

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE
CULTURAL DIMENSIONS IN FOREIGN
AND DOMESTIC MULTINATIONAL
CORPORATIONS (MNCs)**

**A Thesis submitted to Gujarat Technological University
for the Award of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

**In
Management**

**By
SAVITHA K
119997392029**

**Under supervision of
DR. SATENDRA KUMAR**



**GUJARAT TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY
AHMEDABAD**

July 2017

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to study the cultural differences between the foreign (USA) and domestic (INDIA) MNCs, the leadership behaviour style and job commitment of the employees, based in Chennai, India.

Despite the large number of studies that have examined the antecedents of Organizational culture, the investigation of the influence of leadership style and organizational commitment on organisational culture is noticeably absent. The aim of this thesis is to examine the effects of leadership style and organisational commitment on organisational culture. Other measures included in the study are demographic variables such as age, sex, gender, education, years in position and years of experience.

The respondents used in this study are working in the Indian and Foreign MNCs (IT & ITeS companies) in and around Chennai, India. Employees are of any designation and any department from the aforesaid sector. A questionnaire survey was used. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed as hard copies and LinkedIn, from which 235 completed questionnaires were returned.

Recently, multivariate studies have examined the causal relationships between a variety of different variables and cultural dimensions, and a number of these have concluded that the effects of these variables on cultural dimensions were mainly mediated by leadership behavior styles and job commitment.

Correlation and regression analyses were used to investigate the relationships between cultural dimensions, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment and the other demographic variables were measured in the study.

A causal model of culture was developed using a multiple regression analysis in which the role of leadership style and organisational commitment in mediating the causal link between the other variables was explored.

It was found that cultural dimensions had a greater impact on commitment than on leadership behaviour style.

Key words: organisational culture, leader behaviour style, organisational commitment

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The process of completing the dissertation can seem lost endeavour at times; my success is tied to the commitment and support of others. I want take time to acknowledge those who contributed to the success of the project.

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CHAPTER – 1

INTRODUCTION

Culture has been a widely researched subject in the past two decades. Culture is a source of influence on human behaviour.

The world today is become a small workplace and for organizations, it is but necessary to employ the best talent from across the globe, thus making the workplace challenging. Globalization has ensured that geographical and trade borders are removed and people are mobile, but culturally everyone is different.

Culture can be understood as a group phenomenon that distinguishes people of one group from another. Culture is location specific and it has to be adapted to bring about results. Culture is “a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.” Schein (1991). Culture appears to be transmitted among employees through behavioral expectations and normative beliefs than through “deeper” values and assumptions.

In India, the IT hub creates both revenue to the country and employment. As per studies by Nasscom - IT & BPM Industry, February 2016,

- Industry employee base reaches 3.7 million, addition of 2 lakh in FY2016
- In ecommerce industry - 40,000 employees
- 1.1 million jobs added in last 5 years
- Annual talent output: 6.2 million
- >1 million technical graduate pool

Introduction

- 36-38 per cent share of global employable talent pool for IT
- Indian IT industry a Global talent powerhouse – representative of millennial's, showcasing diversity, and leadership in digital skills
- Talent hunt shifting from 'Qualification' to 'skill based'; hiring 'knowledge and expertise'

The study of Cultural Dimensions has gained prominence from the past decade and new studies are taking place to ensure workplace compatibility. This study consists of the organizational culture studies of Robert J. House's "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE)", the Wharton School of Business, University of Pennsylvania in 1991 which has Orientation, Institutional 9 cultural dimensions, which are as: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Humane Collectivism, In-Group Collectivism, Assertiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, Future Orientation, and Performance Orientation.

Another area which the researcher would like to study is Leader Behaviour Style as a Measure of the Dimensions of Organisational Culture as Leadership is considered as a role in organizations has received more interest.

The LBDQ has been used for research purpose in industrial, military, and educational settings. The LBDQ was developed by the staff of the Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University, as one project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, by Halpin and Winer, in reporting the development of an Air Force adaptation of the instrument, identified as Initiating Structure and Consideration as two fundamental dimensions of leader behaviours styles.

Every employee has an emotional bonding with their work place. This attachment when it is positive keeps an employee committed to the organisation. Organizational commitment scale was developed by Meyer & Allen (1987 a) identifies three approaches viz., the 'affective', 'continuance' and 'normative' commitment, respectively.

1.1 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

....You need to become cultural literate – not by reading about different cultures but by traveling more and visiting more different occupational groups....it's by travelling, but travelling not just physically but psychologically - Edgar Schein.

The advancement in technology and the search for talent is no longer limited to a particular place and the work place shrinking, organisational culture and cultural change have become increasingly prominent. A need for a better understanding about the nature of organisational culture and how it can be explored has arisen.

The term culture is used for tribes or ethnic groups (in anthropology), for nations (in political science, sociology and management), and for organizations (in sociology and management). Culture is defined by shared knowledge and meaning that is derived through processes of interaction and communication (Boesch, 1991). Culture has been considered as being limited to geographical boundaries either natural or manmade. Different models of culture and diverse instruments for measuring culture focus on different levels (national, Organisational, individual) and aspects (values, practices, observable artifacts and rituals, underlying implicit assumptions) of culture. Different elements of culture have been added by different scholars in the fields of anthropology, political science and management. With the organizations expanding their markets across the globe, it is but important for organizations to understand the geography, the cross-cultural issues, psychology and work environment related issues including education and economy and the legal aspects of the region. Cultures are historically developed, socially maintained and individually interpreted. (Collins (1998).

Since the early 1980s culture has emerged as one of the key themes in organisational research. Few competing ideas can rival its prominence: the existing literature is beset with special issues on culture, its impact, dynamics as well as content, and managers are strongly and persistently urged to consider the implications for their organisation of its culture (Ogbonna and

Introduction

Harris 2002). Links between culture and organisational variables that have been explored include leadership (Block 2003), performance (Ogbonna and Harris 2002; Shover and Hochstetler 2002; Sørensen 2002; Fey and Denison 2003; Scott, Mannion et al. 2003; Moynihan and Pandey 2004; Flamholtz and Kannan-Narasimhan 2005; Mannion, Davies et al. 2005b), learning (Lin, Tan et al. 2002; Akgün, Lynn et al. 2003; Lea 2003; Aksu and Özdemir 2005), change (Chin, Pun et al. 2002; Cunha and Cooper 2002; Rashid, Sambasivan et al. 2003; Jones, Jimmieson et al. 2005), job satisfaction and staff retainment (Conway and McMillan 2002; Gifford, Zammuto et al. 2002; Lund 2003; Carmeli 2005; Raiger 2005), commitment (Lok, P., & Crawford, J. 2004; Mathew, J., & Ogbonna, E. 2009), as well as employee attitudes and behaviour (Cabrera, Cabrera et al. 2001; Svarstad, Mount et al. 2001; Haas, Allard et al. 2002; Alas and Vadi 2004; Bowen 2004; Enes and de Vries 2004).

Donal Carbaugh defines culture as "a system of expressive practices fraught with feelings, a system of symbols, premises, rules, forms, and the domains and dimensions of mutual meanings associated with these." He also suggests that culture is "a learned set of shared interpretations about beliefs, values, and norms, which affect the behaviours of a relatively large group of people." In each of these definitions, culture is linked to communication and a wide range of human experience including feelings, identity, and meaning-making.

Culture can be understood as a group phenomenon that distinguishes people of one group from another. From this point of view, cultures exist at many different levels, including organizational functions or business units, occupational groups, organizations, industries, geographical regions, and nations (Kwok Leung et al., 2005). Culture is location specific and it can be adapted to bring about results. Schein (1985) describes culture as "a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems." Culture appears to be transmitted among employees through behavioral expectations and

Introduction

normative beliefs than through “deeper” values and assumptions (Ashkanasy, Broabfoot & Falkus, 2000). According to Smircich (1983), “culture as a root metaphor promotes a view of organizations as expressive forms, manifestations of human consciousness” (p. 347).

The world today has become a small workplace and for organizations, it is but necessary to employ the best talent from across the globe, thus making the workplace challenging. Globalization has ensured that geographical and trade borders are removed and people are mobile, but culturally everyone is different.

“As economic borders come down, cultural barriers go up, presenting new challenges and opportunities in business”(Javidan and House 2001 p.291)

Organisational Culture is referred to as company, workplace, or corporate culture (Linstead and Grafton-Small 1992). The globalization of business has significantly increased the movement of human resources (HRs) to different parts of the world (Adler, 2002; Bhagat, 2006; Lamb, 2000; Maznevski et al., 2002; Stalker, 2000; Triandis, 2006) and management of human resources in an international context has now become an imperative . (Schuler et al., 2002; Stahl and Bjorkman, 2006).

UN reports highlighted that in 2006, nearly 200 million people lived outside their country of origin (BBC News, 2006). Globalization has ensured that geographical and trade borders are removed and people are mobile, but culturally everyone is different.

Hofstede et al. (1990) argue, organisational culture has the same status in organisations as structure, strategy, and control, while Schwartz and Davis (1981) say there is actually a tight relationship between organisational culture and strategy.

Introduction

Schein (1990) considers culture to be what a group learns over time as this group solves its own problems of survival in an external environment, as well as its, problems of internal integration.

Individuals sharing a common belief belong to a group or society form a culture and culture does not and cannot change overnight. Organisational culture can change with cultural shift, but it takes time.

Organization structure, power distance, innovation, risk taking, teams, teamwork, job performance, planning, communication, environment, humanistic workplace, development of the individual, aggressiveness, etc., all are the dimensions of culture.

Organisational Culture is referred to as company, workplace, or corporate culture (Linstead and Grafton-Small 1992). Kotter and Heskett (1992) have rightly identified the adaptive culture as the “optimal organisational culture” and stated “only cultures that can help organizations anticipate and adapt to environmental change will be associated with superior performance over long periods of time”.

Organizational culture is seen as socially constructed (e.g. Burt, Gabbay, Holt, & Moran, 1994; Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 1996), developed and shared by groups of people. "The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered and or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, and have worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems" (Schein 1985b, p. 9).

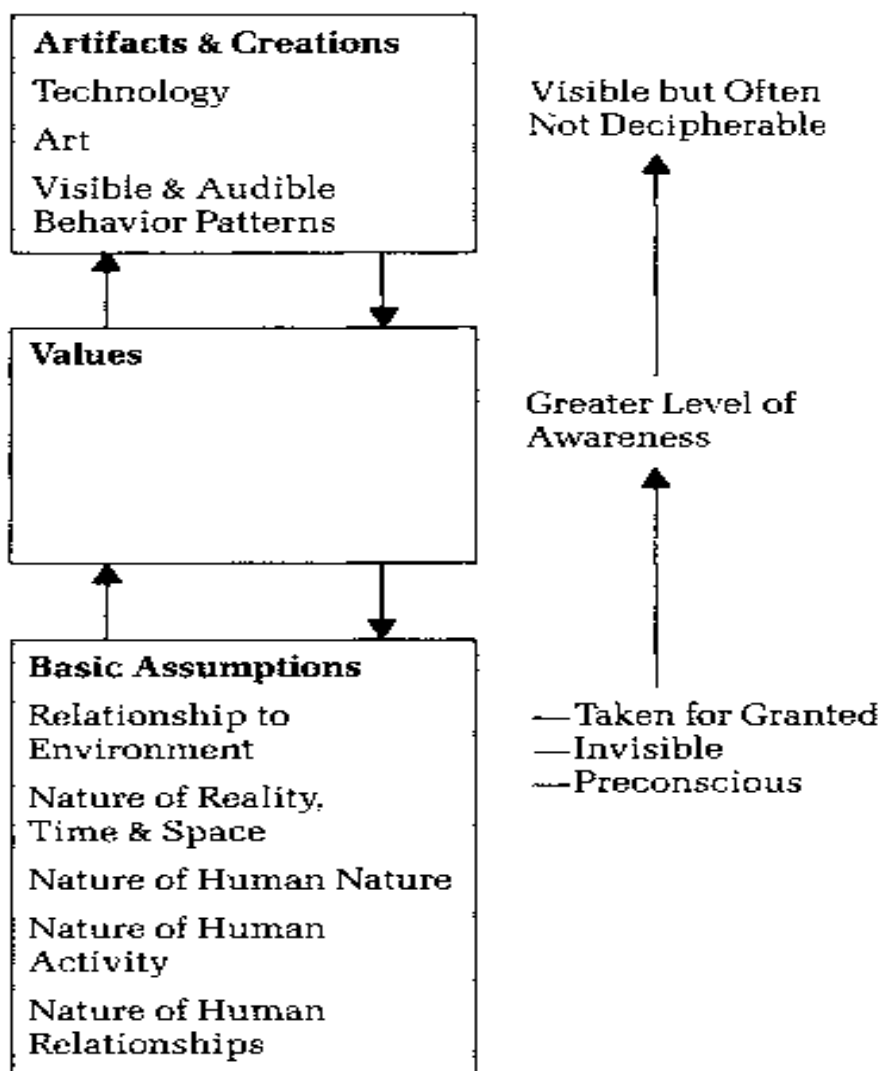
The above definition is often linked with Schein's three levels of organisational culture: artifacts, values and beliefs, and basic assumptions, which are often used in organisational culture studies (Ott 1989, Sathe 1983,

Schneider 1990, Trice and Beyer 1993). Kennedy (1982) encapsulated organisational culture as "the way we do things around here"

FIGURE 1. 1: SCHEIN'S LEVELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND THEIR INTERACTION

Figure 1

The Levels of Culture and Their Interaction



<http://sloanreview.mit.edu/article/coming-to-a-new-awareness-of-organizational-culture>

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Conventionally cited works from that time include Donald Roy's (1960) study of Banana Time which explored job satisfaction and informal interactions amongst a small workgroup of factory machine-operatives, and Elliott Jacque's (1951) *The Changing Culture of a Factory*. The latter focused on authority and participation amongst workers and management of an engineering factory. Nonetheless, up to the advent of the 'corporate-culture boom' of the 1980s, studies in the area of organisational culture were sparse (Parker 2000). Workers identify with different groups within an organisation, on the basis of age, gender and education or professional distinction. To Shalom Schwartz, an Israeli psychologist, the cultural values reflect three basic issues societies are confronted with: the nature of the relation between the individual and the group, how to guarantee responsible behavior, and how to regulate the relation of people to the natural and social world.

Links between culture and organisational variables that have been explored include leadership (Block 2003), and performance (Ogbonna and Harris 2002; Shover and Hochstetler 2002; Sørensen 2002; Fey and Denison 2003; Scott, Mannion et al. 2003; Moynihan and Pandey 2004; Flamholtz and Kannan-Narasimhan 2005; Mannion, Davies et al. 2005b).

The idea of culture within organisations was explored further during the 1950s and 60s, mainly at Harvard University and Britain's Tavistock Institute (Diamond 1991). Studies in organisational culture started in the early 1950s and gained prominence in the area of research only in the 1980's. Organisational culture has various meanings and has been increasing. Pettigrew (1979) appears to have coined the term 'organisational culture' and that there were early theoretical contributions by the likes of Baker (1980) and Hofstede (1980). The main driving force in raising broader, popular managerial interest in the concept of organisational culture was the publication of three bestsellers: Ouchi's (1981) 'Theory Z'; Peters and Waterman's (1982) 'In Search of Excellence'; and Deal and Kennedy's (1982) 'Corporate

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Cultures'. Common to all three books, and many that followed, was the mantra that in order to be successful, organisations need to focus on their 'cultures' (Jordan 1994). The importance of this message was underlined by the perceived threat to American businesses from their Japanese competitors (Jordan 1994). Not only was culture considered to be the key to improving performance and productivity, but also a way of establishing supportive relationships at work (Ouchi 1981).

Culture is not a characteristic of individuals; it encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience (Peter K'obonyo, Beatrice Dimba, 2007).

Research on organisational culture recognises that culture guides and shapes behaviours and attitudes of all employees (Hofstede, 1980; Handy, 1985; Schein, 1985, which suggests that culture, might also have an effect on business performance. In spite of a number of studies intending to understand the effect of organisational culture on business performance (Denison 1990; Gordon and DiTomaso), recent studies suggest that this relationship is not yet well understood (Scott et al., 2003; Wang and Ahmed, 2003). Cultures are seen as both products of past behaviour and as shapers of future behaviour and at the same time.

Culture is to the organisation, what personality is to the individual. (Van de Post et al. (1998). "Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. Organisational culture is more strongly varied by organisational work practices " Hofstede (2001). "Culture has the ability to influence various aspects of an organization's processes and products" (Ankrah and Proverbs, 2004). It functions at all levels from the subconscious to visible (Hampden-Turner, 1994).Organizational cultures consist of the firm's practices – or to be more explicit, the shared perceptions of daily practices.

TABLE 1. 1: DEFINITIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952)	Transmitted patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic systems that shape behavior of an organization
Hofstede (1980)	“The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from another. This included shared beliefs, values and practices that distinguished one organization to another”.
Swartz & Jordon (1980)	Patterns of beliefs and expectations shared by members that produce norms shaping behavior
Ouchi (1981)	Set of symbols, ceremonies and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of the organization to its employees
Martin & Siehl (1983)	Glue that holds together an organization through shared patterns of meaning. Three component systems: context or core values, forms (process of communication, e.g., jargon), strategies to reinforce content (e.g., rewards, training programs)
Uttal (1983)	Shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with an organization’s structures and control systems to produce behavioral norms (the way we do things around here)
Adler (1986)	-Refers to something that shared by all or almost all members of some social groups - something that the older members of the group try to pass on to the younger members and - something that shapes behavior or structures of the organization
Denison (1990)	Refers to the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization’s management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles
Trompenaars (1993)	Is the way in which people solved problems. It is a shared system of meanings. It dictates what we pay attention to, how we act and what we value.
Goffee (1996)	Is an outcome of how people related to one another
Schneider (1997)	Shared patterns of behavior and the meaning of that behavior
Cameron & Quinn (1999)	What is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language success that make an organization unique
Sullivan (2001)	Refers to the total lifestyle of a people, including all the values, ideas, knowledge, behaviors and material objects that they share
Wood (2001)	The systems of shared beliefs and values that develops within an organization or within its sub-units and that guides the behavior of its members
Wiesner (2002)	A way of looking at organizations by its shared values and behavior
Thomas & Tung (2003)	Refers to evolving set of shared beliefs, values, attitudes and logical processes which provides cognitive maps for people within a given societal group to perceive, think, reason, act, react and interact
Anthon (2004)	Is the set of values, beliefs and understanding shared by an organization’s employees and it ranks among an organization’s most powerful component
Taylor (2004)	Refers to what is created from the messages that are received about how people are expected to behave in the organization
Wagner (2005)	An informal, shared way of perceiving life and membership in the organization that binds members together and influences what they think about themselves and their work.

Source: Adopted from: House et.al. 2004

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The success or failure of strategy, mergers, acquisitions and diversifications, integration of new technologies, meetings and communications in face-to-face relationships, and socialization is influenced by Organisational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982, Thompson, 1993; Mullins, 2005).

Culture recognises that culture guides and shapes behaviours and attitudes of all employees (Hofstede, 1980; Handy, 1985; Schein, 1985; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1996; Burnes et al., 2003), which suggests that culture, might also have an effect on business. Jung et al., in their working paper - Instruments for the Exploration of Organisational Culture - have suggested that there are more than 150 dimensions of organisational culture . It is important to understand these dimensions for any organisation when it is planning to enter into a new territory (country) so as to know which dimension can have a greater impact. Leadership, organization structure, power distance, innovation, risk taking, teams, teamwork, leadership, structure, innovation, job performance, planning, communication, environment, humanistic workplace, development of the individual, job performance, planning, communication, environment, aggressiveness, etc.. all are the dimensions of culture. With regards to why organisational culture needs to be measured, it has been argued that potentially, culture has the ability to influence various aspects of an organisation's processes and products (Ankrah and Proverbs, 2004).

The identified instruments mirror the varied and complex nature of the organisational culture and no single instrument per se can be considered as ideal for exploring culture. The appropriateness of an instrument is dependent on multiple factors including the research context and question(s), the underlying aim, and the resources available. By mapping instruments against criteria relating to administration, content and psychometric testing, this review offers a way of identifying instruments for exploring culture in varied settings.

There is literature review related to the existing assessment of different instruments' characteristics and their technical properties, both qualitative and quantitative instruments for the exploration of organisational culture. Overall, seventy instruments for culture exploration are identified; of these, forty-eight are subjected to psychometric testing.

TABLE 1. 2 INSTRUMENTS FOR ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Social relationships	Performance clarity	Absence of bureaucracy
Strong value systems	Performance emphasis	A bias for action
Stick to the knitting	Risk tolerance	Action orientation
Simple organization	Reward system	Assertiveness
structure	Responsibility	Autonomy and entrepreneurship
Structure	Reward	Attitude towards change
Support	Risk	A shared sense of purpose
Standards	Rituals to support values	Clarity of direction
Supportive climate	Rewards and punishments	Control
Strategic organization	Individual initiative	Conflict tolerance
focus	Integration	Communication patterns
Standards and values	Identity (degree)	Compensation
Supervisory support	Identity (feeling)	Closeness to customer
Supervisory team	Interaction process	Conflict
building	Job involvement	Communication process
Supervisory goal	Job challenge	Control process
emphasis	Job reward	Confrontation
Supervisory work	Job clarity	Conflict resolution
facilitation	Leadership process	Commitment
Satisfaction	Leader-subordinate interaction	Concern for people
Task support	Management support	Communication flow
Task innovation	Management style	Co-ordination
Top management	Motivational process	Conflict resolution
contact	Market and customer orientation	Compensation
Team work across	Organizational clarity	Direction
boundaries	Organization integration	Decision-making
Training	Organizational vitality	Decentralized authority
Teamwork	Openness in communication and supervision	Delegation
Warmth	Organization of work (organisational focus)	Decision-making practices
	Organizational reach	Decision-making process
	Performance orientation	Excitement, pride and esprit de corps
	Personal freedom	Empowering people
	Productivity through people	Emphasis on people
	Performance goals	Encouragement of individual initiative
	People integrated with technology	Goal integration
	Performance facilitation	Group functioning
	Policies and procedures	Goal-setting process
	Peer support	Human resource development
	Peer team building	Human resource development (individual focus)
	Peer goal emphasis	Influence and control
		Integration

Source: Jung, T, T Scott, HTO Davies, P Bower, D Whalley, R McNally, and R Mannion (2007), Instruments for the Exploration of Organisational Culture, Working Paper, Available at <http://www.scothub.org/culture/instruments.html>

Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness

(GLOBE): The study of Cultural Dimensions has gained prominence in the past decade and new studies are taking place to ensure workplace compatibility. This study of cultural dimensions consists of 9 cultural dimensions from the AS IS of the GLOBE (alpha) questionnaire.

Robert J. House of the Wharton School of Business, University of Pennsylvania conceived the "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) in 1991. GLOBE empirically established nine cultural dimensions that make it possible to capture the similarities and/or differences in norms, values, beliefs—and practices—among societies. They build on findings by Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1994), Smith (1995), Inglehart (1997), and others. GLOBE's major premise (and finding) is that leader effectiveness is contextual, that is, it is embedded in the societal and organizational norms, values, and beliefs of the people being led. (Michael H. Hoppe (9/18/2007) Culture and Leader Effectiveness.

The major constructs investigated in the GLOBE research program are nine attributes of cultures, which are operationalized as quantitative dimensions: (1) Uncertainty Avoidance, (2) Power Distance, (3) Collectivism I: Societal Emphasis on Collectivism, (4) Collectivism II: Family Collectivism Practices, (5) Gender Egalitarianism, (6) Assertiveness, (7) Future Orientation, (8) Performance Orientation, and (9) Humane Orientation.

These dimensions were selected on the basis of a review of the literature relevant to the measurement of culture in previous large-sample studies and on the basis of existing cross-culture theory.

According to Smith (1995), Inglehart (1997), and others GLOBE's major premise (and finding), leader effectiveness is contextual, that is, it is embedded in the societal and organizational norms, values, and beliefs of the people being led.

A brief description of the nine dimensions of culture in the GLOBE Study on the AS IS base are:

(1) assertiveness, the degree to which individuals in societies are assertive, confrontational, aggressive, and straightforward; (2) uncertainty avoidance, the extent to which members of a society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established social norms and practices; (3) power distance, the degree to which members of a society expect and accept that power is distributed unequally; (4) collectivism I (institutional collectivism), the degree to which societal institutional practices encourage and reward collective distribution of resources and collective action, as opposed to individual distribution and individual action; (5) collectivism II (in-group collectivism), the extent to which members of a society express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their groups, organizations or families; (6) gender egalitarianism, the degree to which a society minimizes gender role differences; (7) future orientation, the degree to which members of a society engage in future-oriented behaviors such as planning, investing, and delaying gratification; (8) performance orientation, the degree to which a society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence, and (9) humane orientation, the extent to which a society encourages and rewards its members for being fair, altruistic, friendly, caring, and kind to others.

1.2 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE

“The study of leadership rivals in age of the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders – what they did and why they did it” (Bass, 1990, p. 3).

"One key to successful leadership is continuous personal change. Personal change is a reflection of our inner growth and empowerment." (Robert E. Quinn)

Though the concept of leadership is as old as mankind itself, leadership is not about a particular country or place or particular person but everywhere and everyone. Leadership is about the people who stood against all odds and won the peoples trust. Though other civilizations have had a greater history than the Greeks, it is gathered that Plato originated the discussion of the role,

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purpose, and training of leaders (Jowett, 1892). Plato supposed that leaders should demonstrate bravery, nobility, keenness of intellect, a capacity for memorization, even temperament, a magnanimous presence, and soundness of mind and body. Ancient Indian manuscripts talk of good leadership and good governance.

Leadership is the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals. P Robbins, 2011.

The ability of a superior to influence the behavior of subordinates and persuade them to follow a particular course of action, (Barnard 1938). Leadership is one of the world's oldest pre-occupations of humankind" (Bass, 1990a, p 49).

Stodgill (1974) reviewed studies of leadership attributes and made a list of characteristics of a successful leader from different countries. These included:

High intelligence, considerable verbal fluency, overall knowledge, considerable initiative involving energy, ambition and persistence; and height: as tallness implies authority.

Morrison, Gregersen, and Black outlined four personal development strategies through which companies and managers can meet these requirements of effective global leadership: travel, teamwork, training and transfers (the four "T"s) .They concluded that effective leaders must have global business and organizational savvy. They explain that global business savvy as the ability to recognize global market opportunities for a company and having a vision of doing business worldwide. Global organisational savvy requires an intimate knowledge of the company's resources and capabilities in order to capture global markets, as well as an understanding of each subsidiary's product lines and how the people and business operate on the local level.

One of the objectives accomplished by the GLOBE study was the empirical development of country leadership profiles, or culturally endorsed leadership theories, comprising 21 first-order scales of leadership dimensions (Scales

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developed to measure leadership dimensions) perceived by the respondents as contributing to or inhibiting outstanding leadership. These dimensions were further factor-analyzed and found to belong to the following six classes of second-order or global leadership dimensions:

Team-oriented leadership (universally endorsed as contributor to outstanding leadership); Charismatic/Value-based leadership (nearly universally endorsed as contributor); Humane leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture); Participative leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture); Self-protective leadership (generally viewed neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture); and Autonomous leadership (generally viewed neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture) (Dickson et al., 2003).

Leaders are expected to act as patriarchs who help subordinates aspire toward more ambitious and collective goals. At the same time, they need to make sure that their actions and decisions help develop and sustain the team and family orientation in their organizations. The global leader in this cluster needs to be open to negotiations and ideas from many corners to make sure s/he does not disenfranchise any group members (Gupta, et al., 2002).

Gupta and Govindarajan (2002) proposed a conceptual framework of global mindset that has been described individually and organizationally. They defined global mindset as a combination of an awareness and openness to cultures and markets and the ability to make sense of its complexities. Their framework included two variables, integration and differentiation. Integration was described as the ability to integrate diversity across cultures and markets. Differentiation was described as openness to diversity across cultures and markets. Gupta and Govindarajan proposed that scores high in integration and differentiation mean that an organization or a person has a global mindset.

Ruiz-Quintanilla & Dorfman, (1999) proposed that to be perceived as a leader is a prerequisite for influencing others. Sources of leadership are to be found in perceivers' implicit ideas of what leaders are. According to implicit leadership theory, attributions and perceptions of leadership are a function of matching leader attributes and behaviors with individual's implicit theories (Den Hartog

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et al., 1999; House et al., 1999). These theories constitute prototypes of leadership comprising a collection of attributes, traits, or behaviors that help to distinguish leaders from non-leaders, outstanding from average leaders, moral from amoral leaders, etc.,(Brodbeck et al., 2000). House et al. cited extensive experimental evidence of the impact of implicit leadership theories on the exercise of leadership and perception of leaders, including the degree of their influence and effectiveness. Effective global leadership involves the ability to inspire and influence the thinking, attitudes and behaviour of people anywhere in the world. Haire, Ghiselli and Porter surveyed more than 3,000 managers in 14 countries and found that although managers around the world consistently favoured delegation and participation, they had a low appreciation of the capacity and willingness of subordinates to take an active role in the management process . The international managers should take seriously the culture contingency in their application of the contingency theory: they must adjust their leadership behaviors according to the context, norms, attitudes and other variables in that society. These include leader-subordinate and group relations, which are affected by cultural expectations, values, and needs, and attitudes, perceptions of risk and loci of control. Leadership theories in recent times gives more emphasis to motivating and inspiring subordinates, creating change and empowering others.

The new leader creates, communicates and embodies a vision which can influence changes in the attitudes and assumptions of subordinates, builds their commitment to the organization and inspires trust, confidence and loyalty. This is the new Transformational leader. Transnational organizations are characterized by an interdependence of resources and responsibilities across all business units regardless of national boundaries. The term has also become a descriptor of a particular type of multinational that tries to cope with the large flows of components, products, resources, people and information among its subsidiaries, while simultaneously recognizing distributed specialized resources and capabilities,

The traditional leader, someone who has more of a business like relationship with subordinates and speaks of a give and take in the business environment is another type of leader that Barnard Bass talks of is the Transactional Leader.

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There is a need for both the types of leadership in the business. In 1981, William G Ouchi developed Theory Z, a new management model , a blend of the Japanese and American management practices , which he projected would be effective in both cultures , though research support has been mixed.

The perception of what makes a good leader – both traits and behaviours – varies a great deal from one society to another. The GLOBE leadership study across 62 countries provides considerable insight into culturally appropriate leadership behaviors. Effective leadership is crucial to the ability of a company to achieve its goals. The challenge is to decide what effective leader in international or mixed culture situations is.

The universality of leader behaviour is one of the issues dealt with in the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) research programme. GLOBE is a long term programme designed to conceptualise, operationalize, test and validate a cross level integrated theory of the relationship between culture and societal organizational and leadership effectiveness. One of its elements is to try to discover where there are attributes across all cultures involved in the project that are considered to contribute to outstanding leadership.

The leadership attributes pinpoint to two aspects of leadership that are reported to be highly effective in all the societies which were studied. These are:

- Team oriented leading, where the emphasis is on building effective teams and implementing a goal common to team members.
- The ‘communication of vision, values and confidence in followers’ (House et al, 2004:7)

Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal, (Northhouse, 2000). Leaders need followers and followers need leaders (Burns, 1978; Heller & VanTil, 1983; Hollander, 1992; Jago, 1982.)

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Leadership is required to complement organizational systems (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Leaders must act as agents of change (Van Knippenberg and Hogg, 2003) prompting others to follow.

The new leadership focus is on dynamic, interactive processes of influence and learning which will transform organisational structures, norms and work practices (Pearce and Conger 2003). The 'great man' theory of leadership (Judge et al., 2002) found that the situation also plays a vital role in determining leader effectiveness and that, to be effective, leaders must behave differently in different situations (Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, 2002). Bass (1985) suggests that leaders must promote change by creating vision.

Another way of understanding the historical progression of leadership theory and research is to consider the approach taken in investigating leadership. Yukl (2012) identified five approaches to leadership: (1) the trait approach, (2) the behavior approach, (3) the power-influence approach (also called the participatory approach), (4) the situational approach, and (5) the integrative approach (also called the charismatic or transformative approach). The first two approaches focus on the characteristics of the leader; the third and fourth approaches take a dual perspective focusing on both the characteristics of the leader and the characteristics of the followers; and the fifth approach considers all three—the characteristics of the leader, the characteristics of the followers, and the characteristics of the situation. Over time, leadership experts have come to view the phenomenon of leadership as a multi-faceted, complex, interrelated process influenced by a constellation of variables. Stodgill (1974) reviewed studies of leadership attributes and made a list of characteristics of a successful leader from different countries. These include: High intelligence, considerable verbal fluency, overall knowledge, considerable initiative involving energy, ambition and persistence; and height: as tallness implies authority. Smith et al. (1989) found that the specific expression or enactment of basic leader functions of mid-level managers vary according to cultural constraints. At the executive level, research also indicates that successful CEO's often employ leadership styles consistent with society's cultural values (Jackofsky, Slocum, & McQuade 1988).

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Leadership is the ability of an individual to motivate others to forego self interest in the interest of a collective vision, and to contribute to the attainment of that vision and to the collective by making significant personal self sacrifices over and above the call of duty, willingly. (House & Shamir, 1993).

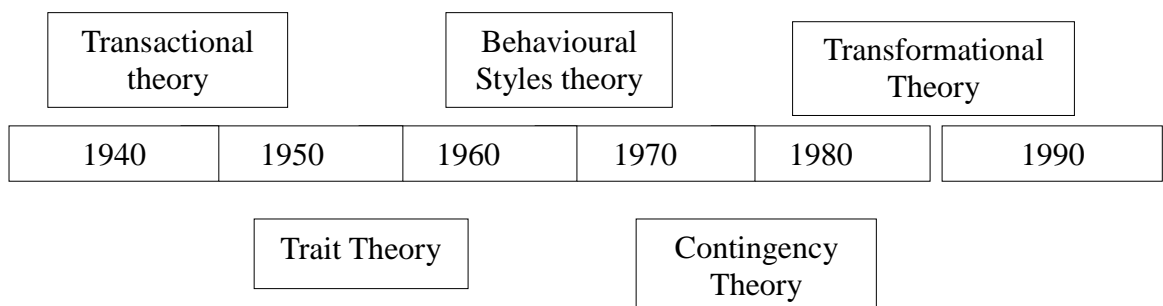
Researchers had not recognized that no single style of leadership is best for all situations and conditions (Chemers, 1984).

Graen and Hui (1999) argued that there are many difficulties in developing global leaders; however, it is a necessary endeavor if organizations are to succeed in this global environment.

Morrison, Gregersen, and Black outlined four personal development strategies through which companies and managers can meet these requirements of effective global leadership: travel, teamwork, training and transfers. Greenleaf (1977) clarifies that servant leaders seek to help employees develop to their fullest potential, which includes future leadership.

The assessment of the leadership theory reveals an ever growing series of ‘schools of thought’ from “Great Man” and “Trait” theories to “Transformational” leadership.

FIGURE 1.2: LEADERSHIP THEORY: EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP



Leadership style is a construct used to describe a leader’s personal orientation and esteem for co-workers revealed during the act of leading. Leadership style can be further defined as a leader’s preferred intentional or unintentional selection of methods and practices to be used to direct or assist others in the accomplishment of tasks or goals (Fiedler, 1967)

'Great Man' theory of leadership:

The earliest theories of leadership focused on the deeds of great men. For example, “without Moses, the Jews would have remained in Egypt and without Winston Churchill the British would have given up in 1940”(Bass, 1990a). This theory contends that leaders are born, not made. This theory proposed that certain individuals are endowed with leadership traits that cannot be learned (Cawthon, 1996).

Trait Theory of Leadership:

Another major driving force at leadership behaviors is an attempt to determine what successful leaders do, not how they look to others (A. W. Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemplin & Coons, 1957). Early leadership theories recognized leader success to ownership of extraordinary abilities such as energy, piercing intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasive power (Yukl, 1989).

Theories that consider personal qualities and characteristics that differentiate leaders from non-leaders are the trait theories of leadership. Aristotle asserted that from the time of birth, some individuals are destined to be leaders or followers (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Behavioural Leadership Styles:

There are two important Behavioral studies : Ohio State University (1940s) & University of Michigan (1950s). Two separate studies used different terms, they can be thought of as concern for people and concern for tasks. The study at Ohio State University identified these two behaviors (Fleishman, 1953, Stogdill, 1974):

Consideration - relationship behaviors, such as respect and trust (concern for people).

Initiating Structure - task behaviors, such as organizing, scheduling, and seeing that work is completed (concern for tasks).

TABLE 1.3: LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND THEIR PRO-FOUNDER

Trait Approach	Stogdill, 1948; Mann, 1950; Stogdill, 1974; Lord, DeVader and Alliger 1986; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991
Skills Approach	Katz, 1955; Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000)
Style Approach	Stogdill, 1963; Blake and Mouton, 1964; with an important meta-analysis by Judge, Piccolo and Ilies, 2004
Contingency Theory and Situational Approach	Reddin, 1967; Fiedler, 1967; Hersey and Blanchard, 1969
Path-Goal Theory	House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; House, 1996
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sparrowe and Liden, 1997) and Liden and Maslyn, 1998
Transformational Leadership	Burns, 1978; House, 1976; Bass 1985, House et al., 2004
Psychodynamic Approach	an important meta-analysis by Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt, 2002; Kroeger and Theusen, 2002
“Behavioural” Theory, actually a Traits+Situational Contingency theory	Stogdill, 1959, 1963, 1974; Misumi and Peterson, 1985
Sources of Guidance Employed by Managerial Leaders in Different Nations,	A theory of leader behaviour dimensions identifying the organizational and extra-organisational influences on decision-making, with culture as a contingency (Peterson and Smith, 2008)
Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) Project,	Traits+Culture as a Contingency Theory (House, 2002; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004; Chhokar et al., 2007)

Source: ROMIE FREDERICK LITTRELL, 2010

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Initiating structure refers to the leader's behavior in endeavoring to establish well defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and methods of procedure. Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff.

Initiating structure refers to getting the job done. Consideration reflects concern for individuals in a group and their feelings. The individual who exhibits behavior highly oriented towards initiating structure is the one who sees and recognizes the job to be done and moves to accomplish it. This individual is task oriented and strives to fulfill the purpose of the organisation often at the expense of others concerned. Initiating structure reflects behavior which emphasizes the quality of work, clarifies everyone's responsibility, shows interest in others as a person, compliments others for their work and has other share in decision making. (Andrew W, Halpin, 1956)

The study at the University of Michigan identified these two behaviors (Katz,, Maccoby, Morse, 1950; Northouse, 2007): Employee Orientation - approaching employees with a strong human relations orientation (concern for people). Production Orientation - stressing the technical and production aspect of the job (concern for tasks).

The researchers from Michigan State thought of these two behaviors at opposite end of a single continuum.

A group of people from Ohio State University developed a list of 150 statements from their generated responses that included 1,800 hundred statements. The list was designed to measure nine different behavioral leadership dimensions. The resulting questionnaire is now well-known as the LBDQ or the Leaders Behavior Description Questionnaire.

For the present study, the researcher will be using the older format of the LBDQ which consists of 40 questions and measures two dimensions, viz., Consideration (People Oriented behavioral Leaders) and Initiating Structure (Task Oriented Leaders).

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As part of the study, the LBDQ was administered to various groups of individuals ranging from college students and their administrators, private companies including military personnel. One of the primary purposes of the study was to identify common leadership behaviors. After compiling and analyzing the results, the study led to the conclusion that there were two groups of behaviors that were strongly correlated. These were defined as Consideration (People Oriented behavioral Leaders) and Initiating Structure (Task Oriented Leaders).

A relationship oriented leader is seen as functioning best where goals are not clearly defined and with an uncooperative group. The task oriented leader is best suited for a high control situation, and a relationship oriented leader is best suited to a situation requiring moderated control. The low control situation calls for a task oriented or a directive style of leadership .

The notion that just two dimensions can describe leadership behavior has the appeal of directness. However, it is to be noted that humans are far from being two dimensional in their behaviors!

The Contingency or Situational approach suggests that the correct leadership style to use is contingent on such factors as the leader-member relationship, the followers themselves, the organizational culture or climate, and other environmental factors” (Banner & Blassingame, 1988, p.214). Contingency relationships in the study of leadership was Fiedler’s Contingency Model (Chemers,1984). The combining of the leaders’ attempts to satisfy personal needs as well as organizational goals was a new approach to solving the leadership dilemma (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

Fiedler developed the Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) scale to identify leadership styles. A high score on the LPC scale is associated with high relationship oriented leaders and a low score indicates a task-oriented leader. A task-oriented leader is seen as functioning best in a situation with clear goals and an accommodating group, (Chemers, 1984; Fiedler, 1967; Hoy & Mikel, 1991). The contingency model fails to provide an answer as to what processes produce effective performance (Hoy & Miskel, 1991)

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The major focus of leadership research in the United States has been on contingency theories that have attempted to specify the organizational circumstances under which particular leader behavior patterns are most effective (cf., Fiedler & Garcia, 1987; Indvik, 1986; Vroom & Jago, 1988)

House's Path-Goal Theory of Leadership is a midrange theory designed to predict subordinates' motivation, satisfactions, and performance (House, 1971). Cultural characteristics such as language, beliefs, values, religion, and social organization are generally presumed to necessitate distinct leadership approaches in different groups of nations—popularly known as culture clusters (Hofstede, 1993)

One of the objectives accomplished by the GLOBE study was the empirical development of quantitative country leadership profiles, or culturally endorsed leadership theories, comprising 21 first-order scales of leadership dimensions (Scales developed to measure leadership dimensions) perceived by the respondents as contributing to or inhibiting outstanding leadership. These dimensions were further factor-analyzed and found to belong to the following six classes of second-order, or —global, leadership dimensions:

1. Team-oriented leadership (universally endorsed as contributor to outstanding leadership);
2. Charismatic/Value-based leadership (nearly universally endorsed as contributor);
3. Humane leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture);
4. Participative leadership (generally viewed as contributor, with variability by culture);
5. Self-protective leadership (generally viewed neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture); and Autonomous leadership (generally viewed

neutrally or as inhibitor, with variability by culture) (Dickson et al., 2003).

Leaders are expected to act as patriarchs who help subordinates aspire toward more ambitious and collective goals. At the same time, they need to make sure their actions and decisions help develop and sustain the team and family orientation in their organizations. The global leader in this cluster needs to be open to negotiations and ideas from many corners to make sure s/he does not disenfranchise any group members (Gupta, et al., 2002). A nation's specific cultural attributes play an important role in determining the selection of management and leadership style. As Leung (2005) noted in her study of Western managers in Chinese firms, effective leadership in one cultural setting may be ineffective in another. Organizations become more effective when they are able to identify and foster the appropriate leader behaviors for the relevant cultural situation. (Trompenaars, 1993).

Indians prefer leaders who are nurturing, caring, dependable, sacrificing and yet demanding, authoritative, and strict disciplinarian. —Sinha (1995, p. 99)

A great deal is to be learned on leadership and how it is observed through different countries (Bures and Heck, 1996,)

1.3 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

“Unless commitment is made, there are only promises and hopes... but no plans.” Peter F. Drucker (1909-2005); Professor, Writer, Management Consultant

Organizational commitment is a much debated topic with various advancements to it. Organizational commitment has been studied at length Allen & Meyer (1993), Mathieu (1990), Allen & Meyer (1990), Steers (2004). They agree that organizational commitment is a bond between the employee and their organisation and differ on the type of bond which differentiates it. Every employee has an emotional bonding with their work place. This bonding, when it is positive, keeps an employee committed to the organisation. Studies suggest that absenteeism, performance, and turnover have impacted

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commitment and people with higher commitment have higher performance. Organizational commitment is a psychological state that binds an employee to an Organization. Organizational commitment refers to the extent to which the employees of an organization see themselves as belonging to the organization (or parts of it) and feel attached to it Meyer, et al (2013) Van Dick et al., (2004).

Porter (1974) claims that a commitment by an employee happens over a substantial amount of time as the employee has to identify self with the organization and organizational goals.

Commitment is a double edged weapon for the organisation as well as the employee. Organizational commitment theory and research has focused primarily on outcomes of relevance to employers. There is now a growing body of research examining the links between commitment and employee-relevant outcomes including stress and work–family conflict.

Commitment level is defined as intent to persist in a relationship, including long-term orientation toward the involvement as well as feelings of psychological attachment, sense of “we-ness” Agnew(1994) . Becker (1960) described commitment, in general, as “a disposition to engage in consistent lines of activity as a result of the accumulation of earnings that would be lost if the activity were discontinued.”

Organizational commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization Mowday (1979) and has three major components: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership.

Marsh and Mannari (1977) researched a person's lifetime commitment to an organization, concluding that people who remain for such extended periods of time do so in part because they believe it to be morally correct.

The old school of thought assumed that commitment could be measured in a

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dualistic manner: one was either committed to the organization or not, Mowday (1982). Several researchers saw the limitations in this and attempted to provide changes to it Angle (1981), Meyer(1998), and Penley (1988). The rethinking process that there are many reasons why an individual may be committed to an organization was the conceptualization of the Three-Component Model (TCM) of commitment Meyer (1991).

Allen and Meyer proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment and developed a scale to measure those Allen & Meyer(1997).

The conceptualization developed by Porter and associates (1974) utilized two factors; attitudinal commitment – the ways in which employees’ values mesh with those of the organization – and behavioral commitment – the ways in which an employee is “locked in” to an organization Mowday (1982). While the goal of their conceptualization was to establish casual connections for attitudinal commitment, causality could not be clearly established Allen (1997).

TABLE 1. 4: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT AND ITS DEFINITIONS

Buchanan (1974)	A committed employee will emotionally remain devoted to the goals and values of an organization because of their attachment to the organization
Mowday, Porter and Steers -1979	The relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organization
Meyer and Allen (1991)	Commitment is the employee’s relationship with the organization and the implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization. The attachment to the organization is a result from identification with the attitudes, values, or goals of the organization.
Bell-Roundtree (2004)	A committed workforce which identify more closely with an organization and willingly participate with management in improving performance and commitment.

Sopiah (2008) concluded that organizational commitment is a psychological bond of employee to organization that is marked with (1) strong belief and

acceptance for organizational goals and values (2) desire to reach organizational goals, and (3) strong will to defend their position as organization members.

1.4 ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Meyer and Allen (1991) identify organisational culture as an antecedent of organisational commitment. Organizational commitment has been defined as “an affective attachment to an organization” reflected in shared values, a willingness to work on behalf of the organization, and a desire to remain with the organization . The reliance on a collection of shared values between the organization and the individual relates to the generalized definition of organizational culture Bolman (1991), Morgan (1997) ,Wang (2003). It is important to understand the impact of organizational culture on the development of the three forms of organizational commitment. A socialization continuum that ranged from “institutionalized” – a formal, sequential, common initiation experience – to “individualized” – characterized as an informal, on-the-job training experience. Findings demonstrate that institutionalized socialization help the newcomer become part of the organization and enhance affective commitment. Allen & Myer (1997), Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998) found that positive early work experiences in the organization positively influenced affective commitment. They also found that newcomers who placed value in “comfort experiences” such as job security and availability of alternatives tended to have higher levels of continuance commitment. These studies indicate that the training and socialization of new employees to an organization (both factors of the organization’s culture) have a significant impact on their level of commitment to the organization.

1.5 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND COMMITMENT :

Brower, Schoorman and Tan (2000) stated that effective managers do not work in isolation from their subordinates. Instead, they would prefer to work with their subordinates, and the nature of the relationship between the manager and

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subordinate has been acknowledged as complex, interactive, and exist reciprocity in the dyad. Leader theory is plagued by a lack of integration both within and across the trait and behaviour paradigms (Derue, Nehrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, (2011).

Carey (2009) stated that the effects of leader behavior on employees could be considered in a large scale which includes organizational commitment of employees.

Leader behavior that encourage employee commitment is essential for an organization to successfully develop business strategies, achieving their goals, gain competitive advantage and optimizing human capital (Erasmus, Swanepoel, & Wyk, 2003).

Researches show that support from one's direct supervisor led to less absence among subordinates Tharenou, (1993). According to Stum (2001) , employee commitment reflects the quality of the leader in the organization.

According to Mottaz (1988) who examined 1,385 employees from various occupations found that employees who perceived a friendly and supportive relationship with their co-workers and supervisors had a strong and positive commitment to their respective organizations. Employees who believe that their superiors are considerate, leaders will be more committed to their organizations than those who do not perceive their managers as being considerate. Supervisory consideration refers to leader behaviors concerned with promoting the comfort and well-being of subordinates.

Becker (1992) discovered that employees' commitment to top management, supervisors and workgroups contributed significantly beyond commitment to the organization.

Leader style is one in which the leader creates a facilitating task environment of psychological support, mutual trust and respect, helpfulness, and friendliness, Hernandez (2011).

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The relationship between managerial strategy and employee commitment have been established Brewer (1993), and leader can be seen as part of managerial strategy. Then it is reasonable to assume that leader can affect the level of employee commitment.

The link between leader and organisational culture and organizational commitment was suggested by Hickman and Silva (1984). This study measured three components of organisational culture: commitment to a common purpose; competence to deliver superior performance, and consistency in perpetuating culture by attracting and keeping the right people.

Chapter 2 deals with the review of the literature on organizational culture, leadership style and organizational commitment. Chapter 3 is on Research Methodology which is inclusive of the objective of research, rationale for the research, and empirical research and data analysis. Chapter 4 presents the Data Analysis and Major findings and the last , but not the least is Chapter 5 Discussion which is inclusive of the limitation of the study, direction for further Research, conclusion and summary.

CHAPTER – 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of Literature provides an insight into the broad area of study. Review of Literature is the first step in any organized research work. This helps the researchers to know the requirement and direction of work done till date in their area of research interest. It also helps a researcher in understanding different conclusions and outcomes of the research conducted thus allowing the researcher to take an informed decision with regard to the research methodology which will suit to his/her research work, based on review of literature.

The review references include books, journals, dissertations, articles, blogs, PhD theses and the web.

2.1 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE:

Felix C. Brodbeck, (2007), argues that organisations need to rely on leadership for their survival. Changing environments necessitate constant transformation, which in turn requires leaders who define the need to change, create new visions, and mobilize commitment to these visions. Organisations face increasing globalisation and cultural diversity of the work force, so to face these challenges, leadership needs to be sensitive to societal cultural differences. The focus of the GLOBE programme is on leader behaviour and attributes that are reported to be effective or ineffective in each societal culture represented in GLOBE. Behavioural differences in leadership across cultures and how they link to individual and organisational performance are being investigated as part of the phases three and four of the GLOBE programme while in the first two phases, GLOBE focused on perceived aspects of effective leadership.

M. Bertsch, (2012), in his study, sets out to validate GLOBE dimensions and measures used in this study which are Gender Egalitarianism, Assertiveness, Performance Orientation, and Humane Orientation. Quantitative methodology employed in this study was used to validate the borrowed GLOBE scales for

each of the dimensions. These measures were analyzed using several multivariate analysis techniques. The GLOBE scales proved to be reliable and valid in the context of this study.

Low Sui Pheng, Shi Yuquan, (2011), in their studies of the four dimensions of national culture in China and Singapore indicate : Power distance in Singapore is larger than that of China. Singapore superiors and subordinates consider each other as unequal.

Uncertainty avoidance shows that Singapore has a low index value and China has a high index value which signifies that the younger people are trustworthy.

As per the Individualism index (IDV) and masculinity index (MAS), people in China tend to emphasize the work goals(earnings, advancement) and assertiveness. The authors feel that the people in Singapore are more Individualistic. Chinese show more concern to personal goals than the people of Singapore, and people there feel less threatened by ambiguous situations. Emotions are shown less in public.

Herciu Mihaela, et al, (2011) defend that the culture has an impact on national performance and not vice versa.

In the countries where power distance is low, the individualism prevails and where uncertainty control is low, competitiveness is higher.

The researchers attribute that culture and competitiveness contribute to the development of any nation and that bring about an identity to the nation.

Ming-Yi Wu, (2006), has suggested that work related cultural values are not inert and change over time, especially so when the political, societal, economic developments/ environments change. Hence cultural theories should be reworked over a period. The author says that when leadership of the country changes, so will the power distance. The author has researched both, the US and Taiwan, after a gap of thirty years and outcome suggests that the dimensions have changed over a period. The study also included the fifth dimension- the Confucian work dynamics, which was not included by the western scholars, in their earlier studies (of 1984, Hofstede)

The authors, Yu-Te Tu , Shean-Yuh Lin, Yu-Yi Chang (2011), target population was the people who were working in public companies listed under the Rio de Janeiro Stock Exchange and Sao Paulo Stock Exchange in Brazil, Russian Trading System Stock exchange (RTS Exchange), National Stock Exchange of India and Bombay Stock Exchange in India and Shenzhen Stock Exchange (SSE) and Shanghai Stock Exchange in China.

India has highest individualism attitude while China has highest collectivism attitude . These results were consistent with those suggested by Hofstede (1980).

SHI Xiumei and WANG Jinying (2011), in their seminal work, compare the cultural distance between China and US across GLOBE (the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) Model and Hofstede Model. Their model compares the cultural distance between China and US from the nine (9) dimensions in GLOBE Model and the five (5) dimensions in Hofstede Model. Their results yielded thus: (1) China has a higher score than US in LTO (Long Term Orientation) and FO (Future Oriented); (ii)China emphasizes more on collectivism and US more on individualism; and (iii) China has a higher PDI (Power Distance index) score than that of US. In conclusion, it can be said that as for the cultural distance between China and US(as per GLOBE Model), China has a higher score than US in UAI; while in Hofstede Model, US ranks higher than China in UAI.(Uncertainty Avoidance index).

Rienties et al (2013), address the stress which international students experience, while adapting to the culture of the host-institute. 757 international students from 52 countries were clustered into nine geographical clusters using Hofstede's cultural dimension scores.

Group from Confucian Asia score substantially lower on academic integration than their Western counterpart. The cultural dimensions of Hofstede significantly predicted academic adjustment and social adjustment, in particular, power-distance (negative), masculinity and uncertainty avoidance (both positive). Follow-up multi-level analyses show that academic adjustment

is the primary predictor for academic success. The results of the study connotes that higher educational institutes should focus on make possible academic adjustment of the international students, in particular, non-Western students, especially the Bachelors study group.

Geert Hofstede (the Netherlands) (1983) summarizes the findings of a large research project, involving 116,000 questionnaires, about the work-related value patterns of matched samples of industrial employees in 50 countries. The four dimensions used to explain (1) different ways of structuring organizations, (2) different motivations of people within organizations, and (3) different issues people and organizations face within society. The same questionnaires were used twice, one around 1968 and another around 1972. The dimension showing the largest universal shift is individualism. There was some reduction in the distance between extreme countries. As for the dimension of masculinity-femininity, there was a shift toward the masculine side. The shifts vary from one country to another in the masculinity and femininity dimension. In countries with great power distances, there was a marked increase in employees' perceived fear of disagreeing with superiors. The author feels that four years is a very short time for measuring worldwide value shifts.

Mansour Javidan, et al., (2006) have created a hypothetical case of an American executive in charge of four similar teams in Brazil, France, Egypt, and China to discuss cultural implications for the American executive. GLOBE clusters have identified : Latin America, Anglo, Latin Europe (e.g., Italy), Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Confucian Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, Middle East, Southern Asia, and Eastern Europe. Each culture cluster differs with respect to the nine culture dimensions. Cultural Views on Leadership Effectiveness differ from nation to nation. The global manager needs to think about how to bridge the gap between the two cultures. Cultural adaptability refers to a manager's ability to understand other cultures and behave in a way that helps achieve goals and build strong and positive relations with local citizens. Formal education and training can also be helpful in developing global leaders.

Mansour Javidan et al, (2006), explain why GLOBE used a set of cultural values and practices to measure national cultures and also discuss why there is no theoretical or empirical basis for Hofstede's criticism that GLOBE measures of values are too abstract or for his contention that national and organizational cultures are incidents of different order. The approach to studying culture and its influence on behavior reveals two important but experimental assumptions. First, it assumes that measuring actors' values is a healthy way of measuring cultures. In the second, one assumes that the linkage between values and specific behaviors of actors can be generalized to the relationship between values and general behaviors of all members of the culture.

The authors justify their stance on using only choose middle managers because they are both producers and consumers of leadership. GLOBE produced a set of nine dimensions, each measured twice, isometrically, as practices and respective values.

GLOBE has found that culture also influences the type of leadership qualities that are perceived to lead to outstanding leadership. The authors ask when two cultures come in contact, which cultural dimensions is more important in that relationship and also under what conditions?

The author , Gillian Warner-Søderholm (2012), feels that the launch of Project GLOBE's research, almost a decade ago, seems to have acted as a catalyst for change in cross-cultural research. The author feels that majority of these researchers continue to apply Hofstede's cultural dimensions rather Project GLOBE's, though it is more comprehensive predictive model of culture. This article presents a brief literature review of the research environment of cross-cultural studies.

Boopathi Sivasubramanian Narashima (2014), has investigated the cultural differences and similarities between India and Finland through the cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede and GLOBE study to understand business and organizational cultures of Finland and India and the cultural dimensions which play a significant role in business success. This study is a contribution

to the academic literatures committed to cross-cultural management and International management. For the source of study, the author has taken - GLOBE, (House et.al. (2004; 2010) studies and Hofstede, (2010) of the two countries, India and Finland, from different clusters, i.e., Southern Asia and Nordic clusters. The study suggests the managerial implications by providing insights to the business leaders and Individuals from India and Finland, as well as for those business leaders who would like to work in these countries and how the cultural dimensions can influence people's behavior in the Finnish and Indian organization.

2.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE

Kun Liu, et al (2012) point out that cultural dimensions have a significant influence on transformational leadership behaviour, wherein managers need to learn culture and to modify their behaviour towards their subordinates. This research considers the relationship among cultural dimensions, leadership behaviors and self-efficacy to achieve organizational goals . The research indicates that leaders and managers can improve self-efficacy with transformational leadership. Organizational culture can be predicted with the instrument for measuring leadership behaviors. As subordinates become more diverse, leaders must enhance appreciation for human diversity. By communicating with diverse individuals, leaders can understand opinions of their followers, and establish a good relationship with followers.

Niti Singh et al(2005), have conducted a three-stage study involving different sets of managers, for studying the influence of national culture in organizations and how culture influences the manifestation of transformational leadership. It brings new dimensions of the transformation leaders who include being a role model, handle personal relationships with subordinates and also duty conscious. This study is based in India and is in tune with the universal findings of Bass (1985). The authors have made a scale to measure the Indian standards of transformational leaders.

Yafang Tsai, (2011) has studied the impact of Leadership behavior on organizational culture. The researcher also reveals that leadership behavior will influence employee job satisfaction. At the same time at the same time, organizational culture also has impact on job satisfaction. Through communicating and promoting the organizational vision to subordinates, and in getting their acknowledgement of the vision, it is possible to influence their work behavior and attitudes. When there is good interaction between the leader and subordinates, it will be seen through team communication and collaboration, and encouragement of subordinates to accomplish the mission and objectives assigned by the organization, which in turn enhances job satisfaction. Organisations regulate leadership behavior to reach the organizational goal. Organisations reshape the organizational culture by making changes to leadership behavior training programs.

Marcus W. Dickson, et al(2003), progressed over the last several years in the study of cross cultural leadership research, feel that there are opportunities for further advancement. The important issues are: the combination of technological advances, larger multicultural samples, enhanced clarification of dimensions of culture, and better understanding and measurement of cognitive processes across cultures. These will allow to understand better, the role societal culture plays in the enactment and interpretation of the leadership role.

Peter T. van den Berg ,Celeste P.M. Wilderom (2004) focus their present article around three issues: (1) defining organisational culture; (2) measuring organisational culture; and (3) relevant theory for more systematic comparisons among cultures. The authors feel that there should be consistency in developing and establishing the basic cultural dimensions and their definition. The authors feel that defining and measuring organisational culture in order to allow for more scholarly outcome, the cumulative and comparative organizational culture research is required.

According to Kwasi Dartey-Baah, et al. (2011), Organisational culture shapes employee perceptions and behaviour which greatly determines the organisations overall performance. Transformational leadership provides

purposeful direction, positive encouragement, rewards high performance, and inspires subordinates to make the best use of their human potential for the successful attainment of organisational goals, in addition to an organisational culture that rewards innovation and excellence. Public sector reform has been on the agenda of a number of governments, including Ghana and the UK, and international development agencies such as the World Bank. The mixed results of past reform efforts have compelled African governments and international agencies to re-evaluate policies. The results have led to a sober realization that improving the performance of public organisations is a difficult and multifaceted task that must include strategies to fundamentally change the culture prevalent in public sector organisations. Any reform that does not take into consideration the role of organisational culture and transformational leadership is bound to fail.

Ayasakanta Mohanty et al ,(2012), feel that organization culture and leadership behaviour differentiate each service being offered whether it is the employees being committed to the organization, employees being satisfied and employees being productive. Effect of leadership behaviours on organizational commitment is different from organizational culture. Leaders should recognize this as they influence employees and achieve their organizational goals.

Alexander Ardichvili and K. Peter Kuchinke , (2002) studied Cultural values and leadership styles of some 4,000 managers and non-managers in ten business organizations in six countries. The results on leadership indicate that two dimensions – Contingent Reward and Inspirational Motivation – produced the highest scores in all four countries of the former USSR. Two less efficient leadership styles, Laissez-faire and Management by Exception, have received significantly higher scores in the four former USSR countries, than in the US and Germany. Finally, the study suggests that cross-cultural human resource development issues cannot be described because insignificant differences were found not only between the two groups of countries but also between individual countries within these groups.

Gholamreza Taleghani ,et al (2010), in their study on Emotional resonances, found that the ability to grasp what motivates others and appeal, is as important in the United States as in Europe , and it will soon be important in Asia. As living standards improve, knowledge workers become more and more professional and get their acknowledgement and CEOs will have to compete for managerial talent. Leadership style applied in all cultures, does not heed the same result everywhere as it is directly related to the culture of that place.

This research relates to cultures and leadership styles where the managers are suggested to pay attention to cultural differences in the organizations and to recognize cultures existing in their work capacity to provide a suitable style of leadership.

In his paper, Shane Sokoll, (2011), takes on two hypothesis:

Employees from cultures that value high future orientation will highly value servant leadership behaviors exhibited by leaders; and employees from cultures that hold a lesser value of future orientation will value servant leadership behaviors exhibited by leaders less than employees from cultures with a high future orientation. Though both propose that there is a positive relationship between the level of a culture's future orientation and the value placed on servant leadership behaviors within the culture, the potential to offer new understanding of how the future orientation concept affect the support of servant leadership by followers is not clear. Practice of servant leadership behaviors would have a more positive effect upon followers from high future orientation cultures than followers from low future orientation cultures.

Sapna Rijal,(2010), found that Transformational leadership and organizational culture are important factors that influence the development of learning organization. Transformational leadership and organizational culture , have a positive influence in the development of learning organization. The researcher finds that organizational culture in both the countries is not conducive to learning because she feels that the leaders do not demonstrate

transformational leadership characteristics. Hence are not favorable to a generative and adaptive culture, which is supportive of learning among organizational members. The author feels that the limitation of the sampling technique, which is non-probability based convenience sampling, does not provide the researcher with any kind of sound foundation for making general inferences about the population from which the sample was drawn.

Neal M. Ashkanasy, (2002), in his seminal work on the GLOBE Study, says that the major difference in leadership in Anglo and Asian cultures concerns the issue of participation.

Southern Asian cultures are the most status conscious. The recent rise of the Asian economies and the hope that they will play an even more important role in the new century, is critical. The first implication is that, despite a pattern of strong cultural differences, the Anglo and Asian cultural clusters support leadership that is charismatic (or values-based), humane, and team orientated, and avoid leadership that is self-protective or autonomous (based on leader orientated individualism). Leadership is based on team performance, rather than any notion of personal power. The second implication is that managers need to recognize that there are real differences in the extent to which leaders involve team members anticipatively in decision making. There is considerable synergy in the way that effective leadership is perceived. The principal difference in leadership in Anglo and Asian cultures concerns the issue of participation.

Grigory Ambrozheichik, (2011), has compared the styles of Russian leadership of the GLOBE project and the recent organizational leadership practices research in Russia. The findings of his study show that the Russian leader has a charismatic behaviour which includes performance orientation and visioning.

The Russian leader is also a stereotype as it is required to understand the complexities of the Paternalism. Another area is the autocratic behaviour which indicates a gap between valued and practiced leadership.

Michael H. Hoppe & Regina Eckert(2014) of Centre for creative leadership & GLOBE study, have empirically researched the relationship between culture and leader behavior in different societies, with many different quantitative and qualitative measures and methods, and in different organizations. The project brought about an in-depth understanding of their own culture and its notion and practice of leadership. This paper is about GLOBE's finding about dimensions of cultural value and how cultures are similar or dissimilar from each other in terms of their values. It also talks about how leadership is viewed in different countries. Each country scores on six leadership scores as described in the GLOBE study.

Erich Baumgartner (2007) critically examines the book, 'Culture And Leadership, Across The World: The Globe Book Of In-Depth Studies Of 25 Societies' by J. S. Chhokar, F. C. Brodbeck, & R. J. House, and presents the results of GLOBE's Phase 3. As the data was gathered by the country's co-investigators (CCIs), the chapters not only contain information that allowed the researchers to compare and rank the countries on the culture dimension level, but also to develop rich country-specific (emic) descriptions of how leadership typically manifest itself in a country. The in-depth leadership description makes the book useful for leaders of international organizations or multicultural institutions as it gives an insight into the country general (etic) leadership dimensions.

The author feels that the length of the chapters country wise is not equally represented as some countries have more pages distributed to them. Another criticism is that the cluster wise countries is not equally distributed. This volume of the book includes reporting of the exclusion of Black Africa (South Africa is based on a white sample and included in the Anglo cluster), the Arab World includes South Africa and Turkey is the only Middle-East cluster representative .

The author links the book review to Christian leadership by writing that ,it helps Christian leaders understand that there are infinite variations of leadership that have arisen out of the complex interplay of history, religion, politics, and economics and that the local culture often influences the way leadership is practiced in a given country.

2.3 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Wolfgang Messner, (2013), examines the linkages between organizational culture and commitment of the Indian employee as clients of India's IT services providers complain about knowledge loss caused by high attrition rates in their offshore delivery factories.

Instruments used were the GLOBE AS IS organizational culture and Allen and Myers organizational commitment and demographics through the ICCA appraisal framework from Indian IT employees working for two IT services sourcing provider organizations in Pune and Bangalore, India. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used together with multiple regression and confirmatory factor analysis for the analysis of data.

The results of data analysis show that, among the organizational culture dimensions, in-group collectivism and performance orientation are the antecedents with the biggest effect on employee commitment. Other culture dimensions show varying degree of positive and negative influence on employee commitment. The data analysis reveals a stronger correlation between affective and normative commitment in the Indian context as compared to other North American studies. It supports suggestions put forward in other research that continuance commitment should be split into the two sub-factors c/alternative and c/sacrifice. The proposed model of this research proves that employee commitment in Indian IT services off-shoring context is influenced by organizational culture.

O. Manetje and N. Martins (2009), focused their study on the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment in a South African motor manufacturing organisation.

The empirical study involved the participation of 371 respondents in an organisation to determine the relationship between organisational culture and organisational commitment. Harrison and Stokes (1992) questionnaire consists of 60 items for measuring four dimensions of organisational culture namely; achievement, power, role and support cultures, and a tri-dimensional construct (Meyer & Allen 1997) for organizational commitment. The results further

indicate that normative commitment is high when the preferred achievement culture is dominant and the preferred role culture is least dominant. An important finding from the results is that by focusing on affective and normative commitment, organisations will be able to positively influence the retention of employees, productive behaviour and employee well-being. The empirical research indicates that when the preferred role culture is least dominant, continuance commitment is low. The organisation should create an organisational culture that ensures the development of affective commitment.

Momeni, M., Marjani, A. B., & Saadat, Vs' (2012). Their study is to investigate the relationship of organizational culture with commitment. The components of organizational culture as the independent variable were derived from Denison's model of culture and the components of organizational commitment as the dependent variable were derived from Allen and Mayer's model and then, the relationship between two kinds of variables were tested through Pearson correlation testing. The results from the study showed that there was a significant relationship between all the components of organizational culture from Denison's model - Involvement , Consistency , Adaptability , Mission including adaptability, involvement, adjustment, mission and organizational commitment.

Ch, A. S., Zainab, N., Maqsood, H., & Sana, R. (2013), attempt to investigate the effect of Cameron and Quinn's culture on Allen and Myers's commitment levels of the employees in the banking sector and the results show that clan culture has the most significant relationship with all the three commitment dimensions as compared to other types of culture. It was found that females were more inclined towards affective commitment within their organization as compared to their male counterparts. There was no difference for the continuance commitment, whereas males were highly inclined towards normative commitment as compared to females. Married people had lesser continuance commitment level as compared to unmarried ones. There is difference between males and females regarding perception of commitment with their organization. The authors feel that it is necessary for the organizations to have policies that are most suitable for its employees so as to create a strong commitment among them.

2.4 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE:

Alice H. Eagly (2007), in her work feels that in the US, though women are praised for their leadership skills, it is the men who become leaders and are likely to succeed in male-dominated leadership roles. This paper looks into the gender equality that has taken place in both attitudes and behavior, besides the lack of complete attainment of this goal. Women are second to men in competition to attain leadership positions and salary. Be it political leadership or the top position in corporate houses, it is the attitudinal prejudice against women leaders. The encroachment of women into positions of power and authority reveals many fundamental changes : women's high level of paid employment and a lessening of the time demands of women's housework, accompanied by greater sharing of childcare and housework with husbands and partners. The 20th-century shift toward gender Equality is continuing its ascent toward greater power and authority.

Michelle Vondey , (2010), says that leaders should examine their own behaviour and practices and adapt their behaviour to achieve the desired behaviour. Leader behaviour makes a difference in follower attitudes as it encourages others to participate in the organization and promote the organization to outsiders. This study had its focus on the individual-level of follower behavior. There is scope for study on group-level behaviour and their impact on organizational citizenship behavior, especially the interaction of followers with each other and the interaction of followers as a group with the leader.

I. G. Vaccaro et al. (2012) believe that transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, influence management innovation. Leadership behaviour is also dependent on the size of the firm. Leaders are change agents who impact the implementation of new practices, processes, and structures. The leadership style – whether transaction or transformational - also impacts management innovation, top management and the subordinates. Transactional leadership is more important in smaller organizations in management innovation, while large organisations benefit from transformational leaders.

Story (2011) found that leaders need to develop a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and an adaptation worldview. Without the development of a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and cultural adaptation worldview, individuals will not be developed into global leaders. The current stages in intercultural sensitivity and constructive development theory reveal that potential global leaders are currently at target training trips, and other relevant programs to meet these individuals' developmental needs. Effective global leaders need to have a global mindset, a self-authored identity, and a cultural adaptation worldview.

Yukl, (1999), had studied about the nature of effective leadership. The description of dyadic processes should be supplemented with a description of leadership processes in groups and organizations. The inherent assumption of heroic leadership should be replaced by a broader conception of leadership as a shared, reciprocal influence process. The effectiveness of any individual behaviour depends in part on the overall pattern of leadership behaviour. The author has identified Four of the two-factor models viz., Task Versus Relations Leadership, Autocratic Versus Participative Leadership, Leadership Versus Management, and the Transformational Versus Transactional Leadership. The group perspective considers not only leader influence on individual members, but also leader influence on how well the work is organized to utilize personnel and resources, how well group activities are coordinated, the amount of member agreement about objectives and priorities, the extent to which members trust each other and co-operate in accomplishing task objectives, the extent of member identification with the group, and confidence in the capacity of the group to attain its objectives.

Most leadership questionnaires ask subordinates or peers to rate retrospectively how often or how much a leader exhibited some behaviour over a period of several months or years. The inherent assumption of heroic leadership should be replaced by a broader conception of leadership as a shared, reciprocal influence process. The author feels that a greater variety of research methods should be used, and the mix of methods should include more intensive, longitudinal studies that examine leadership from a systems perspective.

Dr. Ayman A. AL-Omari's (2007) in his study explored the leadership styles of the Hashemite University department chairs as perceived by department chairs (35 department chairs) and faculty members (413 faculty members), measured by the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The results indicated that there are no differences in perceptions of department chairs and faculty members regarding the two dimension of leadership style among department chairs. Differences in leadership styles were not found among department chairs as perceived by gender and length of service of faculty members. The study also showed that there were no significant differences in perceptions of department chairs and faculty members regarding the two dimensions of leadership styles (task-oriented, and human relation-oriented) among department chairs. Leadership styles should be integral to managing and leading rather than as a separate activity. The author feels that Leaders should have the flexibility to choose over an array of leadership qualities and styles that have been labelled masculine and feminine as the need for modern leadership is to be androgynous, regardless of biological gender, able to combine the best of male and female leadership traits and styles.

J. C. Wofford and Laurie Z. Liska (1993), conducted Meta-analyses of 120 studies to test hypotheses of path-goal theories. The study takes into consideration about 30 hypotheses. Meta-analysis provides a tool for systematically and quantitatively summarizing results obtained from various studies. Studies for the meta-analyses were identified by manual search of the various Psychological journals and journal of Management and computer-assisted searches of behavioral sciences literature; and references of previously published reviews and meta-analysis articles. The search included published and unpublished literature from January, 1967 to October, 1992. Meta-analyses were conducted for each of the six measures of leadership behavior that have been used most frequently in the literature. These meta-analyses were conducted to determine (1) whether the measurement instruments moderated the relationships of initiating structure and consideration with the dependent variables, and (2) whether the chi-square test indicated that other potential moderators were likely to exist. Task structure was found to have a positive moderating effect on the relationship between consideration and satisfaction with supervision. The Results of the meta-analyses partially support path- goal theories.

Timothy A. Judge, Ronald F. Piccolo, and Remus Ilies (2004), have made a meta-analysis of the relationship of the Ohio State leadership behaviors—Consideration and Initiating Structure—with leadership. 163 independent correlations for Consideration and 159 correlations for Initiating Structure were analyzed and the results revealed that both Consideration (.48) and Initiating Structure (.29) have moderately strong, non zero relations with leadership outcomes. Consideration orientation was strongly related to subordinate and follower satisfaction (leader satisfaction, job satisfaction), motivation, and leader effectiveness, and Initiating Structure was strongly related to leader job performance and group – organization performance. The authors feel that leaders high on Consideration should be better at fostering interactional justice and Leaders high on Initiating Structure define rules regarding work duties, maintain standards, and determine the consequences of goal attainment.

Bernard M. Bass(1997) , through his research has found that transactional leaders generated a greater quantity of brainstorming but transformational leaders create greater quality in the reports that were prepared. Transformational leaders tend to allow their followers to grow on their cognizant achievement, affiliation, power motives (and other motives). This helps to increase the self-worth component of motivation and increases commitment from the subordinates. Transformation leadership is leader-inspired and this ensures that values and ideals are embodied in the group, self interest is sacrificed and goal attainment is achieved.

2.5 ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Naveed R. Khan, Marinah Awang, Arsalan Mujahid Ghouri, (2014), in their study have established the validity and reliability of organizational commitment construct. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were used to measure the construct. Chew and Chan organizational commitment construct was measured which is a Mowday's original having 15 items. However, due to internal in consistency Chew and Chan dropped six items and come up with the findings that nine items are valid and more meaningful in organizational settings. This construct has

validity issues due to demographic and sectoral changes. The CFA results show that nine items in the organizational commitment construct is not perfectly valid in Pakistan's SME sector. However, OC goodness of fit is significant using six items.

Ms. Bhawna Manyal (2015), in her study aims to recognize varied viewpoints on the concept of organizational commitment as perceived by different nations across the globe. Her study collaborates the research work of various academicians conducted in India, Spain, Nigeria, United States of America, United Kingdom, Dutch and Singapore on topics related to Organisational Commitment and the countries were randomly selected. The main factor of organizational commitment is job Satisfaction. The trait of national culture produces a varied degrees of commitment from employees. Her main findings as regards India is that Education is negatively correlated to organisational commitment, the more educated a person is, their expectation of reward is as per their qualification and older people are more committed to an organisation. Married people and People living in joint family are more committed. More number of promotions will ensure the level of commitment as they will consider themselves to be an asset to the organisation and will have a positive attitude. Job changers are frowned upon. Globe wise, it was found that organizational culture and job satisfaction are the main causes for organizational commitment.

Aaron Cohen (1999) in his study, examines whether Morrow's (1993) model of five universal forms of work commitment - affective organizational commitment, continuance organizational commitment, career commitment, job involvement and work ethic endorsement has practical support. 238 nursing staff from two hospitals in western Canada were surveyed. Results of confirmatory factor analysis and correlation analysis showed a tolerable discriminant validity among the five commitment foci. The findings support Morrow's first contention that each of the five commitment forms is an independent construct. The paper concludes with implications regarding the continuing assessment of Morrow's conceptualization to establish an acceptable definition and measurement of universal forms of work

commitment. The findings suggest two options. First, career commitment is an unique variable in the interrelationships together with the two forms of organizational commitment, as suggested by Randall and Cote (1991). Second, career commitment brings out a cautious relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment. The main reason for rejecting Morrow's model is the role of job involvement as it is more situation-affected than any other commitment form and is, therefore, the endogenous variable. An important contribution of this study is that the interrelations among the commitment forms explored should provide the basis for possible effects of different commitment forms on work outcomes.

Naser Shirbagi (2007). The researcher's investigations show that the Faculty members from Punjab University were more emotionally attached to, and identified and involved themselves with their institution than their counterparts - Tabriz University. Though the graphical presentation indicates no major difference between the two Universities in the leadership frames, there is a correlation between affective commitment with symbolic frame; continuance commitment with structural frame; as well as normative commitment with symbolic frame in the Punjab University. The Indian leadership and administration policy with regards to faculty members' welfare is more committed as compared to the Tabriz University.

Adulblah (2011), reveals that the three measures of commitment (Affective, Continuance and Normative) are distinguishable from each other, on the basis of Construct Validity and Internal Reliability Analysis. It also validates that this instrument can be applied in Pakistan. Convergence and discriminant validity is complemented by internal reliability. Future research should be conducted on the validity and reliability of this scale in other sectors in Pakistan.

Noor Harun Abdul Karim and Noor Hasrul Nizan Mohammad Noor, (2006) in their study has focused on establishing construct validity (convergent and discriminant validity) and internal reliability by applying Allen and Meyer's organizational commitment scale among Malaysian academic librarians. Altogether 17 items comprising the measures for both affective and

continuance commitment were incorporated in the questionnaire. Findings were based on the responses from 139 usable questionnaires. The findings revealed the two measures to be distinguishable from one another i.e. the measures exhibited convergent as well as discriminant validity

Dr. Varsha Dixit & Ms. Monika Bhati (2012). The authors are of the view that Sustained Productivity is influenced by job commitment. In auto-component industry, sustained productivity of the employees is more dependent on affective commitment and continuous commitment of the employees. It has been found by the researchers that individuals who are highly committed towards their jobs are likely to be more productive. Hence , such individuals have higher satisfaction level and are less likely to leave the organisation than those with low commitment.

Sayani Ghosh, Dr. Swamy D R (2014), in their paper, try to encapsulate the evolution of the concept of organizational commitment, and its constructs. The paper reviews the literature on findings of organizational commitments over the last five decades and categorizes the approaches into six broad eras, each era being an extension and alteration over the earlier ones. This review paper brings the theories that have emerged in the body of knowledge regarding commitment in organizations in a chronological order, starting from the side bet theory to the more recent multiple commitment approach. The gaps in the theories proposed have been identified and reviewed critically. It is difficult to conceptualize and measure organizational commitment as it includes a varied body of knowledge. It, therefore, becomes difficult to interpret and conclude from the existing bodies of literature. The paper also highlights the importance of recognizing the individual/employee's perspective towards organizational commitment. All the approaches to Organisational Commitment developed so far have the potential to contribute to a better understanding of Organisational Commitment. A multi-dimensional approach towards OC needs to be adopted as it needs to take into account the organization and also the individual's perspective. Since commitment has both attitudinal and behavioural implications, it is but, important to come out with a proposition which tries to dig deeper into the psyche of the individuals and their interactions with their organization.

Fauziah Noordin et al (2010), studied the effects of career stage on organizational commitment among Australian managers on the basis of three criteria: age, organizational tenure, and positional tenure. The main aim of this study was to examine the relationship between career stage and organizational commitment and to determine the effects of career stage on organizational commitment of Australian managers. The findings support the expectation from previous research that organizational commitment increases with age. The findings indicate that increasing age supports continuance commitment. Managers who were older than 44 years expressed a higher level of continuance organizational commitment. The researchers feel that due to their age, alternative job opportunities might be limited and, if there were other alternatives available, the overall benefits offered might not match the ones they currently enjoyed. Australian respondents with longer organizational tenure appear to have a significantly higher normative commitment than those with shorter organizational tenure. Australian managers with more than 10 years of organizational tenure had a higher level of continuance organizational commitment. The researchers feel that future research should combine the use of questionnaire method with observation and / or field experimentation.

Fauziah Noordin, Abdul Rahman Abdul Rahim, Abu Hassan Ibrahim, Mohd Shukri Omar, (2011) conducted a study on career-stage effect on organizational commitment among Malaysian managers whose aim is to examine the relationship between career stage and organizational commitment and to determine the effects of career stage on organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured using the 24-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer. This scale measures affective, continuance, and normative organizational commitment. Career stage was done on the basis of three criteria: age, organizational tenure, and positional tenure. In this study, neither organizational tenure nor positional tenure significantly affected any of the components of organizational commitment among the Malaysian managers. Only age had significantly stronger affective commitment, and it is limited to the affective component of organizational commitment. Increased job insecurity may be a factor undermining older Malaysian managers' normative commitment to their organizations.

Asma Imran (2012), in his paper examines the impact of human resource practices on the organizational commitment of the service sector employees of Pakistan. The data were collected through the distribution of a uniform questionnaire amongst 600 employees through a convenience sampling. Data was analyzed using correlation and regression with organizational commitment. The HRM variables include seven variables: compensation, perceived organizational support, work life policies, training and development, career opportunities, empowerment, organizational climate and communication which have been examined and hypothesized that all the dimensions of human resource practices will relate and significantly related and act as a predictor of the organizational commitment in the service sector of Pakistan. The major results were attained for affective commitment and organizational commitment whereas it was negligible for the continuance and normative commitment. For affective commitment, all hypotheses were accepted. For continuance and normative commitment, all hypotheses were rejected. Organizations must adopt policies in the way that their employees remain committed.

2.6 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT:

Rafiq Awan and Khalid Mahmood (2009), explored the relationship among leadership style, organizational culture and job commitment in university libraries of Pakistan. The results prove that the library professionals were not very insightful about any relationship among the three variables at their workplace. Majority of the professionals assumed that their chief librarians had an autocratic style of leadership and libraries tend to adopt an achievement and bureaucratic culture. Most of the library professionals seemed to be highly committed with their organizations. They favored result-oriented culture.

Peter Lok and John Crawford, (2004), in their study on organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and commitment, have stressed that there is a difference between East and West practices and that national

culture and leadership is important while determining organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Also since this was a comparative study between the Australian samples and the Hong Kong samples, it was found that innovative and supportive cultures were well liked by the Australian samples.

Abdulla and Muhammad Ismail Ramay (2011), have examined the association of factors like work environment, job security, pay satisfaction and participation in decision making; with organizational commitment of the employees, working in the banking sector of Pakistan. Job security, work environment and pay satisfaction were significant indicators that a secure job can yield higher level of commitment.

Higher commitment was shown for higher age and tenure; whereas gender did not show significant change in commitment level of employees. Job Security showed positive and significant relationship with commitment. Researchers believe that with age, alternative opportunities for employees become limited, thereby enhancing their commitment with the organization they are working for.

M. Suleman Sabir, Adil Sohail, Muhammad Asif Khan(2011) in their paper, contend that leadership style influence the organization commitment of the employees, when the organization culture is an evidence to the employee's values in the organization.

The paper suggest that the leadership style - transactional leadership and transformational leadership, is a strong dimension of organization commitment when organization culture of the organization represents the employees' values in the organization. Employees are more committed to an organisation if the organization meets their expectations which is the part of that organization culture. When organizational culture and employee value proposition are same, it increased the commitment of employee's especially in new hired employee and this idea is also supported by the research of corporate leadership council. A strong culture is required for the success of the organization which is established by the leadership that increases the organizational commitment.

Tawfik El-Nahas, Eman Mohamed Abd-El-Salam and Ayman Yehia Shawky (2012), in their paper explore the relationship among leadership behaviour, organisational culture, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions through a case analysis of one of the biggest Egyptian company. A structured questionnaire was developed and tested on a sample of 455 employees out of 700 distributed, giving a response rate of 65 per cent. There is a positive relationship between leadership behaviour style and employees' job satisfaction, both, participative and supportive behaviour styles were highly significant. Among the analytical techniques used were the Pearson correlation, chi-square, and multiple linear regressions.

It was found that there is a highly significant relationship between bureaucratic type and hierarchal type of organisational culture and employees' job satisfaction. There is a negative but not significant relationship between market culture and employees' job satisfaction. The reason is the existence of high power distance values and a bureaucratic culture in Egypt. Differences in work-related values are the result of an underlying difference in culture. This does not mean that expertise, knowledge and practice cannot be transferred into another culture, but rather that they must be sensitive to the corresponding culture.

It was found that there is a positive and significant relationship between affective and employees' job satisfaction and a positive but not significant relationship between affective commitment and turnover intentions. It was found that there is negative and significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Although the use of quantitative methods for relying on cross-sectional data as the only source of information in establishing and making causal statements about the hypothesized relationships between variables is considered valuable, it is not a strong method to identify the reasons for those relationships.

2.7 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Barbara B. Brown (2003), in her doctoral thesis, investigated the relationship between employees' perceptions of their immediate supervisors' relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviors and different types of organizational commitment using Bass & Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X) to measure relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviors and Meyer & Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used to measure organizational Commitment. Findings suggest that relations-oriented leadership behaviors are positively related to affective and normative commitment. Task-oriented leadership behaviors had a negative relationship with normative commitment and explained even less of the variance than relations-oriented leadership behaviors meaning that leadership behaviors which involve ignoring problems or waiting for problems to become chronic before taking action explain very little of the variation in how employees feel about wanting to or feeling obligated to stay .

Sisay Mengistu Alemu¹ and Dr. Syam Babu s' (2012) in their study aim to examine the relationship between coaches' leadership styles and player's commitment in Ethiopian premier league soccer clubs. 207 players who participated in Ethiopian premier league soccer competition completed the demographic questionnaire, leadership scale for sport (LSS) and sport commitment scale (SCMS). The LSS contained 40 items that measured five dimensions of leadership behaviors (autocratic behavior subscale, democratic behavior subscale, training and instruction subscale, social support subscale and the positive feedback subscale) and the SCMS with 14 items assessed four dimensions of player's commitment (sport commitment, sport enjoyment, social constraints, and involvement opportunities). Results showed a significant positive relationship between coaches' behaviors of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and social support with sport enjoyment and

social constraint to continue participation in sport activity. There was no significant relationship between positive feedback and autocratic behaviors with sport commitment and involvement opportunities afforded by continued participation. Comparison of coaches' leadership styles demonstrated that coaches exhibited higher training and instruction and lower autocratic behavior. Their study showed significant relationship between sport commitment and team success and the coaches of successful teams exhibited higher training and instruction behaviors. The effect of coaching behaviors on player's commitment and team success apparently demonstrated the importance of using the appropriate leadership styles. It was found that Ethiopian premier league soccer players perceived training and instruction coaching behavior, democratic and social support had a statistically significant positive relationship with Sport enjoyment (SE).

Mclaggan, E., Bezuidenhout, A., & Botha, C. T. (2013). The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between the transformational and transactional leadership styles (as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X which include Nine sub-scales, including charisma, individualised consideration, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive),) and organisational commitment (Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) of Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993 consisting of 18 items) in the coal mining industry at a specific site in Phola. Results point out that the subordinates of supervisors who adopt a transformational leadership style, and show an interest in and value their subordinates and make the employees feel important, will show more affective commitment towards their organisation. The study indicates an association between the occurrence of transformational and transactional leadership and affective commitment. Employees who have more responsibility tend to feel that the organisation values their services and hence their commitment will be on the rise. Transformational leadership behaviours will encourage employees to be more committed to their organisation.

This chapter provided a review of the different definitions, views and research of the cultural dimensions ranging from those with dimensional perspective to those with a behavioural one. The differences between organisations belonging to various nations were considered. The chapter examined the antecedents used in various cultural Dimensions studies.

The different categories of cultural dimensions antecedents put forward by the authors were highlighted. The chapter further examined the various causal models of cultural dimensions, leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitment, and their relevance. Finally, this chapter provided an analysis of a number of instruments commonly used by researchers in organisation culture, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment.

2.8 THE GAP IN THE PRESENT RESEARCH:

In the past decade or so, the concept of organisational culture has grown in popularity and has received a great deal of interest. There has been little attention given to the effects of leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment on organisational culture in the past. Also, the relationships between organisational subculture and other variables such as leadership styles are largely not investigated. Since the importance of subcultures has been emphasized in recent years (Brown 1995, Martin 1992, Sackman 1992, Trice and Beyer 1993, GLOBE (2004), Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars(1993), the inclusion of organisational subculture in this empirical study will further enhance any theoretical framework of organisational culture.

Thus, investigation of the effects of antecedents such as organisational culture, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment in a multivariate study will further contribute to theory building and formulation.

Hence, it is the intention of this study to address this gap in the previous research. The relationship between the variables – in organisational culture, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment and certain demographic variables are also investigated in this empirical study.

2.9 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS PRESENT STUDY

The results of this study will:

1. Provide a greater understanding of the influence of leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment on organizational culture. Although the issue of organisational culture has been examined extensively in organisational studies, the link amongst organisational culture ,leadership behaviour style and commitment has received little attention. Since this study focuses on the professionals working in Indian and US based IT & ITeS companies in Chennai, India , the influence of various dimensions of leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitment on organizational culture and that of organizational commitment on leadership behavior style will be investigated. The influence of demographics on organizational culture, leadership behavior style, and organizational commitment will also be investigated. The above findings are important particularly in theory building related to organisational culture, leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitment, and demographics and also in determining effective change management strategies in organisations.
2. Determine whether the data gathered in this study are compatible with causal models in which the effects of various antecedent variables on organisational culture are mediated via their influences on organisational commitment and leadership behaviour styles.

CHAPTER – 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To study and identify and to compare the organisational culture of Foreign and Domestic MNCs.
2. To study and identify and to compare the leadership behaviour styles of Foreign and Domestic MNCs
3. To study and identify and to compare the organisational commitment of Foreign and Domestic MNCs
4. To study the influence of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organisational culture .
5. To study the influence of Organisational Commitment on Organisational Culture
6. To study the influence of Organisational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour style.
7. To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Culture.
8. To study the influence of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.
9. To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Commitment.

3.2 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

In this chapter, details of the research design and instrument of questionnaire used in the survey are provided. The methodology for data collection and analyses of the questionnaire is described. This chapter will outline the methodological procedures that were employed in this study. Attention will be given to the survey, the population, the sample, the instruments used for data collection, method of data collection and data analysis.

A detailed description of the construction of the questionnaire is given in Annexure .

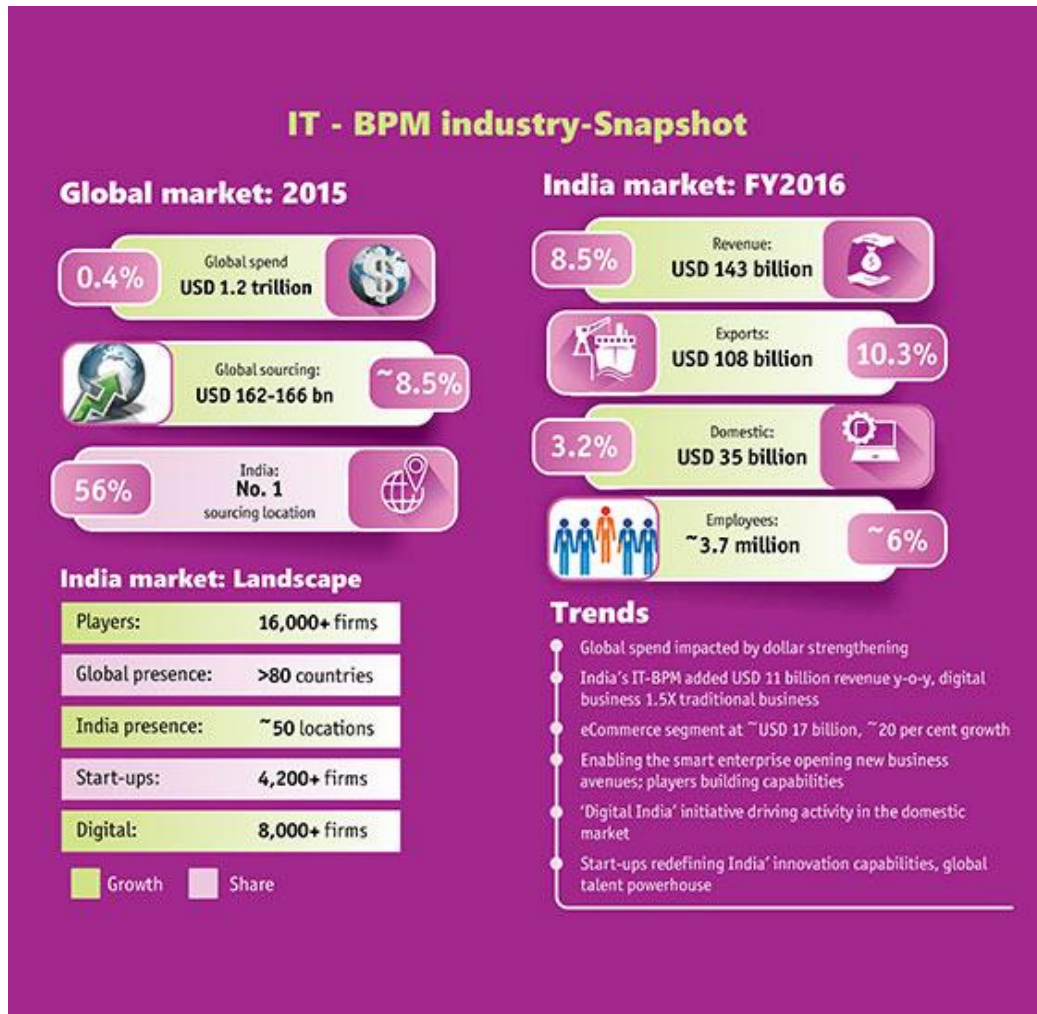
The sampling technique and the process of data collection for the questionnaire survey are discussed in section 3.5. Methods used in quantitative analyses for the questionnaire survey are detailed in section 3.5.

A questionnaire survey was used to assess the influences of organizational culture, leadership behaviour style and organizational commitment of the employees working in the IT & ITeS sector from either Indian or US based MNCs operating in Chennai. To accomplish this goal, a survey consisting of several existing instruments was employed in a manner to ensure a sufficient return.

The respondents are employees who belong to companies in the IT & ITeS with either US or Indian origin located in and around Chennai and are of any designation and from any department . The IT & ITeS industry is a revenue to the country and availability of skilled English speaking workforce has been a major reason behind India's emergence as a global outsourcing hub . During FYs 08-15, number of graduates addition to talent pool in India grew at a CAGR of 9.4 percent . India added around 5.8 million graduates to the

talent pool during FYs 08 -15. Growing talent pool of India has the ability to drive the R&D and innovation business in the IT-BPM space .

3.1 SNAPSHOT OF IT INDUSTRY



Source: <http://www.ibef.org>

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative study was chosen over a qualitative study for reasons of efficiency, cost, and the ability to make inferences of a large population by using a relatively small sample population (Creswell, 2003).

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Survey research is defined as "the administration of questionnaires to a sample of respondents selected from some population" (Babbie 1989, p. 257). Survey research is especially appropriate for making descriptive studies of large populations and may be used for explanatory purposes as well. Hence, it is appropriate for this study. The questionnaire survey design was chosen for the following reasons:

1. It can survey large samples at a reasonable cost.
2. It is relatively easy to design and many questions can be asked. In the present study, Likert scale was used for taking the responses in different questions.
3. It is relatively objective, the respondents can be anonymous and the data collected can be analysed statistically.

There are setbacks in the survey research method which this study acknowledges and attempts have been made to minimize (Babbie 1989, p. 255).

In the present study, the respondents are the employees of the US-based and India-based IT & ITeS sector from Chennai in their work setting. The study attempted to study the Cultural Dimensions, Leadership Behaviour style and Organizational Commitment and the linkages among the three along with the demographics. As such, this study employed exploratory non experimental research (Johnson,2001).

The study was prompted by the lack of previous research on the effect of organisational culture on leadership behaviour styles and organizational commitment in India , especially in the IT & ITeS sector.

A number of other variables which have been found to be related to organisational culture, include: leadership behavioral style and organisational

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commitment and demographic characteristics and these were included in the present study. It has been found that there exists relationships between organisational culture and leadership style (Sergiovanni and Corbally (1984), Smith and Peterson (1988), leadership and commitment (Blau 1985), age and commitment (Williams and Hazer 1986) and education and commitment (DeCotiis and Summers (1987) Mottaz (1988), Michaels (1994).

This empirical study also explored the extent to which the data were consistent with the causal models proposed by Price and by Williams, in which the effects of various antecedents on organisational culture bring together their effects on organizational commitment.

Using a quantitative approach allows the researcher to test hypotheses, relate variables, and use an unbiased approach with standards of validity and reliability (Creswell, 2003). This approach was the best approach for identifying the factors related to Cultural Dimensions, Leadership Behaviour and Organisational Commitment and their linkages among employees in the US and India based IT & ITeS companies in Chennai.

3.4 WEB-BASED SURVEY

The data were collected using a self-administered questionnaire, which was distributed using a web-based survey. This collection method was chosen for reasons of efficiency, potential return rate, and cost. Compared to a paper survey, which must be completed, placed into an envelope, and then taken to a mail box, a web-based survey requires little effort on the part of the respondent other than completing a series of questions and hitting a “submit” button. Web-based surveys provide the potential for a large return rate. Also the respondents being in the IT & ITeS sector, require no extra effort and new skills to fill in the questionnaire.

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The researcher has made use of the Google docs and as such all the submitted questionnaires would directly get into the email of the researcher.

In his study of housing professionals, a subset of student affairs professionals, Jones (2002) surveyed 3,995 housing professionals using a web-based survey, and had a usable response rate of 39 percent (n = 1,560). In addition, developing a web-based survey is less expensive and more environmentally sensitive than producing and mailing a paper survey.

The researcher faced a lot of problems due to the non access of the email ids of the respondents from the IT & ITeS sector. Though no organizations gave permission to conduct the survey, employees were ready to fill the questionnaire, hence the researcher had to use the social media like the LinkedIn for the survey.

The researcher also had to use hard copies for the survey. As expected, there was a lot of wastage of hard copies. Respondents filled only half the questionnaire or else did not fill in a full instrument. Though follow up measures were taken, it was not as effective as the web based survey.

3.5 POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE

The population for the study consists of the employees from around 500, large to small IT & ITeS companies located in and around in the city of Chennai, one of the important Metropolitan cities of India and also the hub of IT & ITeS companies. Around 5 lakh employees are working in these companies. The researcher could elicit responses from over 235 respondents as organizations are not willing to permit their employees to fill the questionnaire and share the information. Hence the researcher had to use sources like the social media for the survey.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Three previously established instruments (Questionnaires) were used in this study:

BASIC INFORMATION

Country of origin: US, although the project is international

Development date: 2002

Available versions: It is assumed that translations exist

Definition or conceptual model: Culture defined as shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations. Operationalised as measurement of culture manifestations of shared values and practices.

Intended purpose: To measure cultural variables and their effects on leader, organisational processes and the effectiveness of these processes

Format: Self report questionnaire

Dimensions, items and scales: Unknown number of items

Items in these dimensions were written in four forms ('quartets' with isomorphic structure): Two Culture manifestations; 'As is' (practices) and 'Should be' (values)) and two levels of analysis (organisational and societal culture).

Procedures for scaling and aggregation: Aggregated to organisation level

Level of measurement: Assumed interval

SCALE DEVELOPMENT

Methods used in item generation: Culture dimensions included had their origins in culture work of Hofstede (1980), McClelland (1985) and Putnam . Items were derived from review of the literature, interviews and focus groups in several countries, as well as from extant organisation and culture theory.

Methods used in item reduction and modification: Psychometric analyses (details not reported) indicated justification for grouping items into scales relevant to the nine core dimensions .

Face validity: No data reported

Acceptability: No data reported

Feasibility: Not applicable

Susceptibility to bias: No data reported

Norms: No data reported

Calibration: No data reported

RELIABILITY

Internal consistency: Alpha (4 dimensions at organization level of analysis only) ranged 0.48-0.85 for values scales (1 <0.6; 1 0.60-0.70; 2 >0.80) and 0.66-0.85 for practices scales (1 <0.7; 1 0.70-0.80; 2>0.80) (Bajdo and Dickinson 2001)40

Reproducibility (test retest) : Not applicable

Reproducibility (inter observer) Generalizability coefficient >0.85 for all scales (House et al. 2002). Within group inter rater agreement (Rwg) analyses

to justify aggregation to level of organization (4 dimensions at organization level of analysis only); values scales ranged from 0.69 to 0.90, practices scale ranged from 0.61 to 0.85 (Bajdo and Dickinson 2001)

VALIDITY

Content validity: No data reported

Criterion validity: No data reported

Predictive validity: Six of seven hypotheses relating scales scores (4 dimensions at organization level of analysis only) with percentage of women in management supported (Bajdo and Dickinson 2001).

Convergent validity: Unobtrusive measures of the nine societal level dimensions of culture correlated between 0.5 and 0.7 with the questionnaire societal level dimensions (House et al. 2002).

Discriminative validity: High between culture differences in aggregated means of individual responses (no details found)

Discriminant functions : Created to predict classification of societies into clusters based on scale scores, 59% prediction accuracy in hold out validation sample. Statistically different mean societal scores for clusters in high and low categories (Gupta et al.) .

Cross cultural validity: Scale used to develop clusters of societies using analysis of international level data

Dimensional validity: Psychometric analyses indicated justification for grouping items into scales relevant to none core dimensions (details not reported).

Sensitivity to change: No data reported

What contexts and populations has the measure been used in? n=15,000 middle managers from approximately 875 organisations in 60 countries in financial services, food services or telecommunications (n=3544 from 114 organisations in 32 countries use in analysis; Bajdo and Dickinson.

TABLE 1.1: PSYCHOMETRIC ASSESSMENT SUMMARY

Measure name	Internal consistency	Test-retest reliability	Aggregation	Ass'n with descriptors	Ass'n with outcomes	Ass'n with Culture climate	Dimensional validity	Sensitivity to change
GLOBE	Unclear	No assessment	Adequate	Minimal	Available	Minimal	Unclear	No assessment

Source: Jung, T, T Scott, HTO Davies, P Bower, D Whalley, R McNally, and R Mannion (2007), Instruments for the Exploration of Organisational Culture, Working Paper, Available at <http://www.scothub.org/culture/instruments.html>

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) provides a technique whereby group members may describe the leader behavior of designated leaders in formal organizations. Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by Halpin and Winer was selected for this study because it provides the two dimensions which have been widely used and well validated by researchers in organisational studies (Mathieu and Zajac 1990, Mukhi 1982).

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) which measure 2 sub dimensions viz., the Consideration (people) and Task Orientation (to be understood also as Initiating Structure) which is measured on a 5 point Likert Scale.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this questionnaire, group members assess their superiors, peers and immediate supervisor on how they are as leaders. Many other questionnaires on leadership are self administered, wherein it does not give the correct picture of the leader. A leader and leadership qualities are best when assessed by the subordinate as they will have a better picture of their leader.

Though old, this questionnaire is still valid in terms of its assessment and is being used by renowned researchers too.

The LBDQ contains items, each of which describes a specific way in which a leader may behave. The respondent indicates the frequency with which he perceives the leader to engage in each type of behavior by marking one of five adverbs: Always, often, occasionally, seldom, never. These responses are obtained from the members of the leader's immediate work-group, and are scored on two dimensions of leader behavior. For each dimension, the scores from the several group members are then averaged to yield an index of the leader's behavior.

The LBDQ was developed by the staff of the Personnel Research Board, The Ohio State University, as one project of the Ohio State Leadership Studies, directed by Dr. Carroll L. Shartle. Hemphill and Coons constructed the original form of the questionnaire; in reporting the development of an Air

Force adaptation of the instrument, identified Initiating Structure and Consideration Orientation as two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior. These dimensions were identified on the basis of a factor analysis of the responses of 300 B-29 crew members who described the leader behavior of their 52 aircraft commanders. Initiating Structure and Consideration accounted for approximately 34 to 50 per cent respectively of the common variance. In a subsequent study based upon a sample of 249 aircraft commanders, the correlation between the scores on the two dimensions was found to be .38.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done.

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationship between the leader and members of the group.

The possible range of scores on each dimension is 0 to 60.

The estimated reliability by the split-half method is .83 for the Initiating Structure scores, and .92 for the Consideration scores, when corrected for attenuation.

Organisational Commitment:

Organizational Commitment was studied using the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales (ACS, CCS, and NCS, respectively) developed by (Allen & Meyer). These scales are used to measure individual's commitment to an organization.

Affective Commitment Scale (ACS): There have been tests of validity and reliability for the ACS performed by Allen and Meyer (1990a), Clugston (2000), Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999), Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998), Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin (1999), and Shore and Tetrick (1991). In addition, Allen and Meyer (1996) performed a meta-analysis of 44 studies utilizing the ACS. Allen and Meyer (1990a) studied links between newcomers' commitment and role orientation, and found alpha coefficients for the ACS between .83 and .85. Clugston (2000) found a reliability estimate of .85 for the ACS. Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999) reported a coefficient alpha of .84 for the ACS. Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998) used the ACS to

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examine the combined effects of work values and early work experiences on commitment. This study produced a coefficient alpha of .85 in two separate administrations of the ACS. Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin(1999) reported an internal reliability of .84 for the ACS. Various exploratory factor analyses found that the ACS items are distinct from related measures for career, job, and work value constructs (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Continuance Commitment Scale (CCS)

Validity and reliability of the CCS have been performed by Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999), Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998), Shore and Tetrick (1991), Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin (1999), and in 39 studies examined through the meta- analysis by Allen and Meyer (1996). Coleman, Irving, and Cooper (1999) reported a coefficient alpha of .82 for the CCS. Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998) found reliability estimates of .69 and .75 in two separate administrations of the CCS. Shore and Tetrick (1991) reported a coefficient alpha of .83 for the CCS in their study. Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, and Birjulin (1999) reported an internal reliability of .70 for the CCS. Allen and Meyer's (1996) meta-analysis found reliability estimates between .69 and .85, with a median reliability of .79. The CCS items are distinct from the items in the ACS (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

Normative Commitment Scale (NCS)

The NCS is not used as frequently as either the ACS or the CCS. Allen and Meyer (1996) reported only 20 studies in their meta-analysis that utilized the NCS. They reported reliability estimates between .52 and .83, with a median reliability of .73. Clugston (2000) found a reliability estimate of .80 for the NCS. Meyer, Irving, and Allen (1998) reported reliability estimates of .74 and .85 for their two administrations of the NCS. While factor analyses have indicated that the NCS is distinct from the ACS and CCS, there is some concern that the NCS overlaps the measure of the ACS (Allen & Meyer,

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1996). Allen and Meyer's (1996) meta-analysis indicates that the ACS, CCS, and NCS are indeed distinct constructs, and are distinguishable from career-job-work values, career commitment, and occupational commitment. The three forms of commitment are also distinguishable from measures of job satisfaction and perceived organizational support (Shore & Tetrick, 1991)

For measuring the Cultural Dimensions, the Researcher used the questionnaire developed by House (1971), [Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Project - Form Alpha - AS IS questionnaire- GLOBE] for its 9 sub - dimensions of organisational culture ,wherein the 7 point Likert Scale was used.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) developed by Halpin and Winer (1957) was used to measure 2 sub dimensions viz., the Consideration (to be understood as people orientation) and Initiating Structure also as Task Orientation) wherein a 5 point Likert Scale was used.

Organizational Commitment was studied using the Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment Scales (ACS, CCS, and NCS, respectively) (Allen & Meyer,) to study the multi-dimensional aspects of an individual's commitment to an organization. The ACS, CCS, and NCS are each operationalized using a eight -item scale which utilizes a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree).

As all the questionnaires were standardized questionnaires, there were no serious problems with the questionnaire or with the procedures, but, there were negative comments in the returns which reflected a concern that the questionnaire was too long and participants could lose concentration. Since all measures were regarded as necessary for this study, the length of the questionnaire was unavoidable and therefore, no changes were made.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Demographic variables (age, years in the position and tertiary qualifications), suggested in previous studies as relevant, were included in the present study .

The use of a quantitative survey, with appropriate sampling procedures, allows the researcher to make inferences about all employees using a smaller representative sample of the entire population and is cost effective.

Using a quantitative approach allows the researcher to test hypotheses, relate variables, and use an unbiased approach with standards of validity and reliability (Creswell, 2003). This approach was the best approach for identifying the factors related to Cultural Dimensions, Leadership Behaviour and organisational Commitment and their linkages among employees in the US and India based companies in Chennai.

The average time to complete the questionnaire was 22 minutes.

Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE): The GLOBE Survey is a Self report questionnaire, consisting of 32 questions, measuring the AS IS questions with its 9 sub - dimensions of organization culture ,on a 7- point Likert Scale. This questionnaire was used for nine dimensions of organization culture.

The questionnaire which was used is given in appendices consisting of questions pertaining to organisational culture, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment and the demographics

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS USED:

Survey questionnaires were collected and responses to items defining the Variables – organizational culture, leader behaviour description questionnaire and organizational commitment were entered into the SPSS ver. 20 and AMOS ver. 20 for data analysis. Means and standard deviations were calculated for each variable. Although the instruments selected in this study

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were all well established, it was necessary to confirm them once again for this study because of its usage in the Indian context. Cronbach alpha estimates of reliability were calculated for all scales. Correlations between all variables were calculated.

Multiple regression was used to investigate the relationship between the dependent variable (organizational culture) and independent variables (leader behaviour and organizational commitment demographic variables).

Confirmatory factor analysis was also done as Confirmatory Factor Analysis allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. Multiple regression was used to determine the effects of organizational culture on leadership style and organizational commitment. An analytical framework was used to interpret the results of the multiple regression analyses.

3.8 VALIDITY:

According to Zikmund and Babin (2010), validity is the accuracy of a measure or the extent to which a score truthfully represents a concept. Four major threats to the validity of research findings are the lack of, external and internal validity, construct validity and statistical conclusion validity (Cook and Campbell 1979). Many of the threats to validity arise from the research design and the design of the instruments used. There are two main types of validity, internal and external. Internal validity refers to the validity of the measurement and test itself. A measure of accuracy of an experiment. It measures whether the manipulation of the independent variable or treatments actually caused the effects on the dependent variable .

External validity is the ability to generalize the findings to the target population. A determination of whether the cause and effect relationships found in the experiment can be generalized.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

When questionnaires are measuring something abstract, researchers also need to establish its construct validity. This refers to the questionnaire's ability to measure the abstract concept adequately. Hair (2006) concedes that Construct validity provides confidence that the item measures taken from a sample represents the actual true score that exists in the population.

CHAPTER – 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND MAJOR FINDINGS

4.1 DATA ANALYSIS:

TABLE 4.1: MODEL FIT INDICES

	Variables	χ^2	Df	GFI	CFI
1	Organizational Culture	64.28	14	.93	.93
2	Leadership Behaviour	296.32	185	.90	.94
3	Organizational Commitment	155.86	48	.90	.82

p<.05

The fit of models were assessed with the Chi square (χ^2) statistic, the comparative-fit-index (CFI), Goodness-fit-Index (GFI). In general, models with fit indices > .90 indicate reasonable fit to data. It can be seen from the Table that GFI of all three measures satisfy the criteria. Although CFI of organizational commitment is less than the prescribed value, it can be said that data fits the model reasonably. Degree of freedom is the difference between the number of distinct sample moments and the number of distinct parameters that have to be estimated. The goodness of fit index (GFI) is a measure of fit between the hypothesized model and the observed covariance matrix. The comparative fit index (CFI) analyzes the model fit by examining the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesized model that the three variables-Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour, and Organizational Commitment - are normally distributed, while adjusting for the issues of sample size inherent in the Chi-square test of model fit (Gatignon 2010).

Further, the Null Hypotheses that the variables of Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour, and Organizational Commitment are not Normally distributed stand rejected as the calculated values of Chi Square (χ^2) as shown in the Table above are greater than the values given in the Chi Square Table at $p < .05$ for their respective degrees of freedom, again shown in the Table above, i.e., 23.7 for Organizational Culture, 217.465 for Leadership Behaviour, and 65.16 for Organizational Commitment.

Thus, we may draw the inferences that the three variables, namely, Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour, and Organizational Commitment are normally distributed.

TABLE 4.2: RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURES

	Variables	No. of questions in each variable	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach Alpha
1	Organizational Culture	32	4.1841	.56770	.72
2	Leadership Behaviour	26	3.6266	.73624	.89
3	Organizational Commitment	24	3.8914	.97099	.71

Reliability of the scales as measured through Cronbach Alpha are given in the Table 4. 2 above. As it can be seen, these are above the acceptable value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006) indicating good reliability of the measures.

The researcher used the SPSS ver. 20 for coding the questionnaire and analysis. The researcher has used Confirmatory Factor Analysis AMOS-SPSS ver.20 to find out how well the items measures the constructs, it is intended to.

SEM(Structured Equation Modelling) designed to find the factor loadings with the help of AMOS software version 20.

FIGURE 4.1.1: THE CFA LOADINGS FOR ORGANISATION CULTURE

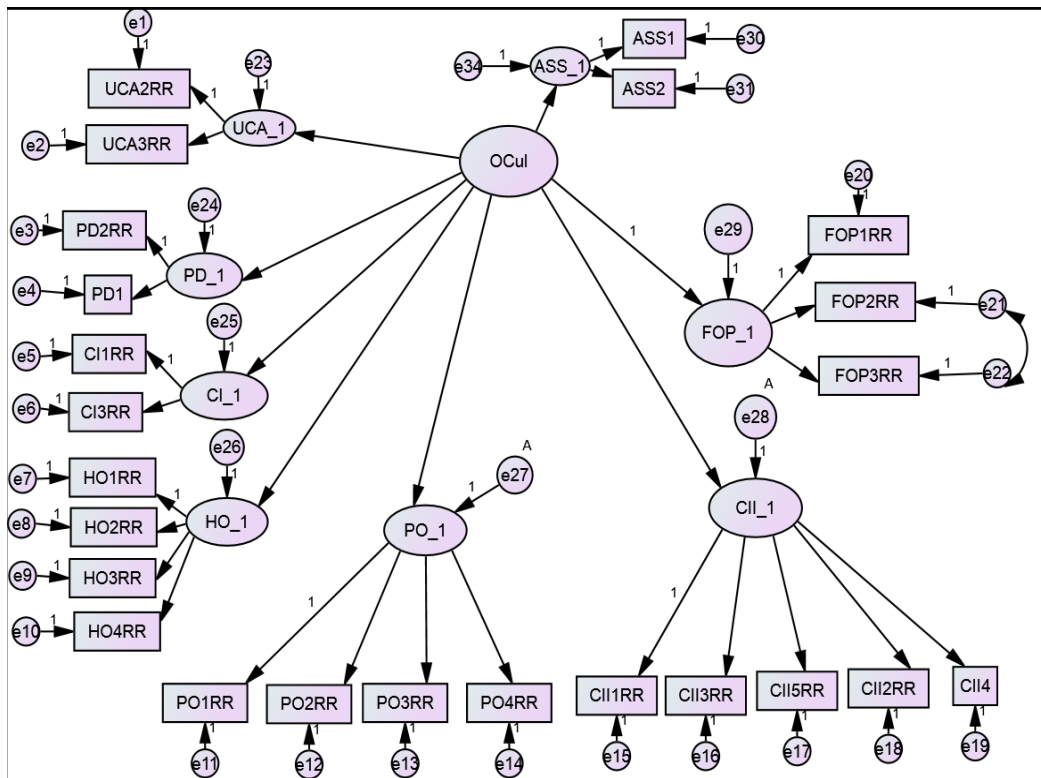


FIGURE 4.1.2: STANDARDIZED REGRESSION WEIGHTS: (GROUP NUMBER 1 - DEFAULT MODEL)

			Estimate
UCA_1	<---	OCul	0.911
PD_1	<---	OCul	-0.873
CI_1	<---	OCul	0.748
HO_1	<---	OCul	0.869
PO_1	<---	OCul	0.769
CII_1	<---	OCul	0.721
FOP_1	<---	OCul	0.728
GE_1	<---	OCul	-0.069
ASS_1	<---	OCul	-0.458
UCA2RR	<---	UCA_1	0.575
UCA3RR	<---	UCA_1	0.785
PD2RR	<---	PD_1	0.467
PD1	<---	PD_1	0.739
CI1RR	<---	CI_1	0.329
CI3RR	<---	CI_1	0.625
HO1RR	<---	HO_1	0.697

HO2RR	<---	HO_1	0.562
HO3RR	<---	HO_1	0.6
HO4RR	<---	HO_1	0.692
PO1RR	<---	PO_1	0.795
PO2RR	<---	PO_1	0.667
PO3RR	<---	PO_1	0.703
PO4RR	<---	PO_1	0.514
CII1RR	<---	CII_1	0.706
CII3RR	<---	CII_1	0.71
CII5RR	<---	CII_1	0.814
CII2RR	<---	CII_1	0.329
CII4	<---	CII_1	0.357
FOP1RR	<---	FOP_1	0.527
FOP2RR	<---	FOP_1	0.823
FOP3RR	<---	FOP_1	0.566
GE1	<---	GE_1	0.214
GE2	<---	GE_1	0.383
GE3	<---	GE_1	1.081
ASS1	<---	ASS_1	0.753
ASS2	<---	ASS_1	0.676
ASS3	<---	ASS_1	0.331
ASS4	<---	ASS_1	0.268

As far as organizational culture is concerned, gender egalitarianism did not load well on the organizational culture construct. Hence, it was removed from any further analyses of organizational culture. Also, one item each in uncertainty avoidance, power distance, collectivism- I, had to be removed due to the same reason.

SEM MODEL FIT SUMMARY

Tables below show the Model Fit Measures for Organisational Culture:

TABLE 4.3.1 ABSOLUTE FIT MEASURES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Absolute Fit Measures Test	Recommended Value
χ^2 /CMIN	162.219
	p=.000
DF	.202
GFI	.808
RMSEA	.217

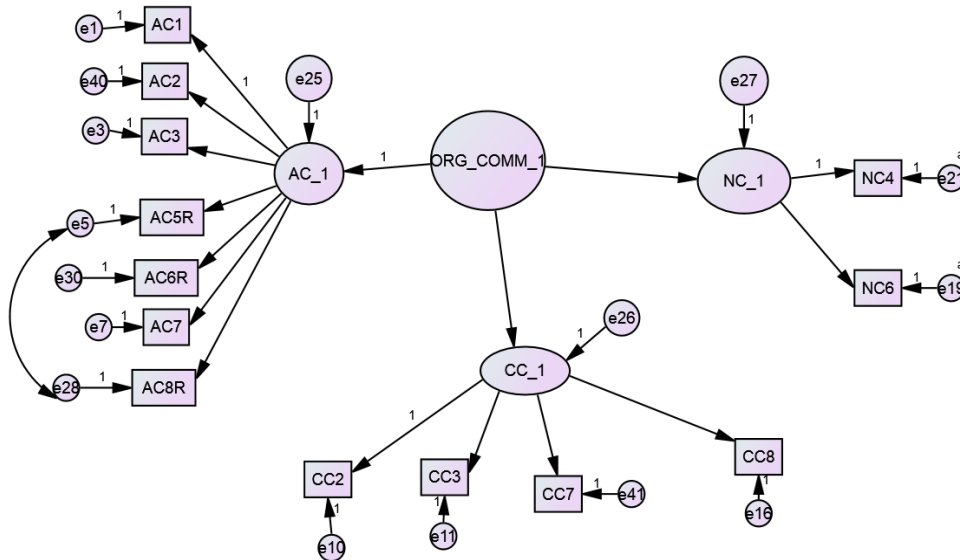
TABLE 4. 3.2 RELATIVE FIT MEASURES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

Relative Fit Measures Test	Recommended Value
CFI	.793
NFI	.714
RFI	.673
IFI	.796

TABLE 4. 3.3 : PARSIMONIOUS FIT MEASURE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Test	Recommended Value
PCFI	.625
PNFI	.693

FIGURE 4.2.1: THE CFA LOADINGS FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT



SEM (Structured Equation Modelling) designed to find the factor loadings with the help of AMOS software version 20.

FIGURE 4.2.2: STANDARDIZED REGRESSION WEIGHTS: (GROUP NUMBER II - DEFAULT MODEL) ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

			Estimate
CComm	<---	OrgComm	1.026
NComm	<---	OrgComm	0.458
AComm	<---	OrgComm	0.524
CC2	<---	CComm	0.682
CC3	<---	CComm	0.62
CC8	<---	CComm	0.417
AC5RR	<---	AComm	0.689
AC6RR	<---	AComm	0.637
AC1	<---	AComm	0.692
AC3	<---	AComm	0.502
AC7	<---	AComm	0.647
AC8RR	<---	AComm	0.556
AC2	<---	AComm	0.37
NC4	<---	NComm	0.721
NC6	<---	NComm	0.628
AC4RR	<---	AComm	0.13

2 items in continuance commitment, 2 items in normative commitment could not be retained for analysis, again due to poor loadings on their respective constructs. While in affective commitment, only one item had to be removed, as all the other items loaded well on the measure. After removing the above mentioned items, their model fit indices improved.

SEM Model Fit Summary: Organisational Commitment:

Tables below show the Model Fit Measures for Organisational Commitment:

TABLE 4.4.1: ABSOLUTE FIT MEASURES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Test	Recommended Value
χ^2 /CMIN	162.219
	p=.000
DF	49
GFI	.895
RMSEA	.099

TABLE 4.4.2: RELATIVE FIT MEASURES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Test	Recommended Value
CFI	.816
NFI	.762
RFI	.679
IFI	.821

TABLE 4.4.3: PARSIMONIOUS FIT MEASURE OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Test	Recommended Value
PCFI	.565
PNFI	.606

**FIGURE 4.3.1: THE CFA LOADINGS FOR LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR
STYLE**

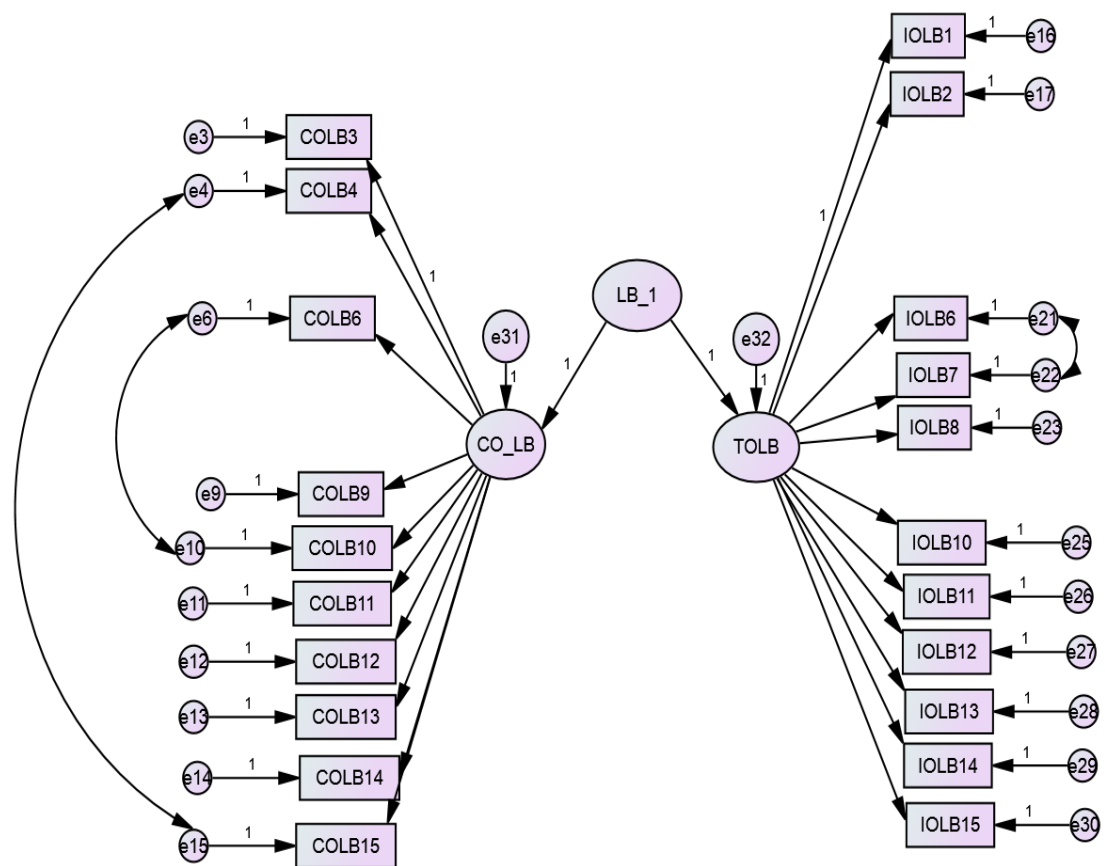


FIGURE 4.3.2: STANDARDIZED REGRESSION WEIGHTS: (GROUP NUMBER III - DEFAULT MODEL) LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE.

COLB3	<---	CO_LB	.592
COLB4	<---	CO_LB	.546
COLB6	<---	CO_LB	.451
COLB9	<---	CO_LB	.532
COLB10	<---	CO_LB	.717
COLB11	<---	CO_LB	.685
COLB12	<---	CO_LB	.656
COLB13	<---	CO_LB	.690
COLB14	<---	CO_LB	.713
COLB15	<---	CO_LB	.667
IOLB7	<---	TOLB	.554
IOLB8	<---	TOLB	.664
IOLB10	<---	TOLB	.529
IOLB11	<---	TOLB	.660
IOLB12	<---	TOLB	.528
IOLB13	<---	TOLB	.622
IOLB1	<---	TOLB	.587
IOLB2	<---	TOLB	.661
IOLB6	<---	TOLB	.482
IOLB14	<---	TOLB	.696
IOLB15	<---	TOLB	.761

In consideration orientation of leadership behaviour style, out of 15 items, 5 items did not seem to load well, hence had to be removed. Similar was the case with task orientation, wherein 4 items had to be removed.

MODEL FIT SUMMARY: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE:

Tables below show the Model Fit Measures for Leadership Behaviour Style:

TABLE 4 .5.1: ABSOLUTE FIT MEASURES OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE

Test	Recommended Value
χ^2 /CMIN	296.324
	p=0.000
DF	185
GFI	.896
RMSEA	<0.051

TABLE 4. 5.2 RELATIVE FIT MEASURES OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE

Test	Recommended Value
CFI	.941
NFI	.858
FI	.839
IFI	.941

TABLE 4.5.3 : PARSIMONIOUS FIT MEASURE OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE.

Test	Recommended Value
PCFI	.829
PNFI	.756

TEST FOR ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE, LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR STYLE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT FOR THE TABLES : 4.4.1/2/3, 4.5.1/2/3, 4.6.1/2/3

χ^2 = Chi- Square Test , CMIN/DF = Chi square test / Degree of freedom , RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index NFI = Normed Fit Index, RFI = Relative Fit Index, IFI = Incremental Fit Index, GFI = Goodness Fit Index. PCFI= Parsimony Comparative Fit Index, PNFI= Parsimony Normed Fit Index

4.2 SUMMARY OF MODEL:

From the above models it can be summarized that SEM Model FITS Moderately as far as the appropriateness of the questionnaire for measuring the three constructs.

There are three main measures that are used to assess the fit of a CFA model; absolute, incremental and parsimony adjusted fit indices. The absolute fit indices measure the inconsistency of the model without referring to other models (Blunch, 2008). The most commonly used measures of the absolute fit indices are GFI, RMSEA, RMR, SRMR, CMIN/DF and AGFI. The goodness-of-fit index (GFI) should be over 0.9 to be considered very good. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) should be between 0.05 and 0.08, while the root mean square residual (RMR) and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) should be below 0.1. The Normed Chi-square (CMIN/DF) should be less than 3, but preferably 2. (Blunch, 2008; Hair et al., 2010).

The incremental fit indices compare the target model with an explicit basic model (Blunch, 2008). To measure the relative fit indices, the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Relative Fit Index (RFI) are commonly used. The values should be over 0.9 to be considered a very good fit.

The parsimony fit indices increase the number of parameters to improve complicated model fits to make them more realistic (Blunch, 2008). The Parsimonious Normed-Fit Index (PNFI) is normally used in CFA. The PNFI values are between 0 and 1, and values over 0.6 are considered satisfying.

TABLE 4. 6.1: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST FOR ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	496
	Sig.	.000

TABLE 4. 6.2: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST FOR LBDQ

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.897
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	435
	Sig.	.000

TABLE 4.6.3: KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST FOR ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df	496
	Sig.	.000

The KMO measures for sampling adequacy, is an index used to examine the appropriateness of factor analysis. The KMO value varies from 0 to 1. Higher value (between 0.5 and 1) indicate the appropriateness of factor analysis. For all the above 3 tables, the KMO values is found to be more than 0.8 which is nearer to one. Hence factor analysis is appropriate for this data.

Bartlett's test approximates a Chi-square Distribution. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity – the significance value of Barlett's Test is 0.000 for all the above 3 tables. This leads to rejection of the idea that the correlation matrix is identity matrix. We can infer that the data for the three constructs are normally distributed, the sample size is adequate and that the items to measure the three constructs in the questionnaire are appropriate.

TABLE4. 7.1: BIVARIATE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE THREE MAIN VARIABLES

	Variables	1	2	3
1	Organizational Culture	1		
2	Leadership Behaviour	.43**	1	
3	Organizational Commitment	.42**	.33**	1

** p< .01

The above table shows that there is a correlation between the variables and the null hypotheses that (1) the correlation between Organizational Culture and Leadership Behaviour (2) the correlation between Organizational Culture and Organizational Commitment, and (3) the correlation between Leadership Behaviour and Organizational Commitment are not statistically significant stand rejected at $p < .01$ and degree of freedom 233 as the corresponding values from the statistical correlation table are less than the calculated values, given in Table No 4.7.1.

This means that the correlations between these pairs are statistically significant.

Bivariate correlation is a measure of the relationship between the two variables; it measures the strength of their relationship, which can range from absolute value -1 to +1. The stronger the relationship, the closer the value is to 1. In case of positive correlation, the value is closer to +1 while for negative correlation, the value is closer to -1.

TABLE 4.7.2 CORRELATION TABLE BETWEEN VARIOUS DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

		I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
I	FOP																
2	PO	.56**															
3	HO	.38**	.63**														
4	CII	.30**	.43**	.34**													
5	CI2	.44**	.68**	.65**	.38**												
6	UCA	.57**	.61**	.45**	.35**	.49**											
7	PD	-.30**	-.57**	-.57**	-.14*	-.48**	-.45**										
8	ASS	-.41**	-.44**	-.26**	-.30**	-.35**	-.37**	.19**									
9	OCUL	.70**	.75**	.66**	.65**	.71**	.72**	-.28**	-.24**								
10	CO	.30**	.48**	.54**	.20**	.46**	.38**	-.52**	-.13*	.43**							
11	IS	.25**	.49**	.36**	.22**	.39**	.37**	-.37**	-.20**	.39**	.75**						
12	LB	.30**	.52**	.49**	.22**	.46**	.40**	-.48**	-.18**	.43**	.94**	.93**					
13	AC	.32**	.46**	.48**	.18**	.51**	.32**	-.39**	-.14*	.44**	.39**	.33**	.39*	*			
14	CC	.16*	.22**	.20**	.13	.24**	.25**	-.13*	-.11	.25**	.20**	.14*	.18*	.35*	*	*	
15	NC	.17**	.12	.15*	.28**	.18**	.14*	-.08	-.05	.25**	.17**	.19**	.19*	.34*	*	.27**	
16	OCO MM	.29**	.34**	.35**	.27**	.40**	.31**	-.25**	-.13*	.42**	.33**	.29**	.33*	.73*	*	.72**	.76**

Note: FOP – Future Oriented Organizational Practices, ASS- Assertiveness , PD- Power Distance, C1 – Collectivism I , HO- Humane Orientation, UCA – Uncertainty Avoidance, PO- Performance Orientation, CII – Collectivism II, OCUL – Organizational Culture, CO – Consideration Orientation, IS – task Orientation, LB – Leadership Behaviour, AC – Affective Commitment, CC – Continuance Commitment, NC – Normative Commitment and OCOMM- Organizational Commitment.

The above Table shows that the different sub dimensions of the main variables-Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour, and Organizational Commitment have positive as well as negative correlations in varying degrees at $p < .01$

TABLE 4.8 : COMPARISON OF MEAN SCORES BETWEEN INDIAN AND US SAMPLES ON THE MAIN VARIABLES AND THE SUB-VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Variables	Mean		Std . Deviation		Std. Error Mean		t	Df
	India	US	India	US	India	US		
FOP	4.540	4.443	1.354	1.373	0.111	0.149	0.524	233
ASS	3.867	3.655	1.030	1.082	0.084	0.117	1.480	233
PD	3.916	3.815	1.272	1.280	0.104	0.139	0.577	233
CI	4.298	4.219	1.083	0.956	0.088	0.104	0.554	233
HO	4.172	4.267	1.078	1.255	0.088	0.136	-0.618	233
UCA	4.129	4.305	1.145	1.226	0.093	0.133	-1.110	233
PO	4.583	4.511	1.234	1.298	0.101	0.141	0.419	233
CII	4.260	4.345	1.069	1.070	0.087	0.116	-0.591	233
GEG	3.813	4.003	1.137	1.020	0.093	0.111	-1.280	233
ORGCUL	4.175	4.174	0.499	0.536	0.041	0.041	0.012	233
AC	3.872	3.695	0.944	0.933	0.077	0.101	2.023	233
NC	4.067	3.841	0.874	0.718	0.071	0.078	0.988	233
CC	3.960	3.847	0.793	0.923	0.065	0.100	1.988	233
O Com	3.966	3.794	0.634	0.637	0.052	0.069	1.380	233
CO	3.537	3.563	0.759	0.924	0.062	0.100	-0.194	233
IS	3.659	3.789	0.745	0.764	0.061	0.083	-1.168	233
LB	3.598	3.676	0.705	0.790	0.058	0.086	-0.780	233

p < .01

FOP- Future oriented Practices, **ASS-** Assertiveness, **PD-** Power Distance, **CI-** Collectivism I, **HO-** Humane Orientation, **UCA-** Uncertainty Avoidance, **PO-**Performance Orientation, **CII-**Collectivism II, **O Com.-** Organisational Commitment, **CC-** Continuance Commitment, **ORGCUL-**Organisational Culture, **GEG-** Gender Egalitarianism, **AC-**Affective Commitment, **NC-** Normative Culture, **CO-** Consideration Orientation, **IS-**task orientation, **LB-** Leadership Behaviour.

4.3 MAIN HYPOTHESES FOR OBJECTIVES 1,2, & 3.

Ho1 : There is no significant difference in the organisational culture of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.1: There is no significant difference in the Future Oriented Practices of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.2: There is no significant difference in the Performance Orientation of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.3: There is no significant difference in the Humane Orientation of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.4: There is no significant difference in the Collectivism I of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.5: There is no significant difference in the Collectivism II of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.6: There is no significant difference in the Uncertainty Avoidance of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.7: There is no significant difference in the Power Distance of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho1.8: There is no significant difference in the Assertiveness of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho2: There is no significant difference in the Leadership Behaviour Styles of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho2.1: There is no significant difference in the Consideration Orientation leadership behaviour styles of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho2.2: There is no significant difference in the Task Orientation leadership behaviour styles of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho3: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho3.1: There is no significant difference in the Affective commitment of the organizations of the two countries

Ho3.2: There is no significant difference in the Normative Commitment of the organizations of the two countries.

Ho3.3: There is no significant difference in the Continuance Commitment of the organizations of the two countries.

The equality of means for various dimensions contained in the above Table 4.8 was tested using the 't' test at $p < .01$ (one tail test) and the results of the test with respect to various hypotheses, as mentioned above, are tabulated in Table No.4.9 given below.

We find from the t-table that the value of 't' for $p = .01$ and degree of freedom 233 is equal to 2.342 for one tail test.

The calculated value of 't' for various dimensions are given in Table 4.8

As the calculated value of 't' is less than table value of 't' i.e. 2.342 for all the dimensions, we fail to reject all the above Null Hypotheses stated above.

This means that the two samples- US based and India based- come from the same population.

We can, therefore, infer that the Dimensions of Organisation Culture, Leadership Behaviour, and Organisational Commitment for Indian IT Industries and US based IT Industries located in and around Chennai do not differ significantly.

THE RESULTS PERTAINING TO A GIVEN COMBINATION OF OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES 1, 2, AND 3 ARE GIVEN IN THE TABLE BELOW:

TABLE 4.9 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS.

Objectives	Hypothesis	P	t test	Null Hypothesis
1. To study, & to identify and to compare the cultural dimensions in the Foreign and Domestic MNCs	Ho1: There is no significant difference in the organisational culture of the two countries.	** p< .01	.012	Fail to reject
	Ho1.1: There is no significant difference in the Future Oriented Practices of the two countries	** p< .01	0.524	Fail to reject
	Ho1.2: There is no significant difference in the Performance Orientation of the two countries	** p< .01	0.419	Fail to reject
	Ho1.3: There is no significant difference in the Humane Orientation of the two countries	** p< .01	- 0.618	Fail to reject
	Ho1.4: There is no significant difference in the Collectivism I of the two countries	** p< .01	0.554	Fail to reject
	Ho1.5: There is no significant difference in the Collectivism II of the two countries	** p< .01	- 0.591	Fail to reject
	Ho1.6: There is no significant difference in the Uncertainty Avoidance of the two countries	** p< .01	-1.11	Fail to reject
	Ho1.7: There is no significant difference in the Power Distance of the two countries	** p< .01	.577	Fail to reject
	Ho1.8: There is no significant difference in the Assertiveness of the two countries	** p< .01	1.480	Fail to reject

2. To study and identify and to compare the leadership behaviour styles of Foreign and Domestic MNCs	Ho2: There is no significant difference in the leadership behaviour styles of the two countries.	** p< .01	- 0.780	Fail to reject
	Ho2.1: There is no significant difference in the Consideration Orientation leadership behaviour style of the two countries	** p< .01	- 0.194	Fail to reject
	Ho2.2: There is no significant difference in the Task Orientation / Initiating Structures of the two countries	** p< .01	- 1.168	Fail to reject
3. To study and identify and to compare the organisational commitment of the Foreign and Domestic MNCs	Ho3: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment.	** p< .01	1.380	Fail to reject
	Ho3.1: There is no significant difference in the Affective commitment of the two countries	** p< .01	2.023	Fail to reject
	Ho3.2: There is no significant difference in the Normative Commitment of the two countries	** p< .01	0.988	Fail to reject
	Ho3.3: There is no significant difference in the Continuance Commitment of the two countries	** p< .01	1.988	Fail to reject

4.4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS: FIRST THREE OBJECTIVES.

The 16 variables included in the present study were identified with the help of Review of Literature and are shown in Table 4.8. These variables are grouped into organizational culture, leadership behaviour styles and organizational commitment and their respective dimensions.

The responses were obtained from the respondents belonging to India and the US based IT and ITeS organizations, in Chennai with the help of the questionnaires which is given the Appendix 1.

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis using AMOS ver. 20 was used with a view to exploring if the responses pertaining to different dimensions of Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organizational Commitment fit in to the model.

The SEM Figures 4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1 confirm that the dimensions used in the study have significant factor loadings, and therefore, the dimensions identified as per our review of literature and the questionnaires measuring the same have been appropriately identified which was required of the researcher, i.e., identification of dimensions of Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organizational Commitment.

The reliability scores for both the countries, India and U.S., pertaining to Organizational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organizational Commitment are almost the same, signifying that there is no significant difference in the variables of the study (table 4.2)

Also, as we fail to reject the Null Hypothesis pertaining to all the dimensions, as tabulated in table 4.9, we may infer that cultural dimensions in the organizations of the two countries do not differ.

Though the intention of the researcher was to compare the dimensions of the two types of organizations in the IT and ITeS sector located in and around Chennai, it, rather, turned out to be a study of organisational culture, Leadership Behaviour style and organisational commitment of the Indian and US based organizations in the IT and the ITeS sector.

The difference between the means of all the variables of both the countries is almost same or similar and this is confirmed using the t- test. As we have found that the correlation coefficients between the pair of variables are significant (Table 4.2), the researcher decided to study the influence of one dimension over the other and a regression analysis was used to study the nature of influence. The similar influences were studied by researchers in the past as are evident in the review of literature.

Hence objectives 4, 5 and 6 as given in the Chapter on Research Methodology vide Section 3.1 have also been pursued by the researcher.

Further, the influence of Demographics on Organization Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organization Commitment, as contained in objectives 7, 8, and 9 have also been pursued by the researcher.

4.5 MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR OBJECTIVE NOS. 4, 5,6,7,8, AND 9.

Standardized residual plots that are generated as part of multiple regression was analysed to check for multivariate normality. Linearity represents the degree to which the change in dependent variable is associated with the independent variable. The residual plots show the combined effect of all the independent variables on the dependent variable, whereas partial regression plots show the effect of a single independent variable on the dependent variable. Sloping line in the partial regression plots and the equal dispersion of residuals about zero indicate linear relationship.

In multiple regressions, it is assumed that each predicted value is independent, that is, it is not related to any other prediction. If the value of this coefficient is between 1.5 and 2.5, it is assumed that observations are independent. Residuals were plotted against case identification number to check if this sequence affected the prediction. Residual plot showed a null plot indicating independence of error terms.

Multicollinearity refers to the high association among the independent variables themselves. To assess multicollinearity, each independent variable is treated as a dependent variable and is regressed against the remaining independent variables. Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) are measures of multicollinearity. High tolerance value and low VIF represents absence of multicollinearity. In our data, tolerance was above 0.5 and VIF was below 2 when each independent variable was regressed against other independent variables, thereby supporting absence of multicollinearity.

The above mentioned plots and graphs for the regressions under objectives 4,5,6,7,8, and 9 are given in the annexures 1, 2,3,4,5 and 6 respectively.

Objective 4: To study the influence of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organisational Culture.

Ho 4.1: There is no significant Regression of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organizational Culture.

Ho 4.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

TABLE 4.10.1. MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R square change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.469 ^a	0.22	0.213	0.45395	0.22	32.667	2	232	0

Predictors: (Constant), task orientation and consideration orientation.

b. Dependent Variable: Organisational Culture

TABLE 4.10.2: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	13.463	2	6.732	32.667	.000 ^b
	Residual	47.808	232	0.206		
	Total	61.271	234			

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational culture.

b. Predictors: Constant, Consideration Orientation, and task orientation

Table 4.10.3 : COEFFICIENTS

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.894	0.184		15.694	0
	COLB	0.312	0.053	0.421	5.883	0
	IOLB	0.062	0.059	0.075	1.052	0.294

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational culture

Points for 'F' Distribution i.e., F Table, the value of F for degrees of freedom 2, and 232 at degrees of confidence $p=.01$ is 4.698, and at $p=.05$ is 3.035.

Thus we find that the calculated value of F (as contained in the above tables) is greater than the Table value of F at both values of $p=.01$ and $p=.05$. We, therefore, reject the Null Hypothesis that there is no significant Regression of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organizational Culture. Thus, we can infer that there exists a significant Regression of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organizational Culture in the population and the improvement brought about by fitting the regression plane was not due to chance.

Next we shall find if the B coefficients for Consideration Orientation (0.312), and task orientation (0.062) are significantly different from zero. We will use 't' test of significance:

We find that the calculated values t 's for B coefficients are 5.883 for Consideration Orientation, and 1.052 for task orientation as given in the Table 4.10.3 above.

We note that the value of 't' in the t-table for degree of freedom 232 and at $p=.01$ and $p=.05$ are 2.343 and 1.651 respectively.

Comparing the calculated values of t 's of B (Consideration Orientation) and B (task orientation) with those of values in the t- table, we reject the Null Hypothesis that B coefficient for Consideration Orientation is not significantly different from Zero and we fail to reject the Null Hypothesis that B for Task Orientation is not significantly different from zero.

From the above discussion we, thus, infer that the Leadership Behaviour Style has significant influence on Organizational Culture and the influence is caused due to constant factor and Consideration Orientation only, not the Task Orientation.

Objective 5: To study the influence of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture.

Ho5.1: There is no significant Regression of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture.

Ho5.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the regression equation are not significantly different from zero.

The output from the SPSS package for the regression relations are given in the Tables below.

TABLE 4.11.1 : MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error Estimate	Change Statistics	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.375 ^a	0.141	0.13	0.47736	0.141	12.627	3	231	0

a. Predictors: (Constant), Continuance commitment, Normative commitment , Affective commitment. b. Dependent Variable: Organisational culture

TABLE 4.11.2: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8.632	3	2.877	12.627	.000 ^b
	Residual	52.64	231	0.228		
	Total	61.27	234			

a. Dependent Variable : Organizational culture. b. Predictors: (Constant), Continuance commitment (CC), Normative commitment (NC) , Affective commitment(AC).

TABLE 4.11.3: COEFFICIENTS^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
1		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	5.112	0.196		26.12	0
	AC	-0.18	0.037	-0.331	-4.857	0
	NC	-0.04	0.043	-0.065	-0.925	0.356
	CC	-0.023	0.039	-0.039	-0.604	0.547

Dependent variable: Organisational culture

From the above Table we find that the calculated value of F is 12.627 and the values of F from the Statistical Table for Degrees of Freedom 3 and 231 at degree of confidence $p = .01$ and $p = .05$ are 3.868 and 2.644 respectively.

We find, by comparing the calculated and Table values of F, that calculated value of F is greater than the Table values of F, both at $p = .01$ and $p = .05$.

Hence, we reject the Null Hypothesis that there is no significant Regression of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture.

We, therefore, infer that there is a Regression of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture in the Population and improvement brought about by fitting the Regression Plane was not due to chance.

Next, we shall find whether B coefficients of sub dimensions of Organizational Commitment, namely Affective Commitment (-.180), Normative Commitment(-.040), and Continuance Commitment (-.023) are significantly different from zero.

We shall use 't' test of significance for testing Hypothesis Ho5.2.

We note that the values of 't' from t-table for Degree of Freedom 231 at $p = .01$, and $p = .05$ are 2.343 and 1.652 respectively. From the Table above, we find that the calculated values of 't's at 231 Degree of Freedom are -4.857 for Affective Commitment, -.925 for Normative Commitment, and -.604 for Continuance Commitment.

Comparing the calculated values of 't' for the three B-coefficients with that of Table value of 't', i.e., 2.343 at $p = .01$ and 1.652 at $p = .05$, we note that the calculated value of 't' for Affective Commitment (-4.857) is greater than the Table value of 't' while the 't' values of B coefficients (calculated) for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment are less than the Table value of 't' at $p = .01$ and also at $p = .05$. Thus, we reject the Null Hypothesis that the B coefficient for the Affective Commitment is not significantly different from zero and fail to reject the Null Hypotheses that the B coefficients for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment are not significantly different from zero at both values of p.

From the above discussion, we can infer that the Organizational Commitment has a significant influence on Organizational Culture and that only Affective Commitment and the constant factor are causing the influence and not the Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment.

Objective 6: To study the influence of Organizational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.

Ho6.1: There is no significant Regression of Organizational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.

Ho6.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero

The output from the SPSS Package for the Regression Relation are given in the Tables below:

TABLE 4.12.1 MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.249 ^a	.062	.050	.71770	.062	5.083	3	231	.002

a. Predictors: (Constant), Continuance commitment, Normative commitment , affective commitment. b. Dependent Variable: Leadership Behaviour

TABLE 4.12.2 ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.854	3	2.618	5.083	.002 ^b
	Residual	118.986	231	.515		
	Total	126.840	234			

a: Dependent Variable: Leadership behavior

b. Predictors: (Constant), Continuance commitment (CC), Normative commitment (NC) , Affective commitment(AC).

TABLE 4.12.3 COEFFICIENTS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4.330	.197		21.932	.000
Continuance commitment	-.017	.039	-.031	-.434	.665
Normative Commitment	-.016	.035	-.032	-.464	.643
Affective commitment	-.150	.050	-.220	-2.986	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership behaviour style

From the above Table we find that the calculated value of F is 5.083 and the values of F from the Statistical Table for Degrees of Freedom 3 and 231 at confidence coefficients $p = .01$ and $p = .05$ are 3.868 and 2.644 respectively.

We find, by comparing the calculated and Table values of F, that calculated value of F is greater than the Table values of F, both at $p = .01$ and $p = .05$.

Hence, we reject the Null Hypothesis that there is no significant Regression of Organizational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.

We, therefore, infer that there is a Regression of Organizational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style in the Population and improvement brought about by fitting the Regression Plane was not due to chance.

Next, we shall find whether B coefficients of sub dimensions of Organizational Commitment, namely Affective Commitment (-2.986), Normative Commitment(-.464), and Continuance Commitment (-.434) are significantly different from zero. We shall use 't' test of significance for testing Hypothesis H_0 6.2.

We note that the values of 't' from t-table for Degree of Freedom 231 at $p = .01$, and $p = .05$ are 2.343 and 1.652 respectively. From the Table above, we find that the calculated values of 't's' at 231 Degree of Freedom are -2.986 for Affective Commitment, -.464 for Normative Commitment, and -.434 for Continuance Commitment.

Comparing the calculated values of 't' for the three B-coefficients with that of Table value of 't', i.e., 2.343 at p=.01 and 1.652 at p=.05, we note that the calculated value of 't' for Affective Commitment (-2.986) , Normative Commitment (-.464) and Continuance Commitment (-.434) are less than the Table value of 't' at both values of p. Thus, we reject the Null Hypothesis for Affective Commitment at both the values of p but we fail to reject the Null hypothesis for the B coefficients for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment because these 2 values are less than the table values of p.

From the above discussion, we infer that the organisational commitment has significant influence on leadership behaviour style and that the influence is due to constant factor and affective commitment. Normative and continuance commitment , however, have no influence on leadership behaviour style. Further, the influence of affective commitment on leadership behaviour style is in the negative.

4.6 DEMOGRAPHICS:

TABLE 4.13.1: AGE DISTRIBUTION

S. No	Category	Frequency	Percent
1	'less than 25 years'	57	24.25
2	25- 30 years	47	20
3	30 – 35 years	36	15.3
4	35 – 40 years	31	13.19
5	40 -45 years	23	9.78
6	45+ years	41	17.44
Total		235	100.0

TABLE4.13.2: ORGANISATIONAL HEADQUARTERS DISTRIBUTION

S. No	Category	Frequency	Percent
1	India	150	63.8
2	USA	85	36.2
Total		235	100.0

TABLE 4.13.3: TENURE IN THE ORGANISATION

S. No	Category	Frequency	Percent
1	Less than 2 years	94	40.0
2	2 – 5 years	71	30.2
3	5 – 8 years	45	19.1
4	8 – 11 years	12	5.1
5	11 – 14 years	7	3.0
6	14 and above years	6	2.6
Total		235	100.0

TABLE 4.13.4: EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

S. No	Category	Frequency	Percent
1	Less than 12 std.	4	1.7
2	Graduate	109	46.38
3	Post Graduate	97	41.27
4	More than Post Graduate	25	10.63

TABLE 4.13.5: TOTAL NO. OF YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

S. No	Category	Frequency	Percent
1	Less than 3 years	57	24.25
2	3 – 6 years of experience	47	20
3	6 -9	36	15.31
4	9 - 12	31	13.19
5	12 – 15	23	9.78
6	15 +	41	17.44

Objective 7: To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Culture.

Hypothesis:

Ho7.1 There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Organizational Culture.

Ho7.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

The output from the SPSS Package are given in the Tables given below:

TABLE 4.14.1 : MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.284 ^a	.080	.056	.49712	.080	3.322	6	228	.004

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational HeadQuarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age.

b. Dependent Variable: Organisational Culture

TABLE 4.14.2: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.926	6	.821	3.322	.004 ^b
	Residual	56.345	228	.247		
	Total	61.271	234			

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Culture.

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational Head Quarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age

TABLE 4.14.3: COEFFICIENTS^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.971	0.202		19.681	0
	Age	0.007	0.049	0.019	0.135	0.893
	Gender	-0.014	0.083	-0.012	-0.175	0.862
	Educational Qualification	-0.024	0.05	-0.033	-0.484	0.629
	Overall Experience	0.07	0.04	0.247	1.773	0.077
	Tenure in Organisation	0.018	0.033	0.042	0.536	0.592
	Organisational Head Quarters	0.005	0.068	0.005	0.071	0.944

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational culture

From the above Tables, we find that the calculated value of F is 3.332 and the value of F from the Statistical Table for Degrees of Freedom 6 and 228 at confidence coefficients $p = .01$ and $p = .05$ are 2.881 and 2.138 respectively.

We find, by comparing the calculated and Table values of F, that calculated value of F is more than the Table values of F, both at $p = .01$ and $p = .05$.

Hence we reject the Null Hypothesis that there is no significant Regression of Demographics on Organizational Culture both at $p = .01$ and at $p = .05$.

Next, we shall find whether B coefficients of sub dimensions of the Demographics namely Age (.007), Gender (-.014), Educational Qualification (-.024), Overall Experience (.070), Tenure in Organisation (.018) and Organisational Head Quarters (.005) are significantly different from zero. We shall use 't' test of significance.

The Null Hypothesis is: B coefficients of the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

We note that the values of 't' from t-table for Degree of Freedom 228 is 2.343 at $p=.01$, and 1.652 at $p=.05$ respectively. From the Table above, we find that the calculated values of 't's at 228 Degree of Freedom are : Age (.135) ,Gender (-.175), Educational Qualification (-.484), Overall Experience (1.773), Tenure in Organisation(.536), Organisational Head Quarters (.071).

Comparing the calculated values of 't' for the six B-coefficients with that of Table value of 't', i.e., 2.343 at $p=.01$ and 1.652 at $p=.05$, we note that the calculated values of 't' for Age (.135) , Gender (-.175), Educational Qualification (-.484), Overall Experience (1.773), Tenure in the Organisation (.536) and Organisational Head Quarters (.071) are all less than the Table value of 't'. Thus, we accept the Null Hypothesis that the B coefficients of the Regression Equation for the Demographics on Organizational Culture are not significantly different from zero at $p=.01$.

However, we find that the calculated value of 't' for Overall Experience (1.773) is greater than the Table value of 't' (1.652) at $p=.05$ only. But the calculated values of 't' for other Demographic variables are less than the Table Value of 't' at $p=.05$.

Thus at $p=.05$, we accept the Null Hypothesis for Age, Gender, Educational Qualification, Tenure in the organization, and the Organizational Head Quarter and reject the Null Hypothesis for the Demographics of Overall Experience

From the above discussion, we can infer that the Demographics has no significant influence on Organisational Culture.

Objective 8: To study the influence of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

H8.1 There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

H8.2 The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

The output from the SPSS Package are given in the Tables given below:

TABLE 4.15.1. MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R square change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.155 ^a	.024	-.002	.73681	.024	.940	6	228	.467

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational Head Quarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age. b. Dependent Variable: Leadership Behaviour Style

TABLE 4.15.2. ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	3.062	6	.510	.940	.467 ^b
Residual	123.778	228	.543		
Total	126.840	234			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership Behaviour Style

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational HeadQuarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age

TABLE 4.15.3 COEFFICIENTS^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.394	.299		11.352	.000
	Age	-.028	.073	-.055	-.386	.700
	Gender	-.022	.123	-.012	-.178	.859
	Educational Qualification	.000	.074	.000	.005	.996
	Overall Experience	.079	.059	.194	1.350	.178
	Tenure in Organisation	-.007	.049	-.011	-.133	.894
	Organisational Head quarters	.073	.101	.048	.726	.469

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership Behaviour Style

From the above Table we find that the calculated value of F is .940 and the values of F from the Statistical Table for Degrees of Freedom 228 and 6 at confidence coefficients $p = .01$ and $p = .05$ are 6.936 and 3.689 respectively.

We find, by comparing the calculated and Table values of F, that calculated value of F is less than the Table values of F, both at $p = .01$ and $p = .05$.

Hence we fail to reject the Null Hypothesis that there exists no significant Regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

Thus, we infer that there is no significant regression of demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

There is, therefore, no need to test the Hypothesis if the B coefficients in the Regression Equations are significantly different from zero.

Objective 9: To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Commitment

Ho9.1 There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Organizational Commitment.

Ho9.2 The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

The output from the SPSS package are given in the Tables below:

TABLE 4.16.1. MODEL SUMMARY^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.252 ^a	.064	.039	.62686	.064	2.582	6	228	.019

a. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational HeadQuarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Organisational commitment

TABLE 4.16.2. ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.087	6	1.014	2.582	.019 ^b
	Residual	89.593	228	.393		
	Total	95.680	234			

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

b. Predictors: (Constant), Organisational HeadQuarters, Overall experience, Gender, Educational qualification, Tenure in the organisation, Age

TABLE 4.16.3. COEFFICIENTS^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.502	.254		17.698	.000
	Age	.071	.062	.160	1.150	.251
	Gender	-.100	.104	-.064	-.961	.338
	Educational Qualification	-.019	.063	-.020	-.299	.765
	Overall Experience	-.115	.050	-.323	-2.296	.023
	Tenure in Organisation	-.019	.041	-.037	-.467	.641
	Organisational Head quarters	-.167	.086	-.125	-1.935	.054

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

From the above Table we find that the calculated value of F is 2.582 and the values of F from the Statistical Table for Degrees of Freedom 6 and 228 at confidence coefficients $p = .01$ and $p = .05$ are 2.881 and 2.138 respectively.

We find, by comparing the calculated and Table values of F, that calculated value of F is more than the Table value of F, at $p = .05$ but not at $p = .01$.

Hence we reject the Null Hypothesis that there exists no significant Regression of Demographics on Organizational Commitment at $p = .05$ and accept the Null Hypothesis at $p = .01$.

We , therefore, infer that there is a significant Regression of Demographics on Organisational Commitment in the Population and improvement brought about by fitting the Regression Plane was not due to chance at $p=.05$..

Next, we shall find whether B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation, namely; Age (.071), Gender (-.100), Educational Qualification (-.019) , Overall Experience (-.115), Tenure in Organisation (-.019) and Organisational Head Quarters (-.167) are significantly different from zero. We shall use 't' test of significance.

The Null Hypothesis is: B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.

We note that the values of 't' from t-table for Degree of Freedom 228 is 2.343 at $p=.01$ and 1.652 at $p=.05$. From the Table above, we find that the calculated values of 't's at 228 Degree of Freedom are : Age (1.150) ,Gender (-.961), Educational Qualification (-.299), Overall Experience (2.296), Tenure in Organisation(.467), Organisational Head Quarters (1.935)

Comparing the calculated values of 't' for the six B-coefficients with that of Table value of 't', i.e., 2.343 at $p=.01$, we note that the calculated values of 't' for Age (1.150) ,Gender (-.961), Educational Qualification (-.299), Overall Experience (2.296), Tenure in Organisation(.467), Organisational Head Quarters (-1.935) are all less than the Table value of 't' at $p=.01$. Thus, we accept the Null Hypothesis that the B coefficients in the Regression Equation for the Demographics on Organizational Commitment are not significantly different from zero at $p=.01$.

However, at $p=.05$, we find that the calculated values for Overall Experience (2.296) and Organizational Head Quarters (1.935) are greater than the Table value (1.652). Thus we reject the Null Hypothesis that the B coefficients in the Regression Equation for the Demographics on Organizational Commitment for Overall Experience and Organizational Head Quarters and accept the Null Hypothesis for Age, Gender, Educational Qualifications, and

Tenure in the organization.

From the above discussion, we can infer that the Demographics has no significant influence on Organisational Commitment at $p=.01$.

However, at $p=.05$, the Demographics have significant influence on Organizational Commitment and the influence is mainly due to Overall Experience, Organizational Head Quarters and the constant factor in the Regression Equation.

TABLE 4.17 : SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS TESTING FOR OBJECTIVES 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, AND 9.

Objectives	Hypothesis	P- Value	F-Test/ t - Test	Null Hypothesis: Accept/Reject
4.To study the influence of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organizational Culture.	Ho 4.1:There is no significant Regression of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organizational Culture.	<.01	F-Test	Reject
		<.05	F-Test	Reject
	Ho 4.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.	<.01	t- Test	Reject for Consideration
		<.05		Orientation but fail to reject for Initiating Structure at both the values of p
5. To study the influence of Organisational Commitment on Organizational Culture.	Ho 5.1: There is no significant Regression of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture.	<.01	F-Test	Reject
		<.05	F-Test	Reject
	Ho 5.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables of the regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.	<.01	t-Test	Reject for Affective Commitment at both values of p and
		<.05		Fail to reject for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment at both values of p.
6. To study the influence of Organisational Commitment on Leadership	Ho 6: There is no significant Regression of Organisational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.	<.01	F-Test	Reject
		<.05	F-Test	Reject

Behaviour Style	Ho 6.1: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly differently from zero.	<.01 <.05	t-Test	Reject for Affective Commitment at both values of p and Fail to reject for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment at both values of p.
7. To study the influence of Demographics on Organizational Culture.	Ho7.1 There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Organisational Culture. Ho7.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.	<.01 <.05 <.01 <.05	F- Test t-Test t- Test	Fail to reject Reject Fail to reject for all the Demographics Reject for Demographics of Overall Experience but Fail to reject for all the remaining Demographics
8. To study the influence of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.	Ho8.1: There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Styles. Ho8.2: The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.	<.01 <.05 <.01 <.05	F- Test F- Test t- Test	Fail to reject Fail to reject t- test is not needed as there was no significant Regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style .
9. To study the influence of Demographics on Organizational Commitment.	Ho9.1 There is no significant Regression of Demographics on Organisational Commitment. Ho9.2The B coefficients of the independent variables in the Regression Equation are not significantly different from zero.	<.01 <.05 <.01 <.05	F-Test F-Test t-Test t-Test	Reject Reject Fail to reject for all the B Coefficients. Reject for B Coefficients of Overall Experience and Organizational Head Quarters but Fail to reject for the remaining B Coefficients.

4.7 MAJOR FINDINGS:

4.7.1 Identification of the dimensions of Organisational Culture:

The Dimensions for Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style and Organisational Commitment were identified with the help of outcomes of researches reported in the Chapter on Review of Literature.

These are given below:

Organisational Culture:

Future Oriented Practices (FOP)

Assertiveness(ASS)

Collectivism-I (CI)

Humane Orientation (HO)

Uncertainty Avoidance (UCA)

Performance Orientation (PO)

Collectivism-II (CII)

Gender Egalitarianism (GEG)

Leadership Behaviour Style:

Consideration Orientation (CO)

Task Orientation (IS)

Organisational Commitment:

Affective Commitment (AC)

Normative Commitment (NC)

Continuance Commitment (CC)

The above mentioned dimensions were confirmed by the SEM Modeling and Model Fit Measures of the three main constructs: Organisational Culture,

Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organisational Commitment.

4.8 Comparison of Cultural Dimensions for Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style and Organisational Commitment:

The responses were obtained from 235 respondents, 150 from India Based and 85 from US Based IT and ITeS Industries located in and around Chennai with the help of questionnaire developed by the researchers in the past and the same has been acknowledged in the Chapter on Research Methodology.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to ascertain if the items in the Questionnaires intended to measure the three constructs: namely, Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style, and Organisational Commitment, are appropriate .

Various Fit measures and KMO Tests confirm that items intended to measure the three constructs have bivariate normality, the sample size is adequate, and are appropriate for the measurement of cultural dimensions of the three constructs. SPSS ver.20 and Amos ver. 20 were used to analyze the data.

‘t’ test of significance was used to measure the significance of differences between the means of the two samples-Indian and US based organizations- and it was found that there exists no significant difference among the dimensions and sub-dimensions of the three constructs: Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style and Organisational Commitment, i.e., the two samples (Indian and US based) come from the same population and the policies do not have much impact on cultural Dimensions.

Further, the researcher found that the correlation coefficient between Organisational Culture and Leadership Behavior Style; Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment; and Leadership Behaviour Style and Organisational Commitment (Table 4.7) are significant at $p=.01$.

The researcher, therefore, decided to find out the influence of one constructs over the other and the multivariate regression was used to study the nature of influence.

4.8.1 Influence of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organisational Culture:

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ and $p=.05$ that there exists a regression of Leadership Behavior Style on Organisational Culture, i.e., Organisational Culture is influenced by Leadership Behaviour Style.

However, the 't' test of significance revealed that the B coefficient for consideration orientation is significantly different from zero while it is not so for initiating structure.

Thus, we have found that the Leadership Behaviour Style has a significant influence on Organisational Culture and the influence is mainly due to constant factor and consideration orientation.

The behavioural implication of this finding suggests that the trust the leaders have in their followers and the concern for them influence the culture of the organisation by creating a positive atmosphere. As our findings suggest that initiating structure (task orientation) does not have any influence on organizational culture, we may infer that the leaders concern for the tasks has no implication for the culture of the organisation.

4.8.2 Influence of Organisational Commitment on Organisational culture:

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ and $p=.05$ that there exists a regression of Organisational Commitment on Organisational culture.

The 't' test of significance reveals that the B coefficient for Affective commitment is significantly different from zero while it is no so for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment.

Thus, we have found that the Organisational Commitment has a significant influence on Organisational Culture and the influence is mainly due to constant factor and Affective Commitment.

The behavioral implication of this finding suggests that Affective commitment which is an emotional bonding with the organisation, help the employees identify with organization, resulting in the positive involvement in the

organisation thereby influencing the work culture of the organisation. People on account of normative and continuance commitment continue to work for the organisation because of compelling circumstances, feel strongly about the work forced upon them, hence, they do not have any implication on the organisational culture.

4.8.3 Influence of Organisational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style:

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ and at $p=.05$ that there exists a regression of Organisational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.

However, the 't' test of significance revealed that the B coefficient for Affective Commitment is significantly different from zero while it is not so for Normative Commitment and Continuance Commitment

Thus we have found that the Organisational Commitment has a significant influence on Leadership Behaviour Style and the influence is mainly due to constant factor and Affective Commitment.

The implication of this finding is that on account of affective commitment people put in a lot of trust in their leaders and take pride in working with their leaders, thus influencing the leadership behaviour style.

On the other hand, continuance and normative commitment do not have any influence on leadership behaviour style as the people with these kinds of commitments work under obligation due to their compelling circumstances. They have a neutral outlook towards their leaders.

4.8.4 Influence of Demographics on Organisational Culture

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ and $p=.05$ that there exists a regression of Demographics on Organizational Culture.

However, the 't' test of significance revealed that the B coefficients for all Demographics are not significantly different from zero at $p=.01$ while it is not so for the Demographic of Overall Experience at $p=.05$.

We have found that the Demographics have a significant influence on Organisational Culture and the influence is mainly due to constant factor and Demographic of Overall Experience at $p=.05$ but not at $p=.01$.

The implication of the above finding is that demographics do have influence on organisational culture and that it is the overall experience of the people working in the organisation that influence that organisational culture. Also, the findings suggest that there is no inference of demographics pertaining to age, educational qualification, gender, tenure in the organisation or the organizational Head quarters.

4.8.5 Influence of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ and $p=.05$ that there exists no regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style at both values of $p=.01$ and $p=.05$.

t- test was not required as there was no significant Regression of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

The implication of this finding is that the leadership behaviour style is influenced by the personal characteristics of the leader and is not influenced by the demographics like age, gender, educational qualification, number of years in the organizations, tenure in the organisation or organisational Head quarters for the kind of organisation under study (IT & ITeS).

4.8.6 Influence of Demographics on Organisational Commitment

It was found, using F-Test of significance at $p=.01$ that there exists no significant Regression of Demographics on Organizational Commitment at $p=.01$ as the calculated value of F is less than the Table value of F.

However, at $p=.05$, we find that the calculated value of F is more than the Table value of F indicating that there exists a significant Regression of Demographics on Organisational Commitment.

However, the 't' test of significance reveals that the B coefficients for all Demographics are not significantly different from zero at $p=.01$. Hence, we can infer that the Demographics has no significant influence on Organisational Commitment at $p=.01$.

However, at $p=.05$, the Demographics have significant influence on Organizational Commitment and the influence is mainly due to Overall Experience, Organizational Head Quarters and the constant factor in the Regression Equation.

The implication of this finding is that:

1. Demographics do not have any influence on organisational commitment at $p=.01$ on account of absence of any regression and also on account of all the B coefficients of demographics like age, gender, educational qualification, number of years in the organizations, tenure in the organisation and organisational Head quarters are not significantly different from zero. It seems that phenomena is very specific of organizations in the IT & ITeS sector on account of their special features driven by technology and because of the abstract nature of their product.
2. When we change the level of risk from $p=.01$ to $p=.05$, then the demographics have a significant regression on organisational commitment and that the influence is mainly due to overall experience and organisational head quarters and the constant in the regression equation. That means that the implication of this finding is that the commitment is driven by overall experience and whether an employee belongs to Indian or US based organisation.

CHAPTER – 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 DISCUSSION

The main aim of this research was to investigate the relationship between : 1. Organisational Culture and Organisational Commitment, 2. Organisational Culture and Leadership Behaviour Styles, and 3. Organisational Commitment and Leadership Behaviour Style in the IT and ITeS situated in Chennai, one of the IT hubs of India.

The researcher has used standard and previously established questionnaires for measuring various dimensions of Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour Style and Organisational Commitment.

The results of the present empirical research were derived from the questionnaire survey and the major findings of this study are described in section 4.6.

5.2 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study has certain limitations. The results of this study could reflect relationships only among variables used in this study. The original intention of this study was to examine the effects of organisational culture, leadership behaviour style and organisational commitment on these variables for which only a limited variables shown in past researches were included in this study.

Due differences in organisational cultures, leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitments were not seen in the results of this study as it

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was applicable to the respondents working in Chennai only.

The number of respondents was also less compared to the number of people working in the IT & ITeS sector in Chennai as the researcher could not get permission from any organisation and had to depend on Social Media and public at large for her research.

5.3 DIRECTION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study examined the influence of : 1. Leadership behaviour style on organisational culture, 2. organisational commitment on organisational culture and 3. organisational commitment on leadership behaviour style. In the process of this study, several promising avenues for future research were identified.

The use of organisational culture and antecedents of commitment revealed significantly different influences on leader behaviour style. This is an important finding both for theory and research.

Further research needs to be undertaken in different settings, into other areas such as the manufacturing sector, which is having more adherences to the policies and rules and regulations. This study could be applied in other areas / locations where the IT & ITeS sector thrives to determine the extent to which these dimensions and causal effects are generalisable.

A further operationalization of this framework into more actual measures needs to be conducted at the level of an individual organizations.

5.4 CONCLUSION

This thesis sought to provide a greater understanding of the relationships between cultural dimensions, leadership behaviour styles and organisational

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commitment. Measures of selected demographic variables were also included in this study. Multivariate analyses were used to determine the effects of the selected variables on culture.

In conclusion, the findings of this study also supported suggestions in the literature review that cultural dimensions, leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitment could exert different influences on individuals in the work place.

In particular, the results of this study reveal that the leadership behaviour style did not have any impact on the culture or the commitment of the organisation.

As far as organisational commitment is concerned , it was found that affective commitment has had an impact on the workplace, suggesting that people work if they could identify themselves with the organisation which was the same in many other studies .

As far the demographics are concerned , it has been found that as age increases there is a gradual decline in the respondents continuing in the organisation and this is same with both the organisations - India based & the US based, suggesting that in the IT & ITeS sector, the employees who want to grow in organizations do not wait for their turn, but would prefer joining elsewhere for the same position if opportunity prevailed.

Finally, the researcher could have made an indepth study of the cultural dimensions as the title suggests, but could not do so, as the population of the study is from the same place and inevitably the respondents too, are from the same place and there is not much difference in the organisation culture or the leadership behaviour style or the organisational commitment as the culture

imbibed in the organisation is that of the particular country and not that of the organisation.

The results of this study have provided useful information for both management and the IT & ITeS sector in formulating their priorities in change management and also a theoretical framework for future research studies pertaining to organisational culture.

5.5 SUMMARY

This study was intended to be a comparative study between Indian (domestic) and US (foreign) based IT and ITeS MNCs. India , with its huge English speaking population , cheap manpower, and technically trained personnel is highly sought by the IT and ITeS industry from the world over. Chennai, in particular, is one of the 5 main IT hubs in India, employing around 3-5 lakh people.

The researcher intended to do a comparative study on the cultural dimensions , leadership behaviour styles and organisational commitment of the US and India based MNCs in Chennai. The setting used in this study was the IT & ITeS sector in Chennai from Indian and US based companies and the respondents being at any level in the organisation. This research was prompted by the lack of attention given in the literature to the influence of organisational culture, leader behaviour style and organizational commitment on each other. Demographic variables such as age, tenure in organisation, years of experience, educational qualification, and gender were also studied for their influence on organisatioal culture, leadership behavior style, and organizational commitment. The main results of the empirical research in this study were derived from the questionnaire survey.

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Studies have showed that usually leaders cannot choose their styles at will but what is feasible depends to a large extent on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinates (Dorfman et al. 1997, Kuchinke 1999). Organisational culture is more strongly varied by organisational work practices, Hofstede (2001). Our research shows that consideration orientation has an effect on organisational culture, connoting that as is evident in (Hofstede, 2003:47) that in India personal relationship prevails over task relationship . Asian managers heavily emphasize paternalistic leadership and group maintenance activities which is as per our results that consideration orientation of leadership in India which is paternalistic in nature is accepted.

Employee commitment studies conducted in North America as reported by Meyer et al. (2002) tend to show lower correlation rates of less than 0.6 meaning that modern and international workplace, as India's IT services sourcing industry, provides the feelings that desire and obligation are culturally influenced phenomena. Organizational commitment has a direct bearing on the employees' intention to leave the organization. Our study shows that leadership or leadership behaviour has had no effect on the commitment of the employees.

Organizational commitment is higher for respondents in mid-career at worksites in India (Messener 2012), but that is not true of our survey. Tenure in the organizations shows a decreasing trend, signifying that none of the three variables can help in refraining employees from moving on.

Since the respondents of this survey were from Chennai only, the comparative study between the two countries did not show much difference as the national culture precedes the organisational culture as all the respondents were of Indian origin only.

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APPENDIX

RESEARCH SURVEY :

“A study of the Cultural Dimensions in Foreign (US - based) and Domestic (Indian) Multinational Corporations (MNCs)”

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to learn about organisational cultures, leader behaviour styles, and organisational commitment. The questionnaire that you are asked to complete will take about 20 minutes of your time.

The resulting information will be useful for individuals who conduct business or government relations with the countries' studies. This information may be used for classroom instruction of students and managers in universities, technological institutes, and other organizations throughout the world.

In the following pages, you are asked to choose a number of statements that reflect your observations of cultural or organizational practices, your beliefs, your values, or your perceptions. This is not a test, and there are no right or wrong answers. We are mainly interested in learning about the beliefs and values in your society, and how various societal and organizational practices are perceived by you and the others participating in this research.

Your responses will be kept completely confidential. No individual respondent will be identified to any other person or in any written form.

Further, the name of your organization is NOT asked in this questionnaire.

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE:

* Required

1. In this organization, orderliness and consistency are stressed, even at the expense of experimentation and innovation. *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly Agree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly Disagree

2. In this organization, people are generally: *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Aggressive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Non Aggressive

3. The way to be successful in this organization is to: *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Plan Ahead	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Take events as they occur

4. In this organization, the accepted norm is to: *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Plan for the future	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Accept the status quo

5. In this organization, a person's influence is based primarily on: *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
One's ability and contribution to the organization	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	The authority of one's position

6. In this organization, people are generally *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Assertive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Non-assertive

7. In this organization, managers encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer. *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Strongly agree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly disagree

8. In this organization, meetings are usually: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Planned well in advance (2 or more weeks in advance)

Spontaneous (planned less than an hour in

9. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very concerned about others

Not at all concerned about others

10. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Dominant

Non dominant

11. In this organization, group members take pride in the individual accomplishments of their group manager. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

12. The pay and bonus system in this organization is designed to maximize: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Individual interests

Collective interests

13. In this organization, subordinates are expected to: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Obey their boss without question

Question their boss when in disagreement

14. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Tough

Tender

15. In this organization, employees are encouraged to strive for continuously improved performance. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

16. In this organization, most work is highly structured, leading to few unexpected events. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

17. In this organization, men are encouraged to participate in professional development activities more than women. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

18. In this organization, major rewards are based on: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Only performance effectiveness

Only factors other than performance effectiveness(for example, seniority or political connections)

19. In this organization, job requirements and instructions are spelled out in detail so employees know what they are expected to do. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

20. In this organization, being innovative to improve performance is generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Substantially rewarded

Not rewarded

21. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very sensitive
toward others

Not at all sensitive
toward others

22. In this organization, physically demanding tasks are usually performed by: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Men

Women

23. In this organization, group managers take pride in the individual accomplishments of group members. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

24. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very friendly

Very unfriendly

25. In this organization, people in positions of power try to: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Increase their social
distance from less
powerful individuals

Decrease their
social distance from
less powerful
people

26. In this organization, employees feel loyalty to the organization. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

27. In this organization, most employees set challenging work goals for themselves. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

28. Members of this organization: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Take no pride in working for the organization

Take a great deal of pride in working for the organization

29. In this organization, people are generally: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Very generous

Not at all generous

30. In this organization: *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Group cohesion is more valued than individualism

Individualism is more valued than group cohesion

31. This organization shows loyalty towards employees. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

32. What percentage of management positions in this organization are filled by women? *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10%

more than 90%

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 7 using the scale below

- 1) **I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

- 2) **I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

- 3) **I think that people these days move from company to company too often.***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

- 4) **I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

- 5) **It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

- 6) **I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

7) **I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

8) **Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

9) **Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

10) **I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

11) **It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

12) **One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

13) **I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

14) Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

15) If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

16) I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

17) I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

18) I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one's organization. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

19) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

20) One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives. *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

21) Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers *

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

22) **I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

23) **One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice -another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

24) **I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible. ***

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1.Strongly agree

7. Strongly disagree

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Draw a circle around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected. A = Always B = Often C = Occasionally D = Seldom E = Never

1. S/he does personal favors for group members. *
2. S/he makes her/his attitudes clear to the group. *
3. S/he does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. *
4. S/he tries out his new ideas with the group. *
5. S/he acts as the real leader of the group. *
6. S/he is easy to understand. *
7. S/he rules with an iron hand. *
8. S/he finds time to listen to group members. *
9. S/he criticizes poor work. *
10. S/he gives advance notice of changes. *
11. S/he speaks in a manner not to be questioned. *
12. S/he keeps to her/himself. *
13. S/he looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members. *
14. S/h assigns group members to particular tasks. *
15. S/he is the spokesman of the group. *
16. S/he schedules the work to be done. *
17. S/he maintains definite standards of performance. *
18. S/he refuses to explain her/his actions. *
19. S/he keeps the group informed. *

20. S/he acts without consulting the group. *
21. S/he backs up the members in their actions. *
22. S/he emphasizes the meeting of deadlines. *
23. S/he treats all group members as her/his equals. *
24. S/he encourages the use of uniform procedures. *
25. S/he gets what s/he asks for from her/his superiors. *
26. S/he is willing to make changes. *
27. S/he makes sure that her/his part in the organization is understood by group members. *
28. S/he is friendly and approachable. *
29. S/he asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. *
30. S/he fails to take necessary action. *
31. S/he makes group members feel at ease when talking with them. *
32. S/he lets group members know what is expected of them. *
33. S/he speaks as the representative of the group. *
34. S/he puts suggestions made by the group into action. *
35. S/he sees to it that group members are working up to capacity. *
36. S/he lets other people take away her/his leadership in the group. *
37. S/he gets her/his superiors to act for the welfare of the group. *
38. S/he gets group approval in important matters before going ahead. *
39. S/he sees to it that the work of the group members is coordinated. *
40. S/he keeps the group working together as a team. *

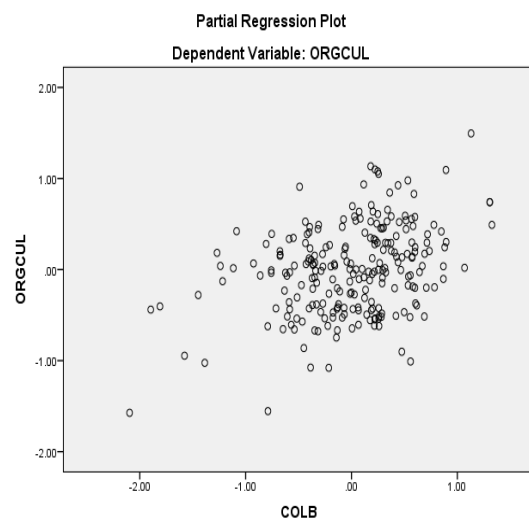
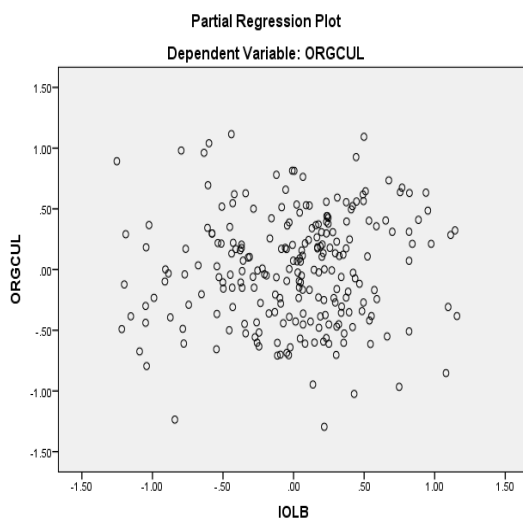
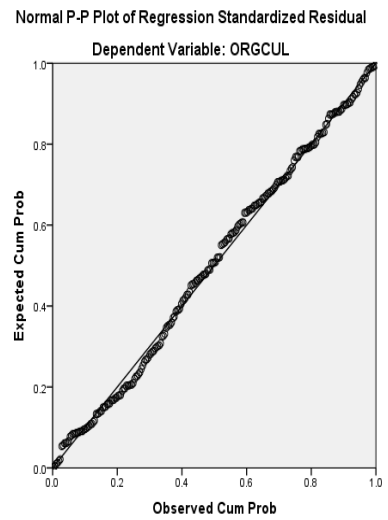
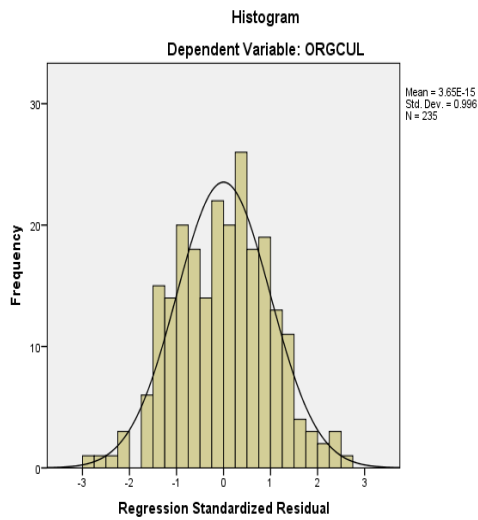
DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Which country were you born in? *
2. Age *
3. Gender *
4. Educational Qualification *
5. No. of years of overall work experience *
6. How long have you lived in the country where you currently live? *
7. How long are you in the current job? *
 - less than 2 years
 - 2 - 5 years
 - 5 - 8 years
 - 8 -11 years
 - 11 - 14 years
 - 14 and above years
8. Where is your organisation Headquartered? *

ANNEXURE

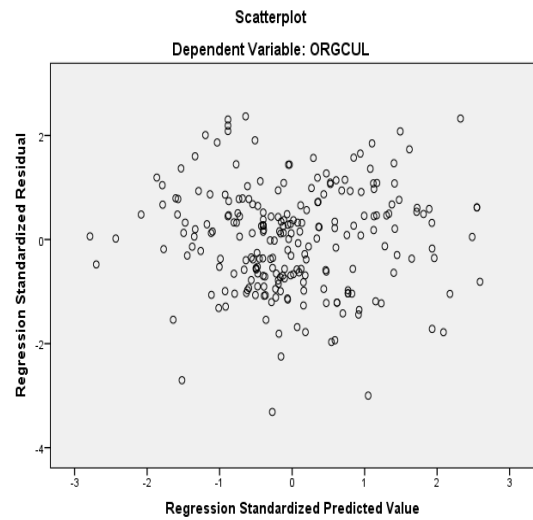
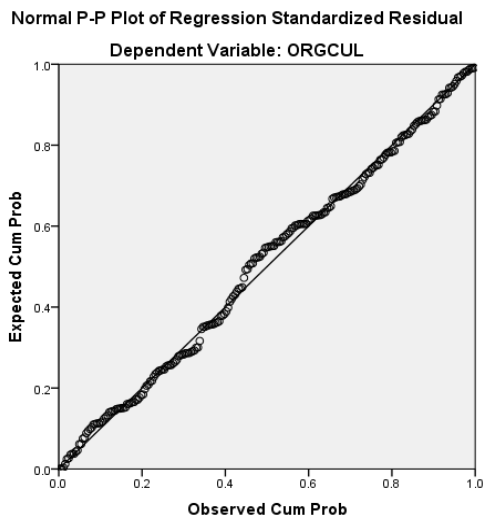
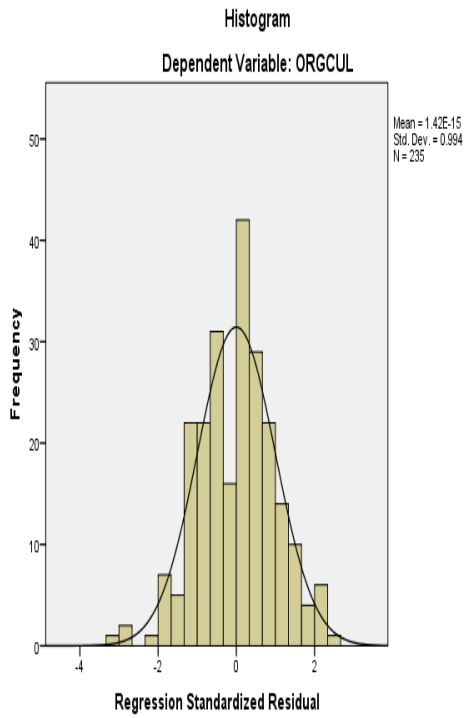
ANNEXURE 1

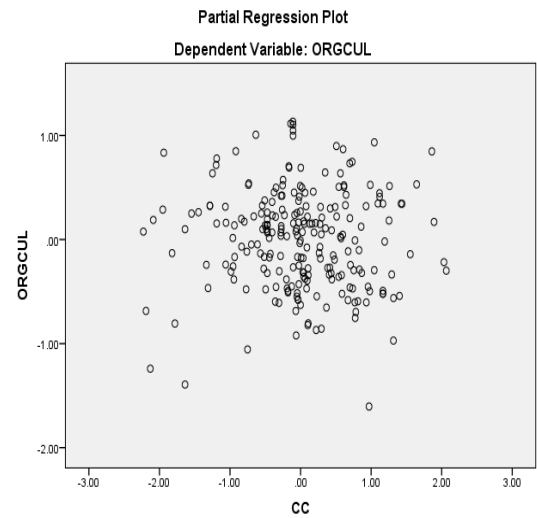
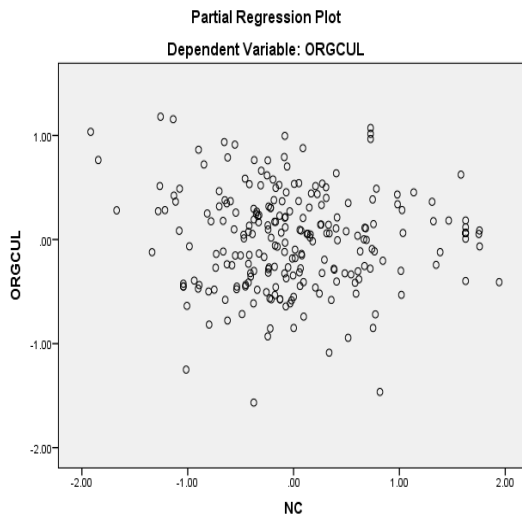
Objective 4 : To study the influence of Leadership Behaviour Style on Organisational Culture.



ANNEXURE 2

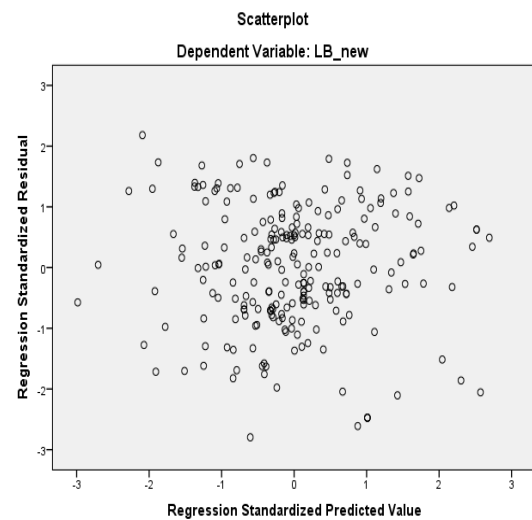
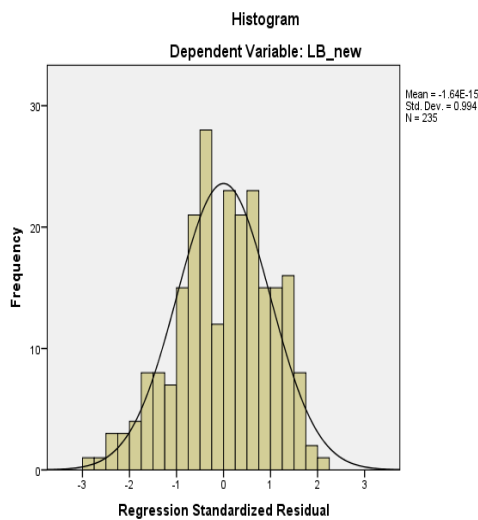
Objective 5: To study the influence of Organizational Commitment on Organizational Culture

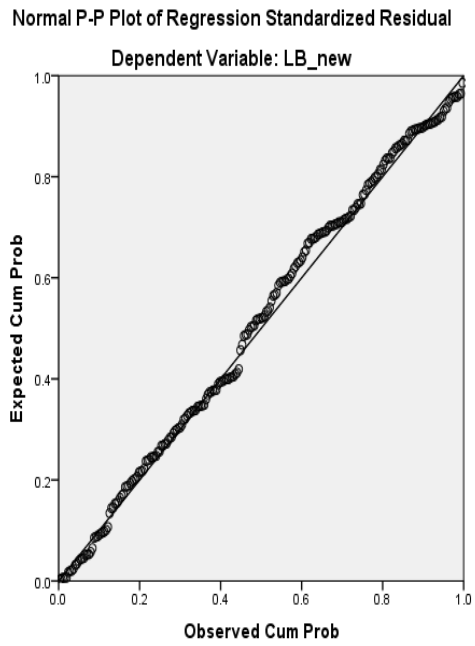




ANNEXURE 3

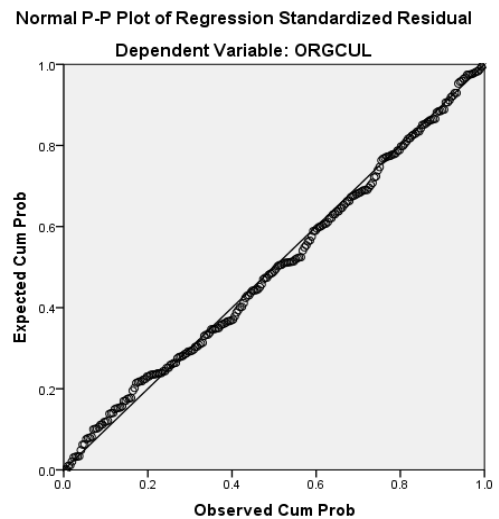
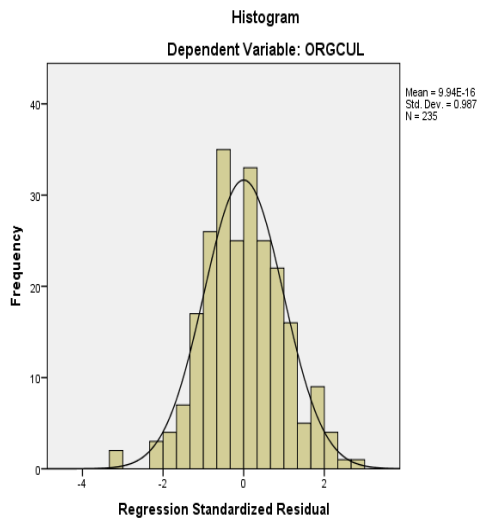
Objective 6: To study the influence of Organizational Commitment on Leadership Behaviour Style.

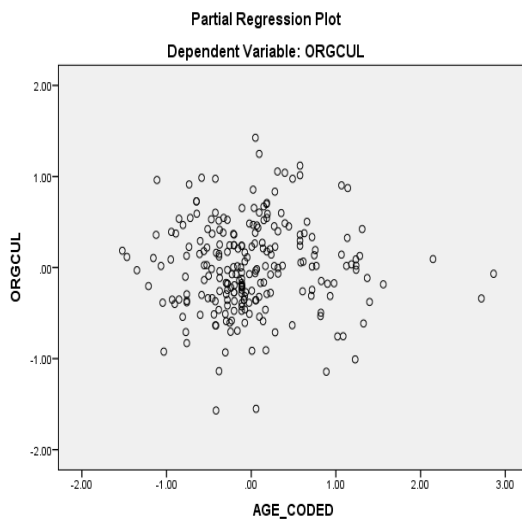
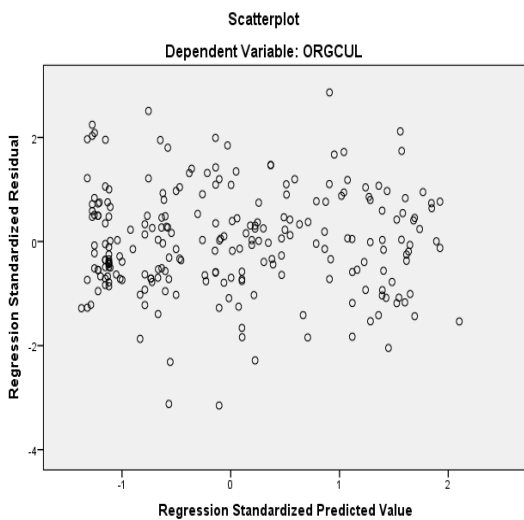


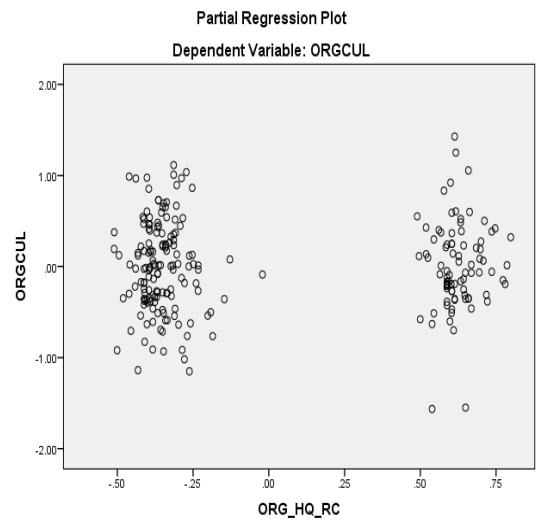
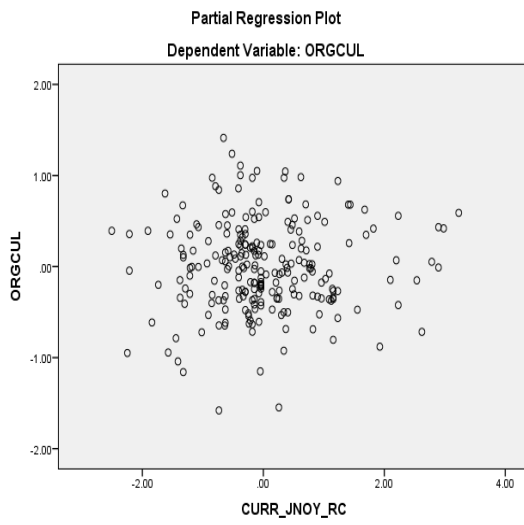
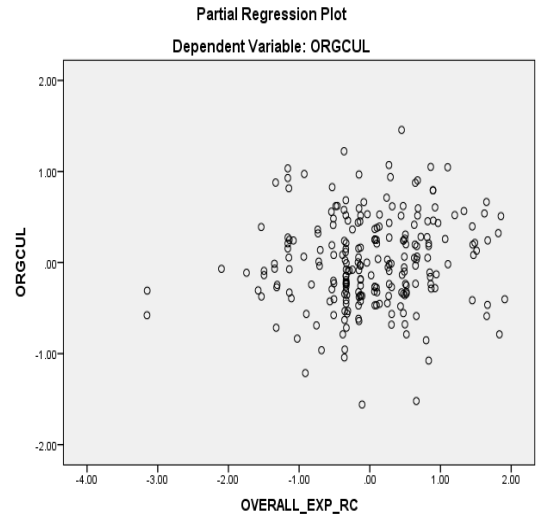
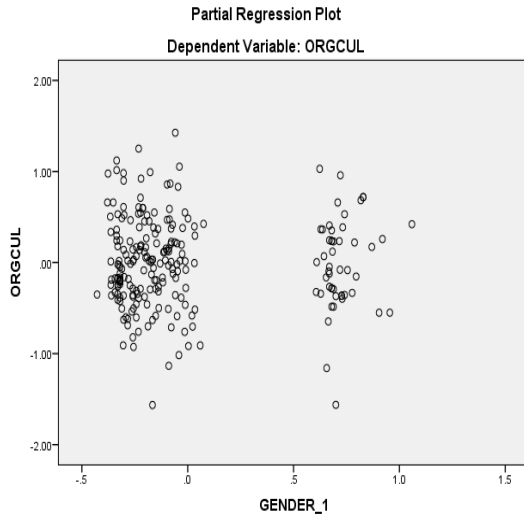


ANNEXURE 4

Objective 7: To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Culture.

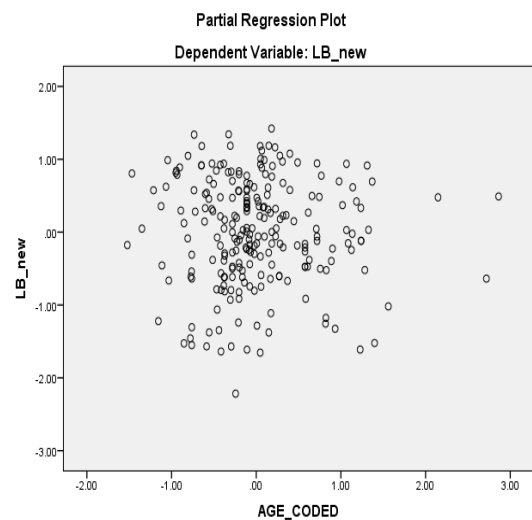
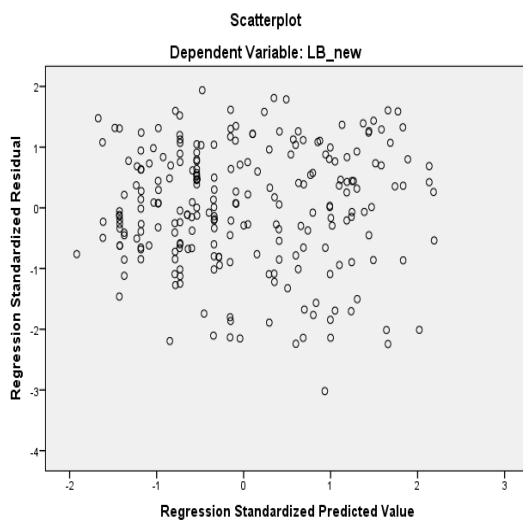
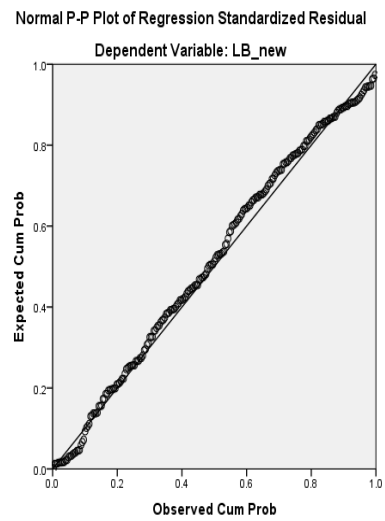
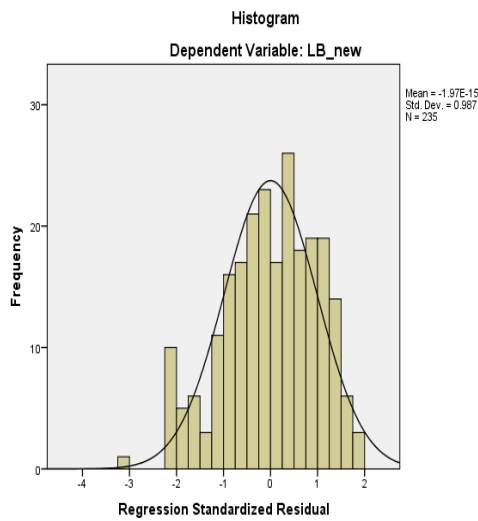


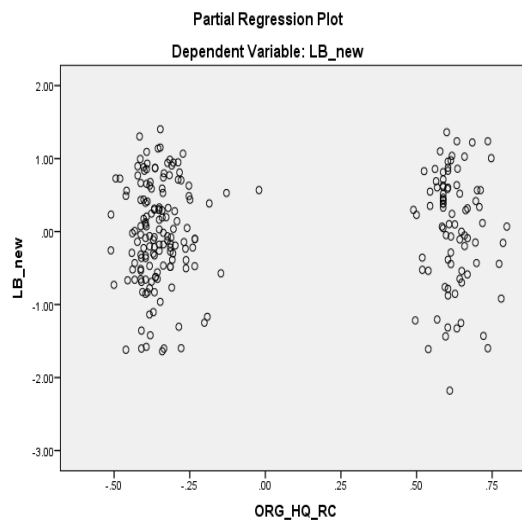
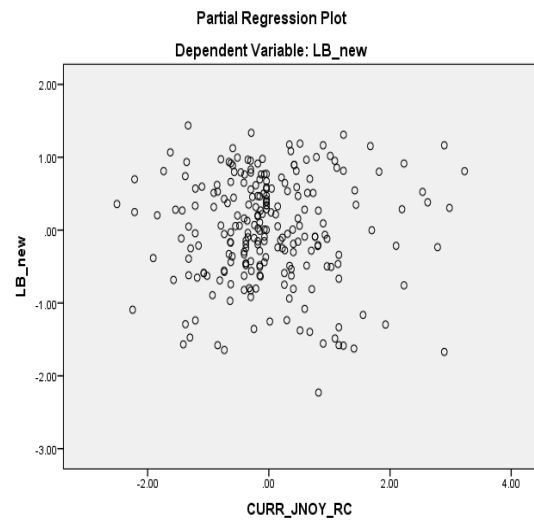
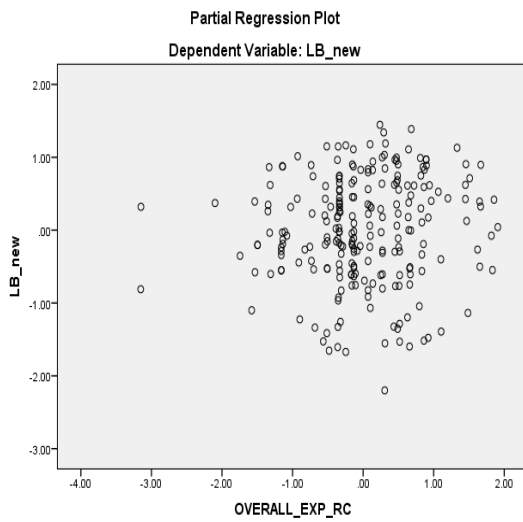
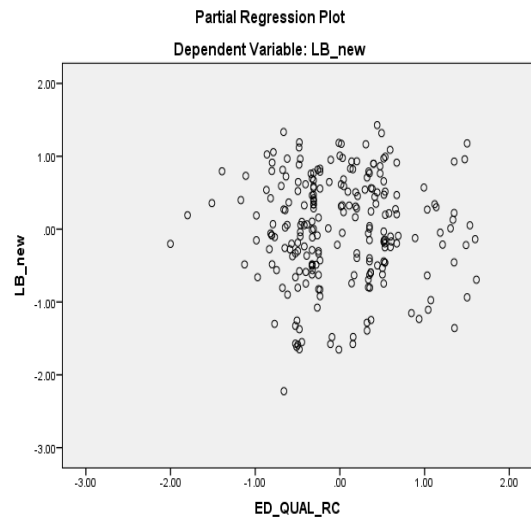
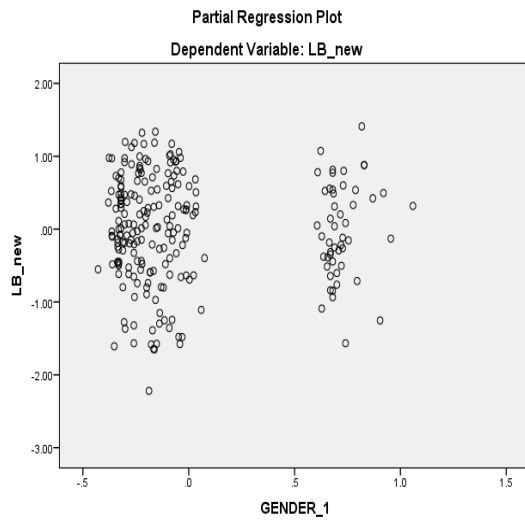




ANNEXURE 5

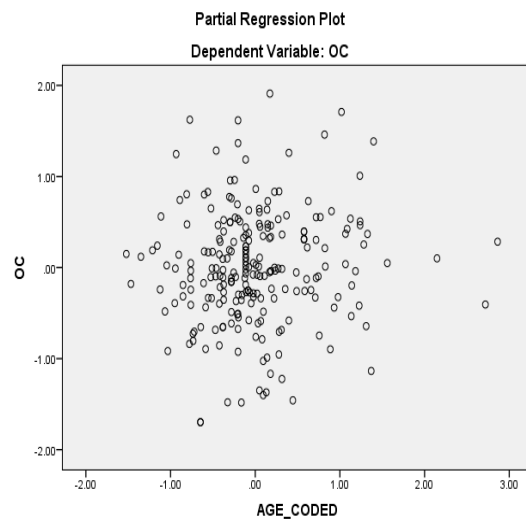
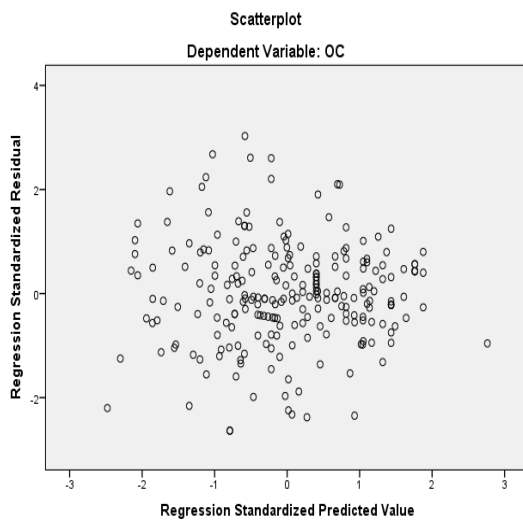
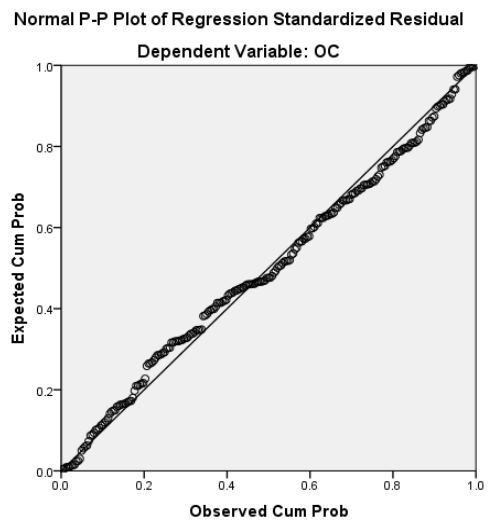
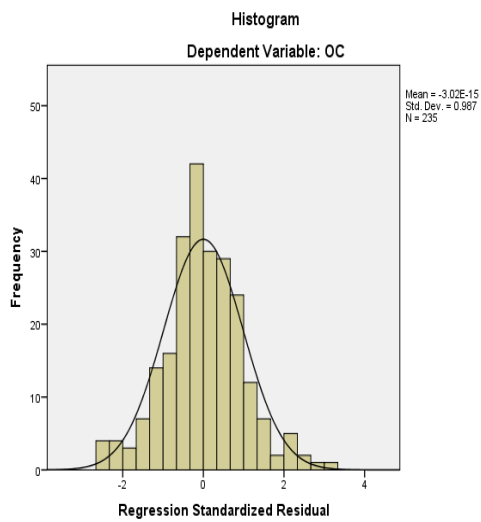
Objective 8: To study the influence of Demographics on Leadership Behaviour Style.

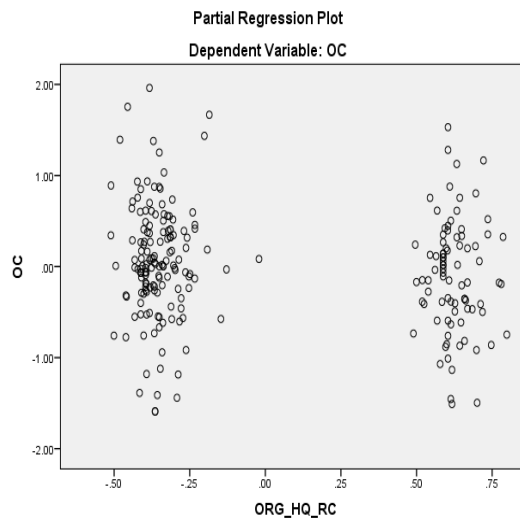
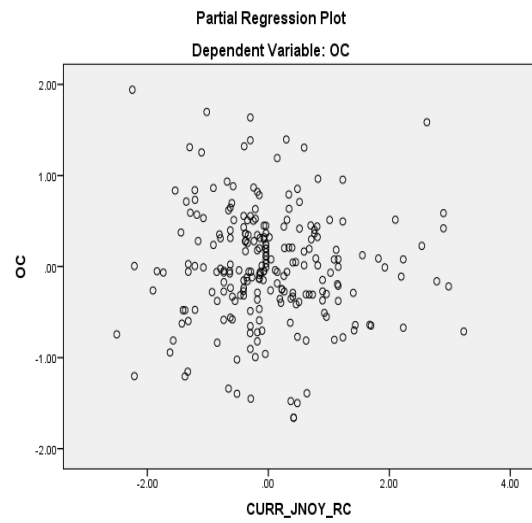
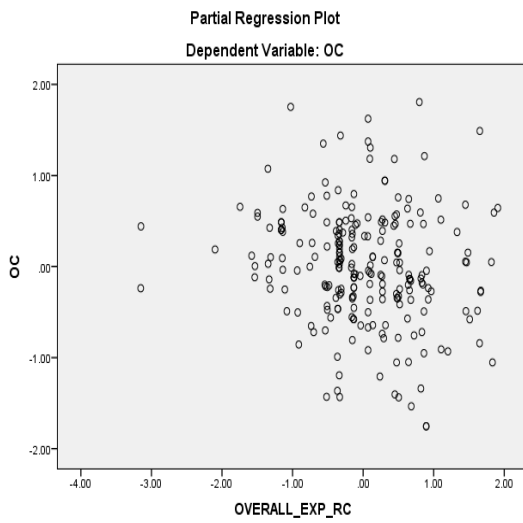
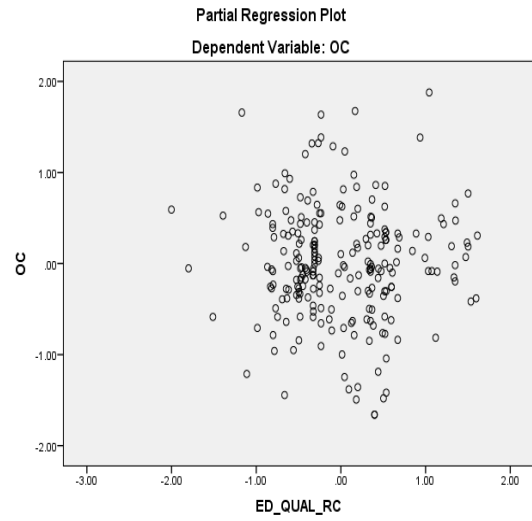
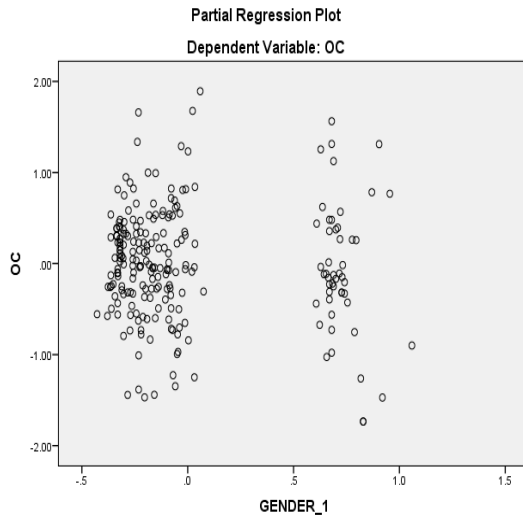




ANNEXURE 6

Objective 9: To study the influence of Demographics on Organisational Commitment





LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

- Savitha K, Dr. Satendra Kumar,2015, Organisational Commitment – A Myth, Journal of Organisational Behaviour, Volume 3 , Issue -2, 2015, Enriched Publications Pvt. Ltd, New Delhi. ISSN No. 2393-9656.
- Savitha K , (2014), An Aura called Leadership. SANKALPA, Volume 3 ISSN No. 2231- 1904.
- Savitha K, (2013), Are Indian Leaders Culturally Adaptable? Sankapla, Volume 4, ISSN No. 2231-1904