avoidant approach of leadership style so as to attain better learning.

16. Teamwork should be encouraged and merit should be recognised which otherwise can lead to team/ group conflicts.

6.3 LIMITATIONS

Following are the limitations of the study:

1. Common method variance cannot be ruled out with a cross sectional design where data is gathered one time. However, the implication has been drawn in line with theory and concepts.

2. Only specific styles of leadership i.e Bass and Avolio, (1995) were measured in this study whereas literature suggests other styles (directing, participating) were not considered here. Moreover, only three levels of conflict as suggested by Dhar and Dhar, (2003) were incorporated in the study. Furthermore, OL framework as suggested by Pareek (2003) where phases and mechanisms were considered for the study.

3. As data is collected using standardised instruments through survey, hence the respondents' personal biases might have manipulated their responses. For collection of data for leadership style, only self rater form (where respondents had to consider themselves as leaders) was used. Perception of followers about their leaders could have added more clarity to the study.

6.4 SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The implications drawn so far are suffering from some limitations. Hence, there is scope for future work as other vistas of research are open. The future work prospects are:

1. Present study is carried on instruments developed by Bass and Avolio (1995), Dhar and Dhar (2003) and Pareek (2003) for measuring leadership styles, conflict levels and

organisational learning respectively. It is suggested to use other instruments to examine and compare the organisational learning diagnostics in Indian organisations.

2. Future research can use this study in different work settings and contexts to find out novel and unforeseen facts. Cross cultural and cross national studies are also possible.
3. The study and its post transition effects can be conducted by organisations to find out and measure the improvements after paying attention to leadership styles and conflict levels.
4. Longitudinal design studies can be conducted to gain insights about the stability and over time relationships among the variables.
5. Different rating sources may be used for measuring the learning concepts clearly and its influencing factors.
6. The differences and variations in LS, CL and OL across other demographic attributes can be carried further like age, tenure in present organisation etc.
7. Moderator and mediator role of conflict levels among leadership style and organisational learning can be examined in future research.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided insights into the conclusion and implications of the study. Afterwards, the implications of the study and the findings were presented. The findings are creating awareness about the LS, CL and OL of Indian executives. The present study is not free from limitations like other researches. The next section pointed out the scope for future research and based on the inferences drawn for implications some recommendations were also suggested to organisations. The study variables can be researched from different perspectives which can also explore some unexplored areas. The executives are advised to look into their weak areas and try to develop them. The styles which are important for the job profiles need to be explored and learnt. The implications can be used by consultants, practitioners, professionals and academicians.

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APPENDIX-I: SURVEY SCALES

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY ROORKEE DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

Dear participants,

Performance of any organisation largely depends on the knowledge, skills, and abilities of its human resource and its effective utilisation. Development of the employees is a significant function of an organisation in present context. Thus in this study we intend to explore the impact of Leadership Style and Conflict Levels on Organisational Learning.

In this direction the attached questionnaire is a tool to help us understand your perceptions on the above said factors as you have work experience in the organisation. The main objective is to identify your personality and leadership style and to know your perception about the learning pattern in your organisation. Your response will add value to our research as well as to the literature. We therefore request you to respond to the survey. Your response will enhance the reliability of the findings of this research. In return for your participation, we undertake to respect strictly your anonymity by using your responses only as statistical data for the research. Completed questionnaire may be sent through email at following email ids:

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Thank you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely

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Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

(Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B. J. 1995)

Name:

Organisation:

Age:

E-mail id:

Total Length of Service:

Qualification:

Designation:

Gender:

Annual Income:

Please read carefully the following statements ensuring the characteristics you find in your goodself. Use alternative keys to provide your answer.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

S.No.	Statement	0	1	2	3	4
1	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
3	I fail to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise	0	1	2	3	4
6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
7	I am absent when needed.	0	1	2	3	4
8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
9	I talk optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4
10	I instill pride in others for being associated with me	0	1	2	3	4
11	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
12	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
13	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
14	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
15	I spend time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4
16	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
17	I show that I am a firm believer in "If it doesn't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4

18	I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4
19	I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
20	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action	0	1	2	3	4
21	I act in ways that build others respect for me	0	1	2	3	4
22	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
24	I keep track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
25	I display a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
26	I articulate a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
27	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
28	I avoid making decisions	0	1	2	3	4
29	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
30	I get others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
31	I help others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3	4
32	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
33	I delay responding to urgent questions	0	1	2	3	4
34	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
37	I feel satisfied on providing requirements of work to others.	0	1	2	3	4
38	I like to play the role of leader so that other feel satisfied.	0	1	2	3	4
39	I work more than others as per their expectations.	0	1	2	3	4
40	I very well represent my Senior Officials instead of others in an effective manner.	0	1	2	3	4
41	I am satisfactorily working with others.	0	1	2	3	4
42	I like to emphasize others on their success.	0	1	2	3	4
43	I do fulfill the organizational requirements in an effective manner.	0	1	2	3	4
44	I do motivate others.	0	1	2	3	4
45	I want my group to be effective.	0	1	2	3	4

Organisational Conflict Scale (OCS)

(Dhar, U. and Dhar, S. 2003)

Instructions: Think of your organisation and tick(_/) mark one of the responses given against each of the following statements. The objective of this scale is to know your perceptions about your organisation. There are no right or wrong answers.

S.No.	Statements	Almost Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
1.	In view of Contradictions, opportunities to use initiative are lost by the organisation.	1	2	3	4
2.	Promotion policy has always been a reason for disagreement amongst the employees of our organisation.	1	2	3	4
3.	Job descriptions have often been found overlapping, hence disappointing the people performing various roles.	1	2	3	4
4.	Salary fixation is not necessarily in line with professional attributes of an employee.	1	2	3	4
5.	Superiors are not necessarily more capable, effective and efficient in comparison to their subordinates.	1	2	3	4
6.	Compensation paid is not proportionate to the efforts made by an employee.	1	2	3	4
7.	Rigid systems make people uncomfortable.	1	2	3	4
8.	Performance appraisal system is seen by many as a deliberate effort to offset their career advancement.	1	2	3	4
9.	It is difficult to predict the psychological distance between the superiors and their subordinates in this organisation.	1	2	3	4

S.No.	Statements	Almost Never	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
10.	Open and effective communication between people working in this organisation cannot be generalised.	1	2	3	4
11.	Merit and worth of subordinates is not recognised by their superiors.	1	2	3	4
12.	Employee development is generally hampered.	1	2	3	4
13.	Intelligent and meritorious people are seen as a threat.	1	2	3	4
14.	Dilemma is a common feature in this organisation.	1	2	3	4
15.	Task assignment is not based on the interest of people.	1	2	3	4
16.	One is always exposed to the risk of penalty even if the task clarity is lacking.	1	2	3	4
17.	Innovations are opposed.	1	2	3	4
18.	Directions received from various authorities tend to be incongruent.	1	2	3	4
19.	People are forced to undertake unrelated tasks to prevent them in furthering their interests.	1	2	3	4
20.	Some people purposely tend to block the opportunities for others.	1	2	3	4

Organisational Learning Diagnostics (OLD)

(Pareek, U. 2003)

Name:	Age:	Role:
Organisation:	Department:	Date:
Gender:	Annual Income:	Total
Experience:		

Rate each of the 23 statements by writing the appropriate number in the blank space on the left to the statement. Use the following guidelines.

Write 4 if the practice is very highly valued and/or is always or very frequently done in your organization.

Write 3 if the practice is highly valued and/ or is frequently done in your organization.

Write 2 if the practice is valued and/ or is sometimes done in your organization.

Write 1 if the practice has low value and/ or occasionally done in your organization.

Write 0 if the practice has very low or no value and/ or is seldom or never done in your organization.

1. Experts and experienced creative practitioners are invited to share their ideas with members of the organization.
2. Employees are encouraged to attend external programmes.
3. Experiences and concerns of the organization are shared with other organizations.
4. Employees are encouraged to experiment.
5. Innovations are rewarded.
6. Periodic meetings are held for sharing result of experiments.
7. Periodic meetings are held for sharing on-going experiments.
8. Employee seminars on new developments are organized.
9. Task groups are created for implementing and monitoring new projects and experiments.
10. Detailed plans reflecting contingency approaches are prepared.
11. Task groups are created to examine common elements between old practices and innovations.
12. Newly proposed practices are linked with known practices.
13. Records of experiences are maintained.
14. Periodic meetings, chaired by top or senior management, are held to review innovations.

15. Relevant existing skills are utilized in implementing change.
16. Task groups are created to follow up on experiments.
17. Periodic meetings are held to review and share experiences.
18. Task groups are created to evaluate and report on plus –and- minus aspects of innovations.
19. Task groups are created to take review on follow up on experiments.
20. Widespread debates are held on experiences of implementation.
21. Realistic appraisals are made of the support needed for continued use of innovations.
22. Implementation plans are modified when experience indicates that modification is needed.
23. Various groups are encouraged to prepare alternative forms of implementation.