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EMPIRICAL STUDY ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR, JOB PERFORMANCE, AND GENDER: EVIDENCE FROM A STUDY IN BANGLADESH

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Abstract

This paper studies the relationships between transformational leadership, deviant behaviour, job performance, and gender. Data collected from 160 respondents from different organisations using the convenience sampling method was analysed using descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation, and regression analysis.

Results reveal that there is a negative relationship between transformational leadership and deviant behaviour, while a positive association exists between transformational leadership and job performance, with a negative correlation between deviant workplace behaviour and job performance. Gender analysis shows that female ratings for different indicators, such as transformational leadership, deviant behaviour, and job performance were not significantly distinct from those of males. The main implication of this research is that it informs executives how transformational leadership and deviant behaviour affect job performance. Limitations and future research directions are discussed.

Key words: Deviant Behaviour, Gender, Job Performance, Transformational Leadership.

Introduction

Business organisations have become a place of diverse workforces (Newstrom and Davis, 2002 p.5). There are burgeoning studies of employee-centered management style around the world. Burns (1978) laid down the foundation for transformational and transactional political leaders which was extended by Bass (1985) by developing a model of transformational leadership (hereafter referred to as TFL). TFL is proposed in several studies for installing a compelling vision in followers' mind regarding the attainment of superordinate goals. This behaviour countervails violent activities and encourages subordinates to work harmoniously for the betterment of the organization, influencing leader's charisma, quality, and propelled vision (Howell and Avolio, 1993).

Workforce diversity has become the norm of the day. It adds new challenges to the current difficulties of managing human resources and shows a variety of behaviours, both at individual and group levels in the organisation (Appelbaum, Iaconi, and Matousek, 2007). According to Appelbaum et al. (2007, pp.586-587), these behaviours usually fall within the constructs of the norms of the organisation. However, when normal work behaviour goes beyond the standards of the group, it negatively affects organisational activities leading to delays in decision-making, loss of productivity, and adverse financial outcomes (Lee and Ok, 2014).

Workplace deviances became a burning issue everywhere. 95% of all companies in the United States alone reported deviant behaviour (hereafter referred to as DB) (Henle, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz, 2005). Up to 75% of employees are found to be involved in such behaviours, for example: theft; computer fraud; embezzlement; vandalism; sabotage, or; absenteeism (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). These anti-organisational behaviours of employees create evident financial losses in the long run. Moretti (1986) reported that 30% of all businesses are believed to fail due to counterproductive work behaviours. Delinquent behaviour is also a prevailing issue and, in Bangladesh, the approximately 13.5% negative impact of deviant behaviour has repercussions on the national budget, being responsible for losses in the service sector to GDP of 2.4% (Dainik Kalerkontho, 2013).

Gender diversity, in particular, has become a strong issue during the last four decades in Bangladesh. The proportion of women entering the workplace is growing at a blistering pace, fostering a powerful cultural and economic transformation. Women Workforce Map (2014) reported that in most of countries, 40%-50% of the workforces are women, with 30% and 40% in India and Pakistan respectively. A study conducted by Zafarullah (2000) stated that 62% of women were involved in economic activity in Bangladesh. Women have been left out and even neglected from economic and social contributions since 1971, and are, now, entering the workforce (Anjula, Gurtoo and Singh, 2014; Bose, Ahmad, and Hossain, 2009). They have far from equal opportunities when compared with men with regards to task behaviour around the world (Andaleeb and Wolford, 2004; Eagly and Carli, 2007).

This scenario is found the same all around the world (Eagly and Carli, 2007; Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, and Eagly, 2017; Pew, 2015). Surveys of CEOs reveal that women currently hold 29 (5.8%) of the CEO positions in the S and P 500 companies (Catalyst, 2017), with just 2% of the top CEOs (Ignatius, 2015), with 1.5% among the top leading organisations (Hansen, Ibarra, and Peyer, 2013) in the USA, and only 4.4% for Chinese listed firms (Lam, McGuinness, and Vieito, 2013). According to Kiaye and Singh (2013), although female representation at lower and middle management level is increasing, the trend is not same for the upper management level. Research by Mathur-Helm (2006) revealed that qualified and talented women are found working parallel to their male counterparts as actuaries, chartered accountants, economists, and business administrators, amongst others, but it is very hard for them to reach top management level. Conservative religious-mindset (Higgitt, 2011) and socio-cultural practices, i.e. carrying out household activities and bringing up children (Haq, 2013) are underpinning the unequal access to the economic and social contributions of Indian Subcontinents, and other continents as well.

Nevertheless, at the global level, the average of women representation in national legislatures or parliaments is 23.3%, with the United States (19.3%) and Bangladesh (20.3%) scoring 83rd and 71st respectively among 193 countries (The Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2017). Women constitute a good proportion (39.87%) of the total workforce in Bangladesh (WHO, 2013) and their contribution to the development of Bangladesh as a whole cannot be denied. The literature suggests that women seem to be more transformational by birth and are less violent or deviant in their workplace (Eagly and Carli, 2007; Emmerik, Wendt, and Euwema, 2010; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Lord et al., 2017). However, there are also mixed findings regarding their relative contributions to fulfill organisations' objectives (Ali and Davis, 2003; Fairlie and Robb, 2009; Landy, 2008).

The above discussion is based on studies that have been conducted around the world in the field of TFL (Rahman and Ferdausy, 2012; Uddin, 2015), deviant behaviour, job performance (hereafter referred to as JP), and gender involvement. Ironically, very few studies were made from developing countries' perspective, with the exception of China. However, in the context of Bangladesh, DB and TFL are still under-represented. Furthermore, there has been a huge leadership crisis since 1971, coupled with deviations in the workplace (Huque and Rahman, 2003; Khan, 1976; Pandey, 2004). Only a few studies were carried out on gender (relating emotional intelligence and TFL), examples being those of Rahman, Ferdausy, and Uddin, 2012b, or relating to TFL (Low, 2013), DB, and JP (Rahman, Ferdausy, and Karan, 2012) in the context of Bangladesh.

This study contributes to the existing knowledge in the following ways. *Firstly*, there is an anecdotal belief that women lack leadership ability, which is not proved. *Secondly*, as there is little research about women's performance in corporate workplaces compared to their counterparts, it enhances the literature for the support of women's equal opportunity for attaining the organisational goal. *Thirdly*, it aims at exploring women's role in the workplaces of a conservative,

religious, yet developing country, which can camouflage the same situation in other countries that are experiencing the same state of economic, religious and socio-cultural practices. *Fourthly*, the research model disproves the preconceived notion of women's inferiority to men, and calls for a wave of fresh moves to acknowledge that everybody is human, irrespective of their biological differences. Finally, studies can be found about women's participation in household activities (Bose, Ahmad, and Hossain, 2009; Eagly and Carli 2007), agriculture (Sraboni, Malapit, Quisumbing, and Ahmed, 2014), community development (Higgitt, 2011), politics (Jalalzai and Krook, 2010; Panday, 2013), and government bodies (Amos-Wilson, 2000, but limited studies exist that relate women to business organisations (Andaleeb and Wolford, 2004; Banks, 2013). Therefore, this study is envisioned to fulfill the existing research gap.

Literature review

Transformational leadership

Transformational leaders inspire followers to transcend their self-interests for the betterment of the organisation and are capable of having a profound and extraordinary effect on their supporters (Robbins, Judge, and Sanghi, 2009, p 456). These authors show an inseparable relation between a leader and the followers that leads to the attainment of the pre-decided performance of individuals, work groups, units, and organisations (Avolio and Yammarino, 1990). Compared with transactional leaders who expect respect through compensation deals, transformational leaders deserve to have more respect, honour, and acceptance through their personal charisma, quality, faithfulness, and compelling vision (Chang, 2016; Mohamed, 2016; Stelmokiene and Endriulaitiene, 2015). In addition, continuous support and cooperation from inspirational leaders to attain challenging goals encourage followers to do more, beyond their capacity (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Deviant behaviour

When the task or assigned behaviour goes beyond the norms and jurisdiction given to them, it is called deviation (Coccia, 1998). Researchers gave different names to these behaviours, which are partially overlapping, such as: workplace deviance (Bennett and Robinson, 2003); counterproductive behaviour (Mangione and Quinn, 1975); aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007); workplace incivility (Blau and Andersson, 2005; Sharma et al., 2016); gender discrimination (Landy, 2008); sexual harassment (Lim and Cortina, 2005), and; anti-social behaviour (Giacolone and Greenberg, 1997). DB is voluntary behaviour that violates organisational norms and, in effect, threatens the well-being of an organisation or its members (Robbins, Judge, and Sanghi, 2009, p 33). Robbins et al. (2009, p 322) also mentioned different types of DB, such as: production DB (leaving early, wasting resources); property DB (sabotage, lying, stealing); political DB (showing favouritism, blaming coworkers), and; personal DB (sexual harassment, verbal abuse). Employee DBs, such as theft and misuse of privileges happen to incur enormous monetary costs for

businesses, in addition to other indirect costs, such as damage to reputation (Nair and Bhatnagar, 2011, p. 297).

Job performance

Performance is the final expression of an individual's or an organisation's effort in a corporate setting. It has been defined by Laitinen (2002) as being the ability of an object to produce pre-supposed results regarding a target. Performance can be categorised into many forms, for example: JP (Carmeli, 2003); management performance (Slaski and Cartwright, 2002), and; team performance (Koman and Wolff, 2008; Rapisarda, 2002). JP is expressly an individual behaviour, action, task, or activity which is measurable by some specific yardsticks (Astin, 1964), and must be commensurate with the group and organisational objectives in general (Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000).

Development of hypotheses

Transformational leadership and deviant behaviour

Leaders envision the future of both the organization and the followers as well. However, the degree of their relative impacts depends on their styles of leadership. Surprisingly, research outcome shows that 60% of employees retaliate against their organisation after suffering abuse by a boss (Hornstein, 2016). However, transformational leaders, as opposed to the former, "articulate a vision, use lateral or non-traditional thinking, encourage individual development, give regular feedback, use participative decision-making, and promote a cooperative and trusting work environment" (Carless, 1998, p. 888) and thus, deter employees from deviating. They transform followers into active, obedient, goal-oriented, and less deviant performers, working for the betterment of the organisation (Huang, Shi, Xie, and Wang, 2015, Lee and Feng, 2008). Therefore, the following hypothesis can be developed:

H₁: There is a negative relationship between TFL and DB perceived by the executives.

Transformational leadership and job performance

Leaders exert a significant impact on JP (Leroy, Palanski, and Simons, 2012; Peng and Tseng, 2011). Transformational leaders can quickly transform and mould their followers' attention and focus towards the articulation of organisational objectives. The literature finds a significant relationship between TFL and JP (Kensbock and Boehm, 2015, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson, 2002). Furthermore, a high sense of trust and faith by followers of a transformational leader makes them exceed their performance more than they are expected to (Mora, 2012). The following hypothesis can be suggested:

H₂: There is a positive relationship between TFL behaviour and JP perceived by the executives.

Deviant behaviour and job performance

DB includes employee delinquencies such as disobeying a manager's instructions, intentionally slowing down the work cycle, arriving late, and committing petty theft, as well as not treating co-workers with respect and acting rudely (Galperin, 2002; Tuna et al. 2016). The consequence of this behaviour impacts an organisation in terms of loss of productivity, an increase in insurance costs, loss or damage of property, an increase in turnover, rising business costs, and so forth (Lee and Ok, 2014). Furthermore, there are some other hidden costs, i.e., loss of reputation (Litzky, Eddleston, and Kidder, 2006; Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Tuna et al. 2016). Therefore, deviant behaviour restricts individual dexterity, and eventually, jeopardises an organisation's performance as a whole. From the findings discussed above, the following hypothesis can thus be developed:

H₃: There is a negative relationship between DB and JP perceived by the executives.

Gender and deviant behaviour

Research on gender and violation of work portrays an impressive result. In most of the studies, it reveals that men are more aggressive (Hershcovis et al., 2007), violent (Coie and Dodge, 1998), and unruly (Grandey, Dickter, and Sin 2004) than women, while a few studies (Cummings, Zhou, and Oldham, 1993) have shown that females are found to be more violent than males. Chapple, Vaske, and Worthen (2014), in contrast to previous findings, noted that boys are more likely to have deviant peers than girls. Despite the evidence, many studies concluded that there is no significant difference between male and female in case of DB (Walters, Stuhlmacher, and Meyer, 1998 as opposed to Ng, Lam, and Feldman, 2016). Therefore, the following hypothesis can be developed:

H₄: There is a significant difference between male and female toward DB perceived by executives.

Gender and transformational leadership

Traditionally, it is believed that men inherit more leadership quality than women do (Emmerik, Wendt, and Euwema, 2010; Niederle and Vesterlund, 2007). However, the style of leadership differs between them. Men are characterised as being aggressive, dominant, forceful, transactional, and decisive, whereas women are described as being kind, supportive, sympathetic, inspirational, transformational, and concerned about others (Eagly and Carli 2007; Emmerik et al., 2010; Gray, 1992; Hoyt, 2010; Lord et al., 2017; Low, 2013; Ng, Lam, and Feldman, 2016). On the other hand, some other studies found evidence for a subtle difference between male and female leadership (Carless, 1998). A new hypothesis can be devised considering the above findings.

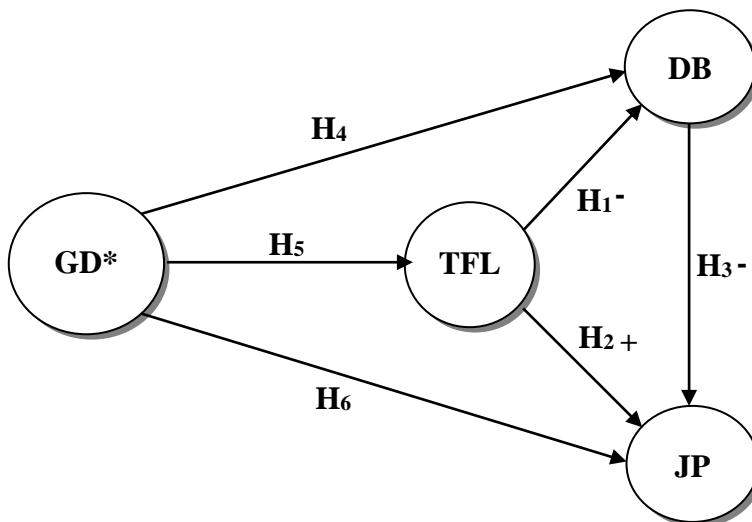
H₅: There is a significant difference between male and female as regards TFL behaviour perceived by executives.

Gender and job performance

Discrepancies have been noted in performance when the sex of the subject has got changed (Ng, Lam, and Feldman, 2016). In the male-dominated society, the performance ratings of females are underscored, while they are overrated for males (Budworth and Mann, 2010; Stuhlmacher and Walters, 1999). Globally, studies on male/female job performance present mixed findings. The extant literature suggests that women are less committed to the organisation and contribute more poorly than men do (Fairlie and Robb, 2009; Landy, 2008; Lefkowitz, 1994; Ng, Lam, and Feldman, 2016). In another study by Ali and Davis (2003), females are found to be more cooperative, more committed, and take higher risks than men do, despite Schwab et al. (2015) and Lam et al. (2013), who shed light on the diversity of genders for improving organisational performance. Similar to the previous findings of the previous authors, Roth, Purvis, and Bobko (2012) in their meta-review noted that notwithstanding the fact that gender difference on job performance is very subtle and favourable towards women, both male and female counterparts are equally productive. The following hypothesis is based on the predominant findings in the extant literature:

H₆: There is a significant difference between male and female JP perceived by executives.

Based on the above hypotheses, this study envisions the following theoretical framework:



*GD stands for gender

Figure 1: A Hypothetical model of the relationships

Research methods

Participants

Around 160 (64%) usable responses were received out of 250 respondents who were working in different organisations, at different levels. Two separate sets of questionnaires were delivered to organisations, where employees were asked to rate their direct report leaders, and leaders were requested to rate their subordinates' deviant behaviour and job performance. Out of 160 respondents, 75 respondents (47%) were female, and 85 respondents (53%) were male. Respondents ranged in age from 26 to 47 years, with a mean of 33.02 (SD = 5.08) years. The average tenure was 3.71 (SD= 3.66) years. There were 15 (9.40%) top-level executives, 122 (76.30%) middle-level executives, and 23 (14.40%) lower-level executives. The respondents had completed technical education 12 (7.50%), bachelor degrees 52 (18.10%), master degrees 115 (71.90%), and other degrees 4 (2.50%). Regarding organisational units, 37 (23.10%) belonged to manufacturing, 61 (38.10%) to merchandising, 28 (17.50%) to finance, 11 (6.90%) to services, and 23 (14.40%) to other industries.

Survey instruments

The following survey instruments were used in this research for collecting required data from the respondents.

Transformational leadership behaviour

TFL was measured with twelve items adopted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1995; Bass and Avolio, 2000). Each informant was asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert scale (7 = strongly agree.....1 = strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "In my mind, he/she is a symbol of success and accomplishment," and "My supervisor does not let rules stand in the way of solutions." The scale was computed by averaging the responses to the items. A higher score indicates greater TFL.

Deviant behaviour

DB was measured with the DB scale developed by Rahman, Ferdousy, and Karan (2012), using a 20-item scale. These 20 items were selected from the study of Robinson and Bannet (1995) and Appelbaum, Iaconi, and Marousek (2007). The items were arranged on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 7 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "My subordinates enjoy an excessive time for a tea break and lunch" (production deviance), and "My subordinates sabotage office equipment" (property deviance). The mean score is measured by adding the individual score of all individual items and finally by dividing the total by the number of items (20) to obtain an average score of DB. The higher the score of employees is, the more deviant the employees are.

Job performance

Tsui et al. (1997) used an instrument comprising six items to appraise employees' performance. Like the earlier tool, all the items are arranged on a 7-point Likert Scale, ranging from 7 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Sample items for this scale were: "My subordinates' quantity of work is much higher than the average" and, "My subordinates' quality of work is much greater than the average." The mean score was calculated, and the higher the score of employees is, the better performers the employees are.

Data collection procedure

Survey instruments were delivered to respondents through a personal visit and electronic mail. Since random sampling consumes time and cost, a convenience sampling technique was adopted to collect the responses from all those interviewed. To collect the data, the researchers personally visited the respondents' facility several times and briefed the respondents how to fill the questionnaires out. It took fifteen working days to receive the required amount of data. The raw data were then entered into SPSS 16.0 data editor to generate the required statistical analysis.

Reliability and validity of data and scales

Reliability differs from validity, in that it relates not to what should be measured, but rather to how it is measured (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2014). Reliability is an indicator of a measure's internal consistency. Cronbach's alpha (α) is the most commonly applied estimate of a multiple item scale's reliability. It (α) is the most widely used method to measure the reliability of a scale (Zikmund and Babin, 2007). Scales with a coefficient in the range of between 0.80 and 0.95 are considered to have excellent reliability (Zikmund and Babin, 2007, p.322). The result found that the reliability scores of TFL, DB, and JP were 0.83, 0.91, and 0.89 respectively, which were found to be very reliable.

Validity is the degree to which a measure accurately represents what it is supposed to be (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham, 2007). Validity is concerned with how well the concept is defined by the measure(s). Researchers ensured the content where all data regarding the variables were collected at the same time.

Furthermore, all of the instruments were translated to Bangla (the State language) by a group of 20 people, who were language experts, researchers from a business school, and a panel of respondents. In addition, the translated versions were then compared with the original version by another group of experts to ensure their validity (Kaur, Sambasivan, and Kumar, 2013).

Analysis and Findings

Examination of Table 1 shows that there was a significant medium negative correlation (Cohen, 1988) between TFL and DB ($r = -0.47, p < 0.01$), while a significant large positive correlation (Cohen, 1988) was found between TFL and JP ($r = .67, p < 0.01$). A large negative correlation (Cohen, 1988) was also found between DB and JP ($r = -0.55, p < 0.01$). From Table 3, it can also be seen that there was a significant negative relationship between TFL and DB ($F = 24.32, p = .000$). Additionally, Table 3 showed that there was a significant positive relationship between TFL and JP ($F = 33.73, p = .001$). In addition, from Table 4, it can also be found that there was a significant negative relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and JP ($F = .24, p = .000$). Therefore, the results support the first, second, and third hypotheses.

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	α	Correlations		
				1	2	3
1. TFL	4.51	1.13	0.83	1		
2. DB	2.26	0.98	0.91	-0.47**	1	
3. JP	4.75	1.36	0.89	0.67**	-0.55**	1

N.B.: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 160; TFL = Transformational Leadership; DB = Deviant Workplace Behaviour; JP = Job Performance.

Table 1- Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations between variables

Examination of Table 3 shows that about 27% and 49% of the variances in DB and JP were explained by TFL respectively. Furthermore, DB accounts for 24% of the difference in JP (Table 4). The presence of unexplained variance suggests that other implied variables exists than those that account for the variations in DB and JP.

Explained Variables	TFL (Predictor)					Sig.
	Coefficients (β)	S.E. (β)	Value of t-statistic	Value of R^2	Value of F-statistic (ANOVA)	
DB	-.25	0.08	-3.78**	.27	24.32	.000
JP	.31	0.09	3.28**	.49	33.73	.001

Note: N = 160; TFL = Transformational Leadership; DB = Deviant Workplace Behaviour; JP = Job Performance

Table 2: Summary of regression analysis regarding TFL, DB, and JP

Explained Variables	DB (Predictor)					Sig.
	Coefficients (β)	S.E. (β)	Value of t-statistic	Value of R ²	Value of F –statistic (ANOVA)	
JP	- 0.68	0.096	- 7.092	.24	50.30	.000

Table 3: Summary of Regression of DB and JP

An analysis of Table 4 implies that only 6%, 5%, and 2% of the variance in TFL, DB, and JP are explained by demographic factors such as: tenure; age; gender; number of employees; position; category of department; level of education, and; nature of the organisation respectively. The presence of unexplained variance suggests that other implied variables exist than those that account for the variations in the proposed variables.

Covariates	Coefficients (β)			Standard Error (β)			Value of t-statistic			Value of R ²			Value of F-statistic		
	TFL	DB	JP	TFL	DB	JP	TFL	DB	JP	TFL	DB	JP	TFL	DB	JP
Tenure	.21	-.14	.03	.12	.11	.14	1.83	-1.35	.18						
Age	.002	.02	-.07	.16	.16	.20	.01	.143	-.38						
Employees	-.05	-.04	-.01	.11	.09	.13	-.04	-.41	-.08						
Position	-.02	-.24	.08	.21	.18	.26	.01	-1.32	.31	.06	.05	.02	1.38	1.10	.34
Department	.01	-.02	-.06	.05	.05	.07	-.02	-.49	-.96						
Education	.19	-.16	.02	.15	.13	.19	.11	-1.18	.13						
Organisation	.11	-.12	-.05	.08	.07	.09	.13	-1.77	-.56						

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 160; TFL = Transformational Leadership; DWB = Deviant Workplace Behaviour; JP = Job Performance.

Table 4: Summary of regression analysis of potential covariates with TFL, DB, and JP

A parametric test (ANOVA) and a non-parametric test (Mann-Whitney U test) were carried out to identify the significant difference between the male and female respondents' perceptions in the mean score of TFL, DB, and JP. The ANOVA test (Table 5) shows that the female and male executives' perception towards TFL, DB, and JP has no significant difference (in the case of TFL, F = .443, Eta Square = .003; DB, F = 3.354, Eta Square = 0.021; and JP, F = 1.665, Eta Square = 0.10.). Furthermore, the non-parametric test (Table 6) shows that female executives' had a mean rank of TFL (= 83.67), DB (= 73.98), and JP (= 85.13), while male executives' had a mean rank of TFL (= 77.70), DB (= 86.25), and JP (= 76.42). The non-parametric test statistics also showed that there was no significant difference between female and male executives' perceptions on the mean score of TFL, DB, and JP. Therefore, fourth, fifth, sixth hypotheses are not supported by the results.

Explained variable	Gender (predictor)						
		Mean	SD	N	F	Sig.	Eta Square
JP	Female	4.90	1.335	75	1.665	.199	.010
	Male	4.62	1.367	85			
TFL	Female	4.569	1.293	75	.443	.506	.003
	Male	4.450	.957	85			
DB	Female	2.111	.919	75	3.354	.069	.021
	Male	1.394	1.022	85			

Table 5: Summary of the ANOVA test

Predictors	Respondents' Gender	Rank			Value of Mann-Whitney Test Statistic	Effect Size
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks		
TFL	Female	75	83.67	6275.5	2949.5 ^{ns}	-0.06
	Male	85	77.70	6604.5		
DB	Female	75	73.98	5548.5	2698.5 ^{ns}	-0.13
	Male	85	86.25	7331.5		
JP	Female	75	85.13	6384.5	2840.5 ^{ns}	-0.09
	Male	85	76.42	6495.5		

Table 6: Mann-Whitney U test regarding gender perceptions on TFL, DWP, and JP

Discussion

This paper aims to explore the relationships among TFL, DB, JP, and the effect of gender on each of those. In this research, the analysis shows that there was a negative relationship between TFL and DB ($r = -0.47$). It pays attention to the fact that the presence of transformational behaviour helps abate the DB of employees in the organisations, a finding which is supported by other researchers (Brown and Trevino, 2006; Lock and Crawford, 2004; Yao et al., 2014). This finding supports the first hypothesis by appraising the importance of TFL behaviour among executives to safeguard DB.

Furthermore, it is held that TFL was positively-related to JP. The cogent behind these reasons are the abilities (charisma, calm, compelling vision, cooperation, and caring) of TFL, which make it entirely different from those of others. These skills make for an excellent performer and helps employees achieve their selected goal. This finding also supports the hypothesis through the analysis by providing a moderate positive relationship between TFL and JP ($r = 0.67$). The result reveals that TFL can enhance JP to a large degree, which is found to be consistent with other findings (Lee and Feng, 2008; Leroy, Palanski, and Simons, 2012). Furthermore, it was hypothesised that there was a negative relationship between DB and JP which was proved by the

findings. Additionally DB is found to be negatively-related to JP ($r = -0.55$), which was considered congruent with other studies (Dalal, 2005; Henle et al., 2005).

Considering the debate on DB regarding biological difference, this hypothesis attempts to find whether there is a significant difference between male and female executives' DB. The result demonstrates that there is no significant difference between the magnitude of male and female DB. Contrary to the findings of Chapple et al. (2014) and Ng, Lam, and Feldman (2016), this study is supported by the results of Walters, Stuhlmacher and Meyer (1998) in that there is no significant difference in employees' DB between genders.

The general perception about female leadership is that females are not as effective as males (Simon and Landis, 1989). However, the results of this study exhibited that there is no significant difference between male and female TFL (Carless, 1998; Budworth and Mann, 2010; Eagly and Carli 2007; Hoyt, 2010; Lord et al., 2017). Contrary to the findings in the extant literature, Asian culture is perceived to be relatively more male-dominated and patriarchal than Western cultures, and improving the ratio of male-female at the top level may fit the global findings (Kim and Shin, 2017).

Although most of the literature reported that males achieve greater performance than females (Lefkowitz, 1994), surprisingly, a study conducted by Ali and Davis (2003) shows that females are more object-oriented and committed to JP than their counterparts. Building on this contradiction, in their meta-analytic review, Roth et al. (2012) observed that there is very little dissimilarity regarding the issue of commitment and performance between males and females. This study reveals no significant difference between the performance of males and females. This hypothesis was also proved and supported by other researchers (Coe and Dodge, 1998; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Roth et al., 2012; Schwab et al., 2015).

Conclusion

Implications of this research

The research topic is new in its nature for Bangladesh, however the intensity of occurrence is not a novelty. The findings might aid professionals and business executives by understanding the potential impact of gender on TFL, DB, and JP. Research findings will guide and inspire professionals to cement TFL characteristics among organisational officials and to safeguard the DB of executives to reach the desired goal. Insignificant gender effects on TFL, DB, and JP prove that males and females are the same. This study yields several benefits for organisations. *Firstly*, organisations should be inclined to invest in arranging training and development programmes for installing TFL skills among their employees, as TFL skills affect both JP and DB. *Secondly*, this study might make enterprises be aware of the aftermath of DB, and therefore, will instigate the concern to work to resolve the causes of DB. *Thirdly*, since no significant difference between

genders was found, organisations should be very careful to ensure an equitable working environment for both genders. *Finally*, academic institutions should bring about changes in educational programmes to enhance the capacity building of scholars and their students by incorporating these findings in books and literature.

Limitations and Future Research

The current research has some limitations. This study only covers some selected industries, based on convenience sampling, in Bangladesh. The generalisation of the survey has not portrayed the overall picture of the country, on account of the subjectivity of the sample selection. The authors applied convenience sampling techniques during the data collection process, however, random sampling in place of convenience sampling could bring about a representative result for generalising the result for envisaging the overall scenario. The limited sample size (N = 160) was another limitation. Hence, a large sample size could reveal more typical result for generalising the case. The important limitation of this research was its inability to utilise exhaustive factors, i.e., salary, bonus, job rotation, job enrichment, job enlargement, equity practices inside the organisation, and commitment of employees towards the organisation might all influence TFL behaviour, DB, and JP.

The survey applied a self-administered questionnaire. Therefore, the result may also be influenced by the presence of the common method bias problem. Various measurement instruments of TFL, DB, and JP have been developed by a variety of scholars which might give different results. The findings could yield a different result if other measurement tools were used. In this regard, future researchers are expected to experiment convergent and validity testing of the measures. This study focused on various organisations, such as manufacturing and services. The problem is the size of the sample from each industry. Prediction of the industry considered relatively few samples, for example, ninety-one (91) informants were from the manufacturing sector, and the pools of the respondents are very less convincing. A future study might be carried out on some selected organisations or a case study of one or two organisations, rather than on the entire industry to generalise the empirical findings for the rest of the world.

TFL, DB, and demographic variables play a rigorous role in JP. Comprehensive further research is required to locate the other factors that affect JP in organisations. This shows that there is enormous scope for carrying out research that encompasses many other factors, e.g., salary, job rotation, non-financial incentives, fairness and justice inside the organisation, internal working environments, and employees' personal life in predicting JP and work deviant behaviour. Future research of the relationship between DB and JP moderated by gender and TFL in Bangladesh could be suggested. On the one hand, the extant literature throughout the world reported that men are more abusive, aggressive, violent, and deviant than females, and that, on the contrary, females are reported to be more inspirational and transformational than their counterparts. However, this study exhibits that there is no significant difference between male and female.

Future research might look at unearthing the reason for this. More importantly, future researchers could study the influence of national culture as a moderating variable in this matter, as most studies and the measures employed were carried out in developed countries.

This study could also apply other organisational factors, such as organisational justice, psychological empowerment, and organisational ethics, which could act as a mediator or moderator for the above-discussed relationships. Data for this study was collected from different organisations, but not from any one specific sector. If data collected from any one sector, such as readymade garments for example, where there is a dominance of employing woman, the present finding could be challenged. Future studies are expected to check the influence of organisational factors, by using hierarchical regression or structural equation modeling, as the later does not only explain the strength of the relationships between dependent and independent variables, but it also explains the overall predictability of the model.

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