

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The main objective of this research is to investigate the effect of MC and OC on ME in the banking sector in India. This chapter forms the basic foundation of the research and investigates the academic contributions associated with the constructs of Managerial competencies, Organizational culture and Managerial Effectiveness and makes an effort to formulate theoretical evidences for this study.

The literature review was conducted in the following areas:

- Origin and concept of competencies and managerial competencies
- Concept of organizational culture
- Concept of managerial effectiveness
- Empirical studies - managerial competencies in different sectors
- Empirical studies - organizational culture
- Empirical studies - organizational culture and managerial competencies
- Empirical studies - organizational culture and managerial effectiveness
- Empirical studies- managerial competencies and managerial effectiveness
- Existing scales

In-depth literature review helped the researcher in comprehending the studies which have been conducted till date as far as the 3 constructs are concerned. It also highlights the various methods, procedures and empirical tools used by the other researchers in various studies. The chapter concludes by evaluating the limitations and the gaps in the previous studies.

2.2 Origin and concept of competencies and managerial competencies:-

In the course of the most recent couple of years there has been an immense development in the area of competency. Writing demonstrates that the utilization of the competency approach has significantly been advanced by specialists and programming experts on the guise that this will

enhance both individual employment execution and hierarchical adequacy. (Markus, Thomas & Allpress, 2005) [12]. In recent times, the idea of competency mapping is pulling in the consideration of specialists also, and this has been seen in the ongoing authoritative research writing. It is progressively utilized in the field of HRD. In spite of the fact that the term competency has grabbed the attention of the consultants, professionals & researchers, there exists a substantial gap between the claims made and the advantages which have actually been accrued because of the competency approaches. HR specialists have been frequently associated with creating and applying competency models. However, there is a paucity of empirical studies conducted in this area. As researchers, we ought to be worried about this.

The following section reviews the theoretical perspectives that revolve around the term competency and managerial competencies,

What is a competency?

David McClelland, a renowned psychologist, was a pioneer in the conceptual development of competency. In 1973, he composed a fundamental paper which caused a buzz in the field of psychology [13] McClelland's examination shown that albeit conventional IQ tests were great indicators of scholastic execution, they only seldom anticipated the work performance of the employee. It brought up issues about the unwavering quality of IQ tests as an indicator of employment achievement. McClelland proceeded to contend that the best indicators of remarkable at work performance were fundamental, individual attributes that he called 'competencies' From that point forward, a ton of research has been directed in the area of competency.

The term competency was used for the first time by Richard Boyatzis. He characterizes "competency as an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/ or superior performance in a job. An underlying characteristic could include a motive, trait, skill, or a body of knowledge". [14]. His unique work was further propagated by Spencer and Spencer who characterize "competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation". [15]

Definitions of competency by various researchers:-

According to Klemp (1980) competency can be defined as, “an underlying characteristic of a person which results in effective and/or superior performance on the job”. [16]

According to **Hornby and Thomas (1989)** “competency is the ability to perform effectively the functions associated with management in a work situation”. [17]

According to **Hogg B (1989)** “competencies are the characteristics of a manager that lead to the demonstration of skills and abilities, which result in effective performance within an occupational area”. [18]

According to **Jacobs (1989)** “competency is an observable skill or ability to complete a managerial task successfully”. [19]

Page and Wilson (1994) reviewed several citations of competencies and were able to reach a conclusion that “competency can be characterized as the skills, abilities, and personal characteristics required by an effective or good manager”. [20]

Dubois (1998) mentioned that “competencies are those characteristics- knowledge, skills, mind-sets, thought patterns, and the like-that, when used either singularly or in various combinations, result in successful performance”. [21]

Citing Woodruffe, Mahalangu (2015) defined competencies as “fundamental distinguishable characteristics that an individual uses to perform a specific job or output successfully”. [22] [23].

After going through the various definitions above, one thing emerges clearly: that the importance of competency has ascended over the past couple of years. However, the definition that is widely accepted is “competencies include the collection of success factors necessary for achieving important results in a specific job or work role in a particular organization. Success factors are combinations of knowledge, skills, and abilities (abbreviated as KSA)”. [13].

Markus et al. conducted a research through which they concluded that the various published definitions associated with competency can be categorized into three approaches. They are “educational approach, psychological approach and business approach”. [12]. Citing Sparrow (1995), Markus et al. endeavoured to explain the potential advantages of the competency approaches. Some of them are “Improved recruitment and selection practices through a focus on

competencies required; improved individual, organizational and career development programs; improved performance management processes due to improved assessment; and lastly improved communication on strategic and HR issues through a common language.” [12] [30].

Managerial competencies

Boyatzis was the first person to utilize the term competency in the managerial domain. According to him, “managerial competencies can be divided into 2 categories: *Threshold Competencies* and *Differentiating Competencies*”. [14]. He further contended that “*Threshold competencies*” are essential pre-requisites to do any job whereas “*differentiating competencies*” are the ones that differentiate a high and a low performer.

According to Hellriegel *et al.* (2007), “Managerial competencies are sets of knowledge, skills, behaviours, and attitudes that a person needs to be effective in a wide range of managerial jobs and various types of organizations”. [31].

2.3 Concept of organizational culture

According to Ogbonna and Harris (2000), the construct of organizational culture is “one of the most fascinating and yet elusive topics for management researchers with more than 4,600 articles examining the subject since 1980”. [32].

According to Barney (1986), Organizational culture is “a complex phenomenon that shapes everyday organizational life”. [33]. He refers OC as “a complex set of values, beliefs, assumptions, and symbols that define the way in which a firm conducts its business”. [33].

According to Hofstede, the term “organizational culture” found its first mention in an article which appeared in “*Administrative Science Quarterly* by Pettigrew”. [34].

Few of the definitions put forth by the researchers are:

According to Martin and Siehl OC refers to “shared values, attitudes, beliefs, and customs of members of an organization”.

According to Deshpande et al. (1993) OC is “a pattern of shared values and beliefs that help individuals understand organization functions and provide them with the norm for the behaviour in organizations”. [35] [36].

Haggett (1975) speaks OC as “patterns of behavior that form a durable template by which ideas and images can be transferred from one generation to another or from one group to another”. [37]

According to O’Reilly *et. al.* OC is “observable norms and values that characterize an organization”. [38].

According to Cameron and Quinn, “OC is reflected by what is valued, the dominant leadership styles, the language and symbols, the procedures and routines, and the definitions of success that make an organization unique”. [39].

In addition to the above definitions, various researchers have also come up with classification of OC. [34] [36] [40] [41] [42] [43] [44].

Hofstede (1980) emphasizes that there are regional cultures and national cultures which influence the organizations. He argues that culture can be evaluated from five different perspectives namely “power distance; uncertainty avoidance; individualism versus collectivism; masculinity versus femininity; and long-term versus short-term orientation”. [34]

Deal and Kennedy tried to measure the organizations, on the basis of feedback and risk. They came up with the classification of OC into four types. These were: “tough-guy macho culture; work hard/play hard culture; bet your company culture and process culture” [40].

Wallach (1993) proposes bureaucratic, supportive and innovative organizational cultures [41]

According to Schein OC can be classified into three dimensions: they are “assumptions at the first level; values at the second level; and artefacts at the third level”. [42].

Martin (1992) talks about “integration, differentiation and fragmentation” types of Organisational culture. [43]. Cameron and Freeman; and Deshpande *et al.* came up with the idea of “Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy and Market culture”. [44] [[36]. The above mentioned cultures

can be represented in the form of a figure. This requires worth discussion because it forms the foundation for our scale. used in OC.

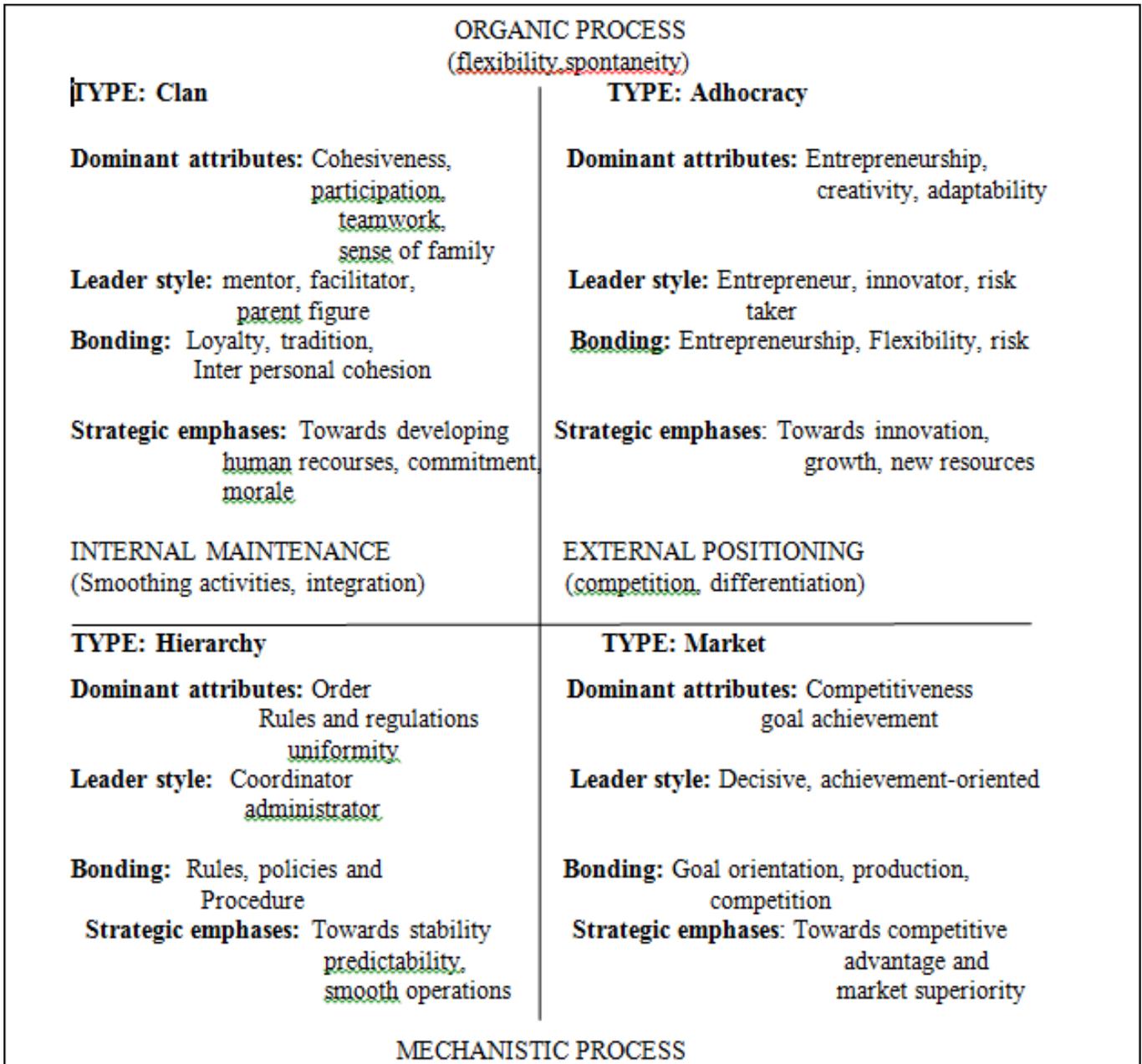


Figure 2.1: A model of different types of organizational culture
Source: Deshpande, Farley and Webster (1993)

The figure shows that there are two contradictory forces (external focus) and (internal focus) for studying organizational culture. The vertical axis refers to the contrasting forces of “flexibility and discretion” vs. “stability and control”. The horizontal axis refers to the contrasting forces of “smoothing activities and integration” vs. “competition and differentiation”.

Clan culture refers to the place where “loyalty and commitment is high, the leaders are considered to be mentors and, perhaps, even parent figures” [44]. *Hierarchical culture* is a “very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do and formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long term concern is on stability and performance with efficient and smooth operations”. [44]. *Market culture* refers to a place “that focuses on external positioning with a need for stability and control. People are competitive and goal-oriented; the leaders are hard drivers and competitors; long-term focus is on competitive actions and achievement of measurable goals. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration”. [44] In the *adhocracy culture*, people are adaptive and creative. The leader emphasizes upon innovation and is a risk taker. [44]

Dubkevics (2010) [45] came up with the idea of bipolar classifications. He categorized that OC can be “Strong/weak; Functional/dysfunctional; Efficient/inefficient and positive/negative cultures”. [45].

Apart from the definitions and classifications of culture types, several researchers have also made an attempt to explain the importance of Organizational culture.

According to Ivancevich, *et. al.* “organizational culture inspires employees to be good citizens and to go along, the rationale being that a strong culture provides shared values that confirms that everyone in the organization is on the same track”. [51]. Culture “improves organizational commitment and enhances the consistency of employee behavior” (Martins & Martins, 2002) [52]. Several researchers have also reported that Organizational culture is “a force that influences both employee behavior and the success of a company”. [53] [54].

According to a study conducted by Harman (1998), “a systematic investigation of Organizational Culture will help to explain the culture and values which would be important in understanding how an organization works and how it should be administered”. [55].

According to Tierney “an understanding of Organizational Culture can minimize the likelihood and effect of cultural conflict and encourage shared goals”. [56]

Ott mentions that “organizational culture provides an emotional sense of involvement and commitment to organizational values and moral codes and strongly affects employee performance, and, ultimately, organizational effectiveness”. [58]

Above literature helped the researcher in getting a thorough insight about the theoretical concepts revolving OC. Upon close investigation of the above literature, it can be assumed that there is a general consensus amongst the researchers about the definition of OC. Researchers have agreed that the construct of organizational culture mainly comprises of beliefs, attitudes and values.

2.4 Concept of managerial effectiveness

The construct of ME is of considerable importance in India. The higher is the manager’s effectiveness, the more likely are the chances that the organization will be successful. Therefore, determining the predictors of managerial effectiveness is pivotal for any organization.

Margerison (1981) considered that a manager is effective if he behaves appropriately in tune with the situation. [59]. According to Hernandez Marrero (2006), a manger is effective if he is able to achieve the output [2]. Ali and Patnaik (2014) postulated that ME can be defined in terms of manager’s profession, personal and inter-personal effectiveness with regard to their respective organization.[60]. According to Azeem et al. (2015), managerial effectiveness refers to “handling managerial functions with competence, which reflects the smooth working operations over a period of time, obtained within the laid down parameters of cost, time and productivity”. [61].

The construct of Managerial effectiveness has been widely investigated by the researchers because of its crucial role for organizational success. (Labbaf, Analoui and Cusworth, 1996; Analoui, 1998; Abraham, Karns, Shaw & Mena, 2001; Willcocks, 2002; Page, Wilson, Meyer & Inkson, 2003; Hamlin 2004; Rosete & Ciaroochi, 2005; Chanzi, 2009; Tonidandel, Braddy & Fleenor, 2012). [62] [63] [64] [65] [66] [67] [68] [69] [70].

2.5 Empirical studies on managerial competencies in different sectors:-

Tas conducted the initial studies on managerial competencies in the hospitality industry. (1988).[71]. He identified 36 competencies to be important for hotel general manager trainees. He proceeded further to determine that out of these 36 competencies, the ones that are “essential, considerably important and moderately important”. Using a scale of Butula (1975), Tas came to the conclusion that “six competencies were essential, 18 were considerably important and the remaining 12 were moderately important”.[71]. The six competencies which were identified as essential were “managing guest problems, professional & ethical standards, professional appearance & poise, effective communication, positive customer relations and positive working relationships”. [71]. [72]

Kay and Russette (2000) conducted a research wherein they tried to identify the important competencies required by the managers from various functional areas. [73]. Twenty managers and directors from these functional areas formed the sample. [73] [74]. They were asked to rate the competencies on the basis of importance. Composite score was used to calculate the essential competencies for different levels of management and different functional areas. Results revealed 18 competencies which were very important for different functional areas and at different levels. These competencies were “recognizing customer problems”, “maintaining customer satisfaction”, “managing customer problems with understanding and sensitivity”, “developing positive customer relations”, “solving customer problems”, “portraying enthusiasm”, “portraying competence and confidence”, “portraying work commitment”, “demonstrating professional appearance and poise”, “portraying diligence and initiative”, “maintaining professional and ethical standards in the work environment”, “cultivating climate of trust”, “working knowledge of product service”, “listening skills”, “face-to-face communication skills”, “oral communication

skills”, “resolving conflicts with a win-win resolution approach” and “adapting creatively to change”. [73]

Tett *et al.* (2000) developed a hyper-dimensional taxonomy of MC in order to predict managerial performance. [74]. The taxonomy was developed using earlier models and the content validation was established by experts. The findings supported the model’s content validity and its pursuit in understanding and predicting managerial behaviour. The taxonomy comprised of 53 competencies which were considered important for performance. The competencies identified were “Problem Awareness, Decision Making, Directing, Decision Delegation, Short-Term Planning, Strategic Planning, Coordinating, Goal Setting, Monitoring, Motivating by Authority, Motivating by Persuasion, Team Building, Productivity, Initiative, Task Focus, Urgency, Decisiveness, Compassion, Cooperation, Sociability, Politeness, Political Astuteness, Assertiveness, Seeking Input, Customer Focus, Orderliness, Rule Orientation, Personal Responsibility, Trustworthiness, Timeliness, Professionalism, Loyalty, Tolerance, Adaptability, Creative Thinking, Cultural Appreciation, Resilience, Stress Management, Listening, Oral Communication, Public Presentation, Written Communication, Developmental Goal Setting, Performance Assessment, Developmental Feedback, Job Enrichment, Self-Development, Technical Proficiency, Organizational Awareness, Quality Concern, Quantity Concern, Financial Concern and Safety Concern”. [74]

Perdue *et al.* undertook a series of studies in the year 2000, 2001 and 2002 to assess the competencies perceived to be important for club managers. [75] [76] [77]. The first study identified “competencies required for current effectiveness”; the second study focused on “competencies required for the future” and the third study focused on “comparison of present and future competencies required for managers”. [75] [76] [77]. They observed that managers were expected to have immense knowledge in “accounting and finance, human resource, marketing, and food and management competencies” in order to be successful. [75] [76] [77]. Their findings were similar in all the three studies.

Agut and Grau (2002) were trying to evaluate “technical and generic managerial competency needs and managerial training requests” for tourism industry.[78]. In order to conduct the study,

they started with a review of the tourist industry literature and managerial competency literature. They concluded that 16 technical competencies and 26 managerial competencies are considered to be important for tourism managers.

Chung Herrera *et al.* (2003) developed a competency model for leaders working in the hospitality industry. [79]. By reviewing the competency models of other sectors, the researchers were able to compile a list of 99 competencies. They assumed that these competencies might help to predict leadership success in the hospitality industry. In a survey conducted on 137 industry leaders, the competencies were rated on the basis of importance. Data analysis was done and as a result 99 competencies were grouped into 8 factors comprising of 28 dimensions. The competency labelled “self-management” emerged to be the most important dimension. It comprised of “ethics & integrity, time-management, flexibility and adaptability & self-development, second in importance was the competency in strategic positioning, composed of awareness of customer needs, commitment to quality, managing stakeholders & concern for community”. [79]. Third in importance was the competency of implementation, composed of planning, directing others and re-engineering. Fourth in importance was the competency of “critical thinking composed of strategic orientation, decision making, analysis, risk taking & innovation”. [79]. Next in importance was the “communication competency composed of speaking with impact, facilitating open communication, active listening & written communication”. [79]. “Industry knowledge competency composed of business and industry expertise, leadership competency composed of teamwork orientation, Fostering motivation, Fortitude, Developing others, Embracing change and Leadership versatility and finally interpersonal skill were the factors that, while important, were ranked lower by the respondents”. [79].

Dimmock *et al.* (2003) in their study tried to determine the competencies that need to be developed by tourism and hospitality management graduates. [80]. Competing Values Framework (CVF) was used as a measuring tool. Through self-evaluation method, the students rated themselves that how competent they were in various competencies and roles, deemed to be most important. These competencies were “Designing and organising; Visioning, planning & goal setting; delegating effectively; working productively; fostering a productive work environment; Managing time and stress; managing projects; designing work; managing across

functions; monitoring personal performance; managing collective performance; managing organisational performance; understanding self and others; communicating effectively; developing subordinates; building teams; using participative decision making; managing conflict; thinking creatively; creative change; building and maintaining a power base; negotiating agreement and commitment; presenting ideas effectively”.[80]. The questionnaire was distributed personally to students who were pursuing their course in Tourism. Composite mean scores were calculated for the statements related to the 24 competencies. Results indicated that students considered themselves to be developed in 19 of the 24 competencies.

Rajadhyaksha, U. (2005) conducted a study in one of India’s largest vehicle manufacturing companies. [81]. Based on data gathered from 250 executives, she was able to develop a techno-managerial competency model. The model comprised of 24 competency items, 13 of which were technical in nature and the remaining 11 were managerial. The 11 managerial competencies were “Analytical ability, Creativity, Risk-taking orientation, Perseverance, Quest for learning, Attention to detail, Visualization, Business understanding, Communication ability, People management skills and Team work skills”[81].

Wang et. al. (2008) conducted a research to understand the leadership competencies that were considered to be critical for the managers who were working in the middle level so that they can be successful. [82]. Leadership Competency Model, developed by Office of Personnel Management (1998), was used as a measuring tool and was administered to 253 MBA & EMBA students of Nankai University, China. Results indicated that all the 27 competencies were considered to be important having a mean score of 3.34 and above. The 27 competencies were “Vision, External awareness, Creativity & innovation, Strategic thinking, Continual learning, Resilience, Flexibility, Service motivation, Financial management, Human resource management, Technology management, Accountability, problem solving, decisiveness, customer service, entrepreneurship, technical credibility, oral communication, written communication, influencing, partnering, political savvy, interpersonal skills, conflict management, leveraging diversity, team building, integrity/honesty”[82]. The students were also asked to list the top 5 critical competencies. Results revealed that the following 5 competencies were considered to be most important and critical; “accountability, team building, relationship management, continual

learning and conflict management. The perceived importance mean value for the five competencies was higher than 3.84 with accountability having the highest mean value”. [82].

Munkeby (2007) conducted a qualitative research to understand “the core competencies of middle managers in the 21st century”. [83]. Content analysis method was used to analyse research papers which appeared in reputed databases. Evidence indicated that middle managers should possess a combination of process and personal competencies to be successful. Process skills are competencies required by middle managers during the execution phase so that they can act upon them and bring changes. Examples are “business process improvement, customer service, partnering, project management, mental models, system thinking, change leadership, resource allocation, organisational vision and navigating the organisation”. [82]. Personal competencies on the other hand are associated with interactions, preparations and planning. Examples are “personal communication, conflict resolution, leadership, consulting/facilitating, ethical/legal issues, developing/mentoring others and computing”. [83]. The study pointed out that middle managers should prioritize process skills over personal skills.

Krapohl, (2007) in her study tried to assess the contemporary management competencies required to assist municipal management within the Eden district Municipality service area in Southern Cape. [84]. A questionnaire was used to gather the perceptions of all middle and senior managers within the Eden district municipality service area, with regard to their existing competency levels and their future desired competency levels. Hellriegel’s managerial competency framework comprising of six dimensions was used to study the required competency profile. The six dimensions were “communication; planning and administration; teamwork; strategic action; global awareness and self-management”. [84]. The findings revealed that presently the most developed managerial competencies were self-management, strategic action, planning and administration and communication. The least developed current competency was global awareness. Managerial competencies regarded as the most important for the next ten years were planning and administration and strategic action and global awareness was regarded as the least important competency for the next ten years.

Pillay, R. (2008) through his examination endeavoured to solve the issue of giving managers in both the public and private sectors with the imperative abilities so as to make them viable, effective and responsive so that quality health services can be provided. [85] [86]. Data was

collected from employees who were working in hospitals. They rated the competency items on the basis of importance. These competencies were extracted from the literature and were related to effective management of health services organisation. Findings revealed that managers considered the broad cluster of “people management” competencies and “self-management competencies” to be very important for the effective and efficient management of hospitals. The sub competencies included in the people management cluster were “motivating staff, managing people and teams, communication skills, managing delivery, managing conflict, management of change and labour relations”. [85] [86]. The sub competencies included in the self-management cluster were “learning from experience, time management, balancing work and life issues, integrity and ethical conduct, self-awareness and self-development”. [85] [86].

In the year 2008 and 2009, Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza conducted a research through which they were able to determine important competencies for managers working in a telecommunication firm situated in Sri Lanka. [87] [88]. According to the researchers, these 31 competencies would help the managers to be successful. The competencies identified were “Customer relations knowledge, Cost conscious, Change handling skills, Planning & scheduling, Strategizing ability, Technical competence, Technology application skills, Safety focus, Empathy with people, Conflict resolution, Negotiation, Empowerment ability, Holistic, Creativity, Coaching ability, Time management ability, Pressure management skills, learning, Listening, Oral communication, Written communication, Quality focus, Flexibility, Team player, Customer focus, Resiliency, Ethical, Achievement orientation, Risk taking, Positive vision and Attitude to meet targets” [87] [88].

In the year 2009, Qiao and Wang conducted an examination to explore the important competencies for the success of middle managers in China. [89]. By way of mixed approaches, like “focus groups, critical incidence interviews, and survey questionnaires”, they came to the conclusion that competencies like “accountability, team building, relationship management, continual learning and conflict management” were considered to be the most important for middle managers. [89].

Weber Melvin R. *et al.* (2009) tried to identify a comprehensive list of soft skill competencies that will be considered as important for entry-level managerial positions. [90]. Through previous literature review, the researchers had compiled a list of 107 managerial competencies. They

developed an electronic survey using these 107 competencies and sent it to 1278 HR representatives of various companies located in US. These HR professionals rated the competencies on the basis of importance. Means were calculated and it was found that the following competencies had the highest means: “Acts with integrity, acts straightforward and honestly, follows through on commitment, shows enthusiasm, follows up with others, inspires trust through others, responds professionally to guests and is courteous and respectful.” [90].

Tahir and Abu Bakar (2010) conducted a study to identify and examine managerial competencies in the Malaysian Financial services sector. [91]. They found that core competencies for managers of financial institutions were ‘Leadership’, ‘team building’, ‘communication’, ‘results’, ‘efficiency’, and ‘coaching and counselling’.

Wadongo, Billy *et al.* (2011) in their research tried to identify important competencies for managers in the hospitality industry in Kenya. [92]. Through questionnaires administered on 160 managers employed in five star hotels in Kenya, they came to the conclusion that managers mainly considered 15 competencies are important.[92]. These competencies were “taking initiative, motivating others, goal setting, personal productivity and motivation, planning and presenting information; writing effectively, delegating effectively, organizing, developing subordinates, creative thinking, conflict management, controlling, time and stress management, team building, managing change, negotiating agreement and commitment”. [92].

Shamsudin and Chuttipattana, (2012) conducted a study to identify the critical managerial competencies of primary care managers in Southern Thailand. [93] [94]. With the help of the questionnaires distributed to primary care managers, they found that six managerial competency factors were very critical for the primary care managers. These competencies were “visionary leadership; assessment, planning & evaluation; promotion of health & prevention of disease; information management; partnership & collaboration; and communication”. [93] [94]

The above review of literature helped the researcher in preparing a consolidated list of competencies that have been considered as important for successful performance across various sectors. The following table lists down the competencies that have been used by various researchers:-

Table 2.1 List of competencies

No.	Competencies	Author and Year
1	Negotiation	Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Chong, Eric (2011); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012)
2	Quality focused	Karns and Mena (1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A. (2009); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al.</i> (2003);
3	Customer relations knowledge	Karns and Mena (1998); Tett <i>et.al</i> (2000); Wang, Wei (2006); Munkeby (2007); Brodie (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A. (2009); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al.</i> (2003);
4	Vision	Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Wang, Wei (2006); Munkeby (2007); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Chong, Eric (2011); Mohd. Shamsudin and Nirachon (2012)
5	Planning & organizing	Woodruffe (1993); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al</i> (2003); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Brodie (2008); Chong, Eric (2011); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Mohd. Shamsudin and Nirachon (2012); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012)
6	Maintaining professional & ethical standards	Woodruffe; Karns and Mena (1998); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al</i> (2003); Munkeby (2007); Tahir and Abu Bakar (2010); Chong, Eric (2011); Mohd. Shamsudin and Nirachon (2012); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012)
7	Patience	Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Dulewicz (2007); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012)
8	Orderliness	Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005);
9	Ambitious	Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005);
10	Assertiveness	Tett <i>et.al</i> (2000); Dulewicz(2007);

11	Credibility	Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Mohd. Shamsudin and Nirachon (2012); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012)
12	Flexible	Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A. (2009);
13	Tolerant	Tett <i>et.al</i> (2000); Dulewicz(2007); Chong, Eric (2011);
14	Consistent	Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A.(2009);
15	Humility	Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A. (2009);
16	Responsible & dependable	Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al.</i> (2003);
17	Portraying enthusiasm, work commitment, passion & confidence	Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012);
18	Humour	Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008);
19	Hard worker/ Diligent	Chung-Herrera <i>et. al</i> (2003); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008);
20	Resilience	Tett <i>et.al</i> (2000); Dulewicz(2007); Chong, Eric (2013);
21	Self-development	Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A.(2009);
22	Crisis management	Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Chong, Eric (2011); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Konigova, Martina <i>et. al.</i> (2012);
23	Time management ability	Karns and Mena (1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003);
24	Conflict resolution	Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza

		(2008);
25	Taking initiative	Woodruffe 1993; Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011);
26	Achievement orientation	Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Chong, Eric (2011);
27	Develops rapport	Chung-Herrera <i>et. al</i> (2003); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008);
28	Motivating others	Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011);
29	Relationship management	Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Wang, Wei (2006); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009); Tahir & Abu Bakar (2010); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011)
30	Understanding self & others	Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003);
31	Listening skills	Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003);
32	Communication skills	Woodruffe (1993); Karns and Mena (1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Munkeby(2007); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A.(2009); Tahir and Abu Bakar (2010); Chong, Eric (2011); Mohd. Shamsudin and Nirachon (2012); Konigova, Martina <i>et al</i> (2012); Chung-Herrera <i>et. al.</i> (2003);
33	Co-operation	Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Scaperlanda-Herlein, Michele A.(2009);
34	Consulting/ facilitating	Tett <i>et.al</i> (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006);
35	Feedback, praise & recognition	Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Munkeby(2007); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008);

36	Shows accessibility/ approachability	Woodruffe (1993); Karns and Mena (1998);
37	Cultivating climate of trust	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006); Chong, Eric (2011);
38	Autonomy & empowerment	Karns and Mena(1998); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003);
39	Participative decision making	Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza(2008);Scaperlanda-Herlein,Michele A.(2009);
40	Holds others accountable for their decisions	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006);
41	Holds self, accountable for actions	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006);
42	Mentoring/Coaching	Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza(2008);Scaperlanda-Herlein,Michele A.(2009);
43	Delegating effectively	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Kay, C.& Russette, J. (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Wang, Wei (2006); Krapohl, Johannes (2007);Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003);
44	Reviewing & guiding	Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003); Wickramasinghe and De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009);
45	Goal setting	Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009); Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011);
46	Developing subordinates	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Kay, C. & Russette, J. (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Wang, Wei (2006); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009);

		Wadongo, Billy <i>et al.</i> (2011);
47	Team building	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett <i>et.al.</i> (2000); Kay, C. & Russette, J. (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003); Ujvala Rajadhyaksha (2005); Wang, Wei (2006); Krapohl, Johannes (2007);Brodie (2008); Pillay, Rubin (2008); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008); Qiao & Wang (2009); Tahir & Abu Bakar (2010); Wadongo, Billy et al. (2011); Chung-Herrera <i>et.al.</i> (2003);
48	Managing knowledge & talent	Chung-Herrera et. al (2003); Wang, Wei (2006); Krapohl, Johannes (2007); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008);
49	Analyzing information & reducing information overload	Chung-Herrera et. al (2003); Dimmock, Kay; Breen, Helen; Walo, Maree (2003);
50	Problem solving	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006); Chong, Eric (2011);
51	Ethical/legal issues	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Marrero Pablo Hernandez (2006); Wickramasinghe and Nimali De Zoyza (2008);
52	Critical thinking	Tett et.al (2000); Kay, Christine; Russette, John (2000);
53	Following process and procedures	Karns and Mena(1998); Tett et.al (2000); Agut & Grau (2002); Wang, Wei (2006); Chong, Eric (2011);

2.6 Empirical studies- Organizational Culture

The following discussion revolves around the empirical studies conducted in the area of OC and other constructs related to OC.

Helms & Stern (2001) conducted an in-depth research to study the perceptions of employees about their organizational culture. Their main objective was to analyse whether the demographic features had an influence on OC. [94]. Using an instrument developed by Ott in 1989, organisational culture was assessed. There were 42 statements in the questionnaire which measured the employees' perception regarding the dimensions of Organisational culture. The

dimensions used were “Organisational pride, excellence/performance orientation, teamwork/communication, leadership/supervision, profitability/cost emphasis, colleague relations, innovativeness/creativity orientation, teamwork/ communication, leadership/supervision, profitability/cost emphasis, colleague relations, innovativeness/ creativity orientation, training/development emphasis, and openness/ candor”. The findings revealed that employees of the different age group, ethnicity and gender have a different perception about the dimensions of organizational culture.

Dubkevics & Barbars (2010) conducted an empirical study in Latvia in one of the leading organizations in banking sector. [45]. The researchers made an attempt to understand the relationship between the constructs of OC and effectiveness of the organization. Using the instruments developed by Cameron and Quinn (OCAI) and Wallach, the researchers came to the conclusion that OC significantly affects organizational effectiveness. [45].

Ramachandran et. al. (2010) conducted a research in Malaysia in order to study the type of organizational culture in private and public HEIs. [96]. Data was collected from 594 faculty members. Results suggested that all the four types of organizational culture differ in public and private higher educational institutions. The investigation provided knowledge and initial guidelines on how the organizational culture type should be dealt with so that the organizational goals can be achieved effortlessly. [96].

Martins and Coetzee (2007) in their study, conducted in a South African engineering company, tried to understand the perception of the employees about their OC and the level of satisfaction. [97]. The results demonstrated that significant differences existed between the biological groups as far as the dimensions were concerned.[97].

Liu et. al. (2006) conducted a preliminary investigation to report on OC type of five select construction enterprises in China. [98]. The chosen enterprises were “similar in size, number of employees, general reputation (in terms of quality of construction), business type (building works) and tax bracket”. [98]. It was concluded that hierarchy culture was prevalent in four enterprises.[98].

2.7 Empirical studies- Organisational Culture and Managerial competencies

Koberg and Chusmir (1987) conducted a study using three types of culture mentioned by Wallach i.e. “innovative culture, supportive culture and bureaucratic culture” and related them to organizational results. [99]. The researchers came up with the findings that organizational results such as performance and degrees of achievement of organizational goals vary according to the types of culture. This study is relevant to the study of the relationship between organizational culture and performance of the employees.[99] [100].

In a study conducted on managers of Hong Kong and Australia, Lok and Crawford studied the impact of “organizational culture and leadership styles on job satisfaction and organizational commitment in managers”. [100]. The researchers observed that “innovative and supportive cultures, and a consideration leadership style had positive effects on both job satisfaction and commitment”. [100].

In a similar study, Ogbonna and Harris demonstrated that “the relationship between leadership style and performance is mediated by the form of organizational culture”. [1].

Pathardikar and Sahu (2011) also examined the role of various cultural variables on organizational commitment. [101]. Their findings revealed that OC and commitment of employees are strongly related.

Zavyalova and Kucherov (2010) studied the relationship between OC and job satisfaction. [102]. They recommended that organizations with various sorts of culture contrast in the level of job satisfaction of workers. As indicated by them, “market culture” is suitable for the fulfilment of “self-affirmation needs”; “hierarchical culture” for the fulfilment of “cooperation and safety needs”; “clan culture”, for the fulfilment of “respect needs”; “adhocracy culture” for the fulfilment of “self-actualization needs”. [100] [102].

Shamsudin and Chuttipattana (2011) conducted a survey to understand the relationship between “personality and managerial competencies”. [90]. The researchers observed that OC moderated the relationship between the two variables. Likewise, the outcomes reflected that managers displayed the largest amount of competencies when they scored “high on conscientiousness” and

worked in a domain that underlines “a high humanistic culture, high leadership culture, and low prescriptive culture”. [90].

The above literature review indicates that management research has valid justifications to centre around how culture affects organizational results such as job satisfaction, performance, organizational commitment, managerial competencies, goal achievement and turnover. However, there is a paucity of empirical studies that will determine the direct relationship between organizational culture and managerial competencies.

On the basis of the above discussion, the following hypothesis can be framed

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant positive relationship between OC and MC.

2.8 Empirical studies- Organizational culture and managerial effectiveness:

Page *et.al.* (2003) observed that majority of the researches in Managerial effectiveness focus upon the personal attributes of the individual, and the importance of the contextual factors has been understated. [66]. They administered a national survey in New Zealand in order to understand the impact of the environmental and personal variables on the effectiveness of the managers. The results suggested that contextual factor such as Organizational culture and the role of supervisor and subordinates play an important part in increasing the effectiveness of managers.

Chauhan, Dhar and Pathak (2005) made an attempt to analyse managerial effectiveness by using a scale developed by Mott which was standardized in the western conditions. [99].

In a study conducted by Ali and Patnaik (2014) on 100 managers of the public and private sector organizations, the researchers concluded that both organizational climate and organizational culture should be improved and the managers should be provided with conducive atmosphere so that their level of performance could be increased. [60]. Similar findings were also derived by Madan and Jain (2015) after conducting a study on 100 managers of various public sector and private sector organizations.[100].

In a study conducted by Pandey & Misra, on the middle level employees of selected banks, the researchers concluded that “organizational culture plays an important role in the effectiveness of the managers”. [94].

Based on the above discussion, it can be postulated that

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant effect of organizational culture on managerial effectiveness.

2.9 Empirical studies- Managerial competencies and Managerial effectiveness:

Labaf et al (1996) conducted a study in Iran and came up with the findings that three types of managerial skills are important to increase the effectiveness of the senior managers. [62]. These skills are “task; people and analytical; and self- development skills”. [62]. They further argued that managers who are at the lower level consider “task related skills” as important whereas “people related skills” were more important for the top level managers. [62].

Analoui(1998) conducted a study on senior managers of the public sector organizations in Ghana. [63]. Their main objective was to study the “causal and behavioural” influences which have an impact on the effectiveness of managers. They concluded with a cluster of factors which determines the effectiveness of managers. These factors were “perception; awareness; competency skills, needs and motivation; and finally the constraints and demands”. A similar study was conducted by Bao (2009) in the public and private sector organizations in China [69].

Abraham *et.al.* conducted a research on a sample of 2500 firms. Through a survey administered to 277 respondents, they came up with the conclusion that there are six competencies which can help the managers in increasing their effectiveness.[64]. These competencies were “leadership skills; customer focus; result oriented; problem solver; communication skills and team worker”. They further suggested that organizations must use these competencies in appraising the managerial employees.

Rosette and Ciarrochi (2005) led an examination keeping in mind the end goal to explore the connection between “emotional intelligence competency, personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness”. [101]. Self-reported measure was used to measure emotional intelligence, personality and cognitive ability; whereas leadership effectiveness was evaluated

using 360 degree appraisal method. The results revealed that executives who scored higher in emotional intelligence were considered as effective leaders.

Seong-Kook & Ji Sook (2005) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between competencies and performance amongst the salesperson of the Korean pharmaceutical industry. [102]. 457 salesperson and managers from five different pharmaceutical companies in Korea formed the sample. The researchers were of the opinion that these salesperson require three competency dimensions i.e. “motives and traits; self-concept; and knowledge and skills” for increased performance. [102]. The findings proved that there was a significant and positive correlation between the level of salesperson’s competencies and performance. [102].

Scaperlanda-Herlein, (2009) in her study tried to understand the relationship between MC and managerial performance. [103]. Data of 545 managers was utilized to look at the relationship between competencies and individual performance. Eight competencies used were “Building trust, Communication, Contributing to team success, Customer orientation, developing others, Planning & organizing, Quality orientation and valuing diversity”. Regression analysis was undertaken and the results displayed a significant positive relationship between MC and individual performance. These individual competencies explained about one third of the variation in performance. The competencies of contributing to team success, developing others, planning & organizing, customer orientation, and quality orientation were all significantly related to individual performance and building trust was moderately related to individual performance, leaving only communication and valuing diversity that were not significantly related to individual performance.

Further, Tonidandel et al., (2012) led an examination to look at the relative significance of four managerial skill dimensions i.e. “technical skill, administrative skill, human skill, and citizenship behaviour” for foreseeing managerial effectiveness. [70]. Managerial abilities were evaluated by peers utilizing a 360-degree appraisal instrument, while managerial effectiveness’ evaluations were done by bosses. Utilizing ratings given by different sources, their outcomes demonstrated that the four managerial skill dimensions were essentially critical indicators of managerial effectiveness.

In the Indian context, Ali and Patnaik (2014) conducted a study in Delhi NCR to understand managerial effectiveness in different organizations. [60]. Data was collected from 100 managers belonging to different public sector and private sector organizations. Using the scale developed by Dhar, Dhar and Jain, the researchers concluded that managers of private sector organizations are more effective as compared to their counterparts of the public sector organizations.[104].

Khandwalla, P.N (2004) in his study recognized competencies that may help role effectiveness at top level management. [105]. Data was collected from select managers who were attending training programmes in a reputed management institute. Twenty seven roles and forty five competencies were identified for senior managers. These competencies were categorised into six groups namely : “competencies related to contextual sensitivity”, “management of initiatives”, “introduction of innovations”, “resilience and effective coping through problem solving”, “effective task execution”, and “interpersonal competence and leadership”. Correlation analysis was applied to identify the relationship between competencies and role effectiveness. The study concluded with the finding that there exists a significant correlation between the 27 roles and 45 competencies. [105].

Murale, V. and Preetha R. (2011) conducted a study to understand the relationship between “managerial competency” and “role effectiveness”. [106]. The sample comprised of twenty middle level managers of a tyre manufacturing firm located in Kerala. The scale developed by Pradip Khandawalla comprising of 45 items and 5 competency domains, was used to rate the competency level. The findings suggested that there was a strong correlation between the managerial competencies and role effectiveness

Chong (2013) in her study tried to find out whether managerial competencies required for performance are similar or different across two different cultures and work environments. [107]. A total of 220 normal and high advancement managers from UK and Singapore formed the sample for the study. Managers were assessed on 40 managerial competencies developed by Dulewicz. The competencies were information collection, problem analysis, numerical interpretation, judgement, creativity, risk taking, decisiveness, business sense, helicopter, organizational awareness & sensitivity, extra-organizational awareness & sensitivity, reading, written communication, perceptive listening, oral expression, oral presentation, planning, organising, delegating, appraisal, development of subordinates, self-management, impact,

persuasiveness, sensitivity, flexibility, ascendancy, motivating others, negotiating, leadership, energy, achievement-orientation, initiative, tolerance for stress, adaptability, independence, integrity, resilience, tenacity and detail consciousness. The findings suggested that managerial competencies are more or less similar across two nations and the differences are basically due to the requirements of the work environment. [107]

Seate *et.al.* (2016) in their research tried to find out the competencies that are important for the verification practitioners of South Africa. They opined that through these competencies the effectiveness of the practitioners can be increased. [108]. They concluded with the findings that “technical skills, interpersonal skills, managerial skills; compliance to standards and ethics” play a major role in increasing the job performance of the practitioners. [108].

The above discussion provides sufficient evidence to the fact that managerial effectiveness is influenced by the construct of managerial competencies. However, there is a paucity of empirical studies relating to the two constructs, in the banking sector. Hence, this area needs further investigation. Based on the above discussion, it can be postulated that

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant effect of managerial competencies on managerial effectiveness.

2.10 Research Gap:-

Through exhaustive literature review of the above three variables, following research gaps were identified:

- Most of the studies on managerial competencies have been conducted in the North American & European settings & the studies have been confined primarily to tourism, healthcare, hotel and telecommunication industries.
- Managerial competencies and managerial effectiveness have been studied extensively but there are is a paucity of published empirical work which could demonstrate the relationship between these two variables, specifically in the banking sector.
- Although literature supports the fact that the construct of Organizational culture influences managerial competencies and managerial effectiveness independently, but no empirical work has been done to include all the three variables i.e managerial

competencies, organisational culture and managerial effectiveness in an integrated framework.

Based on the above literature, the following research framework is proposed

2.11 Proposed theoretical framework- managerial competencies, organizational culture and managerial effectiveness

Hypothesis 4: OC moderates the relationship between managerial competencies and managerial effectiveness

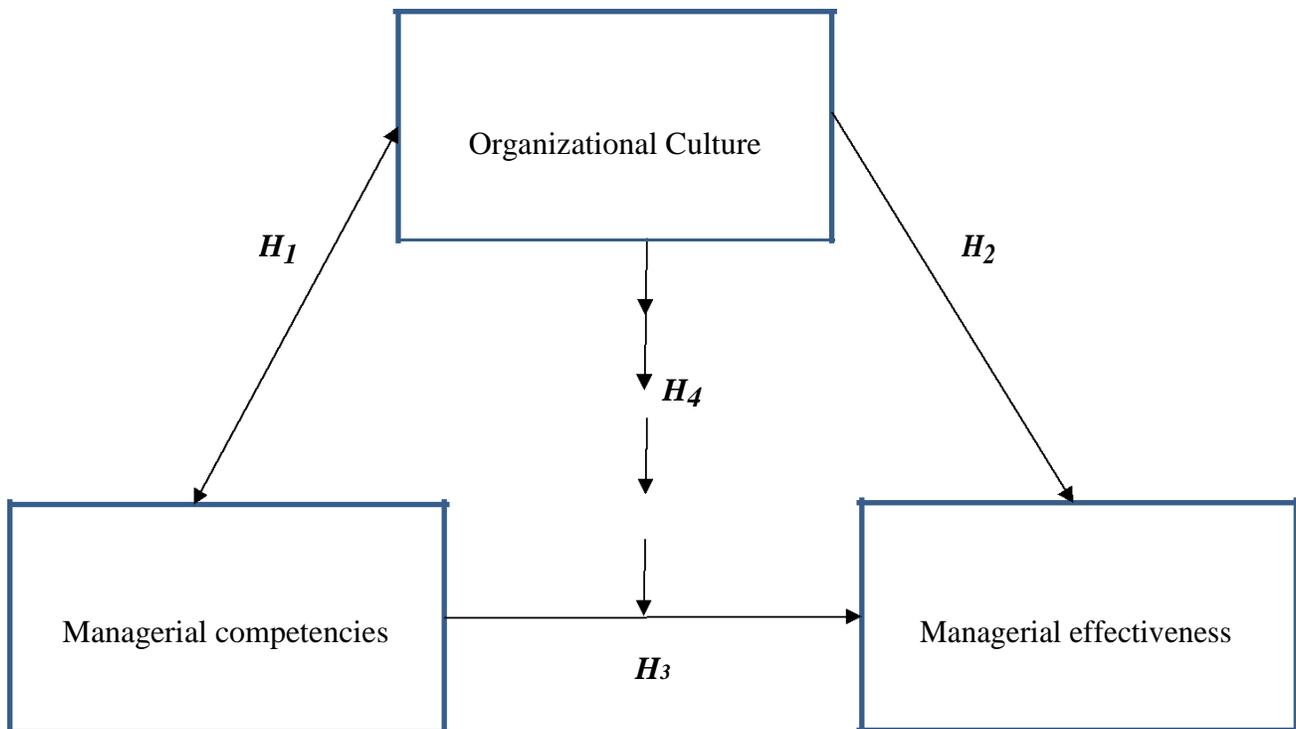


Figure 2.2 Proposed theoretical framework

The above framework was postulated on the basis of in-depth literature review. The framework will be empirically validated on the banking sector employees, if the hypotheses formulated in the above sections are proved.

2.12 Literature review- Existing scales

2.12.1 Organizational culture

Literature shows that researchers have used various types of scales to measure OC. Few of them are described below

2.12.1.1 Organizational Culture Inventory [109]

Organizational Culture Inventory was developed by Cooke and Lafferty in 1987. There are 120 items in the scale to measure OC. The researchers assume that “there are certain norms that guide the thinking and behaviour of members”.[109]. As a result “12 thinking styles” can be observed in the individuals within the groups. These thinking styles are “humanistic”, “affiliative”, “approval”, “conventional”, “dependent”, “avoidance”, “oppositional”, “power”, “competitive”, “perfectionist”, “achievement” and “self-actualization”. Assessment of these 12 styles results in three types of cultures namely: “people culture”, “satisfaction culture” and “task culture”.[109].

2.12.1.2 Competing Value Framework [110]

The Competing Value Framework was developed by Cameron and Quinn in the year 1991 to measure OC. It has 16 items to measure “staff climate”, “leadership style”, “bonding systems” and “prioritization of goals”. Evaluation concludes with four different types of culture namely: “clan”, “hierarchy”, “adhocracy” and “market”. Brief scenarios are mentioned that describe the characteristics of each organization. Respondents are asked to divide 100 points between these situations on the basis of how similar each situation is to their organization. [110]

2.12.1.3 Scale developed by Deshpande, Farley and Webster [36]

Deshpandey, Farley and Webster developed this scale in the year 1993 to measure OC. The scale has its basis on “Competing Values framework developed by Cameron and Quinn”.[36]. It has 16 items to measure “dominant characteristics”, “leadership style”, “organizational glue” and “strategic emphasis”. Assessment in this case also results in four types of culture namely: “clan”, “hierarchy”, “adhocracy” and “market”. It was developed by Deshpandey, Farley and

Webster to measure corporate culture. Brief situations are mentioned and respondents are asked to rate the statements on a 5 point Likert scale from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. [36]

2.12.1.4 “Quality improvement implementation survey Scale developed by Shortell et al”. [111] [112] [113] [114]

2.12.1.5 “Quality improvement implementation survey scale was developed by Shortell et al” in the year 1998 to measure organizational culture. The scale has 20 items to measure “character of organization”, manager’s style, “cohesion”, “prioritization of goals” and “rewards”. Evaluation results in four different types of culture namely: “group”, “developmental”, “hierarchy” and “rational”. Brief situations are mentioned that describe the characteristics of each organization. Respondents are asked to divide 100 points between these situations on the basis of how similar each situation is to their organization. The scale was primarily developed to assess the relationship between organizational culture and implementation of TQM. [111] [112] [113] [114]

2.12.1.6 OCTAPACE [115]

The scale was developed by Udai Pareek in the year 2010 to measure organizational culture. The scale has 40 items and measures eight dimensions of “openness”, confrontation”, “trust”, authenticity, “pro-action”, “autonomy”, “collaboration” and “experimentation”. The scale comprises of two parts. The first part consists of 24 statements which measure the values related to the eight dimensions. The second part comprises of 16 items which measure the opinions and beliefs related to the eight dimensions. Responses are anchored on a 4 point scale where “1” refers to very low value and “4” refers to if it is of very high value. [115]

2.12.2 Managerial effectiveness

2.12.2.1 Managerial effectiveness questionnaire developed by Mott [116]

The scale was developed by Mott in the year 1971 to measure the effectiveness of managers working in service and manufacturing sectors. The scale has eight items and it tries to capture the dimensions of “adaptability, flexibility and productivity”. Each item represents a particular situation. The situations depicted “productivity”, “quality”, “efficiency”, “problem anticipation”, “updatation”, “quick acceptance of change”, “degree of acceptance of change” and “crisis

management”. There were five choices for each situation and each choice has a weightage from “1 to 5”. Therefore the scores ranged from “8 to 40”. It was considered that higher the score, higher will be the effectiveness of the managers. [116]

2.12.2.2 Managerial effectiveness questionnaire developed by Seeta Gupta [117]

This scale was developed by Seeta Gupta in 1996 to appraise and evaluate the effectiveness of managers who were in managerial roles. The scale has 45 items and it tries to capture 16 dimensions of “confidence in subordinates”, “communication and task assignment”, “networking”, “colleagues management”, “discipline”, “informal communication”, “management of market environment”, “conflict resolution”, “integrity and communication”, “client management and competence”, “motivating”, “delegation”, “image building”, “welfare management”, “consultative”, “innovation and inspiration”. These 16 factors primarily measured three facets of effectiveness i.e. “activities of the position, achieving the results and developing further potential”. Responses were anchored on a 5 point scale. It was considered that higher the score, higher will be the effectiveness of managers. [117]

2.12.2.3 Managerial effectiveness scale by Dhar, Dhar and Jain [118]

This scale was developed by Dhar, Dhar and Jain in the year 2006 to measure the effectiveness of managers in three dimensions of “functional effectiveness, inter-personal effectiveness and personal effectiveness”. [118] The scale has 29 items. Each item was rated on a “7 point scale ranging from 1 to 7 where 1 denoted strongly disagree and 7 denoted strongly agree”. In this case also, it was assumed by the researchers that higher the score, higher will be the effectiveness of managers. [118]

2.12.2.4 Managerial effectiveness scale developed by Pablo Hernandez Marrero [2]

This scale was developed by Pablo Hernandez Marrero in the year 2006 to measure the effectiveness of managers working in the health services. The scale has 13 items. Candidates were asked to compare themselves to their choice of an “ideal manager”. Responses were anchored on a 5 point scale, from “1 to 5” where 1 refers to “not very well” and 5 refers to

“extremely well”. Here again it was assumed that higher the score, higher will be the effectiveness of managers. [2]

2.12.3 Existing scales to measure Managerial competencies

By going through the literature, it was observed that in order to measure managerial competencies, the researchers in the past had mostly relied upon the Hay McBer competency model comprising of seven competencies namely: “achievement orientation”, “developing others”, “directiveness”, “impact and influence”, “interpersonal understanding” and “organizational awareness”. [15]

Also, in few of the research papers, it was seen that researchers had tried to measure competencies with the help of competency model developed by Spencer and Spencer in the year 1993. This model comprised of 19 competencies namely: “concern for order”, “quality and accuracy”, “organizational awareness”, “achievement orientation”, “teamwork and cooperation”, “initiative”, “information seeking”, “team leadership”, “self-control”, “customer service orientation”, “interpersonal understanding”, “developing others”, “flexibility”, “impact and influence”, “conceptual thinking”, “organizational commitment”, “self-confidence”, “analytical thinking”, “directiveness: assertiveness and use of positional power” [15].

Conclusion:-

The chapter started with a detailed review of literature on the concept of managerial competencies, organizational culture and managerial effectiveness. Subsequently, various empirical studies which have been conducted relating to the three constructs were discussed. The empirical studies helped in preparing a consolidated list of competencies and also helped in postulating the four hypotheses. The chapter concluded with a proposed framework and a brief description of the scales used in the past to measure the three constructs.