

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature in eight main areas along with a summary: (1) attitudes and related theories, (2) personality and leadership style, (3) managerial decision making, (4) knowledge and skill, (5) fairness, (6) human relations, (7) relevant research to the study, and (8) summary.

2.1 ATTITUDES AND RELATED THEORIES

2.1.1 Definition of Attitude

The definition of attitude has been studied by many theorists (e.g. Kiesler, Collin & Miller, 1969; Campbell, 1963; Fleming, 1967; DeFleur & Westie, 1963; Thurstone, 1931; Doob, 1947) as follows:

Kiesler, Collin and Miller (1969) defined attitude as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a certain thing (idea, object, person, and situation). They classified three basis features: attitude is learned, attitude is predisposed, and attitude is consistently favorable or unfavorable toward the object.

Firstly, attitude is learned as defined by Campbell (1963). In other words, predispositions to respond in consistently favorable or unfavorable ways are assumed to be the result of past experience.

Secondly, attitude is predisposed which is typically viewed as a latent or underlying variable that is assumed to guide or influence behavior. Indeed, attitudes can be observed directly but have to be inferred from observed consistency in behavior (Fleming, 1967).

Thirdly, attitude is consistently favorable or unfavorable toward the object. Three types of consistency can be distinguished as follows:

1. Stimulus-response consistency

Campbell (1963) cited that a person may be observed to consistently perform the same response or set of responses in the presence of a given stimulus object. However a definition of this type fails to differentiate attitude from other concepts, such as habit, trait, drive, or motive.

2. Response-response consistency

The proposed definition of attitude as mentioned by DeFleur and Westie (1963) refers to behaviors that are consistently favorable or unfavorable. This response should be judged with reference to an evaluative or affective dimension with either a positive or negative side.

3. Evaluative consistency

Thurstone (1931) and Doob (1947) stated that a person may perform different behaviors with respect to an object. The overall consistency of this kind should be defined in term of dimensions other than evaluation or affect, such as aggressiveness, liberalism, conservatism, dominance, authoritarianism, etc.

2.1.2 Related Theories

Heider (1958), Jones and Davis (1965), and Kelly (1971) said that personality traits and attitudes are latent, hypothetical characteristics that can only be inferred from external, observable cues. The most important such cues are the individual's behavior, verbal or nonverbal, and the context in which the behavior occurs.

Inferring personality traits from behavior

A personality trait is defined as a characteristic of an individual that exerts pervasive influence on a broad range of trait-relevant responses. Trait-relevant information can come from three sources: an observer, the individual himself or herself, or other people familiar with the individuals, such as friends, parents, or peers.

Inferring attitudes from behavior

An attitude is a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, institution, or event. Like personality trait, attitude is a hypothetical construct that, being inaccessible to direct observation, must be inferred from measurable responses. Given the nature of the construct, these responses must reflect positive or negative evaluations of the attitude object. To simplify matters, as mentioned by Alport (1954), McGuire (1969), and Hilgard (1980), it is useful to distinguish attitude-relevant responses between three categories of responses: cognition, affect, and conation. Within each of these categories, it is also useful to separate verbal from nonverbal responses.

1. Cognitive responses

The responses that reflect perceptions of, and thoughts about, the attitude object. Cognitive responses of a verbal nature are expressions of beliefs with certain characteristics or attitudes. Cognitive responses of a nonverbal kind are more difficult to assess, and the information provided about attitudes is usually more indirect.

2. Affective responses

This category of responses from which attitudes can be inferred, has to do with evaluations of, and feelings toward a certain thing. Verbal affective responses can be expressions of admiration or disgust, appreciation or disdain. Facial expressions, as well as various physiological and other bodily reactions, are often assumed to reflect affect in a nonverbal mode.

3. Conative responses

Responses of a conative nature are behavioral inclinations, intentions, commitments, and actions with respect to the attitude object. The verbal mode of expression can consider what people say they do, plan to do, or would do under appropriate circumstances. Nonverbal conative responses indicate favorable or unfavorable attitude toward the object.

An individual's favorable or unfavorable attitude toward an object, institution or event can be inferred from verbal or nonverbal responses toward the object, institution, or event in question. These responses can be of a cognitive nature, reflecting perceptions of the object or beliefs concerning its likely characteristics; they can be of an affective nature, reflecting the persons' evaluations and feelings; and they can be of a conative nature, indicating how a person does or would act with respect to the object.

In conclusion, attitude is regarded as the predisposition to respond in an agreeable or disagreeable, favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object such as an idea, behavior, person, and situation. Moreover, attitude can be changed in the same way as how beliefs are changeable. Thus, attitude involves how we think and feel about other persons and also affects our behavior. These facts serve as a reminder for female managers to watch their employees' behaviors toward them carefully.

2.2 PERSONALITY AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

The personality and leadership styles for female managers are identified as (1) management processes, (2) the action-centered leadership model, (3) leadership vs. management, and (4) constructions of managerial leadership.

2.2.1 The Management Processes

Adair (2000) explained that management is simply leading a group of people through the following four processes: planning, organizing, directing, and controlling.

1. Planning is the initial managerial function of defining goals – identifying aims, purpose or direction, creating the agreed plans or strategies, developing sub-plans to coordinate activities, and seeking all available information and resources. Therefore, the planning step should be organized properly by interactive managers.

2. Organizing means arranging or distributing work among members of the work group to accomplish the organization's goals. Organizing is also a function of determining what needs to be done or matching team members in terms of their personality, skill, strengths, needs, aims and fears; how it will be done by delegating responsibilities, objectives, accountabilities and measures; and who is to do it by identifying the proper individual responsibilities.

3. Directing is the way of directing and motivating all team members, resolving conflicts, and giving support teams toward the plans, problems, or challenges.

In addition, directing is a function of creating team spirit by giving recognition and praise toward individuals' effort and responsibility, and also providing encouragement toward team objectives.

4. Controlling involves ensuring that actual performance is in line with the intended performance and taking corrective action as necessary. Controlling is a function of monitoring activities to follow plans and ensure that they are accomplished as specific plans. Moreover, controlling is a process of evaluating results against a given standard to measure the individual or group performance.

Completing all four basic functions of management processes will lead the organization to achieve its purpose.

2.2.2 The Action-Centered Leadership Model

Action-Centered Leadership, which is a model created by Adair (2000), focuses on what leaders should do in order to work effectively. The three parts of Adair's Action-Centered Leadership model are task needs, team needs, and individual needs.

1. Task Needs or Organizational Role is needed to identify and clarify tasks, understand how the tasks fit with the overall plans of the organization in both the short term and long term, and plan how to accomplish the tasks. Moreover, organizational role is to place progress toward achievement of the tasks, evaluate results, and compare them with the overall objectives of the organization.

2. Team Needs or Interpersonal Role is needed to set and keep the team's objectives and standards, involve the team as a whole in the achievement of objectives, and maintain the unity of the team. Team needs or Interpersonal role is to communicate efficiently with team members, and consult team members before making any decision that affects them.

3. Individual Needs or Self Attribution is able to get satisfaction from personal achievement in the job they are doing. Self Attribution is also needed to authorize or delegate subordinates making a worthwhile contribution to the objectives of the team and the organization, and give them a degree of responsibility that matches their individual abilities and experience.

These three parts are commonly represented by an overlapping circle which is one of the most recognized symbols of management theory as illustrated in Figure1 below.

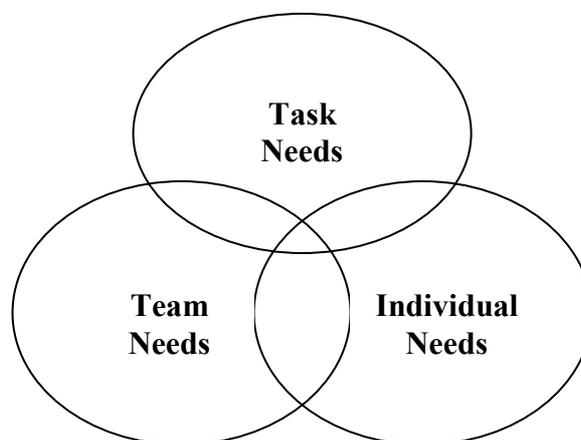


Figure 1. Action-Centered Leadership Model

Therefore, good managers and leaders should have full command of the three main areas of the Action Centered Leadership model, and should be able to use each of the elements according to the situation. Besides, successful managers and leaders must keep the right balance, get results, build morale, improve quality, and develop teams and increase productivity for the organization.

2.2.3 Leadership vs. Management

Bennis (1997) explained that there is a difference between management and leadership, and both are important. To manage means to bring about, to accomplish, and to have charge of or responsibility for. In contrast, leading is influencing; guiding in a direction, course, action, and opinion. Bennis also pointed out the difference between leadership and management. The manager administers tasks, accepts reality, and focuses on systems or structures. The manager also relies on control, has a short-range perspective, and asks how and when to do. In contrast, the leader innovates, develops, and focuses on people. In addition, the leader inspires trust, has a long-range perspective, and always asks what and why to do.

Another theory of Manager Vs Leader developed by Colvard (1997) claimed that managers perform leadership, and leaders perform management functions. But a manager doesn't perform the unique functions of a leader. He stated that managers take care of where employees are, concerns themselves with finding the facts, deals with complexity, and creates policies. Besides, he also stated that the manager finds solutions, looks for similarities between current and previous problems, and ideas for a successful solution that can be used again. On the other hand, leaders take staff to a new place, make decisions, deal with uncertainty, and establish principles. The leaders also formulate the questions and problems, look for differences, and consider the problems in a new environment may require a different solution.

Consequently, management focuses on the short term, ensuring that resources are expended and progress is made within time frames of days weeks and months. Leadership, which deals with uncertainty, focuses on the long term.

2.2.4 Constructions of Managerial Leadership

Sandberg (1999) stated that three different constructions of managerial leadership were produced by the Swedish Institute for Management (IFL) as follows:

1. Managerial Leadership as business development by enabling organization members to grow and develop.

This construction means being able to manage the resources of fellow workers in such a way as to enable them to develop themselves, freeing their creative ability and producing desirable results.

2. Managerial Leadership as long-term business development by enabling organization members to grow and develop.

It emphasizes not only acknowledging the uniqueness of every individual working in a company, but also considering their development and growth in a long-term business perspective

3. Managerial Leadership as long-term business development by enabling organization members to grow and develop by encouraging self-understanding among managers.

Self-understanding is the basis for managerial leadership which focuses on the importance of developing a deeper understanding of what it means to be a human being in an organization and in society at large.

2.3 MANAGERIAL DECISION MAKING

Vroom (1973) believed that the effectiveness of managerial decision making is influenced by three situational factors, the required quality of outcome, the acceptance or commitment required from group members for effective implementation, and the time allotted to reach a decision. Vroom noted that there are three basic styles of managerial decision making: autocratic style (A), consultative style (C), and group style (G).

2.3.1 Autocratic Style

Autocratic decision making style is divided into two categories:

1. **AI** is the type of decision maker who solves problems alone using only the information available at the time.

2. **AII** is the type of decision maker who acquires all essential information from group members singly and makes decisions alone. The role of group

members is to provide information only; evaluations or alternative solutions are neither solicited nor accepted. Group members may or may not be given information about the nature of the problem.

2.3.2 Consultative Style

Consultative decision making is classified into two categories:

1. **CI** is the type of decision maker who shares problems and gathers ideas from knowledgeable group members singly without bringing them together as a group. The decision maker then makes a decision that may or may not incorporate the suggestions of the group members.

2. **CII** is the type of decision maker who shares problems with group members as a group to obtain composite information. The decision maker then makes a decision that may or may not incorporate group suggestions.

2.3.3 Group Style

The decision maker shares the problem with group members. In the group, alternative solutions are generated and evaluated in an attempt to achieve consensus. The decision maker functions as a facilitator without attempting to influence the group. The decision maker adopts and implements the consensus decision.

The effectiveness of managerial decision making depends on the manager's ability to adjust the decision-making style in accordance with the requirements of the situation.

2.4 KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL

Leaders' knowledge and skills are one of the key competency indicators. Lewis and Slade (1994), for example, said that knowledge is a crucial leadership competency for leaders' success. Leaders are important in each developmental plan and process which are creating, sharing and exploiting knowledge. A leader with knowledge is more respected by subordinates than those with little knowledge on the job.

There are a number of organizational skills that significantly increase the job success: be reliable, arrive at work on time, do not miss work, and do not make mistakes; be responsible, follow through on assigned tasks, be loyal to the company

and be honest in job dealing; and value to work, constantly strive to improve the quality of the output.

2.5 FAIRNESS

According to Podesta (2005), fairness is the ability to control and guide people in the right direction. Being the main person in a group certainly means that the individual has a lot of power over the team and is able to influence people as he/she wishes. It might seem that once a person achieves their goal of being above others and start controlling other people, their duty becomes straightforward and undemanding. However the role of a leader is very strenuous and challenging. The person has authority but also has to balance their personal desires with the needs of people for whom they are in charge.

Ruffino (1985) as cited in Hamilton & Parker (2002) pointed out that one of the most crucial tasks and maintenance functions of leaders is to exercise the power in the most constructive way and that fairness of a manager can be measured through various managerial functions, namely, through promotional strategies, salary reviews, as well as how justified a boss reacts to each subordinate.

2.6 HUMAN RELATIONS

Human relations and interpersonal skills are the helping, sharing, combining, and leadership skills which managers need to work as part of a cooperative team. The overall goals of the organization can be achieved by coordinating, and cooperating with other people. Leadership also provides the actions needed to help an organization achieve its goals and keep good working relationships among employees.

Moreover, communication is an important part of any relationship and organization. Work cannot take place without communication. All these skills contribute to the effectiveness of work. Meanwhile, a lack of these skills will cause a distressed workplace.

Johnson (1999) pointed out that to work successfully, to achieve company and personal goals, it is essential that people at management level interact with other people – coworkers, subordinates, supervisors, and customers, etc. To survive on the job, managers must be able to build and keep good relationships. These other people are a key aspect of job success. Other people make work interesting, challenging, rewarding, and meaningful. In addition, an important aspect of career progression is

to build coalitions with ambitious and competent individuals to advance each other's careers. The relationship formed within training programs and at entry-level jobs can have important consequences for career success.

2.7 RELEVANT RESEARCH

The management style of female managers has been conducted by many researchers and institutes (e.g. Teerayout Wattanasupachoke, 2007; Murgai, 2004; the National Statistical Office, 1998). These studies showed different aspects of work in managerial levels for female managers.

Teerayout Wattanasupachoke (2007) studied the managerial styles of Asian executives: the case of Thailand which lead to continuous improvement and efficient performance of Thai organizations. He found that Thai executives focus on human relations and negotiating skills are given the most emphasis in their management. Harmony and unity of organizations are the fundamental management principles of Thai executives. In terms of management techniques, team work and career planning are their main concerns. Enhancing their company's image and employees' morale are conducted through the ethical and socially responsible activities by Thai executives.

In addition, managerial personnel in an organization have to work in collaboration with both internal departments and external units on a regular basis, so the relationship between background and management styles is significant for Thai executives. Conceptual skills have a significant relationship with educational level and managerial position, stating that top management mostly focus more on conceptual skills than lower management personnel or middle managerial personnel. Other relationships between background or age range and roles are statistically important in that female managers have comparatively higher liaison than males because of outstanding features of female executives in inclining, compromising and minimizing internal conflicts in the organization.

Also, Murgai (2004) who researched motivation in managers and the status of women in Library and Information Science: a comparative study among the United States, India, Singapore, and Thailand found that the status of women is generally lower than men (Chen and Miner, 1997). Professional women experience inequality in compensation and promotion. Women are also blamed for a lack of motivation to

enter and succeed in managerial roles (Murgai, 1987-1996; Powell, 1993). The results of her study showed that major differences among males and females emerged in three categories: social acceptance, rigidity, and women as managers.

Firstly, for social acceptance, women have to work harder than men to achieve social recognition. At the end of the 1980s women realized that interpersonal skills are more useful to minimize and handle interpersonal conflicts. Furthermore, women with high education show a great desire for independence and for the opportunity to perform managerial roles.

Secondly, for rigidity, the study results showed that Thai people would like their supervisor to set their goals. And according to Hofstede (1980) study, Thai people look to their superior to make decisions, provide guidance and set deadlines. A high respect for authority and the power exists and is concentrated in the hands of Thai superiors. However, management research revealed that people who set their own targets are more motivated and committed to achieve the goals than those for whom the goals have been set by others. Therefore, a manager must adopt a management style that motivates employees to perform their best for the organization.

And lastly, for women as manager scale, if women are aggressive, ambitious, and non-emotional, they are perceived as violating the traditional sex-roles and labeled as too masculine. If women are caring, empathetic, and relationship-oriented managers or leaders, they are seen as violating leadership roles (Kram and Hampton, 1988 - 1999). In this study, females would allow their emotions to influence their managerial decisions more than men would. Most research studies indicate that there are negligible differences between genders and managerial motivations. Organizations must be fair and enable women to find self-fulfillment through achievement at work.

In addition, Deiss (2001) concluded that in the current situation, women are expected to have more strengths and fewer faults than men. They need to be tougher, take more career risks, have a stronger desire to succeed, and have a more impressive presence.

Thai women are still striving to achieve the same level of acceptance as men in the workplace. It seems that social needs and cultural influences play an important role in the acceptance of women as managers or leaders.

Similarly, the National Statistical Office (1998) disclosed that women's employment status is relatively lower than that of men. Although some well-educated

women have achieved considerable occupational advancement, many women still remain concentrated in traditional and relatively low status work. The statistics in Table 1 show that there are more men than women in the labor force (55%), and that nearly half of the women in the labor force (45%) work as unpaid family workers.

Table 1. Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons by Employment Status, August 1996-1998

Employment status	1996		1997		1998	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	44.9	55.1	45.4	54.6	45.0	55.0
Employer	19.8	80.2	17.7	82.3	20.6	79.4
Gov't employee	37.3	62.7	38.0	62.0	39.4	60.6
Private employee	41.6	58.4	43.4	56.6	44.7	55.3
Own-account worker	29.5	70.5	28.8	71.2	28.8	71.2
Unpaid family worker	69.0	31.0	67.4	32.6	66.0	34.0

In conclusion, the literature review in this chapter integrates the definitions, theories, and concepts of attitudes from different authors. Also, the study brings knowledge about management styles which relate to personality and leadership style, managerial decision making, knowledge and skill, fairness, human relations, and other relevant research. These key competencies of leaders influence how subordinates feel about their female managers.

The next chapter will present the methodology of the research.