THAI SUBORDINATES' PERCEPTIONS OF SEX,

SOCIO-COMMUNICATIVE STYLE, AND VERBAL AGGRESSIVENESS

ON SUPERVISOR'S CREDIBILITY

A Dissertation Presented to

The Graduate School of Bangkok University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree
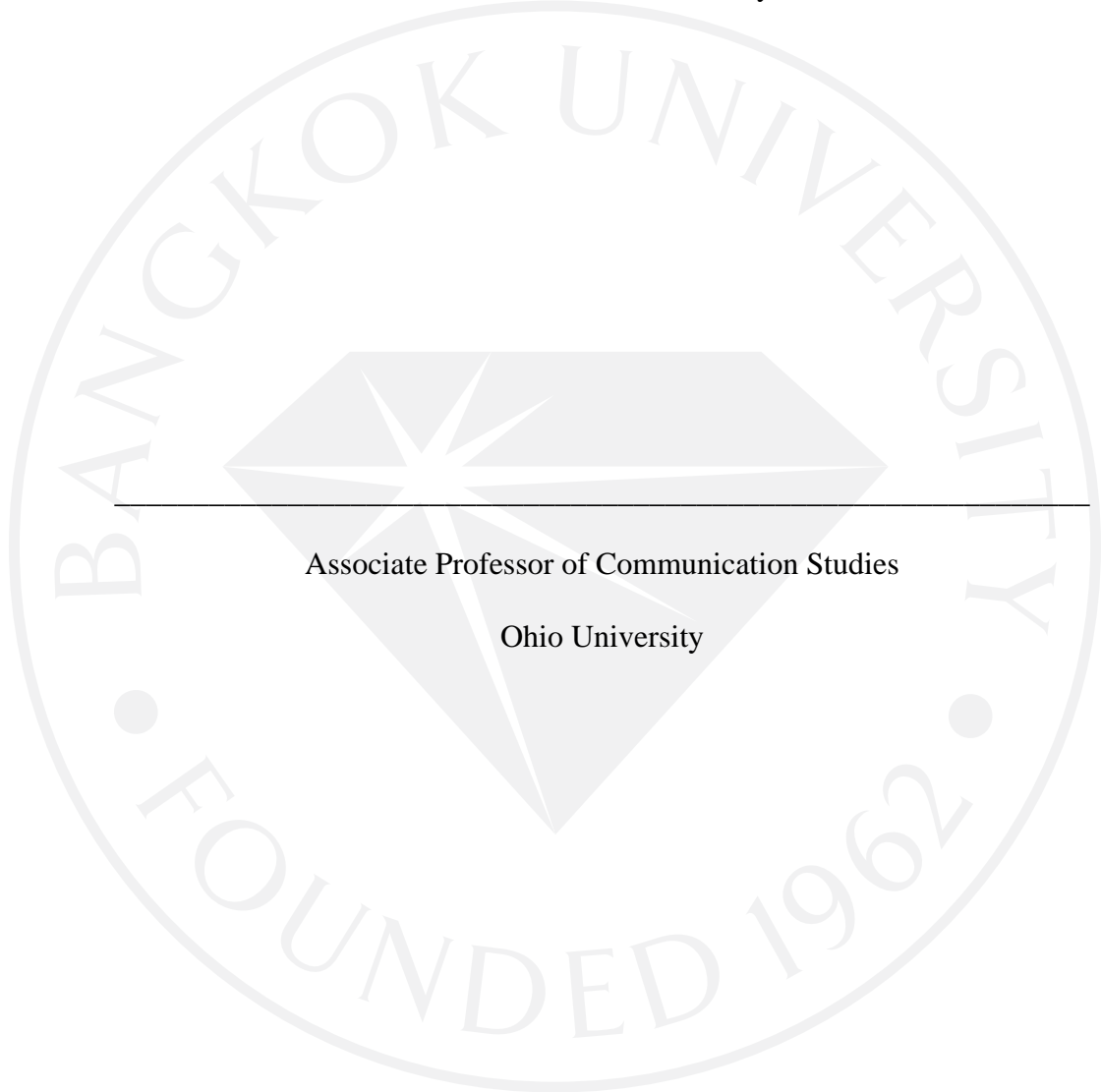
Doctor of Philosophy in Communication

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ABSTRACT

Thai statistic indicates that there are fewer women pursuing leadership roles than men. The percentage of female workers in the director level is much lower than that of male workers in all sizes of establishment. This gender segregation triggered this study to explore any significant difference in subordinates' perceptions between sexes, socio-communicative styles, and verbal aggressiveness of their supervisor's credibility.

The mixed-approach of multivariate analysis of variance (2 x 4 x 2 MANOVA) and interviewing were employed to test the research questions at the significant level of .05. There were three independent variables (sex, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness) and three dependent variables of credibility (expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill). The instruments employed to answer the research questions were Assertiveness-Responsiveness Measure, Verbal Aggressiveness Scale, and Source Credibility Scale. Participants were Thai subordinates who worked in the retailing and consumer products industry, which was the predominant business category in Thailand.

Findings from 410 participants in the questionnaire survey from randomly selected 11 retailing and consumer products companies indicate that there is no

significant difference between male and female supervisors' credibility from their subordinates' perceptions. However, subordinates demonstrate significant difference in perceptions toward their supervisors' socio-communicative styles (noncompetent, submissive, aggressive, or competent) and verbal aggressiveness (verbally aggressive or non-verbally aggressive). When combining the sex variable with socio-communicative style, the result shows no significant difference in supervisor's credibility. Similarly, there is no interaction effect between sex and verbal aggressiveness in terms of supervisor's credibility from subordinates' perceptions.

When considering answers from the interviews, different opinions with respect to sex of supervisor are found. Although working with male and female supervisor does not yield significant difference in terms of the credibility, the approach of working with different sex could become the issue due to the different nature of masculine and feminine traits. In terms of socio-communicative style and verbal aggressiveness, most interviewees prefer to work with competent and non-verbally aggressive supervisor. As a result, the recommended character of highly credible supervisor should conform to competent style which combines both assertiveness (masculinity) and responsiveness (femininity) characteristics. Verbal aggressiveness should also be tempered with politeness in order to fit with the feminine nature of Thai culture.

Approved:_____

Signature of Advisor

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"Pursuing Ph.D. is like running a marathon,

The endurance, rather than the pace, enables you to conquer the degree."
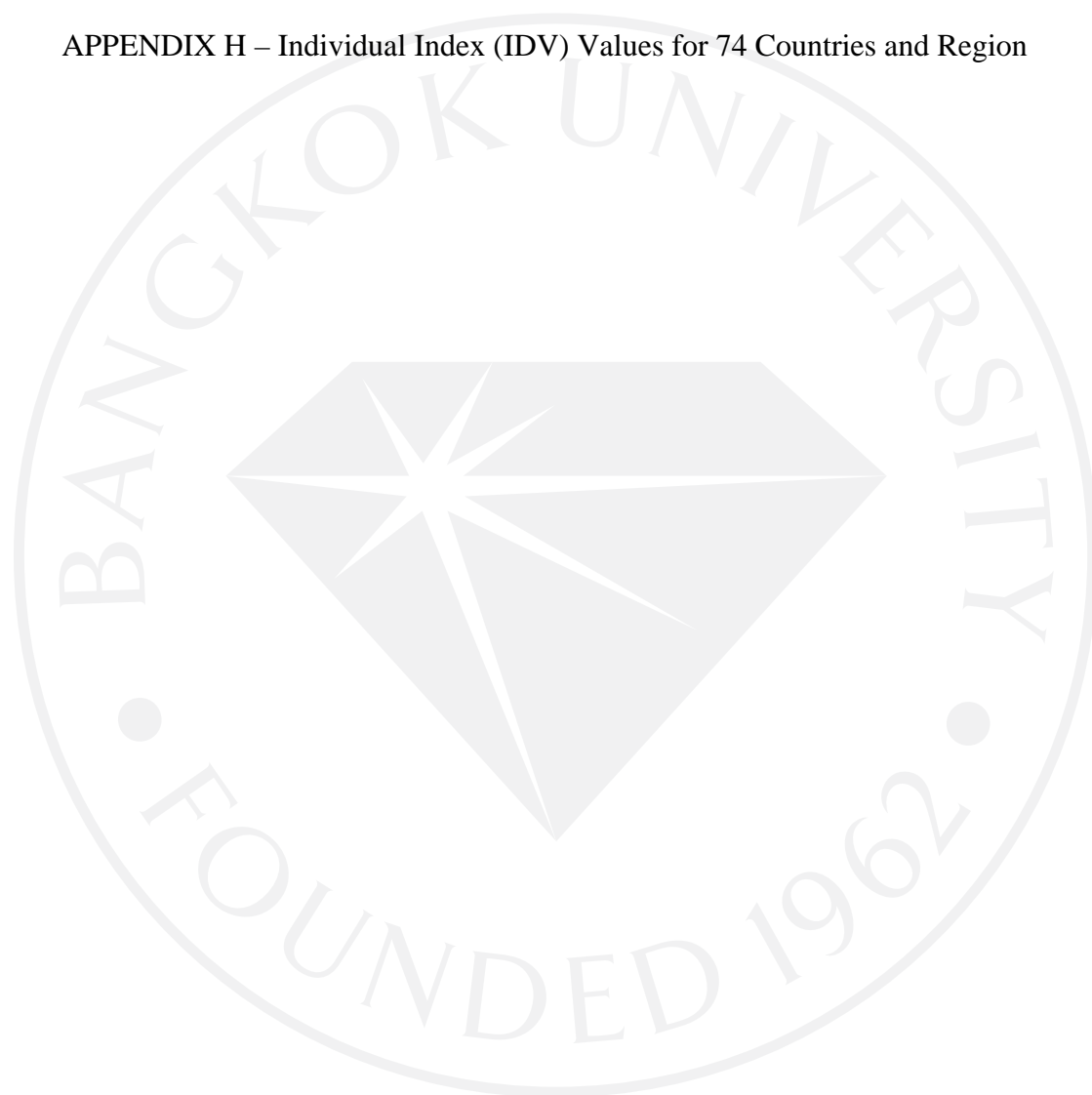
-- Dr. Luis Danai Kristhanin

I had run for four years and finally made it!

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

"It's about time to realize, brethren, as best we can,

That a woman is not just a female man."

-- Ogden Nash

Over the past few decades, the role of women in management has been
increasing steadily. The number of women entering the workforce has been on the rise
worldwide. The *feminization* of global leadership demonstrates the disproportionate
number of female leaders in political and business arenas (Adler, 1999). Despite this
positive trend, as managerial responsibility increases, the number of women in top
positions decreases. UNIFEM (United Nations Development Fund for Women)
reports that from 1995 to 2006, the global percentage of women in legislative bodies
increased from 10% to 16.6%. Women in upper levels of political leadership
worldwide included 11 elected heads of state or government, 23 foreign ministers, and
12 defense ministers only (Heyzer, 2006). In terms of business, there are not yet many
female CEOs. For example, only 23% of European Union businesses were owned by
women in 2004 (ILO, 2006). In 1995, the Fortune 500 had one woman CEO,
compared to seven female CEOs in 2003 (a subtle increase from 0.2% to 1.4%). In the
United States, the ratio of women represented on boards of directors increased from
10% to 16% during 1995 to 2002. However, this 16 percent is equal to only 10% of
the total 6,428 line corporate officer positions in the Fortune 500 firms (Catalyst,
2003).

Table 1 illustrates the number of Thai male and female workers aged 15 and above in 2005. The highest number of male and female workers resides in the category of *private employee* (12,894,000 persons), followed by *owned business without employee* (10,852,000 people). In terms of gender classification, the number of male workers surpasses female workers in all categories except *unpaid family worker*.

Table 1 : The 2005 - 2006 Survey of Population Change: Number of Thai Male and Female Workers at the Age of 15 and above (in Thousand Units)

Type of work	Total	Male	Female
Private employee	12,894	7,325	5,569
Owned business without employee	10,852	6,876	3,976
Unpaid family worker	8,194	2,630	5,564
Government employee	2,658	1,460	1,198
Employer	1,429	1,068	361
Government enterprise employee	292	212	80
Members of producer's cooperatives	39	23	16
Unknown	47	26	21
Total	36,405	19,620	16,785

Source: NSO (National Statistical Office). (2006b). *Employed person 15 years of age and over by work status, sex and area: 2005*. Retrieved February 8, 2007, from http:// service.nso.go.th/nso/g_data23/stat_23/toc_2/2.1.2-23.xls

Another statistic by National Statistical Office of Thailand [NSO] shows lower representation of Thai female workers in the senior positions. Out of 2,498,768 employees who are legislators, senior officials, or managers, female workers account for only 28 percent (NSO, 2006c).

One of the major topics of deliberation is whether there is a management style that distinguishes female executives from male executives. A HayGroup (2003) study comparing successful female executives in senior management positions with successful male and less successful female executives from large fortune 400 companies (such as Unilever, IBM, PepsiCo) found that those successful women used both typical male leadership (e.g. authoritative style) as well as typical female leadership (e.g. interpersonal style).

Different studies have asserted that males are strongly prevalent in the public sphere, especially in the professional arena. There are a significant number of studies concerning gender stereotypes from various aspects within an organization such as language (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Michaud & Warner, 1997; Sotirin, 2000), leadership (Kalbfleisch & Herold, 2006; Koch, 2004), persuasion (Carli, 1990; Holtgraves & Lasky, 1999; Ward, Seccombe, Bendel, & Carter, 1985), facework (Irizarry, 2004; Kendall, 2004), power (Kendall & Tannen, 1997), conflict (Turner & Shuter, 2004), job interview (Kinser, 2002), fairness (Cole, 2004), humor (Martin, 2004), and so on. Early studies found that women in management have long been perceived as possessing inferior skills in aggressiveness, leadership, and decision-making (Bowman, Worthy, & Greyson, 1965). It is believed that women are too emotional, are limited in their ability to handle stress, and are uncertain in higher ranking or managerial positions. On the other hand, men are recognized as being more

aggressive, independent, decisive, and competent than women (Heilman, 2001). Although these perceptions may be stereotypical in nature, the reality is that these gendered stereotypes can influence the selection of candidates in job interviews and career promotions.

According to Gamble and Gamble (2003), gender is "a product of interaction" (p. 4) and this interaction has been a focus of study across a variety of academic fields and has concluded that people inevitably participate in gendered systems in some way. Studies in gender communication have explored and clarified the myths of doing gender. Scholarly interests are demonstrated in a large body of research in interpersonal relationships, friendships, romantic relationships, family relationship, and mass media. One of the main subjects, that has been extensively addressed as women are employed in increasing numbers, is gender communication within the organization.

Background of the Study

One essential factor that interplays with communication patterns in leadership is culture, which is exhibited in the seemingly opposing views between the eastern and the western countries. There are significant differences in the decision-making styles used by managers from different cultures (Heller & Wilpert, 1981).

Wu, Lin, and Lee (2000) found that American female managers have the fewest problems with regards to conflict in gender and social roles. They perceive themselves as being independent, and having freedom in decision-making and risk-taking activities. In contrast, Japanese female managers have the most problems pertaining to their gender and social roles in such a male-dominated culture. They are more reluctant and take higher risk to be responsible for their decision-makings,

whereas Taiwanese female managers assume a moderate level on these problems and difficulties.

Regarding Thailand's neighboring countries in Association of South East Asian Nations [ASEAN], female managers are struggling when balancing multiple roles of work and gender in comparison to western women. They concurrently have both traditional and modern perspectives. Although ASEAN female managers have higher education and equal rights, their conservative culture does not let them get close to the ideology of gender equality (Chau, 1989). In other words, younger female managers in this region are pursuing more responsibilities, as well as balancing multiple roles, in their male-dominated culture. They have higher concerns about acceptance of women's role. However, the leadership role in the public sector of women in this region is still lower than the world average. In nearly all ASEAN countries, the national agenda is primarily derived by males (Soin, 2001).

Koshal, Gupta, and Koshal (1998) studied Malaysian men's and women's perspectives toward female managers in Malaysian corporations and found that women were underrepresented in top management. Male and female managers think and lead the organizations differently, and female managers face a higher resistance in terms of career advancement from their male subordinates.

Likewise, Chan (1988) noted that in Singapore, in spite of the growing representation of women in managerial and professional positions, social and cultural factors still limit them from competing equally with their male counterparts. Initial partiality also results in a slow climb for women. Many female managers, because of their upbringing and social pressure, appear handicapped in the use of direct and overt power.

In addition, Crockett (1988) has disclosed that, in Indonesia, there is a popular assumption about educated women that suggests they have access to a wide variety of career choices. Although this seems to be the case, they also face serious barriers with respect to upward mobility. Women are under-represented in managerial positions, even though they are more highly educated than men, and they are especially scarce in the private sector.

Historically, Thai women's role was limited to the private sphere, whereas men's status was much higher, reaching beyond the family setting (Kirsch, 1975). Thai men were strongly credited as the breadwinners who protected and supported the well being of their families. Thai women, on the other hand, were subordinated to men in their families, and could be regarded as the possession of their parents or husbands.

After the expansion of western influences, the roles and status of Thai women gradually changed and continued to improve. There was an increase in the number of Thai women entering into professional careers (Thomson & Bhongsvej, 1995), and they appeared to be accepted more in employment situations compared to other Southeast Asia countries (Hutching, 2000). However, the traditional belief of men as the dominant class in society still strongly persists despite the fact that women's achievements and acceptance in public sphere are increasing.

Thai statistics indicate that there are fewer women pursuing leadership roles than men. In 1998, even though Thai women labor represented 46 percent of the total (Motik, 2001), the percentage of male directors in the private sector was 76.5 percent, compared to 23.5 percent of women directors (Hutching, 2000). Based on the greater number of men in many employment sectors, it is commonly said that the managerial

positions are segregated by sex. Table 2 shows the statistic of Thai workers in the

private sector in 1998. The percentage of female workers at the director level is much

lower than that of male workers in all sizes of establishment. This gap of employment

between male and female workers is wider in higher positions compared to the lower

ones. This gender segregation triggered studies asking questions such as "do male and

female managers show different communication styles?" or "do female leaders have

lower levels of competency than male leaders?"
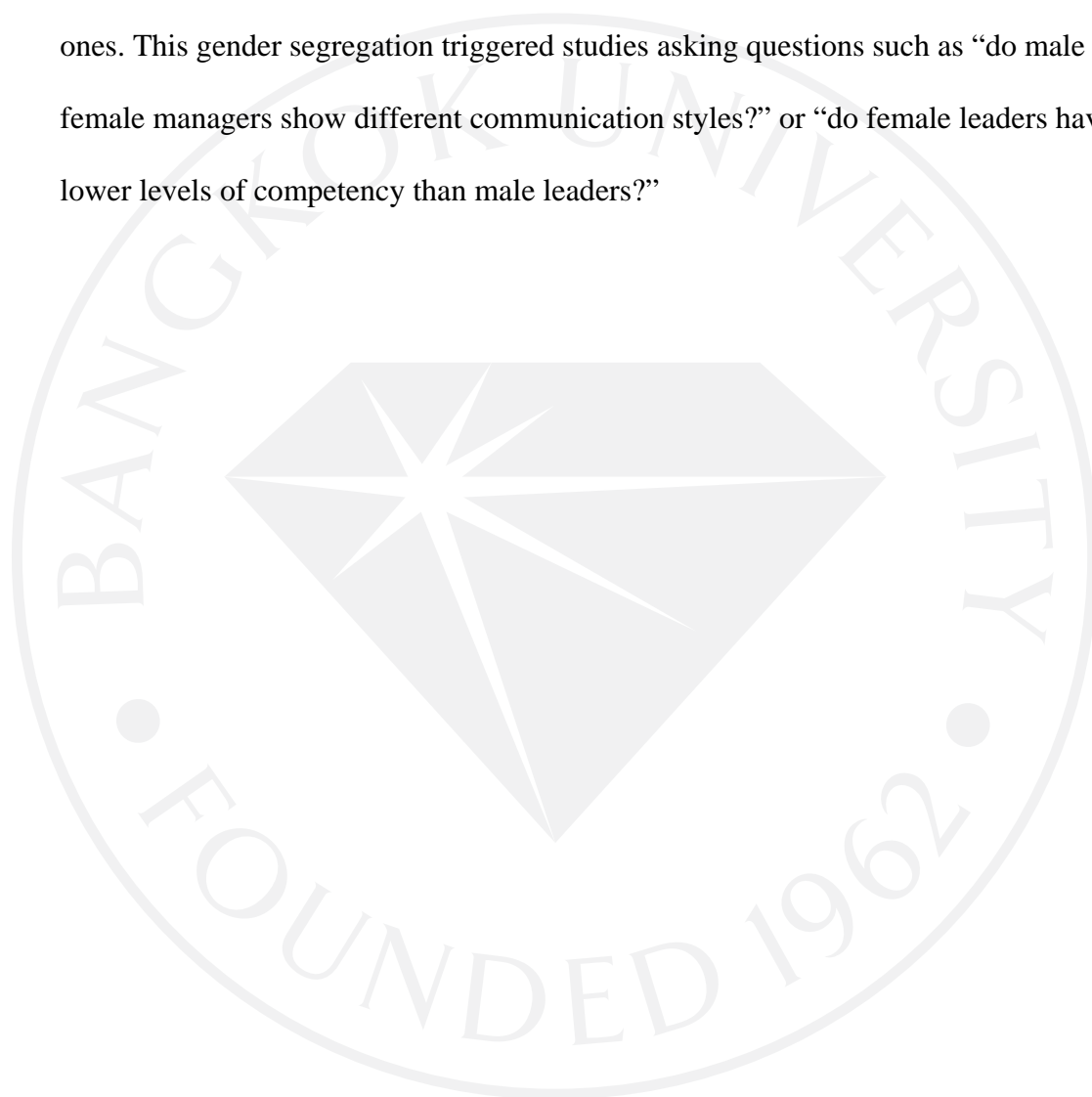
Table 2 : Percentage of Workers in Private Sector by Size of Establishment, Level of Position, and Sex, 1998

	Level of Position									
					Department					
Size of establishment	Total		Director		Manager		Supervisor		Employees	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	44.4	55.6	22.8	77.2	33.3	66.7	39.0	61.0	54.4	45.6
100-299 persons	44.1	55.9	23.8	76.2	33.1	66.9	38.1	61.9	53.9	46.1
300-499 persons	43.2	56.8	24.3	75.7	33.2	66.8	37.9	62.1	52.2	47.8
500-999 persons	44.4	55.6	18.4	81.6	32.8	67.2	37.6	62.4	56.2	43.8
1000 persons and over	46.8	53.2	23.5	76.5	34.7	65.3	44.2	55.8	56.7	43.3

Source: National Statistical Office Thailand and Office of the Civil Service Commission, 1998 (as cited in Yukongdi, V.

(2006). Women in management in Thailand: Advancement and prospects. In V. Yukongdi & J. Benson (Eds.),

Women in Asian management (pp. 126-140). New York: Routledge).

Glass Ceiling

It is believed that women in organizations are hindered by the glass ceiling, which blocks their career advancements (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002). When gender structure dominates work activities with men making the decisions and women supporting the plan, women in management become less visible. This inequality through the explanation of the gender stereotypes helps explain why women are often powerless and poor in leadership and persuasive arenas within the masculine model. Lituchy and Wiswall (1991) report that women's speech is less desirable and believable than men's speech. They are less credible due to gender stereotypes, and male listeners have more bias against feminine speech patterns. This bias between sexes is stronger in verbal than written language due to the nature of writing structure that is commonly more formal than spoken language.

The term glass ceiling was coined in the 1970s to describe the invisible barrier created by organizational prejudices, which blocks women from senior executive positions. It was used as a metaphor to represent the discrimination and prejudice toward female managers (Carli & Eagly, 2001). It restricts female managers from being promoted to top management positions even though they possess equivalent credentials to men (Wirth, 2001). The glass ceiling persists because top-level corporate culture in many organizations engages in traditional management thinking– a hierarchy occupied by males, who often hire and promote people who look, act, and think like them. Schein (2001) names this phenomenon as think manager–think male.

From many studies, women are portrayed as being less competent than men and are, thus, less qualified to be leaders in managerial positions (Carli & Eagly, 2001). Although hiring and promotion patterns are well intended, women employees

may be assigned to less visible positions and projects. As a result, their work fails to come to the attention of the top executives.

In addition to the glass ceiling, recent research suggests the existence of glass walls that serve as invisible barriers to hierarchical movement of women within the organization (Daft, 1999; Wirth, 2001). Glass walls block experiences in areas of supervision and management that would enable women to advance to senior-level positions. Women and minorities believe they must work harder and perform at higher levels than their male colleagues in order to be noticed, recognized, accepted, and promoted. Eagly and Karau (2002) also report that female applicants must meet higher standards than male applicants.

The glass ceiling exists in many countries. Female managers are poorly represented in the top level of organizational structure. The "New York Times" reported that female managers perceived gender stereotyping as the biggest obstacle to their career advancement. "Male stereotyping and preconceptions of women" was listed on the top of this survey (Dorbrzynski, 1996, p. 62). These perceptions have financial implications as well. The U.S. General Accounting Office investigated factors that contribute to differences in earning between men and women. It was found that women on average earned 80 percent of men's earnings in 2000 (GAO, 2003). In 2006, the International Labor Organization reports that the gender pay gap was as much as 30 to 40 percent in some countries (ILO, 2006).

In Thailand, among 158,000 employees nationwide who earned a monthly income of 50,000 Baht or more in 2005, only 29 percent were women (NSO, 2006a). The National Statistical Office Thailand and Office of the Civil Service Commission

(1998) showed that Thai women working full-time earned less than Thai men at all

employment levels and in every size of establishment (see Table 3).

Table 3 : Average Monthly Income (in Thai Baht) of Worker by Size of Establishment, Level of Position, and Sex, 1998

	Level of Position									
	Department									
Size of establishment	Total		Director		Manager		Supervisor		employees	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	15,074	23,742	51,206	63,848	29,666	35,998	15,545	18,355	9,388	10,971
100-299 persons	12,964	19,791	41,396	53,847	24,666	30,143	13,335	15,750	8,473	9,112
300-499 persons	15,139	22,727	53,851	63,229	28,063	36,174	15,815	18,092	9,368	10,162
500-999 persons	16,266	27,108	59,751	68,678	35,302	41,570	16,720	20,730	9,368	10,162
1000 persons and over	19,079	32,372	66,176	85,365	37,305	43,812	19,207	23,481	11,502	17,215

Source: National Statistical Office Thailand and Office of the Civil Service Commission, 1998 (as cited in Yukongdi, V. (2006).

Women in management in Thailand: Advancement and prospects. In V. Yukongdi & J. Benson (Eds.), *Women in Asian*

management (pp. 126-140). New York: Routledge).

Statement of the Problem

The effects of the glass ceiling can be seen with respect to the different conversational styles of men and women (Tannen, 2001). Women are judged as less effective from their indecisive and less confident style of talking compared to men, whose styles are more arrogant and aggressive. Women are, thus, prejudiced against and labeled as less competent than men and looked over for promotions to positions with greater responsibility. On the other hand, when women exhibit the power in authority like men do, they are perceived as dragon ladies, which connote the unfavorable meaning. Eagly and Karau (2002) explains dragon ladies or Battle-Ax as female managers who are perceived as more hostile and less rational than male managers. An example of this character is recently appeared in a Hollywood film, "The Devil Wears Prada," where a part of movie dialogue mentions Miranda Priestly (performed by Meryl Streep) as a dragon lady – powerful yet dreadful female fashion magazine editor (Scott, 2006).

As a result, women cannot achieve a total image of likeability and power concurrently. There is a trade-off between a road to success and a favorable personal relationship as a female manager when moving upward in the organizational hierarchy (Wiley & Eskilson, 1985). In other words, when a female acts like a man, she can possibly be evaluated unfavorably. Females are evaluated more negatively and they are expected to reach higher standards (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The double standard is applied to women when they are expected to perform outstandingly to be equally competent to men. Women who attempt to increase their influence by behaving like men might run into barriers since assertive women are less favorable than assertive men.

How do gender roles and leader roles cause prejudice among female leaders? Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) point out that the influence of gender roles on organizational behavior results from gendered expectancies. Thus, an incongruence between gender and leader roles due to misexpectation can easily generate the prejudice in effectiveness of female leaders in organizations. If female leaders conform to gender roles by exhibiting supportive characters, they can be negatively evaluated as less capable leaders compared to men. On the contrary, if they violate the gender role by being competitive, they can possibly receive negative feedback. The incongruity of gender and leadership roles constructs the paradox in behavior for female leaders (Powell & Graves, 2006; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991). Consequently, being a competent female leader does not always guarantee a successful career path in an organization.

Subordinates react to male and female leaders differently even when those leaders do not differ in any respect (Powell, 1990). Managers, whose behaviors fit to gender role stereotypes, are judged more positively than those who do not. In terms of managerial leadership, female managers who use people-oriented styles are evaluated more favorably than male managers with similar styles, while male managers using task-oriented styles are evaluated more favorably compared to female managers using similar styles.

This notion serves as the guideline to generate the hypotheses about gender role expectation in managerial positions. "Acceptance of stereotypical male characteristics as a basis for success in management may be a necessity for the woman seeking to achieve in the current organizational climate" (Shein, 1975, p. 343). In other words, communication styles of management and leadership in the

corporate world that are highly valued are those practiced by men, e.g. directive and authoritative, rather than the interpersonal style that women use. As a result, women who use more direct styles of communication may be more likely to excel in their career and achieve higher positions. Correspondingly, this study explored whether Thai female managers who attempt to be perceived as equally capable as Thai male managers should exercise more masculine styles that are stereotyped as the standard of good leadership.

Stereotype Threat

Expectancy theory (Burgoon, Dillard, & Doran, 1983) explains that people develop different beliefs regarding appropriate communication behaviors between males and females. In terms of communication behavior, expectations or expectancies consist of a person's behaviors that are believed to take place in a particular situation (Miller, 2002). These expected behaviors embrace different interactions such as speech rate, touching, volume, and so on. It significantly implies many thoughts and beliefs that "people are not aware of" (p. 147). People start to realize their expectations once their beliefs or behaviors are violated in some way.

The power of gender roles considerably influences the expectation of behavior such that it can easily lead to disapproving evaluation when something "inadvertently confirms the stereotype" (Steele, 1999, p. 46). Steele (2003) refers to this behavior as stereotype threat. This assumption has raised the researcher's attention to discover how Thai subordinates respond to male and female supervisors when their supervisors' leader roles: (1) conform to gender stereotypes such as male supervisor with masculine style of communication, and (2) deviate from gender stereotypes such as female supervisor with masculine style of communication. In other words, the

study tries to validate whether there will be similar subordinates' reactions toward their supervisors within the Thai context.

There are three most important problems addressed by Thai female executives: inequalities between men and women, hindrance in career opportunities due to family role, and bias against competency of female workers (Silpakit, 1997). Yukongdi (2006, p. 136) asserts that gender inequality is "less of an issue in Thai culture and is accepted by society." In other words, the women's movement in Thailand is less developed compared to western countries. However, this dissertation focused on the third problem through the comparative study of credibility between Thai male and female supervisors.

<div align="center">Objectives</div>

The objective of this dissertation was to study the perceptions of subordinates toward the communication behavior of their supervisors. More specifically, it attempts to answer the question of different outcomes in communication styles through the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in the organizational context. It reviews the concepts of the gender stereotypes in communication style, leadership skills, persuasive strategies, and verbal aggressiveness of male and female supervisors. The focus of this paper aims to achieve a better understanding of masculine and feminine communication styles in organizations through the comparison between male and female workers in terms of gender stereotypes, equality, and discrimination.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of the credibility of male and
    female supervisors?

RQ2: Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the socio-
    communicative styles of male and female supervisors?

RQ3: Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the verbal
    aggressiveness of male and female supervisors?

RQ4: Is there an interaction between the sexes and socio-communicative styles when
    measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

RQ5: Is there an interaction between the sexes and verbal aggressiveness when
    measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

Scope of the Study

    This dissertation is designed to explore the perceptions of men and women in
subordinate positions about the effectiveness in leadership and persuasive strategies
employed by their male and female supervisors. The study seeks the comparison in
the credibility between different socio-communicative styles and verbal
aggressiveness employed by men and women at the managerial level. The foregoing
discussion suggests the following figure–model of the study (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Model of the Study
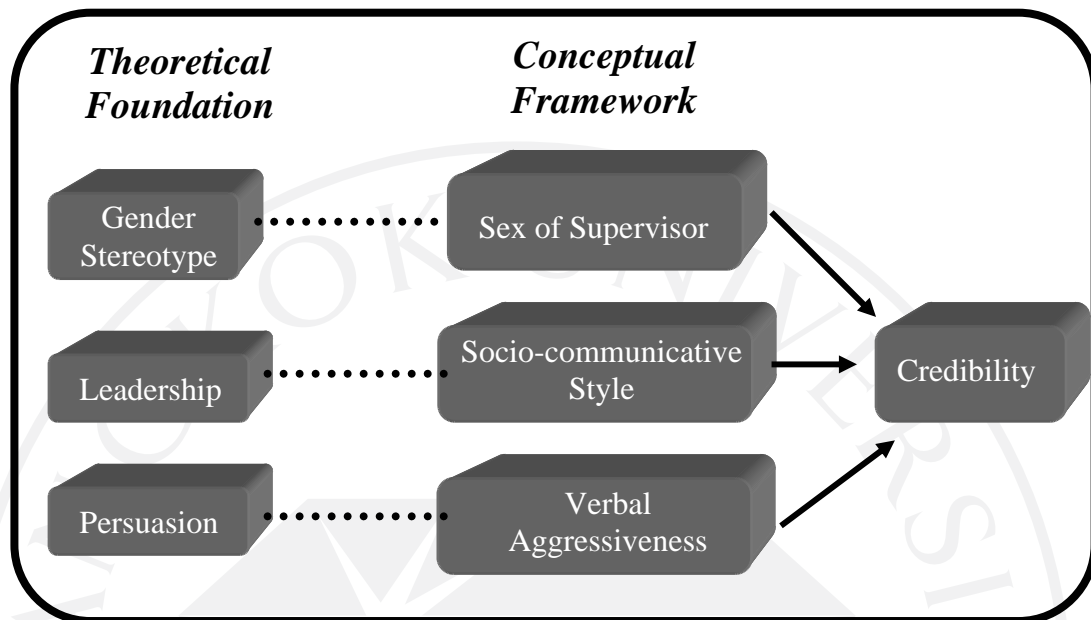
There are three main theoretical foundations which are the focal points of this
dissertation: (1) gender–including establishments related to gender studies as well as
gender stereotypes in several aspects such as linguistic, interpersonal, and workplace,
(2) leadership–including theories of leadership in association with masculine and
feminine style of communication, and (3) persuasion–including the issues of power
and aggressiveness in influential styles between male and female leaders.

All concepts related to this study are explicated in the literature review,
followed by a description of the methodology that elaborates how the researcher
operationally discovered the answers to the research questions. In order to measure
the subordinates' perception toward their supervisors' credibility as the leaders,
source credibility will be employed as the measurement unit. In terms of predictive
extent, there are three quantifiable dimensions that are applied in the conceptual

framework: (1) sex of supervisor–the criterion that can distinguish the discrepancy between role expectancy between gender and gender stereotype, (2) socio-communicative style–the measure of leadership style associating with masculinity and femininity, and (3) verbal aggressiveness–the criterion used to recognize the aggressive level in persuasion of male and female supervisors.

Significance of the Study

The more we understand the different patterns of communication styles between sexes, the less likely it is that there will be a misunderstanding or communication conflict between genders. This study contributes to the development of gender equality through the consideration of promoting gender fairness as well as enhancing Thai women's status and career opportunities to be equivalent to men. It also serves as the foundation of the researcher's thought and idea to generate a study that can contribute to the value of Thai women especially in the corporate field.

Definition of Terms

Gender: The word sex and gender are frequently used interchangeably. The connotation of sex relies more heavily on biological aspects as human being (DuBrin, 1995; Unger, 1979). Gender, on the other hand, is more complicated with the association of becoming masculinity and femininity. In the literature review, the term gender, and gender stereotype will be explicated to comprehend male and female behaviors, whereas in the methodology, the term *sex* will be applied as the criterion to compare between supervisors' biological status and their leadership behaviors.

Gender Stereotype: When people have limited access to information on a particular subject, they use stereotypes as broad generalizations to make assumptions about that subject (Powell & Graves, 2003). In other words, it provides a shortcut for

group identification. Gender stereotyping occurs in many situations of our lives and may deliver the un-neutral description to a certain context. Gender stereotypes, in this study, will be confined to leadership and verbal aggressiveness in persuasion of employees in managerial level.

Leadership: Daft (1999, p. 5) defines leadership as "an influence relationship of an individual who intend real changes that reflect shared purposes," while the person expected to perform the specialized leadership role is designated as the leader. A leadership style is a relatively consistent pattern of behavior that characterizes a leader; the way leadership and communication styles are integrated in the process of leader-follower interaction (DuBrin, 1995). The study in this dissertation will emphasize on gender orientation in leadership styles and the interaction in the supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Persuasion: It involves the activity when one or more persons try to influence the beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors of others. In this dissertation, persuasion will be primarily referred to the aggressiveness in persuasion when supervisors try to influence their subordinates through the use of spoken language.

Socio-communicative Style: It is the way others see you in terms of interpersonal communication competence (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996). In this study, socio-communicative style is classified based on a person's assertiveness and responsiveness. Assertiveness is a person's capability to make a request or express his/her thoughts and opinion without attacking another, while responsiveness is a person's sensitivity to the feeling of others. The concept of socio-communicative style will be connected to the behaviors of male and female supervisors in order to operationally identify their styles of leadership.

<u>Verbal Aggressiveness</u>: It is portrayed when people's self-concepts are attacked by others in conversation (Infante & Wigley, 1986). In this study, verbal aggressiveness will be applied as the measurement level in verbal communication of supervisors from subordinates' perceptions.

<u>Source Credibility</u>: It involves how believable a receiver perceives a source to be (McCroskey & Richmond, 1996). Even though credibility can be measured from multidimensional aspects, this study applies source credibility in a leadership role and measures credibility of those leaders from three dimensions: expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill.
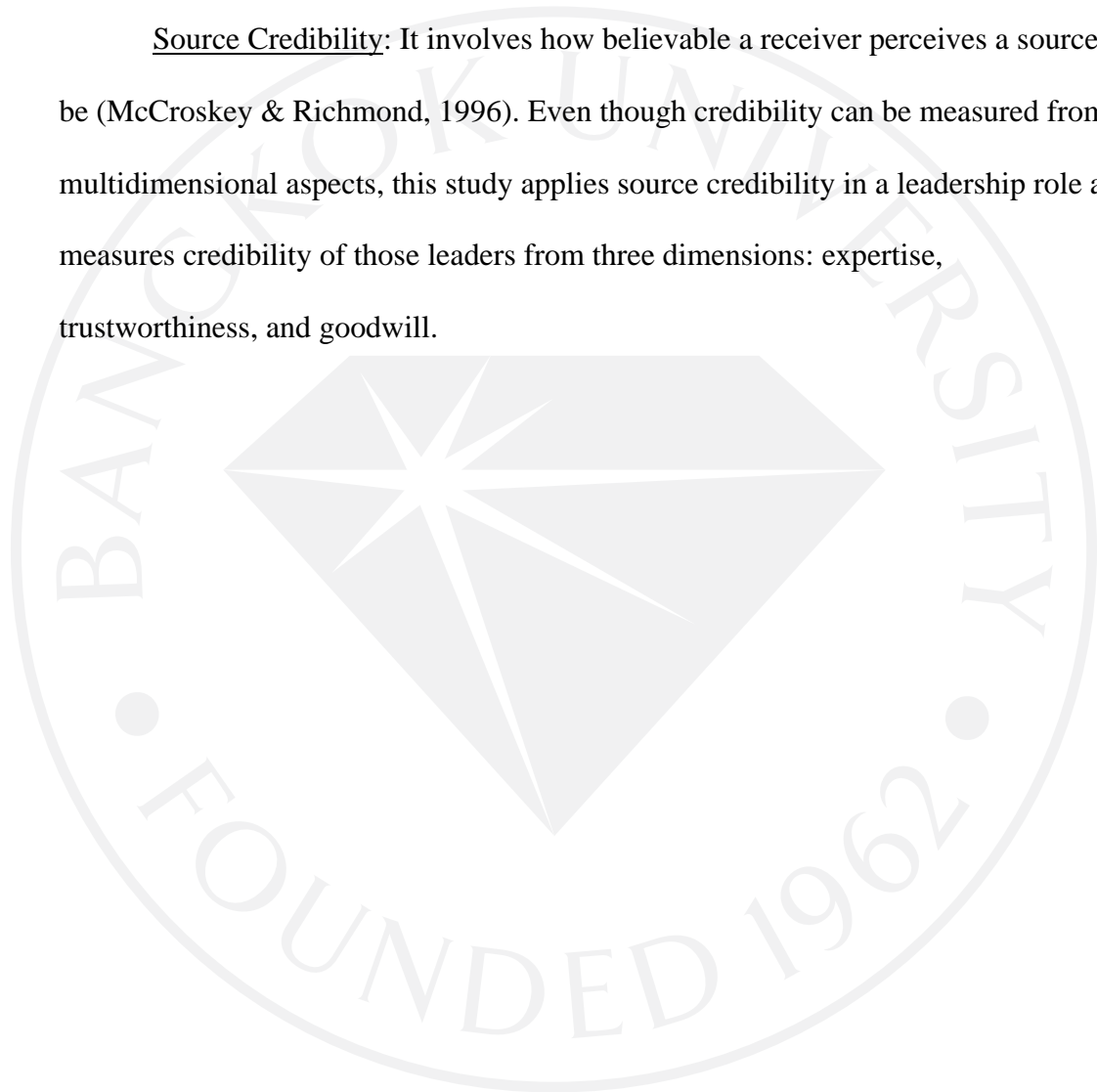
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

"Woman is like a tea bag – you never know how strong she is

until she gets into hot water."

-- Eleanor Roosevelt, former First Lady and social reformer

Scholars have been studying gender and communication since the 1970s
(Bisanz & Rule, 1989; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Powell &
Graves, 2006; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991). Much of the gender and communication
literature (Coates, 2004; Gamble & Gamble, 2003; Payne, 2001; Powell & Graves,
2003; Wood, 1996; Wood, 2003) begins with a discussion of the definition and scope
of study. In this chapter, the four areas that serve as major components of the
theoretical foundation are defined and discussed.

The first section is the notion of sex, gender, and stereotype, which serve as
the fundamental concepts of how and why genders have been studied in
communication field.

The second section elaborates on how gender stereotypes play roles in a
workplace environment to signify masculine and feminine communication styles,
especially in a corporate setting.

The third section is the discussion of leadership from both western and Thai
perspectives. It basically demonstrates how gender stereotypes are portrayed in the
leadership role between male and female leaders.

The final section talks about aggressiveness in persuasion and gender stereotypes. This section illustrates the studies of gendered stereotypes of male and female leaders and the persuasive strategies used, especially the power exerted and intensity of persuasion. The literature reviews are principally centered on the context of organizational setting.

In a nutshell, the essence of this chapter is to provide the overview concepts of how people perceive males and females and gender stereotypes in applying different leadership and persuasive styles when pursuing the role of leaders in the organizations.

<div align="center">Sex, Gender, and Stereotypes</div>

Before commencing the study about gender and communication, it is inevitable to address the definition of sex and gender since both terms are used in various gender contexts. Sex is generally defined as the biological characteristics of an individual. It displays genetic qualities and differentiates women from men. Sex is innate (Gamble & Gamble, 2003) and long-standing throughout a person's life (Payne, 2001). Gender, while related to biological sex, is described as the psychological or sociological attributes of being women or men. It illustrates human values in attitude, thought, feeling, behavior, interest, or identity (Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Powell & Graves, 2003). Gender is, thus, learned or acquired and more complicated than sex because it is neither innate nor stable (Wood, 2003). Femininity, masculinity, and androgyny are the examples of gender terms that reflect socially constructed concepts.

In short, we refer to sex as biologically determined and gender as culturally or socially constructed. Even though sex and gender are literally defined with different

connotations, scholars, in many occasions, have used these two terms interchangeably. Some of those studies use the term sex differences as similar to gender differences. Borna and White (2003) address this issue in their content analysis of 40 articles about women and corporate management. They found that 27 articles used the term sex and gender interchangeably along with different contexts. Within the body of this literature review, the term sex and gender will also be used alternatively based on the context of literature epitomized.

Powell and Graves (2003) assert that gender differences can be the source of sex differences as well as stereotype definition and recognition. A stereotype, from their perspective, is the categorization of human behavior under the same group heading and a belief in that generalization. In other words, it is a generalization of a member in each group. People can assume our traits when they classify us as a member of particular class. Stereotypes can mislead people's perception and overlook individuals' identification by relying too much on limited information or common characters of an identifiable group (Wood, 2003). For example, women are likely to be stereotypically classified as emotional and sensitive, while men tend to be defined as more rational and assertive. Gamble and Gamble (2003) also state that gender stereotypes may cause negative consequences to some people. In a certain situation, men may become less assertive and vulnerable, and women may be more direct and rational.

Bem (1977), on the contrary, has challenged the dichotomous pattern of being male or female. She developed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) as a tool to evaluate an individual's level of femininity and/or masculinity. She adopts a four-quadrant classification scheme to distinguish the gender identity. Between the extreme

continuum of being either masculinity or femininity, Bem introduces the notion of

psychological androgyny, which represents a high level of masculinity and femininity.

Andro is the Greek root for male, and gyne is the Greek root for female (Sargent,

1981). Hence, an androgynous person is the one who is more flexible to situation

where either masculinity or femininity can best fit in. In other words, Bem proposes

androgyny as the best gender alternative as it brings the best of both worlds. Figure 2

depicts Bem's classification scheme of gender identity.

Figure 2 : Classification Scheme of Gender Identity

		Femininity score	
		High	**Low**
Masculinity	**High**	Androgyny	Masculine
score	**Low**	Feminine	Undifferentiated

Source: Bem, S. L. (1977). On the utility of alternative procedures for assessing

    psychological androgyny. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology,*

    45, 196-205.

When scholars conduct research about gender, they pay attention to the

comparative study between women and men in order to look for the similarities and

differences. Why do they focus on differences and similarities between genders? Ivy

and Backlund (1994) justify that people, by human nature, are interested and curious

to learn what make them unique from one another. Understanding the sex and gender

differences also promotes the cooperative communication between women and men

by solving the myth and suspicion in miscommunication that tend to move them apart.

There is no absolute answer to such a question as how much women and men are similar or different in terms of communication. The issues of gender similarities and differences have been debated extensively in a variety of articles. In a meta-analysis about gender differences and similarities in management communication by Wilkins and Andersen (1991), the authors conclude that there is a significant difference from the studies, however, the variance accounted in those studies is not large. Men are stereotypically perceived as "dominant, aggressive, demanding, and unemotional" (p.8), whereas women's stereotypes are described as "submissive, passive, emotional, compassionate, empathetic, and supportive" (p. 8). However, when we associate gender role stereotypes with required managerial skills, women are in disadvantageous position compared to men. They are perceived as less qualified and less competent than men (Lindsey & Zakahi, 2006; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991).

Differences between Genders–The Metaphors

Several researchers (Gray, 1992; Tannen, 1990) claim that women and men are different in their communication patterns. However, the magnitude of differences varies considerably among the research. John Gray (1992) uses the metaphor of planets in his book, "Men Are from Mars, Women Are from Venus," to represent men and women. "Not only do men and women communicate differently but they think, feel, perceive, react, respond, love, need, and appreciate differently" (p. 5). Gray expands his idea that men and women are from different planets, and of course, they speak different languages and need different nourishment. He notes, "the Martian and Venusian languages had the same words, but the way they were used gave different meanings" (p. 59), so he has created the Martian/Venusian phrase dictionary to translate frequently misunderstood terms.

Deborah Tannen (1990) takes the sociolinguistic approach to analyze why women and men communicate differently. Women and men, from her viewpoint, are brought up in different cultures rather than coming from totally different planets. In her book, "You Just Don't Understand," she applies the cross-cultural approach in explaining the different conversational styles accumulated from many of her studies on gender and language. She affirms that when men seek to dominate women in many spheres like they did when they were young, it can cause a breakdown in conversation once those communication patterns between women and men are not compatible.

Crawford (1995) comments that Tannen (1990) and Gray (1992) present women and men as using non-overlapping and opposing conversational styles, whereas Wood (2003) tries to verify the worth of claims by Gray (1992) and Tannen (1990). Crawford points out that Tannen writes her book from a compilation of research and studies, while Gray bases his notion from personal experiences. Even though Tannen generalizes broadly with some limited samples, her works are still backed up with precedent studies. Unlike Tannen, Gray's characterizes women and men as a dichotomous pattern with less reliable supports.

Unlike Gray (1992) and Tannen (1990), Dindia (2006) argues that women and men are not fundamentally different. She employs the metaphor of neighboring states in USA, North Dakota and South Dakota, to symbolize her argument. She replicates Gray's striking title by adapting it to be "Men are from North Dakota, women are from South Dakota." According to her metaphor, women and men are not too disparate to be originated from neither different planets nor cultures. She argues that her analogy reflects the appropriate degree of differences between two genders. In other words, gender differences in communication behaviors are small.

Differences between Genders – Gender Talk

The successful publication of a few books from the perspectives of language between genders such as "Language and Woman's Place" (Lakoff, 1975), "You just don't understand" (Tannen, 1990), or "Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus" (Gray, 1992) have triggered a large body in studies of gender and language use in numerous contexts (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Carli, 1990; Crawford, 1995; Crawford & Kaufman, 2006; Dindia, 2006; Herrick, 1999; Holmes, 1998; Johnson & Aries, 1998; Kendall, 2004; Michaud & Warner, 1997; O'Barr & Atkins, 1998; Sotirin, 2000). These studies have discussed different myths in gender talk while seeking the reasons for why and how those phenomena occur.

Wood (2003) states that the childplay of girls and boys are typically in sex-segregated form. Boys' games such as sports or video games engage in competition and complying with rules of games in order to be evaluated as outstanding players. Because boy's games are well structured, they learn to assert themselves and talk in a way of achieving certain goals. On the contrary, girls' games such as dolls or house playing have different patterns in continuing the games. Girls need to talk among each other which role (mother, father, or kid) in a house they are going to play or what they are going to wear for their dolls. There is no preset or clear-cut rule in playing the games, and they are not playing in order to find the winner in each game. Girls, as a result, learn to be more cooperative and collaborative in talking in order to maintain relationships. Tannen (1999) also notes in her chapter about the culture of argument between genders that women are generally less aggressive than men, and they do not fight to each other for fun.

Gamble and Gamble (2003) discuss different myths in gender talk in the following topics: (1) women talk more than men, (2) women interrupt others more than men, (3) men are dismissive of women's feelings, and (4) men and women agree on different purpose of talk in relationship development. With regards to speech community, women and girls as well as men and boys socialize in distinctive groups; consequently, their thoughts, goals, and approaches toward communication are cultivated in different traditions.

Based on the gender stereotype, people may feel that women talk more than men because women are more relationship-oriented. "Females engage in intimate and one-to-one relationships, while males engage more in group and activity" (Johnson & Aries, 1998, p. 216). Women's community involves in establishing and maintaining relationship with others through talking. It fosters the connection, closeness, and relationship between people. In sum, Wood (2003) affirms, "talk is the essence of relationships" (p.119) among women.

Gamble and Gamble (2003) state that women and men have different purposes and concepts about the importance of talk. Women maintain conversation about their relationship as long as it goes well. Men, on the other hand, do not usually talk about relationship until they think some problems in relationship need to be solved. Women use the conversation as a reinforcement of relationship, whereas men use it for a more functional approach. Ivy and Backlund (1994) suggest the approach of relation versus content in gender talk. They believe that women use conversation from the relational approach in order to convey the message of relationship. In contrast, men view the conversation from the content approach by using the conversation to impart the information to others rather than express their feelings.

There are several studies (Gamble & Gamble, 2003; Ivy & Backlund, 1994; Tannen, 1990) that explain the term report talk versus rapport talk. Tannen (1990) identifies women style of the rapport talk and men's style as the report talk. Women's way of speaking reveals their support for others. When women are disappointing with something, they want to talk about it and expect the sympathy from their counterparts. They tend to focus on the affective functions more than men (Holmes, 1998). Men are more likely to use language to exhibit their status, ability, and knowledge. They use speech to attain the goal of something, in other words, men's predominant feature of speech relies in instrumentality (Wood, 2003). Table 4 provides a summary of feminine and masculine interactional styles reviewed by Holmes and Stubbe (2003).

Table 4 : Widely Cited Features of Feminine and Masculine Interactional Style

Feminine	Masculine
Indirect	Direct
Conciliatory	Confrontational
Facilitative	Competitive
Collaborative	Autonomous
Minor contribution (in Public)	Dominates (public) talking time
Supportive feedback	Aggressive interruptions
Person/ process-oriented	Task/outcome-oriented
Affectively oriented	Referentially oriented

Source: Holmes, J., & Stubbe, M. (2003). "Feminine" workplaces: Stereotype and

reality. In J. Holmes & M. Meyerhoff (Eds.), *The handbook of language and*

gender (pp. 573-599). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

The author believes that women and men are different to some extent, however, there is no definite answer in terms of degree of difference. In other words, instead of asking how much the difference is, the question can be modified to where those discrepancies can happen, what can be the causes, and how can we help as communication scholars to expose any systematic bias or prejudice that may be perpetuated against any particular population? These questions serve as the motive of why the researcher chose to conduct a research in gender communication in workplace, which demonstrates power and influences between women and men in leadership roles.

The key focus of this dissertation is to study the communication pattern from the perspective of managerial roles in organizations; hence, the following section will be devoted to the notion of gender stereotypes in the organizational environment.

<div align="center">Gender Stereotypes in Workplace</div>

Gender stereotypes have permeated in organizational climate, and one of the most cited publications about gender communication in workplace is Kanter's (1977). Kanter clarifies that woman in workplace can be viewed as any of four stereotypes. First, she can be perceived as child and need to be pampered by a male mentor. She is like a girl, less competent, and can be restricted from career advancement. Second, she can be treated as mother whose priority in life resorts in family rather than workplace. Her role of being a mother spills over into the workplace and outshines her serious professional work. These female employees can also be slowed in gaining opportunities in being assigned higher challenging positions. Third, woman can be viewed as sex object whose beauty dominates her brain and ability. When men attach the stereotype of woman as a sex object, they pay attention to her appearance rather

than her performance. Finally, the woman who is too tough, based on gender stereotype, will be classified as an iron maiden. This type of working woman also faces a problem even though she is different from the first three stereotypes. She is judged as being too unfeminine, too independent, and overly authoritative. In other words, she is a less desirable employee compared to her male counterpart.

Herrick (1999) conducts a narrative study about different identity of two female employees in a single company. The former employee is characterized as a dragon lady, while the latter one is friendlier with the character of the girl-next-door. The author points out that women inevitably trade-off between gaining power and likeability in the organization.

The male worker, on the other hand, is stereotyped in an organizational setting with a more favorable manner compared to female workers. A male worker can be viewed as the tough man, the fighting man, or the wage earner. First, the tough man stereotype represents a man who is self-dependent, emotionally controlled, and self-sufficient. The stereotype leads him to neither ask for help nor make mistakes in decision-making or handling the problems. Secondly, the fighting man represents an aggressive and dominant male worker. He is eager to combat for his organization, and to him, the organization is ranked as being of higher importance than family. Lastly, the wage earner portrays an identity of a family's breadwinner. This is common if a man is the exclusive source of income of a household. Since the society constructs the success of a man from how much he can earn, the wage earner will commit himself to the organizational goal to demonstrate his performance for a higher paying job.

Schein (2001) identifies the phase think manager-think male (p.678) to illustrate the pattern of organizational attitudes, that is inclined to men's styles of

management. She notes that over the past three decades, men are more likely to be referred to as having more appropriate management style that leads to managerial success in the organization. Moreover, the phenomenon of think manager-think male has infused organizations worldwide.

A study of communication skills and training needs of women in management by Berryman-Fink (1985) reveals that female managers, when compared to male managers, are more effective in listening, verbal, nonverbal, and writing skills, but they lack assertiveness, confidence-building, public speaking, making presentations, as well as skills to deal with men. Interestingly, women have a more detailed perception about their weaknesses in communication skills than men. It can be assumed that women perceive themselves as inferior to men once they are in male-oriented management sphere.

There are different dimensions of gender and language that scholars have explored in research. A classic publication that demonstrates power in speech use is Lakoff's work "Language and Woman's Place." Lakoff (1975) summarizes characteristics of women's speech that imply the inferiority of women's language to men's as follow: (1) vocabulary: women have richer vocabularies that are used in describing such as the nuance of color (magenta, plum), (2) empty adjectives: women deliver emotional reaction rather than specific information ("adorable" in women's language compared to "great" in men's language), (3) intonation: women use different level of pitch in expression (it is hot, isn't it?), (4) hedges: women use words such as "well," "you know," "sort of" to imply their apology for assertion, (5) intensifier: women use words such as "so" to display strong emotion, (6) hypercorrect grammar: women do not use words such as "goin" because it is too rough, (7) superpolite forms:

women use more indirect request than men, and (8) humor and joke-telling: women lack of sense of humor and they do not get joke.

Holmes (1998) has developed a framework to analyze language in the use of speech community based on four primary characteristics: function, solidarity, power, and status. The first dimension is function or the purpose of the talk. Women tend to employ the affective or interpersonal meaning, while men are more likely to use referential or informative meaning to convey information. The second dimension is solidarity, or how well participants relate themselves to others. Women's talk is more cooperative and facilitative to the relationship, and it provides more supporting feedback than men. The third dimension is power or who is in charge of conversation. It is believed that women dominate the amount of talk and interrupt more often than men. Despite the stereotype, there is evidence that men interrupt women more often than women interrupt men (Anderson & Leaper, 1998; Zimmerman & West, 1975). Men also dominate the amount of talk in meetings, seminars, or the situations that exert power and status. In other words, they talk more in the public domain. The last dimension is status, or how the speech identifies the social status of the speaker. Under this category, accommodation theory has been used to explain the phenomenon of women's stylistic adaptability to defer to men's communication when necessary.

Stereotypically, males tend to talk more often and for longer periods of time than females. They are likely to interrupt and use more challenging language strategies than females (Kendall & Tannen, 1997). In one of Tannen's books (2001) about language, "Talking from 9 to 5: Women and men at work," the author suggests that males use a more oppositional approach in discussion than females, who are more likely to maintain equality and save face for their conversational partners.

This assumption is supported by Kendall's conclusion (2004) that women tend to communicate in less authoritative formats than men. When speaking with equal rank colleague, women tend to use linguistic styles that save faces of self and other; whereas men are more likely to use directive and threatening style with their conversational partners. Face-saving strategies employed by women sometimes put them in a disadvantageous position when they interact with their dissimilar conversation partners.

Similarly, Kendall and Tannen (1997) also believe that female style of language use becomes disadvantage because "workplace norms are masculine norms" (p.86). In addition, Irizarry's findings (2004), from her grounded theory approach, imply that inequality results from masculine norms in workplace. She makes this conclusion based on interviews with females who work in male dominated occupations such as medicine, law, and academe. These females experience face-threatening acts more frequently than their male colleagues in terms of their work competencies compared to male counterparts.

Holmes and Stubbe (2003) assert that the masculine style of communication has been valued more highly and dominated in workplace communication. One of the reasons is probably the result of the proportion of male managers to female managers. Male communication styles are established as the norm of workplace communication (Tannen, 2001).

If the proportion between male and female managers has been changed due to an increased number of female managers in the workplace, will people switch to more of a feminine communication mode? Powell and Graves (2006) have speculated that even though the proportion of female managers is higher and the masculine

stereotypes best fit for manager is diminished, the predominant masculine leadership role still persists.

One of examples in workplace communication addressed by Holmes and Stubbe (2003) is meeting talk versus small talk. The structure of a meeting, from the researchers' viewpoint, is more inclined to a masculine style, whereas small talk structure conforms to a feminine style. It is generalized that more female participants in a meeting can possibly diverge the meeting agenda more easily than male participants. In addition, in a more formal context such as a meeting, males tend to talk more than females. The distribution of talk is dominated by males in such a formal organizational context like meeting.

This presumption corresponds to Gamble and Gamble's claim (2003) that females talk more than male. People usually perceive that females probably talk more because they use conversation to initiate and maintain their relationships. This may be correct in a more private context but it should be exempted in a more formal context such as the organizational meeting.

Another exemption of workplace stereotype is females' humor. Females are depicted as "humorless creatures" (Holmes & Stubbe, 2003, p.577), and feminine workplace is the serious context with neither humor discussion nor involvement. Gass and Seiter (2003) claim that females have a "narrower bandwidth" (p.294) of using humor compared to males. Nonetheless, a study by Martin (2004) about women's humor in middle management finds that managerial women use humor in various situations such as negotiating the conflict or relieving the social tension. Similarly, Holmes and Stubbe (2003) report the existence of females' humor in their study resulting to their argument that females produce humor more frequently than males.

Kendall and Tannen (1997) discuss two major categories of gender and language in the workplace. The first category of research can be found in how women and men interact with each other in the workplace. Another category falls into the effects of women's and men's uses of language, the evaluation, as well as the reaction. The study in this dissertation will focus on the latter approach–the comparison of effectiveness between female and male leaders in a persuasion, where the researcher aims to discover the link between gender and power in the organizational setting.

<div align="center">Leadership and Gender Stereotypes</div>

Historians and philosophers have long studied the concept of leadership, however, the relationship between sexes and leader stereotypes initially commenced in 1970s (Butterfield & Grinnell, 1999). In this section, the sex and leader stereotypes will be discussed expansively from the perspective of gender communication and management. The terms leaders and managers will be used interchangeably. Though leadership concept can be studied from different disciplines, the researcher concentrates on three main topics: (1) the theories of leadership and how they are conceived in terms of masculinity or femininity, (2) women leadership, and (3) the leadership in Thai culture.

Theories of Leadership

The traditional leadership styles of leaders and their behaviors are mostly discussed in the distinction between task style and interpersonal style (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Powell & Graves, 2006). Task style or task accomplishment refers to the organization and completion of assigned tasks by a leader. Interpersonal style or maintenance of interpersonal relationships refers to

achieving the assigned task with higher concerns of people's morale and welfare. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) endorse this category of leadership as strongly related to gender roles, and Powell and Graves (2006) perceive these two leadership styles as independent dimensions. Men are described as more aggressive, dominant, independent, while women are perceived as being kind, selfless, and concerned for others. In other words, male leaders are expected to be more task-oriented than female leaders, and female leaders are more conformed to an interpersonal style of leadership.

Another aspect that is used to label leadership style is the decision-making style of leaders. Leader who are directive or exhibit an autocratic leadership style discourage their subordinates in the decision-making process, whereas leaders who are democratic or exhibit a participative leadership style always encourage such participation from their team members (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Powell & Graves, 2006). Powell and Graves (2006) comment that an autocratic leadership style is associated with masculinity, whereas a democratic style is associated with femininity. Likewise, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) affirm that the autocratic-democratic dimension engages with gender stereotype because men are more assertive and controlling over the others than women. It is implied that male leaders are more susceptible to autocratic leadership, while female leaders are more likely to be democratic. In addition, Powell and Graves (2006) point out that the autocratic style is more prevalent among western societies.

Other leadership theories that imply the adaptation of behaviors as best fit to each situation are managerial grid theory (Blake & Mouton, 1985) and situational leadership theory (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1996). Both theories propose the

best leadership style is the one that engage in both task and interpersonal oriented
styles whenever the situation requires. However, managerial grid theory grades
leaders on a scale of one to nine based on two primary criteria: concern for people and
concern for production (see Figure 3). It reproduces five types of management style of
the grid: (1) country club management (1,9), which emphasizes people rather output,
(2) task management (9,1), which puts priority on output over people, (3) middle of
the road management (5,5), which refers to moderate concern for both production and
people, (4) impoverished management (1,1), which reflects failure of leader in
achieving work and people orientation, and (5) team management style (9,9), which
depicts the ideal leader who accomplishes both task and raising people's morale.
Powell and Graves (2006) suggest that the best leader in the managerial grid theory
tends to be more androgynous and able to combine the best parts of masculinity and
femininity.

Figure 3 : The Leadership Grid Theory

9   **Country Club Management (1,9)**   **Team Management (9,9)**

8

7

6

Concern for People   5   **Middle of the Road Management (5,5)**

4

3

2

1   **Impoverished Management (1,1)**   **Task Management (9,1)**

     1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
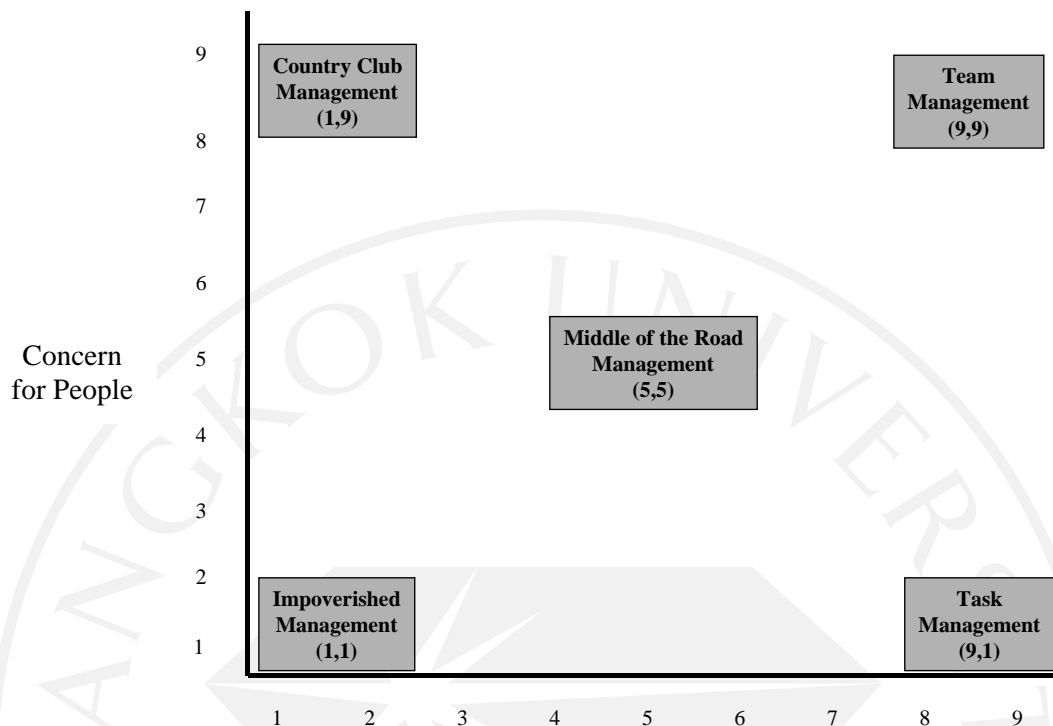
Source: Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1985). *The managerial grid III*. Houston, TX:

     Gulf.

The situational leadership theory is further developed from the basis of

leadership grid theory. Situation leadership theory suggests that leaders can adopt a

different combination of: (1) high task-high relationship, (2) low task-low

relationship, (3) high task-low relationship, or (4) low task-high relationship styles as

needed by their subordinates' capabilities and conditions (Hersey, Blanchard, &

Johnson, 1996). Thus, an effective leader under the situational approach should be

more flexible and adaptable from one type of gender identity to another. For example,

a combination of high task-high interpersonal leader implies an androgynous

managerial role, a low task-high interpersonal leader is related to femininity, and a high task-low interpersonal leader refers to more overt masculinity.

The most recent trend in leadership theorizing is transformational leadership. Two types of political leadership exist--transactional and transformational. During 1980s to 1990s, researchers have paid more attention to studying the dimension of transaction, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership, which are more "dynamic and holistic" (Powell & Graves, 2006, p.89), while "the concept of transformational leadership was developed as a contrast to transactional leadership" (Zorn & Violanti, 1993, p.755). Transactional leaders focus on clarifying subordinate's responsibilities, coaching their work, and providing feedback to team members. In contrast, transformational leaders motivate subordinates to work at their own best and establish themselves as the role models for followers through mutual trust. Powell and Graves (2006) comment that transformational leadership is superior to the transactional leadership because it can be adjusted to transactional leadership when necessary. Finally, laissez-faire leaders are marked by the incapability in managing people because they do not engage in either subordinate's development or in the giving of any directions (see Table 5).

Table 5 : Transactional versus Transformation Leadership

Transactional leader	
Contingent reward	Contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments
Management by exception (active)	Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action
Management by exception (passive)	Intervenes only if standards are not met
Laissez-faire	Abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions
Transformational leader	
Charisma	Provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust
Inspiration	Communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways
Intellectual stimulation	Promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem solving
Individualized consideration	Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches, advises

Source: Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership:

Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, p. 22.

Transformational theory can also be applied in terms of gender, which is an emerging issue in leadership and women. According to Parker (2001), men leaders use more instrumental communication, which is directive and unilateral style while women leaders use collaborative communication, which is more supportive and participative. As a result, women leadership is more transformational than men leaders. Even though the character of transformational leadership is not directly associated with gender stereotypes, the opportunity of females to perform better as transformational leaders is high due to their nurturing characteristics of femininity (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Powell & Graves, 2006;). This unique notion of female superiority directs many reviews of why female leaders have the possibility to perform better than male leaders under transformational leadership.

Women Leadership

Bem (1974) indicates that personal traits may influence a manager's leadership style, and models of transformational leadership emphasize feminine behaviors. Transactional leadership emphasizes masculine activities such as goal setting and rational exchange processes, while transformational leadership emphasizes the development of followers, the empowerment, and the creation of emotional bonds between leaders and followers (Kark, 2004).

According to Manning (2002), the transformational leadership permits women to simultaneously carry out leadership and gender roles. Women tend to have a more relationship-oriented style of leadership than men, and to emphasize on supporting and developing their employees. They tend to use a more democratic leadership style, encourage participation, share power and information, and attempt to enhance followers' self-worth. They prefer to lead through inclusion and rely on their

charisma, expertise, contacts, and interpersonal skills to influence others. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to use a directive command-and-control style. They rely on the formal authority of their managerial position (Sharpe, 2000).

Lamsa and Sintonen's study (2001) also confirms that women leaders tend to be more people-oriented, consultative, showing interpersonally-oriented behavior and concern for other people's satisfaction. They are likely to provide person-centered representations of their success, which include passion, people and communication skills, confidence, commonsense, impatience, and the ability to view change as challenging and rewarding.

Rosener (1990) finds that many women, who are successful with their feminine characters, adopt transformational leadership style by sharing power and information, as well as encouraging participation among their colleagues. Thus, women are perceived, and perceive themselves, as using transformational leadership styles more than men. Women were rated higher on all transformational factors in her study. In contrast, men exceeded women on the transactional scales of management-by-exception and on laissez-faire leadership. She names stereotypic feminine leadership style as the interactive style.

Interactive leadership involves the attempt to enhance other people's sense of self-worth and to energize followers (Rosener, 1990). It is similar to two-way model of communication that people share information, empower to individuals, and give-and-take through participative management. It exhibits the skills of negotiation and compromise (Pincus & DeBonis, 1994). In addition, female managers with higher levels of confidence and risk-taking propensities may adopt more cooperative and flexible leadership styles (Brenner & Schein, 1989).

Similarly, Wilson (1995) suggests that transactional leadership is usually associated with men, while women prefer a more transformational style. Wu, Lin, and Lee's study (2000) also indicates that transformational leadership style tends to be the better choice for female managers to adopt. It has been shown that female managers with a transformational leadership style would achieve better performance and increase the subordinate's satisfaction. Furthermore, these scholars suggest female managers to exercise their unique leadership styles rather than imitate those of male managers. Nevertheless, Russ, McNeilly, and Comer (1996) argue that high-performance managers appear to use both transactional and transformational leadership styles, and low performance managers tend to escape and make decisions irrationally.

Leadership in Thai Culture

Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (1999) define culture as behavior learned by people in society, which characterizes their way of life. Cultural values and traditions can influence the attitudes and behaviors of leaders in a number of ways. Cultural values are reflected in societal norms, and these norms specify acceptable forms of leadership behavior. The deviation from societal norms may result in diminished respect and social pressure from other members in the society. Cross-cultural research on leadership is dependent on the conceptual frameworks used to describe cultural dimensions. Hofstede's taxanomy (1997) has been used most often in cross-cultural research on leadership (Yukl, 2002).

Thais rank very high in the dimension of collectivism and high power distance, which differ markedly from those of many western countries, and even from those of some other Asian countries. Plotting the countries comparatively between

these two poles (individualism/collectivism), Thailand ranks 41st, out of 53 cultures

surveyed, indicating a strong collectivist society (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 1997).

The number one cultural value of Thailand is social harmony. Thais are other-oriented

in their conversations, which is an exclusive characteristic from a western perspective

(Komin, 1991).

Hofstede's masculinity-femininity dimension describes the degree of culture

values achievement or social support. Cultures rated high on masculinity evaluate

people based on their performance and acquisition of material things. Given the Thai

emphasis on social harmony, Thailand falls on the feminine, nurturing end of

Hofstede's masculinity-femininity category. In terms of leadership, most Thais are

reasonably comfortable with the notion that some individuals in society deserve to

have power (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 1997). Thais have grown to expect a leader to

demonstrate a blend of authoritarianism and kindness. The two dimensions woven in

Thai leadership are called *Phradet*, the traditional exercise of authority and toughness,

and *Phrakhun*, the traditional system of patronization (see Table 6).

Table 6 : *Phradet–Phrakhun* (Traditional Thai Leadership Model)

Phradet	Phrakhun
Delegate tasks and authority	Give money, shelter, food, clothing
Demand loyalty	Give care during sickness or other crisis
Demand that work be done	Give protection vis-à-vis outsiders
Dispense justice	Lend prestige (prestige from affiliations)
Administer discipline or punishment	Sponsorship: education, marriage, ordination, funeral
Play a mediating role	Give rewards
Exercise firmness	All of the above extended to members of the subordinate's family
Make policies	
Introduce improvement	

Source: Holmes, H., & Tangtongtavy, S. (1997). *Working with the Thais* (2nd ed.).

     Bangkok, Thailand: White lotus.

Jung, Bass, and Sosik (1995) argue that transformational leadership emerges more easily and is more effective in collective cultures than in individualistic cultures. Additionally, high level of group orientation among followers, high respect for authority, and the obedience in collectivistic cultures should enhance transformational process. High power distance societies should exhibit a less negative attitude towards authoritarian leadership. Thus, dominance displays of power might be suitable for

leaders in such societies. Managers in high power distance societies report more use of rules and procedures than do managers from low power distance countries. It seems that collectivism fosters collaborative, considerate, and empowering leadership practices. In contrary, high power distance allows for strong, authoritarian, and directive leaders. Leaders from collectivistic but low power distance cultures would enable others to act more than leaders from individualistic or high power distance cultures.

Fong's study (1998) finds North Americans use direct communication style when providing compliments. Varner and Beamer (1995) also believe that the Western thinking pattern is more likely to be the cause-and-effect. Cause-and effect is linear and logical style. It explains why Thais think that the westerners' discourses are too straight-forward. Many intercultural studies suggest that culture can influence leadership concepts, styles, and practices. In some cultures, one might need to take strong decisive action in order to be an effective leader, whereas in another culture consultation and democratic approach may be more applicable. From the researcher's point of view, the western culture is more linear and direct than Thai culture, and it seems like transformational leadership style is more appropriate in Thai society, even though some studies from western literature report that female manager will have higher influence over their subordinates when using more aggressive communication style (Carli, 1990).

As the leaders, one of their major responsibilities is to influence their team to achieve the shared purposes of the organizations. The persuasive style, thus, becomes a crucial qualification of an effective leader. The fourth major topic in this chapter

will discuss about persuasive style in relation to power and aggressiveness between genders within the relationship of supervisor and subordinate.

<div align="center">Aggressiveness in Persuasion and Gender Stereotypes</div>

In this part, the literature reviews center around the aggressiveness in influential strategies used by male and female leaders.

Carli (1999) discusses the gender differences in power between men and women that mediate influential level over people. There are five sources of power that are used to understand how people influence others: reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, and referent power (French & Raven, 1960). An individual has reward power when he or she can distribute the resources valued by others. On the contrary, a person possesses coercive power when he or she can inflict punishment. Supervisor-subordinate relationships fall mostly ruled under these headings because the supervisor can either promote or fire his or her subordinate. Expert power belongs to an individual who has superior knowledge or expertise in a certain thing. For example, doctors have more expert power than their patients to provide advice about their patients' health. Legitimate power is owned by someone in the position that is eligible to exert influence over the others. For example, children should respect their parents because of their parents' legitimate power over them. Finally, an individual with referent power is the one who can motivate others due to the social attraction to him or her. Friends and social group can have referent power over their friends or fellows.

Carli (1999) asserts that among the five sources of power, referent power is the only power evoked more effectively by females because expert or legitimate power are more predominant in men. Furthermore, females' natures of being warm,

sympathy, expressive, nurturing, and concerned about others also support the valuable

resource of their referent power (Basow & Rubenfeld, 2003; Michaud & Warner,

1997; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991).

"Power and influence are a part of everyday life" (Johnson, 1976, p. 100). It is

the amount of change that an individual tries to exert over others' lives in some way.

Males and females exercise their power differently (Johnson, 1976), and they are

likely to utilize different strategies when influencing others (Carli, 1999). This claim

is contradicted by Offermann and Kearney (1988), who believe that females and

males tend to have consistent influential strategy selection. Females are hypothesized

as using more indirect (Carli, 1999; Hirokawa, Mickey, & Miura, 1991; Johnson,

1976; Steffen & Eagly, 1985; Steil & Hillman, 1993) and more polite (Hirokawa et al.

(1991); Steffen & Eagly, 1985; Steil & Hillman, 1993) influential strategies compared

to males.

Steffen and Eagly (1985) state that there is a relationship between status and

influential style. They predict that high-status influencers are more likely to use a

direct and impolite style, whereas lower status influencers tend to use more indirect

and more polite style. In their study, females are postulated as the lower status gender,

and thus, tend to use a superpolite form when influencing males who have higher

status. This evidence is consistent with Lakoff's (1975) description of women's

language features that have been discussed in this chapter previously.

A cross-cultural study conducted by Steil and Hillman (1993) reports that

respondents, regardless of gender and culture, prefer more direct strategies to indirect

strategies. Korean and Japanese cultures, which represent more collectivistic cultures,

are less likely to use a confrontational strategy when it comes to the issue of politeness.

Carli (1990) comments that females are more influenced by both competent males and females. Males are most influenced by competent males, warm and competent females, and by the merely competent females, respectively. Therefore, she suggests that females should combine the warmth from cooperative style with the strength in competency to exert the highest influence over males.

On the contrary, Hirokawa et al. (1991) argue that legitimate power, rather than sex differences has a mediating effect over influential strategy selection. From their study, both male and female managers with legitimate power tend to use more direct with less polite influential strategies with their subordinates in both normal situations and when encountering resistance. Male and female managers who have reward and coercive power are more likely to use reward- and punishment strategies, whereas those managers who do not have any power are more likely to use face saving strategies.

Harper and Hirokawa (1988) apply the concept of gender stereotypes with persuasive strategies. The researchers found that, in obligatory work, male managers were more likely to use punishment strategy than female mangers, and female managers preferred to use more altruism strategy than male managers. Compared to male managers, female managers tend to rely on a greater variety of strategies when dealing with female and male subordinates.

Conversely, Offermann and Kearney (1988) argue that female and male managers have more consistency in strategy selection. They also address the issue of double problem in their study. Higher status influencers are expected to use more

direct and less polite tactics with lower status receivers. Hence, female managers are perceived to be both easily influenced and less influencing concurrently. Despite this incongruence, both studies have similarity in positioning the persuasive strategies selection by male and female managers. Female managers, according to Offermann and Kearney's study, are likely to use more dependent/personal and negotiation strategies, whereas male managers are more likely to use more coercion/offering rewards than female managers.

When considering aggressiveness in persuasion, Burgoon et al. (1983) find that males are expected to use more verbally aggressive persuasion, whereas females are expected to use non-verbally aggressive persuasion. They comment that threat and aversive stimulation are the most likely influential strategies used by males, while promise, pregiving, positive moral appeal, and altruism are among the most common influential strategies used by females.

DeTurck (1985) believes that gender of persuaders and persuadees influences influential strategy selections. However, his study emphasizes the dimension of interpersonal versus noninterpersonal relationships. He confirms that interpersonal relationships tend to introduce the reward-oriented message strategies, while noninterpersonal relationships tend to introduce punishment-oriented strategies. Nevertheless, his study fails to support the hypothesis that males are more likely to invoke punishment-oriented persuasion, and females are more likely to invoke reward-oriented persuasion whenever respondents confront with noncompliant persuasive targets.

On the other hand, Hirokawa, Kodama, and Harper (1990) have questioned whether either amount of power or gender actually accounts for differences in

influential styles used by male and female managers. They found differences between high- and low-power male managers. The same result applies with high- and low-power female managers. Both high power male and female managers tend to employ punishment such as threats and warnings, while low power male and female managers tend to resort rational strategies such as counsel and explanation. Thus, they conclude power difference is the mediating factor that can be used to anticipate persuasive strategies of male and female managers.

In 1991, Hirokawa et al. tested the assumption of power and persuasive strategies employed by male and female managers. In this study, they chose to focus on the legitimate power and persuasive strategy selection. They conclude that neither sex of managers nor subordinates has an effect on directness or politeness of persuasive strategies evoked.

Intensity is another moderating factor of persuasion effectiveness (Hamilton, Huner, & Burgoon, 1990). Males who are considered to be a highly credible source are more likely to use high intensity language, whereas females are more likely to invoke lower intensity language. A violation to gender expectation tends to reduce persuasiveness (Hamilton et al., 1990).

Similarly, Burgoon et al. (1983) state that when people deviate their persuasive style from a gender stereotype, this deviation can result in less persuasive effectiveness. In their study, males are more effective when they conform to normative strategies of using aggressive persuasive strategies than when they violate expectation with less aggressive persuasive strategies. Likewise, females are expected to use less aggressive persuasive message, and when they deviate from the expectation, they are negatively judged as less effective. Nevertheless, a study by

Holtgraves and Lasky (1999) generates a contradictory result, since powerful language is evaluated as more persuasive than powerless language regardless of speaker and respondent gender.

Correspondingly, Lituchy and Wiswall (1991) conduct a study about speech patterns between gender roles based on the assumption that a female's speech is less credible and believable than male's speech. They find no significant results from gender of listener and speaker. Furthermore, male listeners tend to have a bias toward accepting only masculine speech pattern, while female listeners accept both masculine and feminine speech patterns.

Interestingly, the notion of gender, language, and influence is complicated even further in Carli's study (1990). The researcher has tested two basic types of speech: tentative and aggressive. The stereotype of a woman equates with lower status with tentative speech, whereas men are more aggressive in speech style and engage in higher status and influence. The result indicates that women can better influence men by using tentative speech than aggressive speech. On the other hand, women are more influenced within the same sex by using more aggressive style since they would be perceived as more competent and knowledgeable.

A study about influential tactics in Thai organizations found that both supervisors and subordinates use soft tactics more frequently than other tactics such as pressure and regulation, third party tactics, which symbolize the harmonious nature of Thai culture. However, Thai male supervisors have different preference in tactical choices from Thai female supervisors; they report more use of third-party tactics (Noypayak, 1999).

A meta-analysis conducted regarding to the effectiveness between male and female leaders found only a slight difference between genders due to small effect size in the methodology (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klongsky, 1992), whereas a study by Thai researcher confirms that sex-differences influence subordinates' perceptions toward women leaders (Swasburi, 2000). There is incongruence in the results in research dealing with effectiveness between genders in leadership styles and aggressiveness in persuasion. In other words, the answer to the question of which leadership and persuasive strategies will be the most effective when applied by males and females is inconclusive.

Another attempt at answering this question will hopefully be helpful in reaching a conclusion about the issue of effectiveness is when males and females either conform or violate the gender stereotypes with expected gender orientation strategies. This notion leads to researcher's attempt in designing the questionnaire to determine of how credible Thai male and females managers when employing leadership and aggressive persuasive strategies in interacting with their subordinates, and what will be the outcomes when those styles conform and deviate from gender stereotypes in the Thai context? The methodology of this study will be further elaborated in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

"It's amazing what one can accomplish

when one doesn't know what one can't do."

-- T. L. Holder

This chapter describes the methodological design used in conducting the

study. First, the research questions are listed at the beginning, followed by a

description of the research subjects and the protocol used to secure their participation.

Then, the variables are explained as well as the instruments through which data and

research tools are employed. Next, the procedures of data collection and data analysis

are provided to explain how the data were collected and interpreted to answer the

research questions. Finally, the pretest and demographic data are elucidated, revealing

how the fieldwork commenced; thus, revealing the characteristics of respondents

participating in this study.

"The research question affects the choice of setting, participants, variables of

interest, and data collection and analysis" (Cooper & Bosco, 1999, p. 481). The

researcher applied the mixed-approach design to solicit answers about subordinates'

perceptions of Thai male and female supervisors. Particularly to explore perceived

differences in terms of leadership and aggressive persuasive style–what are the

perceived differences and why.

Data were gathered through surveys and semi-structured interviews of both

male and female subordinates. Downs, DeWine, and Greenbaum (1994) addressed the

merit of employing both quantitative and interpretative data in the organizational

communication discipline because the questionnaire itself might not provide the

richness of information required for accurate measurement and explanation.

<div align="center">Subjects</div>

Population

      As a study exploring organizational communication, a target population of

employees from the business sector was identified. The subjects of this study were

employed in the retailing and consumer products industry–the predominant business

category in Thailand. According to the National Statistical Office [NSO], retailing and

consumer products companies were the largest business category in Thailand,

accounting for 36.7 percent of total 833,842 business units (NSO, 2004). This number

was far beyond the second largest category, hotels and restaurants, which accounted

for only 14 percent. Table 7 displays the statistical data of major business categories

of Thailand in 2004.

Table 7 : Statistical Data of Major Business Categories in Thailand

Business activities	Number of business unit
Retailing and consumer products	306,138
Hotel and restaurant	116,647
Manufacturing	116,341
Entertainment and other services	90,960
Automobile - selling and maintenance	70,752
Real estate	34,726
Wholesaling	34,680
Equipment rental, research, and other business development	33,768
Transportation and tourism	16,898
Construction	8,875
Computer and related IT	4,057

Source: NSO (National Statistical Office). (2004) *Number of employees in Thai*

business companies categorized by economic activity in 2004. Retrieved

December 14, 2006, from

http://service.nso.go.th/nso/g_data23/stat_23/toc_21/21.4.1-25-47.xls

Sampling Plan

A rule of thumb pertaining to the samples size is "the more, the better" (Light,

Singer, & Willet, 1990, p. 186). The larger the sample included in the study, the

higher the statistical power the study has, resulting in a lower chance of making Type

II errors and increasing the chances of finding the real effects. However, compromise is often required when considering the relationship between "theoretical sampling requirements and practical limitations" in implementing of a study such as the limitation of time and cost (Oppenheim, 1992, p. 43). According to Tuckman (1999), there are three factors to determine the sample size: (1) the alpha level, (2) the statistical power, and (3) the effect size. This study was speculated to have an alpha level of .05, statistical power of .8, and medium effect size of .25.

The sample group was selected using a simple random sampling method from the list of Thai retailing and consumer products category in Thailand Company Information (TCI) 2003-2004 (A.R. Business, 2003). This comprehensive directory contained more than 2,000 leading companies identified by the Commercial Registration Department Ministry of Commerce and the Stock Exchange of Thailand.

Because this survey evaluated subordinates' perceptions of the credibility of their supervisors in a particular industry, the respondents needed to be Thai employees securing current position with any retailing and consumer products companies. In addition, subjects needed to have worked with their immediate supervisors for at least six months to ensure sufficient experiences with the supervisor-subordinate dyadic in the workplace.

The human resource departments of 11 companies were contacted (see Appendix A) to seek permission and assistance in distributing questionnaires to their employees. During the initial contacts, introductory letters were submitted, introducing the researcher, the criteria to be used to identify respondents needed for participation, a sample of questionnaires, as well as a certified letter issued by the Graduate School of Bangkok University to accentuate the academic purposes of the

study (see Appendix B). Once the request was approved, the researcher coordinated with responsible officers to assign the purposive sampling method during the respondent selection process to achieve equal ratio between sexes of supervisors who were going to be evaluated and a minimum period of six months in securing current position of respondents.

<div align="center">Variables</div>

Independent Variables

There were three independent variables that were hypothesized to have an influence on the perceived credibility in this research design: sexes of supervisor, socio-communicative styles, and verbal aggressiveness.

Sex of immediate supervisor

Sex was generally defined as the biological characteristics of an individual. It displayed genetic qualities and differentiated women from men. As Allen (1998) had brought up the issue of measuring nature versus nurture in gendered research, it was important to clarify the intention of this study to compare credibility between sexes of immediate supervisor. Therefore, it was more suitable to use a biological rather than psychological factor to identify supervisors because the subjects could explicitly identify the differences, thus, it lessened the confusion in comparing which characteristic of communication best represented high credibility.

Socio-communicative styles

A key categorization found in many leadership theories was having either a task or a social orientation. Following table provides an illustration of the leadership traits prominent in organizational communication, and is accentuated in this dissertation (see Table 8).

Table 8 : Summary of Key Categorization in Leadership Theories

Leadership theories	Task orientation	Social orientation
Traditional leadership theory	Task accomplishment	Interpersonal style
Decision making style	Autocratic	Democrative
Managerial grid theory	Concern for production	Concern for people
Situational leadership theory	High task–low relationship	High relationship–low task
Transformational leadership	Transactional leader	Transformational leader
Thai leadership	*Phradet*	*Phrakhun*
Socio-communicative styles	Assertiveness	Responsiveness
Gender orientation	Masculinity	Femininity

Thomas, McCroskey, and Richmond (1994) indicated that the two most commonly referenced dimensions of socio-communicative style were assertiveness and responsiveness. Assertiveness was characterized as being "independent, dominant, aggressive, competitive, and forceful," while responsiveness was characterized as being "helpful, sympathetic, compassionate, sincere, and friendly" (p. 109). These two characteristics of assertiveness and responsiveness in socio-communicative styles are comparable to the task and social oriented leadership styles explained by Powell and Graves (2006), respectively.

In addition, Anderson and Martin (1995) agreed with Bem (1974) in associating socio-communicative style with gender orientation. Assertive individuals were described as being more masculine, whereas responsive individuals were described as being more feminine.

McCroskey and Richmond (1992) positioned that instead of attributing "androgyny" (Bem, 1974) to an individual who possessed both assertive and responsive skills, he/she could be described as competent. On the other hand, individual who did not have assertive and responsive skills should be described as noncompetent. Likewise, the high assertive/low responsive person was aggressive, and the person with low assertive/high responsive was submissive. Figure 4 compared the socio-communicative styles of McCroskey and Richmond and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI).

Figure 4 : Comparison between Socio-communicative Styles and Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI)

		Aggressive (Masculinity)	Competent (Androgyny)
Assertiveness	High	Aggressive (Masculinity)	Competent (Androgyny)
	Low	Noncompetent (Undifferentiate)	Submissive (Femininity)
		Low	High
			Responsiveness

Note : BSRI is presented in parenthesis

Researchers used socio-communicative style to measure credibility in both classroom (Martin, Mottet, & Chesebro, 1997) and organizational studies (Teven, McCroskey, & Richmond, 2006). Results showed that individuals whose characters

were both assertive and responsive would be more likely to be perceived as credible by their subordinates.

In the present study, applying socio-communicative style as a predictor variable helped to identify the congruency between sex of supervisor and his/her gender orientation toward socio-communicative style in leadership as perceived by subordinates. In other words, the respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires to find out which type among four dimensions of socio-communicative styles (competent, aggressive, submissive, noncompetent) that their immediate supervisors were apt to be.

Verbal aggressiveness

The last independent variable was the level of verbal aggressiveness in persuasion. There were two dimensions in this variable: aggressive and less aggressive. Infante and Wigley (1986) defined verbal aggressiveness as personality traits that "attack the self-concepts of other people instead of, or in addition to, their positions on a topic of communication" (p. 61).

This study examined subordinates' perceptions of Thai supervisors' attempts to persuade. Verbal aggressiveness was employed as the predictor to determine their credibility in persuasion as it is widely used to measure speaker credibility in diverse contexts such as organizational, interpersonal, and classroom communication (Cole & McCroskey, 2003; Myers, 2001). Cole and McCroskey (2003) revealed the negative relationship between verbal aggressiveness and source credibility, but did not report on perceived credibility of male and female supervisors/leaders, a point that was extended in this study.

Dependent Variable

Credibility was applied as the unit of measurement in order to compare the effectiveness in communication between male and female supervisors. Credibility was the "judgments made by a perceiver concerning the believability of a communicator" (O'Keefe, 1990, p. 130). Credibility proves to play a crucial function in other theories of persuasion like Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) Elaboration Likelihood Model.

According to McCroskey and Taven (1999), credibility has two levels of dimensions: primary and secondary. This study focused exclusively on the primary dimension, which was comprised of expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill. In order to be an expert in something, a persuader should know about the topic on which he or she was going to persuade. Furthermore, the persuader needed not only to be knowledgeable in what he or she was saying, but also truthful or trusted in order to attain credibility. Finally, a persuader who had knowledge and trustworthiness, but lacked good intention would not be perceived as credible by persuadees. Thus, the persuader should exhibit his or her concern in reaction to receivers' concerns about goodwill.

In sum, the respondents were asked to assess the level of credibility of their immediate supervisors. Credibility scores of male and female supervisors were compared in terms of their socio-communicative styles and level of verbal aggressiveness, all of which were compared and analyzed based on the primary dimensions of credibility: expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill.

Instruments

The questionnaire constructed in this study derived from three related scales: (1) Assertiveness-Responsiveness measure (to assess socio-communicative styles of

leadership), (2) Verbal Aggressiveness scale, and (3) Source Credibility scale. Approval to use the scales was granted by those responsible for the development of the instruments, following an initial e-mail contact (see Appendix C).

Instrument validity, particularly with respect to consistency in the meaning of language, was one concern when translating the instruments from English to Thai. According to Tuckman (1999), "validity affects observers' certainty that the research results can be accepted" (p. 6). Therefore, the researcher employed the back-translation method when translating all instruments into Thai language. In addition, the context of each scale instruction was adapted to fit the organizational situation reflected in the supervisor-subordinate relationships. Appendices D and E include questionnaires in English and Thai, respectively, that were employed in this study.

In order to minimize the technical terms in the questionnaire like socio-communicative style, which could cause misunderstanding to respondents, the researcher adjusted the instructions and wording to fit with respondents' organizational context so as to provide a better explanation in the respondents' language. The questionnaire, thus, comprised five major parts: (1) the demographic information of supervisor such as sex, age, and level in organization; (2) the scale measuring supervisor's personality characteristics to assess socio-communicative styles in leadership; (3) the scale measuring supervisor's influential behaviors to assess verbal aggressiveness in persuasion; (4) the scale measuring supervisor's credibility to assess source credibility level; and, (5) the demographic information of respondent such as sex, age, department, and so on.

Assertiveness-Responsiveness Measure

The socio-communicative style of supervisor was evaluated through an Assertiveness-Responsiveness measure constructed by Richmond and McCroskey (1990). In the 20-item measure of socio-communicative style, there were 10 adjectives representing assertive behaviors (defends own beliefs, independent, forceful, has strong personality, assertive, dominant, willing to take a stand, acts as a leader, aggressive, and competitive) and another 10 adjectives characterizing responsive behaviors (helpful, responsive to others, sympathetic, compassionate, sensitive to the needs of others, sincere, gentle, warm, tender, and friendly.)

In this study, employees reflected on the statement "The degree to which you believe each of these characteristics applies to your supervisor," to estimate his/her supervisor's socio-communicative style. Response was solicited from a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The scores for both dimensions were independently summed to discover the level of assertiveness and responsiveness of each supervisor. Those supervisors were, then, labeled as one of the following socio-communicative styles:

(a) Noncompetent: supervisors earning low assertive and responsive scores,

(b) Submissive: supervisors earning low assertive but high responsive scores,

(c) Aggressive: supervisors earning high assertive but low responsive scores, and

(d) Competent: supervisors earning high assertive and responsive scores.

Verbal Aggressiveness Scale

Verbal aggressiveness was measured by a scale created by Infante and Wigley, testing the personality traits of people when arguing or persuading others. The scale used in this study was the 10-item version of Infante and Wigley (1986). Reliability of

this version was tested in spousal (Infante, Chandler, & Rudd, 1989) and supervisor-subordinate relationships (Infante & Gorden, 1991); they were both internally consistent. Lim (1990) also adapted the Verbal Aggressiveness scale in the other-report format. It was found that verbal aggressiveness was used more extensively when the conversational partner used unfriendly resistance in a persuasive situation.

In this study, the respondents were requested to indicate the degree to which the listed behaviors were employed by their immediate supervisors when their supervisors were trying to influence them or others. Response was solicited from a five-point Likert scale ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). Of 10 sentences describing different influential situations, five sentences characterized aggressive behaviors while another five sentences characterized less aggressive behaviors. The scores, after scale reversing, were summed, revealing whether the supervisors were verbally aggressive in persuasion.

Source Credibility Scale

The last scale used in this study was the Source Credibility scale created by McCroskey and Taven. The concept of source credibility was developed from Aristotle's dimension of ethos and was identified as one of the most significant skills/characteristics in persuasion (McCroskey & Taven, 1999). The alpha reliabilities for these measures were: expertise, .85; trustworthiness, .92; and goodwill, .92. The overall reliability when the three characteristics were combined was .94. The correlations with the overall credibility score were: expertise, .78; trustworthiness, .92; and goodwill, .89.

In the source credibility scale, different adjectives relating to skills required of effective persuasion were listed, and respondents were asked to rate them on a five-

point semantic differential scale. The semantic differential scale was the bipolar adjective scale, which is used to measure subjects' attitudes (Tuckman, 1999). The adjective pairs under each category were arranged in both directions to minimize respondent bias. For example, in the first two adjectives under category of expertise, the intelligent and the untrained adjectives were placed on the same side to avoid either positive or negative polarity on one side.

McCroskey's credibility scale applied in this study was the revised version from 1999, which measured the three primary dimensions of speaker credibility. There were a total of 18 items that symbolized the three dimensions -- expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill. The scale characterized the measurement unit by comparing the credibility between male and female supervisor from his/her subordinate's perception. The scores in each dimension were summed and compared to identify any significant differences between subjects.

<center>Pretest</center>

According to Oppenheim (1992), "questionnaires do not emerge fully-fledged; they have to be created or adapted, fashioned and developed to maturity after many abortive test flights" (p. 47). A pretest was, therefore, conducted to ensure the reliability prior to launching the full administration of the questionnaire. In this pretest, the researcher aimed to determine the clarity of the Thai-version of the instrument, the instructions, the format, as well as to seek additional comments from the respondents which could be valuable for questionnaire improvement. The Thai-version questionnaire was initially translated by the researcher, then back translated by a Ph.D. student in School of Linguistic from Chulalongkorn University. Fifty employees (not included as respondents in the full study) from one selected company

were approached to complete the questionnaires as well as answer the open-ended questions for any suspicious terms or unclear instructions they encountered. Forty-two questionnaires from 18 male and 24 female employees were returned for analysis.

The scale reliability in terms of Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the three scales was assessed. The overall reliability of Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale was equal to .92; with .86 for Assertiveness and .93 for Responsiveness. The reliability of Verbal Aggressiveness scale was .69. The overall reliability of the Source Credibility scale was .95; with .85 for expertise, .92 for trustworthiness, and .91 for goodwill. Overall, the reliability of the instruments was moderate to high, ranging from .69 to .95. According to Aron et al. (2005), a good measure in social sciences should have a Cronbach's alpha of at least .6 or .7 and preferably closer to .9. Hence, all three scales were appropriate for the present research.

The length and difficulty of the instruments was a concern. There were total of 56 questions in each questionnaire, including a 10- and 20-item Likert scale and a 18-item semantic differential scale. In order to prevent the respondents from being confused between the Likert and semantic differential scales, examples of each type were inserted in the instructions to serve as illustrations of how to complete each scale. However, several respondents commented that although an example was provided in the instructions, it was still difficult to complete the answers correctly because of the opposite position of the positive and negative adjectives. One subject responded, "It is easy to make a mistake because of misinterpretation. It is like we are doing a psychological test." When the researcher checked the profiles of those respondents, they were bachelor graduates and above. Whereas this study was intended to study a large group of employees with no restriction on education or

employment level in organization, it was decided to slightly modify the format to make it less complicated for the subjects who were from diverse educational backgrounds.

In the original version of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to identify sex and length of working period with their immediate supervisors. Some respondents remarked that their supervisors were expatriates. Thus, a screening question asking about the nationality of supervisors was included in the demographic section of the final version of the questionnaire since this study was not designed to examine the cross-cultural context.

In terms of translation, the results found that some words were not well defined in Thai. A few respondents recommended some different words as replacement based on their understandings. The researcher reconsidered the more appropriate words, then the revised version of questionnaire was sent to two persons for different purposes: (1) a linguistic lecturer in Thammasat University for a final check on the translation, and (2) a lecturer holding a doctorate degree in organizational communication in Assumption University to review the overall consistency and clarity of the questionnaire. Finally, their comments were used to prepare the final version of questionnaire.

<div align="center">Procedures of Data Collection</div>

Quantitative–Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaires were distributed to 620 employees via responsible officers in 11 retailing and consumer products companies. The researcher coordinated closely with those officers in delivering the surveys to and collecting them from the respondents. In the cover letter to the respondents, the researcher introduced herself,

the objectives of the survey, the instructions, and the confidential procedure of data collection before asking them to complete the questionnaires (see Appendices D and E). The respondents were given approximately two weeks to complete and return the questionnaires to the assigned person in their office, or directly mail the completed questionnaires back to the researcher in a self-addressed envelope that was provided.

The questionnaire collection process actually took almost a month because the assigned representatives in some companies needed additional time to follow-up. Finally, 518 questionnaires (87.43 percent response rate) were returned to the researcher for data coding and analysis. In this study, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Windows 15.0) was used to test the hypotheses.

Qualitative–Semi-structured Interview

The researcher applied the triangulation of data to confirm that the measures were externally valid. Semi-structured interviews were employed to obtain deeper understanding of respondents' perceptions of their supervisors. In the semi-structured interview, the sequence of questions was arranged, yet could be adjusted or changed in correspond with the unexpected interviewing situation (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

After approaching employees from many retailing and consumer products companies, there were 25 persons who granted the interview. To select 10 employees who were qualified to be the interviewees, the researcher asked them to fill out the screening questionnaire in order to group them in relation to their immediate supervisors' characteristics. This short questionnaire was similar to the questionnaire from the survey except it included only immediate supervisors' demographic characteristics and the scale in part 1 (Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale). It allowed

the study to cross analyze the interviews in order to explore the common concepts and themes.

The researcher interviewed 10 subjects who were identified as subordinates in a specified industry–five male and five female subordinates were selected. Another requirement in identifying the interview subjects was the dynamic of the relationship. Therefore, the following characteristics was used to prescreen interviewing participants: male subordinate with male supervisor, female subordinate with female supervisor, male subordinate with female supervisor, and female subordinate with male supervisor.

Open-ended questions about supervisor-subordinate communication were asked of the 10 employees selected for interviews. The interview questions are provided in Appendix F. Open-ended questions could lessen the predetermined responses (Patton, 1990). Table 9 provides a description of the 10 subjects selected for the interview.

Table 9 : Assortment of the Interviewees

Interviewee number	Sex of interviewee	Age of interviewee	Sex of interviewee's supervisor	Socio-communicative style of interviewee's supervisor
1	Female	35	Female	Competent
2	Male	45	Male	Competent
3	Male	32	Male	Aggressive
4	Male	31	Female	Submissive
5	Female	36	Male	Submissive
6	Female	41	Male	Submissive
7	Male	56	Male	Aggressive
8	Female	52	Female	Noncompetent
9	Female	33	Male	Aggressive
10	Male	36	Male	Noncompetent

Prior to the interview, the researcher explained the importance of anonymity and the confidential procedures of this study. In addition, permission was sought and granted to digitally record the conversation on an MP3 player. A brief introduction about the research was given to the interviewees, and, then, the interviewees were guided through the interview questions, basically seeking experiences and opinions from them–they were informed that there were no right or wrong answers and that all comments were welcome. This assurance addressed a concern with interviewing methodology as "some interviewees fear that the researcher will be judging them on

the quality of their answers" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 115), especially when they realized that they were talking to a Ph.D. student.

If the interviews were conducted in the interviewees' workplace, the researcher would request a private area such as a quiet corner in the lounge or a small meeting room, to assure quality recording. Consequently, the interviewees were deemed to be more comfortable to criticize or address any issues when they felt no one was around. As Kvale (1996) illustrated, "the interviewer must establish an atmosphere in which the subject feels safe enough to talk freely about his or her experiences and feelings" (p. 125). Each interview took approximately 30 to 45 minutes. Then the recordings were transcribed manually and analyzed in addition to statistically findings from the questionnaires.

<div align="center">Data Analysis</div>

Quantitative–Statistics

Data screening

Out of 518 questionnaires received, 108 questionnaires were screened out in order to secure the data quality. Among 108 questionnaires, 62 questionnaires were disregarded because the respondents evaluated their expatriate supervisors. The rest, 46 questionnaires, were disregarded because of too many missing values within a single questionnaire.

There were some items in the questionnaire that were crucial and could not be neglected. The non-response for sex of supervisor as well as missing value of more than one item in any of three summated scales (20-item Assertiveness-Responsiveness, 10-item Verbal Aggressiveness, or 18-item Source Credibility) were used as criteria for excluding a particular questionnaire entirely. Since the sex of

supervisor was the only independent variable in RQ1, a missing value of this question

yielded invalid analysis. In addition, more than one missing value within a scale could

also cause the inaccurate summated scores. As a result, 410 surveys were identified as

meeting the requirements to be included in the data analysis.

Treatment of missing data

The value "99" replaced any missing responses after the questionnaires were

screened, then the total scores in each scale were computed based on MEAN

technique.

Reversed scale

The Verbal Aggressiveness scale was reversed prior to data examination.

Questions 1, 3, 6, 8, and 9 depicted the less aggressive manners in persuasion; hence,

they were reversed to be consistent with other questions to compute the total verbal

aggressiveness scores.

Reliability and validity

In social and behavioral science studies like this one, the variables were

derived from questions asking for attitudes or observations of the respondents toward

a particular subject. Reliability was essential in measuring the degree of stability and

consistency of the variables. A statistic called Cronbach's alpha, which is the most

widely used measure of reliability (Aron, Aron, & Coups, 2005), was used to check

the internal consistency of the scales.

Factor analysis was also used to determine which variables in the scale were

likely to be correlated and grouped together, and each group of variables was called a

factor (Aron, Aron & Coups, 2005). All three scales were examined by the use of

Principle Component Analysis to insure the validity when applying to the Thai

context.

Descriptive statistics

To summarize and let the data be more understandable, descriptive statistics

were computed to find the means, standard deviations, ranges, minimum, maximum,

sums, and so on. The descriptive statistics were explained through two major parts:

the supervisor and the subordinate data sets.

Cross tabulations

Instead of employing frequency distribution, which could portray one variable

at a time, the cross tabulations enhanced the understanding and interpreting data from

multiple views especially when the analysis was derived from many variables like this

study. The data were interpreted by cross analyzing the sex of supervisor from

different perspectives such as level of supervisor, level of verbal aggressiveness, and

so on.

Three-way multivariate analysis of variance (3-way MANOVA)

The criterion variables comprised three dimensions of credibility (expertise,

trustworthiness, and goodwill), therefore, multivariate analysis of variance was

employed as the statistical procedure. Aron et al. (2005) noted that multivariate

analysis of variance or MANOVA was the "analysis of variance in which there is

more than one dependent variable" (p. 393). MANOVA was used to test the

differences between different combinations of dependent variables. As a result, the

scores of credibility among four types of socio-communicative style as well as verbal

aggressiveness level were compared in order to find out which type yields the highest

credibility.

The last two research questions (RQ4 and RQ5), the explanation of how the sex of a supervisor interplays with socio-communicative styles and verbal aggressiveness, were explored. Since this research studied the interaction effect of sex, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness toward the credibility level of the supervisor, three-way MANOVA was selected as the data analysis tool. The effect of more than one independent variable was examined concurrently by grouping them in different combination clusters. When all possible outcomes were combined, it became a matrix in the form of a contingency table.

The way data were arranged in combination groups provided an advantage in statistical analysis because a researcher could study any number of independent and dependent variables simultaneously, and he/she did not need to double the sample size. Another advantage was the identification of interaction effects. An interaction effect was "an effect in which the impact of one variable depends on the level of the other variable" (Aron et al., 2005, p. 313).

To check the main effect, the researcher looked at the marginal means, which were the means of only one variable. For the interaction effect, the researcher looked at the cell mean, which was the means of combination group in factorial design. The assumption was that men were more likely to be assertive in leadership and to use more verbally aggressive persuasion, whereas women were more likely to be responsive in leadership and use non-verbally aggressive persuasion. In addition, the deviation from gender stereotypes could result in a less favorable outcome. Hence, the assertive behavior and verbally aggressive persuasion were most appropriate with male supervisors, which could be regarded as the main effect.

However, when female supervisors applied a similar strategy, there might be an interaction effect that occurred, which meant that their credibility might turn out to be less positive than it was for male supervisors. The confirmation toward these assumptions could be found through the comparison of credibility levels among different combinations of socio-communicative style and verbal aggressiveness.

Post-hoc analysis

If the null hypothesis was rejected, it meant that the population means between groups were not the same. However, it was not enough to report only the significant difference of the study. The researcher better find out further, if the means between groups were not equal, which group was higher compared to which group. This kind of information was useful in data analysis and the development of recommendations. For this reason, Tukey's HSD was employed to identify which communication style of supervisor was different from the others.

Qualitative-Typologies

There were two key steps in interpreting the interviews – preparing the transcripts and coding the data (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). In addition to digitally recording the interviews, the researcher took notes for any striking concepts and nonverbal language triggered by interviewees throughout the conversation. After transcribing the interviews, the researcher compared and contrasted the repeating ideas and opinions emerging from the review of each transcription. Typologies were the technique used to consolidate related concepts and group them together (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). The theme was, then, identified in order to answer the research questions.

Demographic Data

The total sample size, where the unqualified data had been excluded, was equal to 410 subordinates. Because the questionnaire was constructed based on the other-reported format, two groups of demographic data, subordinates' and supervisors', were presented accordingly.

Subordinate's Demographic Data

There were six characteristics of subordinates reported, which were sex, age, working level, number of years with organization, department, and education.

Regarding subordinates' sex, 409 subordinates were reported. Male subordinates represented 38 percent of the entire sample, while female subordinates represented 61.7 percent (see Table 10).

Table 10 : Sex of Subordinates

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	156	38.0
Female	253	61.7
Not identified	1	.3
Total	410	100.0

In terms of age, the largest groups of subordinates were either between 30 to 39 years old (48.1%) or between 20 to 29 years old (31.2%) (see Table 11).

Table 11 : Age of Subordinates

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
Less than 20	3	.7
Between 20 to 29	128	31.2
Between 30 to 39	197	48.1
Between 40 to 49	69	16.8
50 and above	13	3.2
Total	410	100.0

For working level, 406 subordinates were reported. More than half of the subordinates worked in the operational level (51.5%), and more than a quarter of them were the supervisors (25.9%) (see Table 12).

Table 12 : Working Level of Subordinates

Working level	Frequency	Percent
Operation	211	51.5
Supervisor	106	25.9
Manager	76	18.5
Executive	6	1.4
Other	4	1.0
Specialist	3	.7
Not identified	4	1.0
Total	410	100.0

When considering the number of years that the respondents worked with their organizations, the largest percentage of subordinates either had worked between 1 to 5 years (35.1%) or 10 years and above (37.3%) (see Table 13).

Table 13 : Number of Years Working with Organizations

Number of years	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1	60	14.6
Between 1 to 5	144	35.1
More than 5 but less than 10	53	13.0
10 and above	153	37.3
Total	410	100.0

In terms of subordinates' department, 408 subordinate were reported. The largest number of subordinates worked in the sales or marketing departments (42.2%) (see Table 14).

Table 14 : Department of Subordinates

Department	Frequency	Percent
Sales or marketing	173	42.2
Accounting or finance	70	17.1
Other departments	62	15.1
Human resources or administration	41	10.0
Information technology	39	9.5
Production or R&D	23	5.6
Not identified	2	.5
Total	410	100.0

Note : Other departments included customer service, business development,

warehouse, logistics, and purchasing.

For the subordinates' education, almost two-thirds of them graduated in the

bachelor level (61.0%); followed by the master's level or higher (21.5%) (see Table

15).

Table 15 : Education of Subordinates

Education	Frequency	Percent
Under bachelor	70	17.1
Bachelor	250	61.0
Master or higher	88	21.5
Other	2	.4
Total	410	100.0

Supervisor's Demographic Data

There were four characteristics of supervisors reported, which are sex, age, working level, and number of years the respondents working with their supervisors.

Male supervisors represented 46.3 percent of the entire sample, while female supervisors represented 53.7 percent (see Table 16).

Table 16 : Sex of Supervisors

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	190	46.3
Female	220	53.7
Total	410	100.0

In terms of age, 407 supervisors were reported. Supervisors were either between 40 to 49 years old (43.4%) or between 30 to 39 years old (37.1%) (see Table 17).

Table 17 : Age of Supervisors

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
Between 20 to 29	18	4.4
Between 30 to 39	152	37.1
Between 40 to 49	178	43.4
50 and above	59	14.4
Not identified	3	.7
Total	410	100.0

For the working level, 407 supervisors were reported. The supervisors were either managers (47.6%) or executives (38.3%) (see Table 18).

Table 18 : Working Level of Supervisors

Working level	Frequency	Percent
Manager	195	47.6
Executive	157	38.3
Supervisor	53	12.9
Specialist	2	.5
Not identified	3	.7
Total	410	100.0

Finally, when considering the number of years that the respondents worked with their supervisors, one-half of the total respondents worked between 1 to 5 years with their immediate supervisors (50.0%) (see Table 19).

Table 19 : Number of Years Working with Immediate Supervisors

Number of years	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1	89	21.7
Between 1 to 5	205	50.0
More than 5 but less than 10	70	17.1
10 and above	46	11.2
Total	410	100.0

This chapter wraps up the procedures of *how* the researcher employed the tools and procedures to find out the answers of research questions. The next chapter reveals the results discovered from the data collected in this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

"I feel there is something unexplored about woman

that only a woman can explore."

-- Georgia O'Keefee,

Artist

The purpose of this chapter is to report the findings of research questions related to the conceptual model explained in chapter three. Factor analysis and categorization of variables are explicated to address about the validity and reliability of the results. Then, the five research questions are explained in the form of statistical findings. Finally, qualitative results from the interviews are revealed to provide a better understanding of the study.

Factor Analysis

When applying instruments originated from western cultures, validity became the major consideration. A factor analysis (Principle Components Analysis–Varimax Rotation) was the method employed to determine the number of factors to be extracted. According to Stevens (1996), the criteria to evaluate the Principle Components Analysis are: (a) eigenvalues, which should be greater than or equal to 1, (b) a factor that should explain at least 5 percent of the common variance, and (c) each principle component, which should be composed of at least three items.

Assertiveness-Responsiveness Scale

By using Principle Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation (see Table 20), the factor analysis of the 20-item Assertiveness-Responsiveness Scale comprised two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. There were 13 items loaded on factor one (responsive measures) and 7 items loaded on factor two (assertive measures). The percent of variance that could be explained by factor one was 39.51, whereas 18.75 percent of variance could be explained by factor two.

In factor one (responsive measures), ten items belonged to responsive characteristics and three items belonged to assertive characteristics. The three assertive items were: item 2 (defends own beliefs), item 3 (independent), and item 19 (aggressive). Even though item 3 (independent) was included in factor one, it actually did not load clearly because of shared meaning with respect to factor two (.44 in factor one versus .36 in factor two). Item 2 (defends own beliefs) and item 19 (aggressive) had a different situation. Though they were included in factor one, they had the minus sign in contrast with the rest of the factors in that group. It implied that these two factors could have the opposite meaning to the responsive measure. As a result, the three distracter items (item 2, 3, and 19) were removed from the data analysis of Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale. The remaining seven items in factor two (assertive measures) had assertive characteristics. Table 20 provides a description of the factor loading on both assertiveness and responsiveness after the Varimax Rotation was used with the description of each item (only loadings > .30 were displayed).

Cronbach's alpha was recalculated on the final 17-item: the overall reliability of Assertiveness-Responsiveness scales was equal to .92; with .82 for assertiveness

and .94 for responsiveness. Hence, these numbers still achieve the minimum of .6 in

human behavior research requirement.

Table 20 : Varimax Rotation of Assertiveness-Responsiveness Scale

Items	Component 1 (Responsiveness)	Component 2 (Assertiveness)
1. Helpful (R)	**.711**	
2. Defends own beliefs (A) *	**-.462**	.434
3. Independent (A) *	**.443**	.360
4. Responsive to others (R)	**.717**	
5. Forceful (A)		**.756**
6. Has strong personality (A)	.393	**.724**
7. Sympathetic (R)	**.824**	
8. Compassionate (R)	**.850**	
9. Assertive (A)	.461	**.570**
10. Sensitive to others' needs (R)	**.767**	
11. Dominant (A)		**.730**
12. Sincere (R)	**.811**	
13. Gentle (R)	**.740**	
14. Willing to take stand (A)	.326	**.605**
15. Warm (R)	**.834**	
16. Tender (R)	**.841**	
17. Friendly (R)	**.844**	
18. Act as leader (A)	.508	**.657**
19. Aggressive (A) *	**-.562**	.382
20. Competitive (A)	-314	**.510**
Eigenvalue	7.903	3.749
Percent of variance	39.513	18.746
Cumulative percent	39.513	58.259

Note : Only factor loadings > .30 shown

    * = Distracter items

Verbal Aggressiveness Scale

Unlike the Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale, the 10-item Verbal Aggressiveness scale was originally constructed unidimensionally. The items on the scale were alternately assembled in both aggressive and less aggressive manner.

By using Principle Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation (see Table 21), the factor analysis comprised two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. There were 5 items loaded on factor one and another 5 items on factor two. The factors of aggressive items (2, 4, 5, 7, 10) and less aggressive items (1, 3, 6, 8, 9) were explicitly loaded on different factors. Thus, this factor analysis could validate the correct understanding of respondents. The percent of variance that could be explained by factor one (verbal aggressiveness) was 33.11, whereas 21.77 percent of variance could be explained by factor two (non-verbal aggressiveness). Table 21 demonstrated the factor loading (only loadings >.3 were displayed) after the Varimax Rotation was used with the description of each item. The scale reliability in terms of Cronbach's coefficient alpha of this scale was .69.

Table 21 : Varimax Rotation of Verbal Aggressiveness Scale

Statements	Component 1 (Verbal aggressiveness)	Component 2 (Non-verbal aggressiveness)
1. My supervisor is extremely careful to avoid attacking individuals' intelligence when he/she attacks their ideas.		.609
2. When individuals are very stubborn, my supervisor uses insults to soften the stubbornness.	.795	
3. My supervisor tries very hard to avoid having other people feel bad about themselves when he/she tries to influence them.		.744
4. When people refuse to do a task my supervisor knows is important, without good reason, he/she tell them they are unreasonable.	.823	
5. When people behave in ways that are in very poor state, my supervisor insults them in order to shock them into proper behavior.	.829	
6. My supervisor tries to make people feel good about themselves even when their ideas are stupid.		.710
7. When people simply will not budge on a matter of importance, my supervisor loses his/her temper and says rather strong things to them.	.840	

(Continued)

Table 21 (Continued) : Varimax Rotation of Verbal Aggressiveness Scale

Statements	Component 1 (Verbal aggressiveness)	Component 2 (Non-verbal aggressiveness)
8. When people criticize my supervisor's shortcomings, he/she takes it in good humor and do not try to get back at them.		.617
9. My supervisor likes poking fun at people who do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate their intelligence.		.596
10. When nothing seems to work in trying to influence others, he/she yells and screams in order to get some movement from them.	.762	
Eigenvalue	3.311	2.177
Percent of variance	33.110	21.769
Cumulative percent	33.110	54.879

Note : Only factor loadings > .30 shown.

Source Credibility Scale

By using Principle Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation (see Table 22), the factor analysis of the 18-item Source Credibility scale resulted in three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. Six items under the expertise dimension were loaded on factor three, 6 items under the trustworthiness dimension were loaded on factor one, and the last 6 items under the goodwill dimension were loaded on factor two. The percent of variance that could be explained by factor one (trustworthiness), factor two (goodwill), and factor three (expertise) were 25.83, 25.41, and 24.98, respectively.

Table 22 describes the factor loading on the three dimensions (only loadings > .30 were displayed) after the varimax rotation was used. In terms of Cronbach's coefficient alpha, the overall reliability of Source Credibility scales was .96, with .91 for expertise, .95 for trustworthiness, and .93 for goodwill.

Table 22 : Varimax Rotation of Source Credibility Scale

Items	Component 1 (Trustworthiness)	Component 2 (Goodwill)	Component 3 (Expertise)
1. Intelligent (E)			**.774**
2. Trained (E)			**.794**
3. Expert (E)	.306		**.773**
4. Informed (E)			**.747**
5. Competent (E)			**.825**
6. Bright (E)	.345		**.706**
7. Honest (T)	**.783**	.321	
8. Trustworthy (T)	**.785**	.316	
9. Honorable (T)	**.715**	.404	.367
10. Moral (T)	**.777**	.367	.330
11. Ethical (T)	**.786**	.317	.377
12. Genuine (T)	**.772**	.382	
13. Cares about me (G)	.301	**.850**	
14. Has my interests at heart (G)	.310	**.843**	
15. Not self-centered (G)	.450	**.552**	
16. Concerned with me (G)	.303	**.834**	
17. Sensitive (G)		**.703**	.312
18. Understanding (G)	.362	**.796**	
Eigenvalue	4.650	4.574	4.496
Percent of variance	25.831	25.412	24.976
Cumulative percent	25.831	51.243	76.219

Note : Only factor loadings > .30 shown.

Categorization of Independent Variables

This section reveals how the data were classified into diverse groups according to each category among the three independent variables.

Sex of Supervisor

The answer to this question was obtained from the surveys completed by respondents. The respondents were asked to provide information about the sex of their immediate supervisors. Failing to answer this question resulted in the removal of the entire questionnaire from data analysis. The final data set included surveys from 190 (46.3%) male supervisors and 220 (53.7%) female supervisors being analyzed.

Socio-communicative Style

After conducting the factor analysis, the Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale was narrowed to 17 items. The total score of 5-point Likert Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale was equal to 85, which comprised 35 points from assertiveness and 50 points from responsiveness. The average score of assertiveness from 410 samples was 26.06, while the average responsiveness score was 37.31. The researcher used the cut-off points at 26 from assertiveness and 37 from responsiveness to group the supervisors into four types of socio-communicative style. Thus, the criteria for labeling each supervisor into each type of socio-communicative style were as follows: (a) noncompetent: assertiveness ≤ 26 and responsiveness ≤ 37, (b) submissive: assertiveness ≤ 26 and responsiveness > 37, (c) aggressive: assertiveness > 26 and responsiveness ≤ 37, and (d) competent: assertiveness > 26 and responsiveness > 37.

Consequently, supervisors were evaluated and categorized as: 121 noncompetent (29.5% of total), 99 submissive (24.1% of total), 58 aggressive (14.2% of total), and 132 competent (32.2% of total). In terms of sex classification, 16.6%

were noncompetent males, 12.9% were noncompetent females, 10% were submissive

males, 14.1% were submissive female, 5.4% were aggressive males, 8.8% were

aggressive females, 14.4% were competent males, and 17.8% were competent

females. Table 23 presented the cross-tabulated numbers and percentage of

supervisors' socio-communicative style by sex.
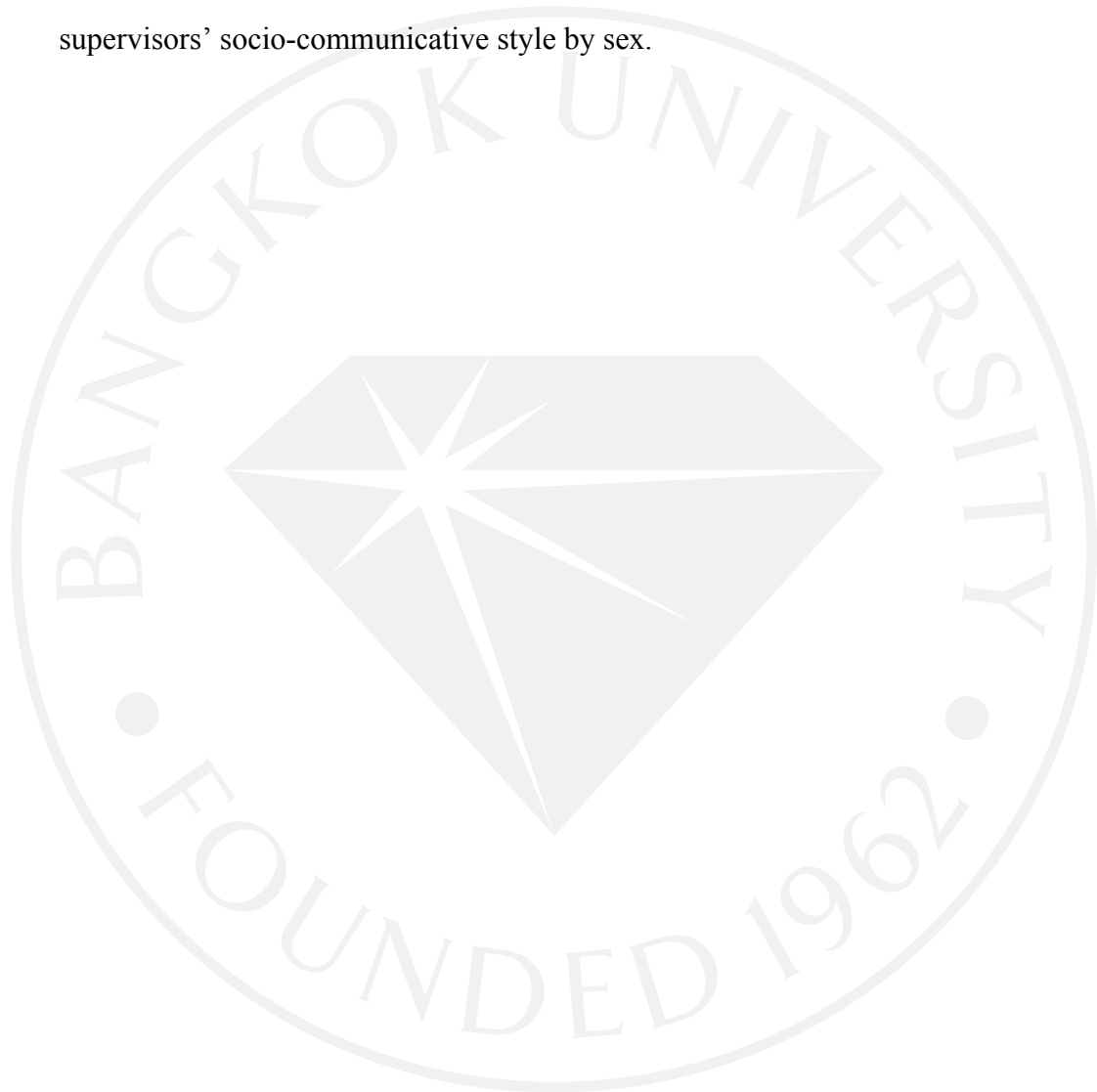
Table 23 : The Cross-tabulated Numbers and Percentage of Supervisors' Socio-

communicative Style by Sex

Socio-communicative style	Male	Female	Total
Noncompetent	68	53	121
Percent within socio-communicative style	56.2%	43.8%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	35.8%	24.1%	29.5%
Percent of total	16.6%	12.9%	29.5%
Submissive	41	58	99
Percent within socio-communicative style	41.4%	58.6%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	21.6%	26.4%	24.1%
Percent of total	10.0%	14.1%	24.1%
Aggressive	22	36	58
Percent within socio-communicative style	37.9%	62.1%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	11.6%	16.3%	14.2%
Percent of total	5.4%	8.8%	14.2%
Competent	59	73	132
Percent within socio-communicative style	44.7%	55.3%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	31.0%	33.2%	32.2%
Percent of total	14.4%	17.8%	32.2%
Total	190	220	410
Percent within socio-communicative style	46.3%	53.7%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Percent of total	46.3%	53.7%	100.0%

Verbal Aggressiveness

The cut-off point was computed to identify which supervisors were verbally

aggressive. The total score of the 5-point Likert Verbal Aggressiveness scale was

equal to 50, with the average of 25.07 calculated from 410 respondents. The cut-off

point to label which supervisors were verbally aggressive was 26 and higher, otherwise, they were considered as non-verbally aggressive. As a result, there were 204 non-verbally aggressive supervisors (49.8% of total) compared to 206 verbally aggressive supervisors (50.2% of total). In terms of sex classification, 23.2% were non-verbal aggressive males, 26.6% were non-verbally aggressive females, 23.2% were verbally aggressive males, and 27% were verbally aggressive females. Table 24 exhibited the cross-tabulated numbers and percentage of supervisors' verbal aggressiveness by sex.
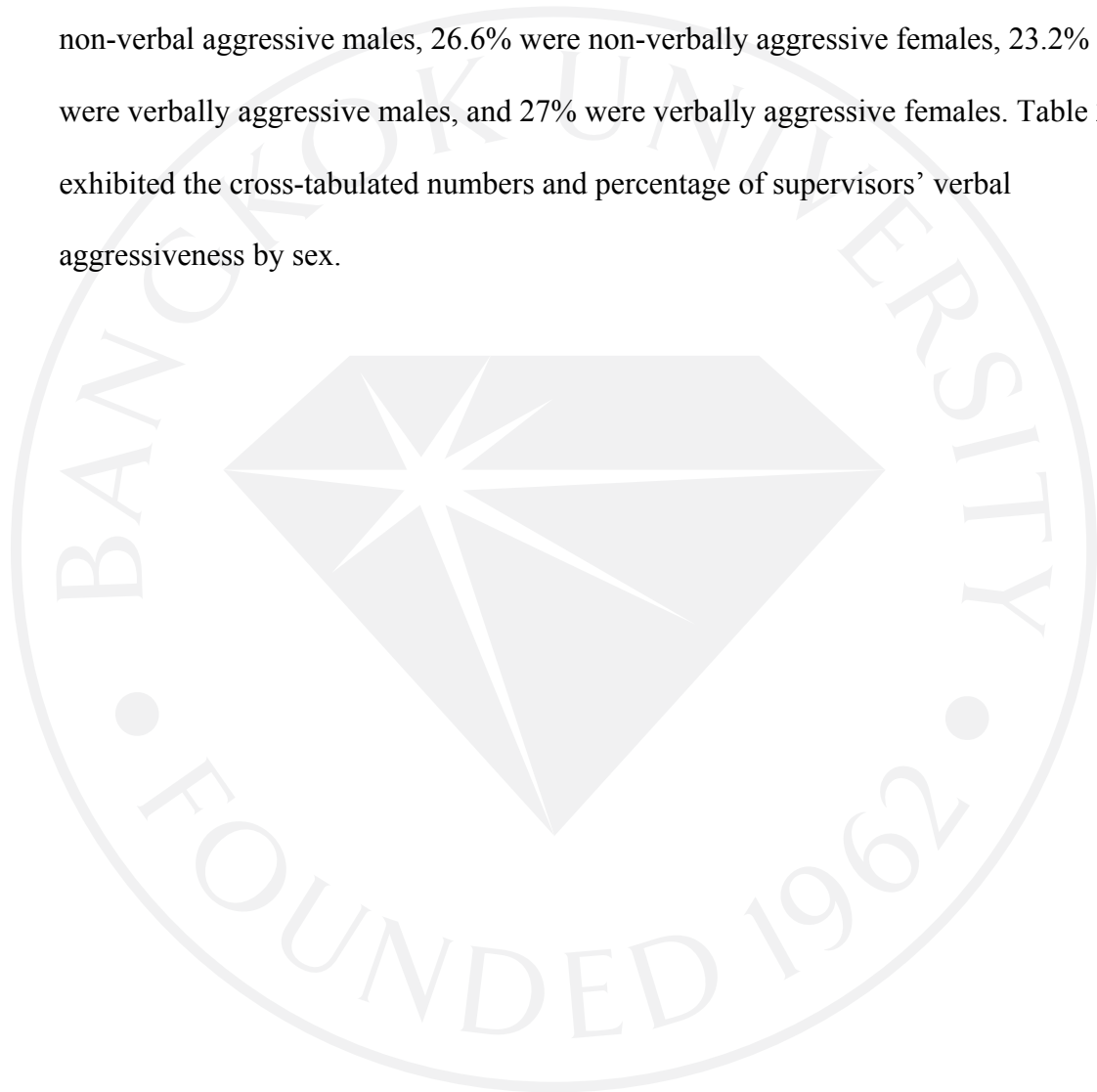
Table 24 : The Cross-tabulated Numbers and Percentage of Supervisors' Verbal

Aggressiveness [VA] by Sex

Categories	Male	Female	Total
Non-verbally aggressive	95	109	204
Percent within VA category	46.6%	53.4%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	50.0%	49.5%	49.8%
Percent of total	23.2%	26.6%	49.8%
Verbally aggressive	95	111	206
Percent within VA category	46.1%	53.9%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	50.0%	50.5%	50.2%
Percent of total	23.2%	27.0%	50.2%
Total	190	220	410
Percent within VA category	46.3%	53.7%	100.0%
Percent within sex of supervisor	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Percent of total	46.3%	53.7%	100.0%

Hypotheses Testing

This section elaborated the results of research questions one to five with a

level of significance at .05.

Due to the considerable size of the sample (n = 410) that were eligible for

multiple levels of analysis of variance, the researcher used three-way MANOVA or a

2x4x2 multivariate factorial design. The hypotheses tested whether there was any

significant difference in the source credibility scores between (1) sexes of supervisors:

male or female, (2) socio-communicative styles of supervisors: noncompetent, submissive, aggressive, or competent, (3) verbal aggressiveness of supervisors: verbally aggressive or non-verbally aggressive, (4) combination of sexes and socio-communicative styles of supervisors, and (5) combination of sexes and verbal aggressiveness of supervisors.

Factorial design was used to examine the interaction effects among three independent variables (sex of supervisors, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness) on the dependent variables, which were three dimensions of source credibility (expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill). Wilk's Lambda was employed to identify any main and interaction effects of three independent variables over the source credibility. When the multivariate test was significant, the univariate analysis was then calculated to recognize which pair of dependent variable contributes to the significant pairwise difference.

Multivariate factorial design could provide more accurate results compared to conducting separate t-test or ANOVAs to answer each research question individually because the fragmented univariate tests could lead to inflated overall type I error rate (Steven, 1996). However, to conduct certain multiple levels of analysis of variance, the substantial size of samples became a major consideration. In this study, there were a total of 16 sub-groups (2x4x2 multivariate factorial design) that were fragmented from 410 respondents. Table 25 exhibits the cross-tabulated numbers and percentage of supervisors categorized by sex, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness.

Table 25 : The Cross-tabulated Numbers and Percentage of Supervisors Categorized

by Sex, Socio-communicative Style, and Verbal Aggressiveness

Sex of supervisor	Socio-communicative style	Non-verbal aggressiveness	Verbal aggressiveness	Total
Male	Noncompetent	25	42	67
		(13.2%)	(22.1%)	(35.3%)
	Submissive	36	12	48
		(18.9%)	(6.3%)	(25.3%)
	Aggressive	11	13	24
		(5.8%)	(6.8%)	(12.6%)
	Competent	41	10	51
		(21.6%)	(5.3%)	(26.8%)
	Total	113	77	190
		(59.5%)	(40.5%)	(100.0%)
Female	Noncompetent	10	57	67
		(4.5%)	(25.9%)	(30.5%)
	Submissive	43	11	54
		(19.6%)	(5.0%)	(24.5%)
	Aggressive	16	21	37
		(7.3%)	(9.5%)	(16.8%)
	Competent	43	19	62
		(19.6%)	(8.6%)	(28.2%)
	Total	112	108	220
		(51.0%)	(49.0%)	(100.0%)

Steven (1996, p.238) described the following assumptions prior to conducting

a MANOVA test:

(1) The observations are independent, (2) the observations on the dependent variables follow a multivariate normal distribution in each group (robust with respect to Type I error), and (3) the population covariance matrices for the dependent variables are equal (conditionally robust if the group sizes are equal or approximately equal – largest/smallest < 1.5).

In this study, male and female respondents from different retailing and consumer products companies were observed independently. Box's test of equality of covariance matrices was used to determine the homogeneity of covariance matrices. The test was significant, $F(90, 25344) = 2.973$, $p = .00$, which meant the population variances were not equal (see Table 26).

Table 26 : Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	288.370
F	2.973
df1	90
df2	25344.004
Sig.	.000

Nevertheless, Steven (1996, 1999) stated that when there were variances associated with the large group sizes, then the F statistic was conservative, which meant the actual alpha is less than the level of significance, and many researchers would not consider this serious. In this study, 410 respondents were considered as the extensive group sizes and exceeded the minimum number of 320 samples (20 samples

per group x 16 sub-groups). On the other hand, the F statistic would be liberal if the sample variances associated with the small group sizes, which meant the actual alpha is greater than the level of significance, and the researchers could reject falsely too often. Hence, it was assumed that the samples in this study met the requirements to conduct the MANOVA.

The following part was the statistical results from running a three-way MANOVA to investigate all research questions, where each research question was further discussed individually.

A three-way MANOVA was performed to examine the overall effects among three main factors (sex of supervisor, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness). Wilk's Lambda (^) indicated that there were significant differences among sex of supervisor, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness over supervisor's credibility ($F(9, 954) = 1.936$, $p < .05$, see Table 27)

Table 27 : MANOVA Summary Table: 2 x 4 x 2 Multivariate

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.043	1.922	9.000	1182.000	.045
Wilks' lambda	.957	1.936	9.000	954.176	**.044**
Hotelling's trace	.045	1.945	9.000	1172.000	.042
Roy's largest root	.040	5.227	3.000	394.000	.002

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Results for RQ1

Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of the credibility of male and female

supervisors?

The dependent variables for this research question were three components of

source credibility: (1) expertise, (2) trustworthiness, and (3) goodwill. The

independent variable was sex of supervisors–male and female.

The research hypothesis was rejected. Hotelling's trace indicated that there

was no significant difference between subordinates' perceptions of credibility of their

male and female supervisors, $F(3, 392) = 1.216$, $p = .303$. Table 28 showed the

MANOVA summary for the main effect of sex of supervisors.

Table 28 : MANOVA Summary Table: Main Effect of Supervisors' Sex

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.009	1.216	3.000	392.000	.303
Wilks' lambda	.991	1.216	3.000	392.000	.303
Hotelling's trace	.009	1.216	3.000	392.000	**.303**
Roy's largest root	.009	1.216	3.000	392.000	.303

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Table 29 shows the average credibility scores in terms of expertise,

trustworthiness, and goodwill between male and female supervisors. Female

supervisor's credibility scores were lower than male supervisor's credibility score in

every dimension. The difference in mean values between male and female supervisors

was less than 1 in each dimension, so that the overall difference was not significant.

Table 29 : Means of Male and Female Supervisors' Credibility Scores

Dependent variable	Sex of supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Total expertise	Male	24.78	4.981
	Female	24.04	4.657
Total trustworthiness	Male	24.37	5.630
	Female	23.84	5.614
Total goodwill	Male	21.27	5.579
	Female	20.77	5.651
Total credibility	Male	70.42	14.054
	Female	68.65	14.193

In addition, the researcher further investigated by splitting the quantitative data

into two sets: male supervisor and female supervisor. It is interesting to find a

different conclusion when analyzing the data on different aspects. When examining

the first set of data, female supervisors only, there was a significant difference in the

credibility scores given by male and female subordinates, $t(132.143) = 2.074$, $p < .05$

(see Table 30).

Table 30 : Analysis of Independent Samples t Test between Male and Female

Subordinates (Female Supervisor's Credibility Scores only)

		Levene F	Levene Sig.	t-test t	t-test df	t-test Sig.(2-tailed)	t-test Mean difference	t-test Std. error difference
Total credibility	Equal variance assumed	4.784	.030	1.850	217	.066	3.986	2.154
	Equal variance not assumed			2.074	132.143	**.040**	3.986	1.922

Male subordinates granted higher scores in all dimensions of credibility (expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill) to female supervisors than female subordinates (see Table 31).

Table 31 : Means of Female Supervisor's Credibility Scores

Sex of subordinate		Expertise	Trustworthiness	Goodwill	Total credibility
Male	Mean	24.59	25.31	21.64	71.54
	N	59	59	59	59
	SD	3.829	4.800	5.030	11.645
Female	Mean	23.80	23.30	20.46	67.56
	N	160	160	160	160
	SD	4.919	5.824	5.862	14.952

On the contrary, when examining the second set of data, male supervisors only, the researcher finds no significant difference in the credibility scores given by male and female subordinates, $t(188) = .012$, $p = .99$ (see Table 32).

Table 32 : Analysis of Independent Samples t Test between Male and Female

Subordinates (Male Supervisor's Credibility Scores only)

		Levene F	Levene Sig.	t-test t	t-test df	t-test Sig.(2-tailed)	t-test Mean difference	t-test Std. error difference
Total credibility	Equal variance assumed	.321	.572	.012	188	.990	.024	2.045
	Equal variance not assumed			.012	187.963	.990	.024	2.043

Male supervisors are not assessed much differently by male and female

subordinates in each dimension. Furthermore, their total credibility scores assigned by

both sexes of subordinates are almost equivalent (see Table 33).

Table 33 : Means of Male Supervisor's Credibility Scores

Sex of subordinate		Expertise	Trustworthiness	Goodwill	Total credibility
Male	Mean	24.37	24.45	21.61	70.43
	N	97	97	97	97
	SD	5.215	5.650	5.283	14.475
Female	Mean	25.20	24.28	20.92	70.41
	N	93	93	93	93
	SD	4.715	5.638	5.880	13.681

Results for RQ2

Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the socio-communicative styles of male and female supervisors?

The dependent variables for this research question were three components of source credibility: (1) expertise, (2) trustworthiness, and (3) goodwill. The independent variable was supervisors' socio-communicative styles (noncompetent, submissive, aggressive, and competent).

The research hypothesis was accepted. Wilk's Lambda ($\wedge$) ($F(9, 954) =$ 19.292, $p < .05$, see table 34) indicated that there was a significant difference between subordinates' perceptions of credibility toward their supervisors' socio-communicative styles.

Table 34 : MANOVA Summary Table: Main Effect of Supervisors' Socio-

communicative Style on Supervisors' Credibility

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.368	18.354	9.000	1182.000	.000
Wilks' lambda	.666	19.292	9.000	954.176	**.000**
Hotelling's trace	.452	19.628	9.000	1172.000	.000
Roy's largest root	.284	37.294	3.000	394.000	.000

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Moreover, the univariate results (see Table 35) revealed that there were significant differences between socio-communicative styles in terms of expertise ($F(3, 394) = 27.285$, $p < .05$), trustworthiness ($F(3, 394) = 32.895$, $p < .05$), and goodwill ($F(3, 394) = 27.168$, $p < .05$).

Table 35 : Univariate Tests of Socio-communicative Style on Supervisors' Credibility

Source	Dependent variable	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Socio-communicative style	Expertise	1273.347	3	424.449	27.285	**.000**
	Trustworthiness	1865.520	3	621.840	32.895	**.000**
	Goodwill	1680.052	3	560.017	27.168	**.000**
Error	Expertise	6129.077	394	15.556		
	Trustworthiness	7448.184	394	18.904		
	Goodwill	8121.491	394	20.613		

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Post-hoc analysis: expertise

The Tukey test was employed to examine if the differences existed between each pair of socio-communicative style. Table 36 displayed the pairwise comparison results for the socio-communicative style in regard to expertise.

Table 36 : The Tukey Tests of Expertise Dimension: All Possible Comparisons of

Socio-communicative Style

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Socio-communicative style	Mean difference	Sig.
Expertise	Noncompetent	Submissive	-4.94	**.000**
		Aggressive	-5.53	**.000**
		Competent	-5.96	**.000**
	Submissive	Noncompetent	4.94	**.000**
		Aggressive	-.59	.796
		Competent	-1.02	.234
	Aggressive	Noncompetent	5.53	**.000**
		Submissive	.59	.796
		Competent	-.43	.901
	Competent	Noncompetent	5.96	**.000**
		Submissive	1.02	.234
		Aggressive	.43	.901

In Table 36, the "expertise dimension" showed that noncompetent was significantly different from the other three styles – submissive ($p < .000$), aggressive ($p < .000$), and competent ($p < .000$), respectively. On the other hand, competent style was not significantly different with either submissive ($p = .234$) or aggressive ($p = .901$), and submissive was also not significantly different with aggressive ($p = .796$).

The means of supervisor's expertise for the four socio-communicative styles were reported in Table 37. The aggressive and competent styles were reported to have comparable high expertise score (mean = 26.21 and 26.65, respectively), submissive style (mean = 25.63) was the third, and the noncompetent style (mean = 20.69) was the least.

Table 37 : Means of Expertise on Supervisors' Credibility

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Mean	Standard deviation
Expertise	Noncompetent	20.69	4.947
	Submissive	25.63	3.571
	Aggressive	26.21	2.933
	Competent	26.65	3.854

Post-hoc analysis: trustworthiness

Table 38 displays the pairwise comparison results for the socio-communicative style in regard to trustworthiness.

Table 38 : The Tukey Tests of Trustworthiness Dimension: All Possible Comparisons

of Socio-communicative Style

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Socio-communicative style	Mean difference	Sig.
Trustworthiness	Noncompetent	Submissive	-6.75	**.000**
		Aggressive	-2.42	**.002**
		Competent	-7.29	**.000**
	Submissive	Noncompetent	6.75	**.000**
		Aggressive	4.33	**.000**
		Competent	-.54	.797
	Aggressive	Noncompetent	2.42	**.002**
		Submissive	-4.33	**.000**
		Competent	-4.87	**.000**
	Competent	Noncompetent	7.29	**.000**
		Submissive	.54	.797
		Aggressive	4.87	**.000**

In Table 38, the "trustworthiness dimension" showed that noncompetent was

significantly different from the other three styles – submissive (p < .000), aggressive

(p < .05), and competent (p < .000), respectively. Aggressive style was also

significantly different with both submissive (p < .000) and competent style (p < .000).

However, competent and submissive were not significantly different (p = .797).

The means of supervisor's trustworthiness for the four socio-communicative styles were reported in Table 39. The submissive and competent styles were reported to have high trustworthiness scores (mean = 26.78 and 27.33, respectively), the aggressive style (mean = 22.46) was the third, and the noncompetent style (mean = 20.04) was the least.

Table 39 : Means of Trustworthiness on Supervisors' Credibility

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Mean	Standard deviation
Trustworthiness	Noncompetent	20.04	5.487
	Submissive	26.78	3.443
	Aggressive	22.46	5.328
	Competent	27.33	3.939

Post-hoc analysis: goodwill

Table 40 displays the pairwise comparison results for the socio-communicative style in regard to goodwill.

Table 40 : The Tukey Tests of Goodwill Dimension: All Possible Comparisons of

Socio-communicative Style

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Socio-communicative style	Mean difference	Sig.
Goodwill	Noncompetent	Submissive	-5.28	**.000**
		Aggressive	-.92	.554
		Competent	-7.02	**.000**
	Submissive	Noncompetent	5.28	**.000**
		Aggressive	4.36	**.000**
		Competent	-1.74	**.028**
	Aggressive	Noncompetent	.92	.554
		Submissive	-4.36	**.000**
		Competent	-6.10	**.000**
	Competent	Noncompetent	7.02	**.000**
		Submissive	1.74	**.028**
		Aggressive	6.10	**.000**

In Table 40, the "goodwill dimension" showed that noncompetent was significantly different from both submissive (p < .000) and competent (p < .000), respectively. Aggressive style was also significantly different from both submissive (p < .000) and competent style (p < .000). In addition, submissive style was significantly different from competent style (p < .05). Conversely, aggressive style was not significantly different compared to noncompetent style (p = .554).

The means of supervisor's goodwill for the four socio-communicative styles are reported in Table 41. The competent style (mean = 24.64) was reported to have the highest credibility, the submissive style (mean = 22.90) was the second highest, whereas aggressive and noncompetent styles had lower goodwill scores (mean = 18.54 and 17.62, respectively).

Table 41 : Means of Goodwill on Supervisors' Credibility

Dependent variable	Socio-communicative style	Mean	Standard deviation
Goodwill	Noncompetent	17.62	5.081
	Submissive	22.90	4.528
	Aggressive	18.54	5.243
	Competent	24.64	4.207

Results for RQ3

Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the verbal aggressiveness of male and female supervisors?

The dependent variables for this research question were three components of source credibility: (1) expertise, (2) trustworthiness, and (3) goodwill. The independent variable was supervisors' verbal aggressiveness–verbally aggressive and non-verbally aggressive.

The research hypothesis was accepted. Wilk's Lambda ($^$) indicated that there was a significant difference between subordinates' perceptions of credibility toward

their supervisors' verbal aggressiveness, $F(3, 392) = 13.796$, $p < .05$. Table 42 shows

the MANOVA summary for the main effect of supervisors' verbal aggressiveness on

supervisors' credibility.

Table 42 : MANOVA Summary Table: Main Effect of Supervisors' Verbal

Aggressiveness on Supervisors' Credibility

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.096	13.796	3.000	392.000	.000
Wilks' lambda	.904	13.796	3.000	392.000	**.000**
Hotelling's trace	.106	13.796	3.000	392.000	.000
Roy's largest root	.106	13.796	3.000	392.000	.000

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Furthermore, the univariate results (see Table 43) pointed out that there were

significant differences between verbal aggressiveness and non-verbal aggressiveness

in terms of expertise ($F(1, 394) = 15.515$, $p < .05$), trustworthiness ($F(1, 394) =$

37.334, $p < .05$), and goodwill ($F(1, 394) = 27.991$, $p < .05$).

Table 43 : Univariate Tests of Verbal Aggressiveness on Supervisors' Credibility

Source	Dependent variable	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
	Expertise	241.355	1	241.355	15.515	**.000**
	Trustworthiness	705.754	1	705.754	37.334	**.000**
	Goodwill	576.971	1	576.971	27.991	**.000**
Error	Expertise	6129.077	394	15.556		
	Trustworthiness	7448.184	394	18.904		
	Goodwill	8121.491	394	20.613		

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Table 44 shows the average credibility scores in terms of expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill between verbally aggressive and non-verbally aggressive supervisors. Every dimension of the credibility scores of verbally aggressive supervisors was lower than that of non-verbally aggressive supervisors. The mean in trustworthiness between verbally aggressive and non-verbally aggressive supervisors was the largest (5.35), and the mean in expertise between verbally aggressive and non-verbally aggressive supervisors was the smallest (3.65).

Table 44 : Means of Credibility Scores of Verbally Aggressive and Non-verbally

        Aggressive Supervisors

Dependent variable	Verbal aggressiveness of supervisor	Mean	Standard deviation
Total expertise	Non-verbal aggressive	26.03	3.684
	Verbal aggressive	22.38	5.267
Total trustworthiness	Non-verbal aggressive	26.50	3.850
	Verbal aggressive	21.15	6.034
Total goodwill	Non-verbal aggressive	23.13	4.335
	Verbal aggressive	18.42	5.912
Total credibility	Non-verbal aggressive	75.66	9.936
	Verbal aggressive	61.95	14.848

Result for RQ4

Is there an interaction between the sexes and socio-communicative styles when measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

     The dependent variables for this research question were three components of source credibility: (1) expertise, (2) trustworthiness, and (3) goodwill. Since this research question tested the interaction effect, it examined the interaction between two independent variables: (1) sex of supervisors: male and female, and (2) supervisors' socio-communicative styles: noncompetent, submissive, aggressive, and competent.

     The research hypothesis was rejected. Wilk's Lambda $(^\wedge)(F(9, 954) = 1.233$, $p = .271$, see Table 45) indicated that there was no significant difference between

subordinates' perceptions of credibility toward their supervisors' sex and socio-communicative style.

Table 45 : MANOVA Summary Table: Interaction Effect of Supervisors' Sex and Socio-communicative Style on Supervisors' Credibility

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.028	1.230	9.000	1182.000	.272
Wilks' lambda	.972	1.233	9.000	954.176	.271
Hotelling's trace	.028	1.235	9.000	1172.000	.269
Roy's largest root	.025	3.241	3.000	394.000	.022

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Results for RQ5

Is there an interaction between the sexes and verbal aggressiveness when measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

The dependent variables for this research question were three components of source credibility: (1) expertise, (2) trustworthiness, and (3) goodwill. Since this research question tested the interaction effect, it examined the interaction between two independent variables: (1) sex of supervisor: male and female, and (2) supervisors' verbal aggressiveness: verbally aggressive and non-verbally aggressive.

The research hypothesis was rejected. Wilk's Lambda ($^$) (F(3, 392) = 1.659, p = .175, see Table 46) indicated that there was no significant difference between

subordinates' perceptions of credibility toward their supervisors' sex and verbal

aggressiveness.

Table 46 : MANOVA Summary Table: Interaction Effect of Supervisors' Sex and

Verbal Aggressiveness on Supervisors' Credibility

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Pillai's trace	.013	1.659	3.000	392.000	.175
Wilks' lambda	.987	1.659	3.000	392.000	.175
Hotelling's trace	.013	1.659	3.000	392.000	.175
Roy's largest root	.013	1.659	3.000	392.000	.175

Note : Computed using alpha = .05

Qualitative Findings

This section describes the results of the analysis from interviews with 10

employees from various retailing and consumer products companies. The results

centered on two main topics related to subjects focused on this research: (1) sex of

supervisor, and (2) communication style of supervisor.

Sex of Supervisor

The intent of this study was to investigate the similarities/differences between

male and female supervisors from their subordinates' perceptions in the

organizational setting. As the researcher finished her introduction during the

interview, the initial questions that were comfortable to answer were given to the

interviewees like how many supervisors they had been working with, followed by tougher or more sensitive questions.

The researcher found several noteworthy perceptions of similarities/differences of male and female supervisors such as characteristics, personalities, communication, lifestyle, career advancement, and so on. Overall, when interviewees were asked as if any differences existed from their point of views, several common concepts emerged.

Delicate and thorough

Many interviewees explained that female supervisors were cautious and detail-oriented, whereas male supervisors were likely to be result-oriented. Working with female supervisors allowed subordinates to be well prepared for not only *what* but also *how* things were done.

Interviewee#1, a 35 year-old female logistics manager, expressed her different feelings when working with male and female supervisors. From her viewpoint, females focused on details, while males were fast and resolute but not detail-focused. Interviewee#2, a 45 year-old male customer management manager, had a similar belief. He was convinced that females were more delicate and thought thoroughly than males. Interviewee#5, a 36 year-old female strategic insight manager, agreed that females thought systematically, and she knew many things behind-the-scene, whereas males thought in a less complicated manner. Interviewee#3, a 32 year-old male media manager, asserted that he was inspected at every step when working with female supervisors, thus, it made him think comprehensively when leading any projects.

My male supervisor does not care much on process or how I can achieve it, but he always know precisely what he wants at the bottom line, and he will

never ask you many questions as long as the jobs are done. It is nice working with female supervisor though, when I am junior, as she asks me how I am going to complete the assigned tasks, then she explains to me if I do not know the answer or keep silent. However, it is not the same at the moment as I become senior because I prefer supervisors who let me work more independently.

Interviewee#6, a 41 year-old female over-the-counter coordinator in a pharmaceutical company, expressed her similar experiences that she needed to get ready to answer any questions even though the jobs had been completed, while male supervisors asked her only a few key topics. "I have worked with a female supervisor prior to a male supervisor. So everything becomes easier working with male supervisor later on, because I have been trained to think and plan for everything when working with female supervisor."

Interviewee #9, a 33 year-old female sales supporting manager, illustrated that her male supervisor only explained in a broader scope and let her figure out how the work should be done. "He does not care the procedures, problems, or conflicts I encounter, instead, he focuses on my performance or whether I will deliver the job or not."

In conclusion, these conversations with many interviewees illustrated the good examples of expressive/rapport talk by female and instrumental/report talk by male. Male's communication with his subordinates is more precise and less detailed, while female's is more elaborate.

Fussy and nagging

Some interviewees revealed their unpleasant experiences working with female supervisors due to female's nature of being too detailed.

Interviewee#3 brought up why he could not work for long periods with female supervisors.

I use to have a female supervisor whom I can tolerate in working with her for only a month and a half. Right after she assigns the job, she asks me how I am going to deliver it. She does not give me the room to think and plan at all. It is worse when she tries to write "to do list" for me and it really makes me feel uncomfortable.

Interviewee#6 underlined her preferences in working with male supervisors due to lower pressure. She accentuated her personality of being androgyny, and she felt more opened to discuss problems with male supervisors.

I rather consult with male than female supervisor. I think male is straight to the point, does not repeat the same conversation over and over, or even prejudged you based on his personal experience. When you talk to female, she further talks to others, then your personal matter rolls over the office.

Interviewee#8, a 52 year-old female accounting manager, further confirmed the female characteristics of taking things too personally. She mentioned one female executive in her office who was unfair and favored only those who pleased and took her side. "Working with male is more opened, you can criticize or disagree with him and it is over in the meeting room, while female can forgive, but she may not forget."

Verbal communication

Several interviewees shared similar viewpoints about language used by male and female supervisors. Female used more polite wordings, while male was likely to be more blatant and precise, especially when communicating with the same sex. Interviewee#7, a 56-year old male deputy director, strengthened this phenomenon by sharing his experience as being subordinate and supervisor simultaneously. "With male subordinates, I can bluntly tell them what I want, whereas I need to speak more gently with female subordinates due to their different nature and background." Interviewees#5 and #6 also agreed that male supervisor softened his tone of voice when talking to female subordinates. Nonetheless, interviewee#6 distinguished a flexible commitment when a female subordinate was working with a male supervisor, whilst interviewee#5 did not recognize this double standard.

Interviewee#10, a 36-year old male marketing manager, emphasized different language used between sexes. He said that males usually did not provide explanation why something must be done. Unlike males, female supervisors explained to subordinates a need to get a job done by tomorrow.

> I think she is afraid that I may perceive her as the unreasonable boss especially when I am the opposite sex. It demonstrates her attempt to motivate me by let me feel not being too dictated, and she always explains why certain thing must be urgently finished.

This could possibly explain how women were assumed as the lower-status gender. They tend to use a superpolite form when influencing males, a higher status (Steffen & Eagly, 1985). Interviewee#1 shared her impressions with a female supervisor when she was sick and needed to stay in bed.

Usually when I inform my other supervisors that I am sick and need to take a rest at home, they just acknowledge. This female supervisor did a different thing; I received a short but sweet SMS from her telling me to get well soon and not to worry about the work because she will handle everything for me. Well, I think she does not need to do that much, but it makes me feel that she really takes good care of her subordinates.

In contrast, the researcher obtained a different answer when probing a similar situation with interviewee#2 who was male and currently working for a male supervisor.

I think male supervisor care about his subordinate in different manner from female. He generally asks how I am doing, which is fine for me. What I concern more is asking how I am doing with my job and helping me cope with the difficulties.

Different lifestyle

A few interviewees, particularly males, identified the bonding between male supervisors and male subordinates in terms of similar lifestyle. Interviewee#4, a 31-year old male key account manager, backed up his preference to male over female supervisors with several reasons. He explained,

Well…do not get me wrong about my choice of male over female supervisors. It is neither the discrimination nor I do not want to work under female. I think male and female are equivalent in terms of capability but I feel that it is smoother to work with the same sex. There is no difference during the eight hours working in the office, but when getting together for a drink after office hours, guys usually have more chances to openly discuss about anything such

as the problems in the office or personal matter at home. With female supervisor, I think this can rarely happen since she needs to take care of her family once the office hours are over. Moreover, she needs to concern if it is appropriate to getting too close to colleagues with opposite sex.

This could reflect the different approaches of getting intimate between male and female. Whereas females engaged in more personal talk, males engaged more in group and activity (Johnson & Aries, 1998). Interviewee#3 thought that a male supervisor helped him to solve problems more than a female supervisor.

Female supervisor simply tells or gives you the advice when you face the trouble, but male supervisor does not leave until you get through it like good buddies. It is probably because you spend more time together during and after the office hours, while female has different lifestyle with her family to concentrate. Sometimes my male supervisor and I hang together for a glass of beer after work, or we play golf during the weekend together. So working with male supervisor is like working with pal and your friend do not let you down whenever you have problem.

Interviewee#10 reflected his lifestyle in the office. He usually goes out for lunch with male colleagues, and they sometimes go to gym together after work.

It is like we speak the same language, for example, when you tell your male colleague that you are tired today because you watched the Liverpool match (live soccer game on television) last night until 4 am. Your male colleague simply understands how much that Liverpool match means to you, while you may need to explain more with female colleague, otherwise she may judge you irrationally.

Career advancement

Several female interviewees discussed barriers with respect to career advancement for females compared to their male counterparts. Interviewees#1 and #5 did not perceive any impediments of females being promoted to higher ranks, while interviewee#8 asserted that it barely happened to her or other female colleagues to be promoted to the board of director despite the fact that she had worked with the organization for over 20 years. When the researcher investigated further, it was found that interviewee#8 worked in a multinational company headquartered in Japan, and 90% of the board of directors were Japanese males, whilst both organizations of interviewees#1 and #5 were multinational companies from European countries.

Interviewee#9, who worked in a Thai-American joint venture company, described her distinctive organizational structure that although 90% of employees were female with only females as area sales managers, only males are selected to serve as sales directors. It encouraged the researcher to probe into the reasons. "Sales team needs a very strong encouragement and we believe male director can better motivate the team as well as manage all female area managers." However, she brought up her preference for female supervisors, especially ones who had family with young children like her [she had a 6-month old baby at the time of interviewing]. She explained,

> Female supervisor can better understand your dual role as a working mother, and when you have to sacrifice your work for your children, she is likely to be more sympathized with you than single female supervisor who only works hard.

Interviewee#10 talked about his organization's policy of diversity and inclusiveness. He expressed,

My organization tries to promote more female to work abroad since we seldom have female in the regional level. As we know that we have to concern more for female about traveling, hospitality, and safety especially when she lives by herself in a remote country from her homeland. Unfortunately, there are not many females working abroad albeit they are guaranteed for better remuneration and career path.

Interviewee#9, again, referred to her own situation "I am offered to be the manager in our southern branch but I decide to put off that decision because my son is only 6 months old."

Similarities

When interviewees were asked to compare the performance and capability between male and female supervisors, male interviewees did not notice any different outcomes. Their inclination to male or female supervisors depended on the preference of working style of each sex that was congruent with them. Interviewee#4 stated that "I do not think female is inferior to male supervisor. She just works more carefully or needs more details from her subordinates. All in all, I think they can both attain the equivalent goal." Interviewee#3 supported that "there is not much difference in terms of effectiveness between male and female supervisors, rather, the way they accomplish the task may not be the same." Interviewee#2 had no objection of having a female supervisor even if he never had one.

Female interviewees had dissimilar thoughts. While interviewees#1 and 5 agreed that it was the approach rather than the result, which differentiated male from

female supervisors, interviewees#8 and 10 perceived the superiority of male over female supervisors at both ends.

Communication Style of Supervisor

In addition to the sex of supervisor, this study emphasizes how supervisors' styles affect their subordinates' perceptions. The interviewing questions, thus, accentuated a few topics related to the questionnaire design such as assertiveness, responsiveness, and aggressiveness.

Assertiveness – responsiveness

Rubin and Rubin (2005) pointed out that if the interviewees thought that the question was too conceptual to answer, they might not be able to proceed. Thus, some terminologies (e.g. socio-communicative style) were not exactly articulated in the conversation to inhibit the interviewee's confusion. Instead, the researcher used simpler expression such as task or people orientation to substantiate different combination of assertiveness-responsiveness characteristics of supervisor. These two characteristics of being task and social oriented in leadership were comparable to the bipolar nature of assertiveness and responsiveness in socio-communicative styles, respectively (Powell & Graves, 2006).

All interviewees, when being asked about ideal characteristics of a supervisor, asserted that they preferred a supervisor who was both task and people-oriented. Some of them referred to analogous terms of Thai leadership as *Phradet* (authoritarianism) and *Phrakhun* (patronization). Interviewee#1 pronounced that phradet and phrakhun were inseparable. "You cannot work effectively without both phradet and phrakhun. If you use only phradet, you never conquer your subordinates' loyalty, on the other hand, only phrakhun can neither deliver you subordinate's respect."

When the researcher investigated further by asking them to weigh between these two extents, a variety of combinations were explicated. Interviewee#6 assigned 70% on task- and 30% on people-orientation. Interviewee#5 and #9 allocated a similar ratio of 40% to task- and 60% to people-orientation, whereas interviewee#7 gave only 20% to task- and 80% to people-orientation. The researcher, then, scrutinized why interviewees#6 and #7's comments opposed each other. Interviewee#6, who favored task-orientation, relied heavily on the result since she worked in the sales department. She needed the supervisor who was a capable fighter in order to reach the team's target. Interviewee#7, who favored people-orientation, worked for customer service department in an electrical appliances company. He elaborated his department's situation in dealing with customers' complaints, "service-minded is very vital to deliver excellent service to customers, and it makes people become the most crucial asset." Interviewee#9 who rated people slightly higher than task justified the reason of organizational restructuring. "Our company presently shifts to matrix organization (low layer of hierarchy), so I think people skill becomes essential because the supervisor needs to deal directly to his/her subordinates."

Aggressiveness

Two of the common symptoms found among interviewees who worked with aggressive supervisors were feeling of pressure and having low morale. Interviewee#4 who worked with a male aggressive supervisor admitted

My supervisor is tough and aggressive, but I learn a lot when working with him. Sometimes I lose my self-confidence when he bluntly rejects a proposal that I have spent months planning on it. It makes me doubt that I am stupid or having such a lousy idea.

Interviewee#3 portrayed an example of a female aggressive supervisor in his office. "She is a marketing director. Her aggressive style is beneficial to organization but not to individuals working with her. Although the sales team can hit target but their morale suffers from being pushed too hard." When the researcher asked him to describe more about this supervisor's personality, he explained

> She is not blatant like a guy, rather, her character is like Meryl Streep in the movie "The Devil Wears Prada." Female is occasionally more frightening than male because we are unable to figure out what she is thinking, whereas male is more direct and explicit.

Interviewee#6 shared a similar view about female aggressive supervisor. She thought this kind of woman was hard to get along with and people were reluctant to be acquainted with her.

In a comparison between male to female aggressive supervisors, a few interviewees accepted that people might have prejudice against females. Interviewee#4 perceived male aggressive supervisor as being tough, whereas female aggressive supervisor was perceived as being wicked. Interviewee#3 asserted that aggressive male is less terrifying than aggressive female. He depicted a metaphor of people smoking to elucidate the double standard applied to female.

> It is ordinary to see a smoking man. But when you see a smoking woman, you start to figure out why she smokes. Does she have a family problem? Does she have a menopause? What is wrong with her? People scarcely want to find out why a guy smokes, they do not even care to assume anything.

Overall, most interviewees chose to work with a less aggressive supervisor disregarding the sex. Interviewee#10 provided a political issue in organization to

support his answer. "It causes you difficulties especially in a cross-functional team if your supervisor is too aggressive to others. You hardly get cooperation if they do not like your boss." Interviewee#6 emphasized the nature of people who were likely to work with a supervisor who makes them feel more comfortable. Interviewee#8 described a situation when a male aggressive supervisor did not receive any cooperation from his own subordinates.

> Neither am I opened to tell the truth to this supervisor, nor do I protect him. Sometimes when the board of director needs him and I know that he is not in the office at that moment, I simply answer -- sorry, he is not in the office and he does not tell me where he goes. I do not care to find a good excuse or protect him.

> Interviewee#4 also said that if a supervisor was aggressive, he/she needed to be competent to survive in the organization. Otherwise, he/she might be challenged by anybody including his/her own team, which could worsen the situation compared to the noncompetent or less aggressive supervisor.

In sum, this chapter has disclosed both quantitative and qualitative findings separately. The next chapter will, then, incorporate these two parts into the same discussion as well as provide the suggestions in the field of organizational communication.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

"To be somebody, a woman does not have to be more like a man,

but has to be more of a woman."

-- Dr. Sally E. Shaywitz, Physician and writer

This empirical study attempts to explore how supervisors' sex, socio-communicative style, and verbal aggressiveness influence subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility confined to the Thai context. Accordingly, questionnaire surveys and semi-structured interviews were conducted among Thai subordinates in 11 retailing consumer products companies.

The findings from both elements in chapter four, quantitative and qualitative, are integrated and summarized in the first section of this chapter. Then, the subsequent section discusses the empirical notions found in this study, as well as recommends how those findings make contributions to practitioners in organizational communication. The last section further outlines the limitations along with suggestions for future research.

Summary of Research Questions

RQ1 : Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of the credibility of male and

female supervisors?

The results from the quantitative part show that sex of supervisor has no effect on subordinate's perceptions of a supervisor's credibility. On the other hand, the findings from the qualitative part are not consistent with this finding. All interviewees

reveal the different approaches used by male and female supervisors when communicating with their subordinates. Males are likely to be more direct and concentrate on the result rather than the approach or method of achieving a goal. Females, in contrast, are likely to be more elaborate and focus on the approach as well as the result.

When further investigating, the researcher finds dissimilar answers about the performance of supervisor. Many interviewees do not perceive any difference in terms of result regardless of different working styles between male and female supervisors. When given the choice, some of them have no preference about the sex of their supervisor.

RQ2 : Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the socio-communicative styles of male and female supervisors?

The results from the quantitative part demonstrate that socio-communicative style of supervisor has consequences for supervisor's credibility from their subordinates' perceptions. The findings from the qualitative part confirm a corresponding conclusion to the quantitative one. All interviewees agree that the competent style (high assertiveness/high responsiveness) of supervisor is the most preferred style, while noncompetent style (low assertiveness/low responsiveness) is the least preferred one.

Submissive and aggressive styles do not reveal a conclusive answer. Some interviewees think that the aggressive style is more appropriate due to the nature of their work, which requires a high task-oriented supervisor such as sales manager. Others agree with the submissive style, as it is perceived to be more conducive for the organizational structure of their company. Even though the qualitative data were not

able to compare the magnitude of differences in supervisor's credibility among different styles of supervisor's socio-communicative style, the quantitative data indicates that Thai subordinates value a submissive supervisor higher than an aggressive one in terms of credibility.

RQ3 : Is there a difference in subordinates' perceptions of credibility of the verbal aggressiveness of male and female supervisors?

The results from the quantitative data support that the verbal aggressiveness of a supervisor has an effect on the subordinates' perceptions of their supervisors' credibility, and the findings from the qualitative data provide a conclusive answer to the quantitative one. None of the interviewees favored the verbally aggressive supervisors. Accordingly, the quantitative data also displays a significantly higher score for non-verbally aggressive supervisors over aggressive ones.

RQ4 : Is there an interaction between the sexes and socio-communicative styles when measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

The results from the quantitative part illustrate that the sex and socio-communicative style of supervisor have no interaction effect on supervisor's credibility from their subordinates' perceptions. The findings from the qualitative data do not reveal any essential notion of whether sex plays a crucial role with socio-communicative style.

RQ5 : Is there an interaction between the sexes and verbal aggressiveness when measuring subordinates' perceptions of supervisor credibility?

The results from the quantitative part explain that sex and verbal aggressiveness of supervisor have no interaction effect on supervisor's credibility from their subordinates' perceptions. The findings from the qualitative data disclose

some meaningful answers though they are not conclusive among interviewees. Some

interviewees do not perceive any difference when sex interplays with verbal

aggressiveness, while a few interviewees mention the prejudice to verbally aggressive

female supervisors.

<div align="center">Discussion</div>

In this section, the answers of research questions are discussed in comparison

to previous studies of related subjects, yet, specifically based on the Thai perspectives.

The discussion is composed of three major parts: (1) sex of supervisor, (2) socio-

communicative style of leadership, and (3) verbal aggressiveness in persuasion.

Sex of Supervisor

The researcher conducted this study to examine different perceptions among

Thai subordinates toward their male and female supervisors in workplace by referring

to the notions of sex stereotypes originated from various studies such as the Bem Sex-

Role Inventory (BSRI), the metaphors symbolizing differences between Mars (male)

and Venus (female), language used in gender talk, and so on. The findings from the

questionnaire survey indicate that Thai subordinates do not have significantly

different perception of the credibility of their male and female supervisors, whereas

the results from the interviews reveal diverse opinions among interviewees.

The inconclusive findings from this study are not that astonishing since the

small magnitude of difference between men and women is a prominent issue in

gender communication research (Canary & Hause, 1993). Wilkins and Andersen

(1991), in their meta-analysis about gender differences and similarities in

management communication, report a significant difference despite the fact that the

variance accounted in those studies is not large. On the other hand, Eagly, Karau, and

Makhijani (1995), in their meta-analysis, identify no difference in the overall sex difference in effectiveness of male and female leader. Also, Butterfield and Grinnell (1999) discuss many contradictions in their meta-analysis of gender and managerial behavior research during the past three decades. In some studies, females are assessed more positively than their male counterparts, while several other studies report a slight tendency toward a negative assessment of female leaders.

Additionally, the gender metaphors crafted by several past researchers exhibit dissimilar magnitude of differences in gender communication. The degree of difference is described in a variety of ways, from the metaphors of planets like Mars and Venus by Gray (1992) to neighboring states like North Dakota and South Dakota by Dindia (2006). While Gray affirms that male and female are totally different, Dindia argues that men and women have more similarities than differences. In other words, the sex-gender differences are small by measurement of effect size calculated from her meta-analysis. The disparate analogies signify the arguments about the differences and non-differences in gender communication.

When taking a closer look in each credibility dimension of the quantitative findings in this study, though overall credibility scores between male and female supervisors are not different, male supervisors have somewhat higher expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill over female supervisors. When this result is associated with gender stereotypes in managerial skills, it supports a number of previous studies that situate on the disadvantageous position of females compared to males in light of less qualified competency (Lindsey & Zakahi, 2006; Wilkins & Andersen, 1991). Moreover, during the interviews, several interviewees commented about different approaches employed by their male and female supervisors when communicating with

subordinates. Whereas female supervisors use conversation from the relational approach (Ivy & Backlund, 1994), male supervisors view the conversation from the content approach by exploiting the conversation to convey the information to others rather than express their feelings. This could lead to the assumption why Thai male supervisors were rated higher than female supervisors in all dimensions of credibility, especially in the professional arena like this study. Thai female supervisors are opposed from their subordinates probably because they are perceived as being too emotional.

In addition, the result of further analysis by splitting the quantitative data into two separate sets—male supervisor and female supervisor, reveals an interesting result from the aspect of difference in sexes of subordinates. When examining the first set of data, female supervisors only, there was a significant difference in the credibility scores given by male and female subordinates. On the contrary, when examining the second set of data, male supervisors only, there was no significant difference in the credibility scores given by male and female subordinates

It brings to the attention that male supervisors do not encounter any hindrance from male and female subordinates, whereas female supervisors can be judged less positively by subordinates of the same sex. Sex of perceivers can possibly result in different evaluation (Burgoon, Dillard, & Doran, 1983). Powell (1990) asserts that although male and female supervisors are not different in any respect, subordinate can possibly react to them differently.

The results from this study demonstrates that female supervisors are rated as less credible than male supervisors by female subordinates. Ashcraft and Pacanowsky (1996) depict the metaphors of "cattiness," "female jealousy," "too much pettiness,"

"a real hen factory," and "a complete cat house" (p. 229) as the female strategy in dealing with conflicts in organization that is different from male counterparts. Females take things personally and they protect their status by "discrediting other women" (p. 232). A female interviewee in this study mentioned the phenomenon of queen bee syndrome when she described a female executive in her organization. Heim, Murphy, and Golant (2003) discuss indirect aggression among women in their book–"In the Company of Women." Women can be best friends as well as worst enemies. Likewise, Tanenbaum (2003) proposes catfight as the rivalries among women. Although women can be supportive and nurture their female colleagues, they can be the worst enemies as well. On the contrary, a study of Thai female leaders by Swasburi (2000) does not reveal a similar result. Swasburi (2000) indicates that Thai female subordinates are likely to have more favorable attitudes toward female managers than do male subordinates.

Briefly, even though male and female supervisors are perceived as equally credible by subordinates, they are different in their style of communication. In other words, working with either a male or a female supervisor can yield comparable outcomes, though the different approaches in communication may still exist.

Socio-communicative Style of Leadership

There are two research questions that explore how socio-communicative styles in the leadership of the supervisor influence their subordinates' perceptions in terms of credibility. The first research question focused solely on socio-communicative style as the leader, while the second one scrutinized the combination of socio-communicative styles and sexes of supervisor.

A few points should be made in order to analyze this subject. The first research question seeks to understand the psychological aspect of being masculine and feminine in leadership. According to Thomas, Richmond, and McCroskey (1994, p. 109), "the two most commonly referenced dimensions of socio-communicative style are assertiveness (called masculinity by Bem) and responsiveness (called femininity by Bem)." In other words, the socio-communicative style can implicitly be referred as the gender identity of an individual. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) describe the male gender role as more inclined to task-oriented, autocratic, directive, and transactional leader role, while the female gender role is more likely to be perceived as interpersonal-oriented, democratic, participative, and transformational leader role. Another research question, on the other hand, seeks to understand the biological aspect of being men and women by bringing the supervisors' sex into consideration, combined with socio-communicative style, when assessing supervisor's credibility.

The findings exhibit a significant difference in all supervisors' credibility dimensions (expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill) from the psychological aspects of masculinity, femininity, androgyny, and undifferentiated. In other words, socio-communicative style is comprised of four major manners. The assertiveness/masculinity are those who are likely to be utterly assertive. The responsiveness/femininity are those who are likely to be utterly responsive. The competent/androgyny are those who are likely to be both assertive and responsive simultaneously. Finally, the noncompetent/undifferentiated are those who are neither assertive nor responsive.

When taking a closer look in each credibility dimension, a competent supervisor earns the highest ranking in all characteristics (expertise, trustworthiness,

and goodwill). It consequently implies that, in terms of psychological aspect, a highly credible supervisor should likely be androgynous–being masculine (assertive, dominant, competitive, and forceful) as well as feminine (responsive, helpful, sympathetic, and friendly). Conversely, a noncompetent supervisor is the least credible character among all four types of socio-communicative style. He/she is unable to demonstrate the attribute on neither side–assertive nor responsive. In other words, they are undifferentiated in terms of gender identity. This corresponds to several studies that a good manager tends to be androgynous rather than masculine (Butterfield & Grinnell, 1999; Powell & Graves, 2006), and an androgynous manager is more effective than dichotomy gender pattern (Bem, 1974) because the competent style has the strongest relationship with credibility (Martin, Mottet, & Chesebro, 1997). Thus, a credible supervisor should be flexible and adaptable to various situations and styles when communicating.

The quantitative findings of the highest credibility score (in all dimensions) of competent supervisor and lowest credibility score of noncompetent supervisor do not astound the researcher since several interviewees revealed similar answers when they were asked about their inclinations toward task and people- oriented supervisors. Whereas given the choice, all interviewees preferred supervisors who were capable to deliver both skills of task and people orientation. What draws the researcher's interest is to scrutinize between submissive and aggressive style among three credibility dimensions. With respect to the expertise, the aggressive supervisor is perceived as more credible than the submissive supervisor. Nevertheless, the submissive supervisor gains higher credibility than the aggressive supervisor in terms of trustworthiness and goodwill. This entails the character of the submissive supervisor with femininity

where the supervisor is likely to be more compassionate compared to the aggressive supervisor. Even though aggressive supervisors attain higher credibility due to higher perceived competency, they cannot gain trust and supporting from their subordinates compared to submissive supervisors. It could be inferred that this is the trade-off between the image of likeability and power between being submissive and aggressive, respectively.

The findings lead to a coherent conclusion that suits the Thai culture of femininity. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Thailand is the most feminine Asian country. In the Masculinity Index (MAS) values, Thailand is ranked the 64th out of 74 countries, where the most masculine Asian country, Japan, is ranked the second in the index. A feminine society is depicted as "a society where emotional gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life," while a masculine society is given a picture as "a society where emotional gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life" (p.120). Appendix G portrays the Masculine Index (MAS) values for 74 countries and regions. Also, a survey conducted by a Japanese market research agency, Wacoal, reports that young working women in eight Asian cities perceive characteristics belonged to men and women differently between masculine and feminine societies (Hofstede, 1996). In the more masculine cultures, only males are seen as having a sense of responsibility, ambitiousness, and decisiveness, whereas only females are seen as caring and gentle. In the more feminine cultures, all these characteristics are perceived in both genders.

This might explain why a submissive supervisor is credited higher than an aggressive supervisor in the feminine society like Thailand.

Another research question analyzes the interaction effect between socio-communicative style and sex of supervisor. The result does not show any significant difference whether males or females can generate different subordinates' perceptions toward supervisor's credibility. It can be inferred that a male submissive supervisor is not perceived as less credible than a female submissive supervisor. On the other hand, a male competent supervisor is not perceived as more credible than a female competent supervisor in terms of expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill. The finding contrasts to previous study about prejudice toward female leaders by Carli and Eagly (2001). They assert that a female leader is evaluated less credible due to the stereotype of being less competent and violations of gender norms. Females are judged with higher standards called double standard or double bind, and are less recognized than males (Eagly & Karau, 2002). She must perform outstandingly to be perceived as equally competent as men.

All in all, Thai subordinates are most likely to accept the competent/androgynous style as this type of supervisor attains the highest credibility scores from subordinates' perceptions. In certain situations, where a competent style does not exist, the submissive/feminine style is preferable, in terms of credibility, compared to aggressive/masculine style. According to Roachthavilit (2004), non-assertiveness, noncompetitiveness, and relationship building conceptualize Thai's feminine nature. This study affirms that a feminine society like Thailand is prone to a modest leader.

Verbal Aggressiveness in Persuasion

The final two research questions explore how the verbal aggressiveness of supervisors influences their subordinates' perceptions in terms of credibility. One research question focused solely on verbal aggressiveness as the influencer, and the other research question scrutinized the combination of verbal aggressiveness and sex of supervisor.

There are two key terms, assertiveness and aggressiveness, that should be conspicuously distinguished since they are sometimes used interchangeably, yet are exploited and interpreted discretely. Gass and Seiter (2003) note that assertiveness is a positive form of aggressiveness because assertiveness denotes "acting in your own best interest while, at the same time, not denying others' rights" (p. 115). Regarding this study, assertiveness typifies the constructive connotation, whereas aggressiveness exemplifies a less fruitful connotation. Willis and Daisley (1995, p. 3) differentiate these two terms with simpler articulation as "I'm okay–you're okay as assertiveness, and I'm okay–you're not okay as aggressiveness."

The findings from the study illustrate a significant difference in subordinates' perceptions toward their supervisor's credibility in relation to verbal aggressiveness. A non-verbally aggressive supervisor gains significantly higher credibility than a verbally aggressive supervisor in all dimensions (expertise, trustworthiness, and goodwill). The results are consistent with several previous studies. Infante and Wigley III's study (1986) assert that subordinates are more satisfied with low verbally aggressive superiors. Verbal aggressiveness is negatively correlated with the three dimensions of source credibility and overall affects the credibility of a supervisor. In addition, supervisors who are noted as verbally aggressive are seen as far less credible

than those who are non-verbally aggressive (Cole & McCroskey, 2003). Myers (2001) also indicates that credibility is negatively correlated with the use of verbally aggressive messages. Correspondingly, this study also finds a significant inverse relationship between credibility and verbally aggressiveness.

The quantitative findings are noticeably coherent with explanations obtained during the interviews. In addition to lower credibility assigned to verbally aggressive supervisors, subordinates who work with this style of supervisors have pressure and lower morale. The Thai nature of being *Sabai Sabai* can possibly provoke the unfavorable response to verbally aggressive supervisors. Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam and Jablin (1999) express the Thai's *Sabai Sabai* or *Mai Pen Rai* in English as "never mind, it doesn't matter, it's all right, don't get upset, or everything will work out." Therefore, working with a verbally aggressive supervisor can lead to an uncomfortable atmosphere and cause the hostile effect.

According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Thailand is ranked 56th–61st relative to other 74 countries in the Individualism Index (IDV) Values. It denotes the nature of high collectivistic in Thai culture. Appendix H illustrates the Individualism Index (IDV) Values for 74 countries and regions. A high-context communication is habitually found in collectivist culture (Hall, 1976). According to Hofstede & Hofstede, (2005), High-context communication is:

> The one in which little has to be said or written because most of the
> information is either in the physical environment or supposed to be known by
> the persons involved, while very little is in the coded, explicit part of the
> message. (p. 89)

Whereas people typically communicate verbally in an individualist society, silence can be golden in a certain situation from the collectivist point of view. Thai supervisors who persuade their subordinates in a verbally aggressive manner, hence, do not necessarily receive positive feedback. Thai people customarily respond unfavorably to losing face when being overtly and verbally jeopardized. The concept of face is bred in collectivist culture, and face losing demonstrates the sense of being humiliated (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Feminine societies like Thailand are deemed to take life easy. As such, Thais are likely to refrain from aggressive confrontation; rather, they typically solve conflict by negotiation or compromise.

The last research question investigates the interaction effect between verbal aggressiveness and sex of supervisor. The result does not show any significant difference whether being male or female can generate different subordinate's perception toward supervisor's credibility. However, the findings are inconsistent with Burgoon, Dillard, and Doran's study (1983). They believe that males are expected to be more verbally aggressive in persuasion, while females are expected to be non-verbally aggressive. In sum, it can be inferred that a female aggressive supervisor is not perceived as less credible than a male aggressive supervisor.

Recommendations for Practical Implications

Although the quantitative study does not find significant difference between male and female supervisor's credibility, the qualitative findings, on the other hand, reveal certain differences in communication approaches existing between male and female supervisors. For better practice, it is, thus, inevitable to recognize the role of gender communication in order to enhance the communication effectiveness in the workplace.

Bridging the Gender Gap

The Suan Dusit Poll (Thai female in the 21st century, 2008) about Thai female status reports that Thai females now achieve equal professional opportunity to males, nonetheless, they still encounter major hindrance in terms of prejudice to their competency as well as gender characteristics of being too emotional and indecisive. To overcome this obstacle, female should exhibit not only feminine but also masculine traits. As shown in this study, competent/androgynous style is the most recognized style of leadership among all four socio-communicative types. As such, a female supervisor is more likely to rate favorably when she demonstrates a masculine characteristic such as assertive, decisive, and so forth. On the other hand, a male supervisor, when applying a more gentle communication approach, can also improve the understanding and sensitivity in terms of goodwill from their subordinates' perceptions. Genderflexing (Tingley, 1994) is a recommended practice to improve the communication effectiveness between sexes. It allows male and female to be flexible to different circumstances. Male and female supervisors should temporarily employ the typical communication behavior of the opposite gender in order to endorse the androgynous traits.

Strengthen Goodwill by Expressing Words of Heart

The researcher recognizes the gap of goodwill when comparing it to expertise and trustworthiness scores. The overall mean of expertise and trustworthiness score is 24.41 and 24.11, respectively; while the overall mean of goodwill score is only 21.02. It can be inferred that Thai subordinates do not speculate on their supervisor's competency and ethics, though the kindness may be varied to individual. However, supervisors can strengthen their goodwill by demonstrating the interest in

subordinates' well-being, listening to their opinions, as well as being sensitive to their feelings. Thai people regularly use the word *Jai* (heart) to express their goodwill towards others. As a result, Thai subordinates feel much appreciated when their supervisors have *Nam Jai* (generosity) and *Hen Jai* (sympathy) by *Sai Jai* (showing concerns) to them and their families. This is one characteristic in the collectivistic culture of people getting close not only to individuals but also their group of friends and families.

Being Assertive with Politeness when Persuading

Although assertiveness emphasizes the constructive connotation, utilizing assertiveness without consideration of Thai feminine culture can probably turn out to be aggressiveness. As a result, assertiveness ought to be tempered with politeness when trying to influence others. "Thais are sensitive to the tone of verbal message" (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 2003, p. 87). While the western culture teaches their children to stand up and speak out, Thai society does not allow the risk of attacking the pride of others. One of the crucial Thai characteristics is *Hai Kiat*, which evokes "showing respect, honor, and sometimes giving face to someone else" (Niratpattanasai, 2005, p.53). Consequently, Thai like to be treated gently and respectfully, especially if they are in the bureaucratic organization where the hierarchy is well established.

It directs to the summary why a non-verbally aggressive supervisor accomplishes higher credibility than a verbally aggressive supervisor. However, the assertive supervisor should avoid the powerless style of communication, yet, he/she ought to exhibit concerns about others by means of saving his/her colleague's face. In conclusion, "outer soft but inner strong" or "having tough mind but tender heart" is

the most appropriate and inspiring influencing approach based on the Thai culture.
This implication is also vital to those who have to work in a seniority system or
supervise subordinates who are much older.

Enhancing Credibility by Engendering *Baramee* in Leadership

A balance between the two features, *Phradet* and *Phrakhun* can yield a leader
of *Baramee*–"power and strength from respect and loyalty" (Holmes & Tangtongtavy,
2003, p.67). Exercising *Phradet* by demonstrating the leader's qualifications of
expertise and decisiveness permits their subordinates to assume their supervisor's
encompassing superior knowledge, power, and experiences. It is acceptable for Thai
colleagues to let the leader make decisions in an authoritarian way. These
subordinates (most exemplified in the bureaucracy) wholeheartedly respect their
supervisors and feel secure under their supervisor's tenure. Instead of labeling their
supervisor as *Hua-Na* (supervisor), they sometimes pronounce their supervisors as
Nai (respectful boss who possesses imperative authority). Alternatively, a supervisor
exercising *Phrakhun* or doing good deeds to his/her subordinates by showing mutual
concern for both personal and professional matters is able to generate the supervisor's
store of goodwill. This kind of supervisor generally treats his/her Thai colleagues as
relatives or *Pee-Nong* (brother/sister). The subordinate, then, feels obligated and loyal
to his/her supervisor's benevolence.

Limitations of the Study

First, this study encounters major limitations relating to the confined category
of the population being studied. The study chooses to explore organizational
communication in the business sector exclusively. Among 11 major business
categories in Thailand (categorized by National Statistical Office), only the business

group of retailing and consumer products companies is examined. In addition, all sample groups were recruited from companies whose headquarters are located in Bangkok area. Hence, the results of this study may not be generalized to other categories of business organizations or those whose offices are situated in other regions of Thailand.

Second, due to the nature of this non-experimental research in behavioral science; all independent factors cannot be absolutely controlled by the researcher, though there are selecting procedures of samples as well as screening questions in the initial part of the questionnaire. The samples can be diverged according to the working environment they are situated in.

Finally, the instruments (Source Credibility scale, Assertiveness-Responsiveness scale, and Verbal Aggressiveness scale) are originally constructed in the western culture, and translated into Thai language. The interpretation, the concepts, the vocabularies, or other situational factors may vary due to cultural divergence, which can limit the accuracy and application of the instruments.

Recommendations for Future Research

The limitations noted above have raised the following recommended investigations that should be subjected to future research.

First, because this study limits itself to a certain business category, future studies are suggested to explore extended groups of population. The other untapped categories such as bureaucratic, multinational, and military organizations can be underlined to reveal any different organizational culture that can possibly affect the employee's perception resided in those establishments.

An example of bureaucratic perception that raise researcher's attention is from *Khunying* Dhipavadee Meksawan, the first Thai woman who is promoted to the C11 level as the secretary-general of the Civil Service Commission of Thailand (*Khunying* is a title granted by the royal family to meritorious married women, and C11 is the highest level in the Thai bureaucracy). She states that Thai women are perceived and conformed to stereotype of being polite and tender, and aggressive women are not acceptable. Dhipavadee was the only woman out of 29 people at the same level (Tantiwiramanond, 2007). This can illustrate that there is a minimal number of females being promoted to higher levels, and they are highly discriminated in the bureaucratic organization.

With respect to gender, male dominated and female dominated organizations may also disclose different findings upon how employees are perceived. Females entering male-dominated fields like law enforcement confront greater challenges than do males entering female-dominated fields like nursing (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). Thus, extended studies in different types of organizational culture may bring an interesting justification.

Second, regarding the nature of behavioral science research like this study which the associated variables cannot be fully managed, the future laboratory research is encouraged to manipulate all related variables to confirm the equivalent results. Likewise, the approach of comparative study between two different organizational classifications can also be replaced to assure the similar findings.

Third, pertaining to the validity of instruments that were used in this study, the researcher recommends constructing an original aggressiveness scale based on a high-context culture in comparison to verbal aggressive behaviors that originated in a low-

context culture. The non-verbal aggressiveness scale, in the high-context society, can be as crucial as or even more important than that of the verbal one.

In addition, a few further studies are also encouraged as a result of findings from this study.

As was addressed in the discussion section, the sex of the subordinate yields a significantly different perception toward the supervisor's credibility; future research, therefore, is suggested to include sex of subordinates as the incremental factor.

Finally, during the interview, the researcher was intrigued by insights provided by some interviewees about different occupations that can influence different subordinates' perceptions towards their supervisors. After exploring the masculinity and femininity among occupations, the researcher finds that sales representatives is the highest masculine occupation since those people work in a strong competitive climate and are motivated on commission (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). It, thus, leads to a suggestion to validate gender communication in other occupational domains.

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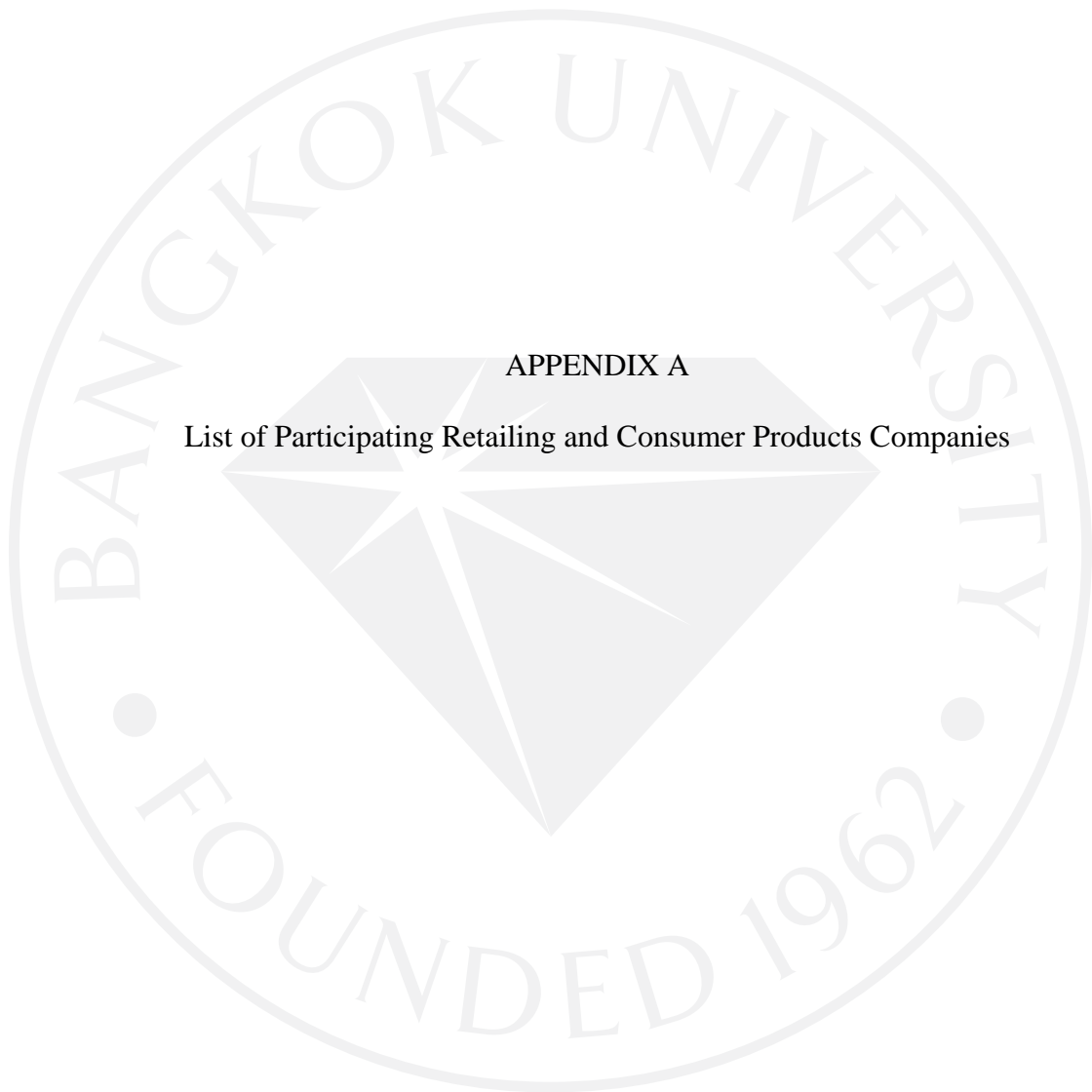
APPENDIX A

List of Participating Retailing and Consumer Products Companies

No.	Company	Brand
1.	S&P Syndicate Public Co., Ltd.	
2.	Servier (Thailand) Co., Ltd.	
3.	C.P. Consumer Products Co., Ltd.	
4.	Cadbury Adams (Thailand) Ltd.	
5.	Mass Marketing Co., Ltd.	
6.	Panasonic Siew Sales (Thailand) Co., Ltd.	
7.	Unilever Thai Trading Ltd.	
8.	Novartis (Thailand) Ltd.	
9.	Mitsubishi Electric Kang Yong Watana Co., Ltd.	
10.	President Interfood Co., Ltd.	
11	The Swatch Group Trading (Thailand) Ltd.	

APPENDIX B

Introductory and Certified Letters

June 26, 2007

S&P Syndicate Public Company Limited

My name is Siraya Kongsompong, a Ph.D. candidate in School of Communication which is the joint program between Bangkok University and Ohio University (USA). I am seeking your kind cooperation in a survey as a part of dissertation fulfillment concerning with credibility of supervisor in organization from subordinate's perception. The objectives of the study are to understand the behaviors of supervisor in organization as well as their effectiveness in communication from the perspectives of their colleagues.

I would like to request for your permission to distribute the questionnaires (in Thai) to your employees. The questionnaire will take about 5-10 minutes to complete. There are a few guidelines in recruiting the respondents:

➢ 25 male and 25 female employees (each should have been working with his/her immediate supervisor for at least 6 months)

➢ Those 50 employees should be from 3-4 different departments

➢ There is no requirement for employees' age or ranking in the organization.

If you would like to receive the results of this study, I am willing to provide you a summary when this project is finished. I guarantee all answers will be kept strictly confidential and used for academic purposes only. I have also enclosed the questionnaire as well as the certified letter from Bangkok University for your consideration. Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions about this project at 087-680-4809 or e-mail se276505@ohio.edu. Again, let me express my gratitude for your kind participation in this research project.

Sincerely yours,

Siraya Kongsompong

Ph.D. Candidate

Joint Program between Bangkok University and Ohio University

มหาวิทยาลัยกรุงเทพ
BANGKOK UNIVERSITY

The Graduate School

June 21, 2007

S&P Syndicate Public Company Limited

To Whom It May Concern :

The Graduate School of Bangkok University would like to request for your permission to allow one of our students in the Doctoral Program in Communication (a joint program with Ohio University, U.S.A.), Mrs. Siraya Kongsompong (Student Code : 9473100098) to collect data/information for her Dissertation: (Course CA 800) titled "Thai Subordinates' Perception of Gender, Leadership, and Aggressiveness Persuasion on Supervisors' Credibility."

The data collected from the interview will be solely used for academic purposes, and we are very confident that Mrs. Siraya will benefit greatly from this practical activity. We, therefore, look forward to your positive response to our request.

Sincerely yours,

Lugkana Worasinchai, D.B.A.
Dean of the Graduate School

Graduate School
Tel. 0-2350-3608-9
Fax 0-2350-3668
E-mail : graduate@bu.ac.th
E-Mail : lugkana.w@bu.ac.th
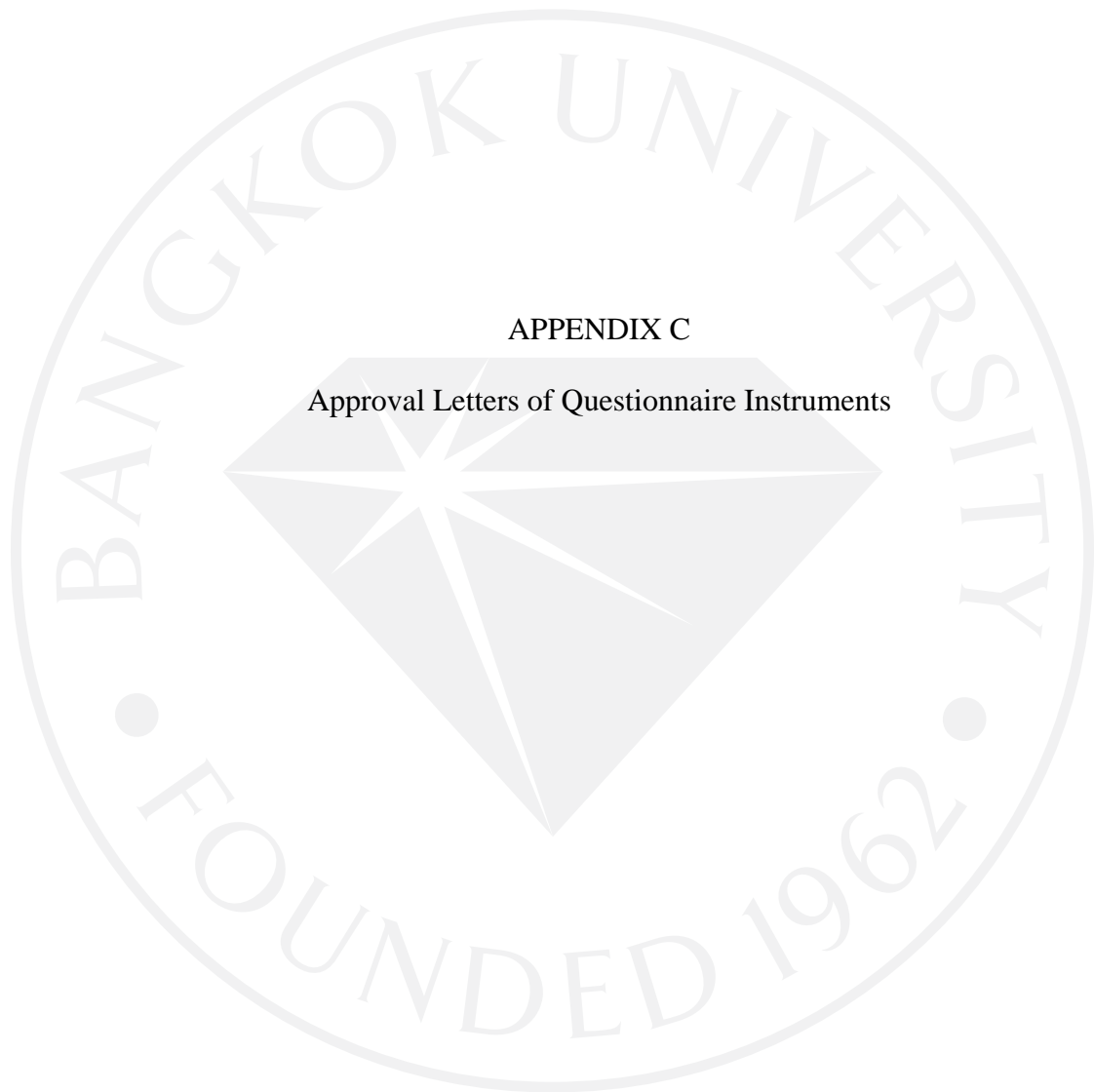
APPENDIX C

Approval Letters of Questionnaire Instruments
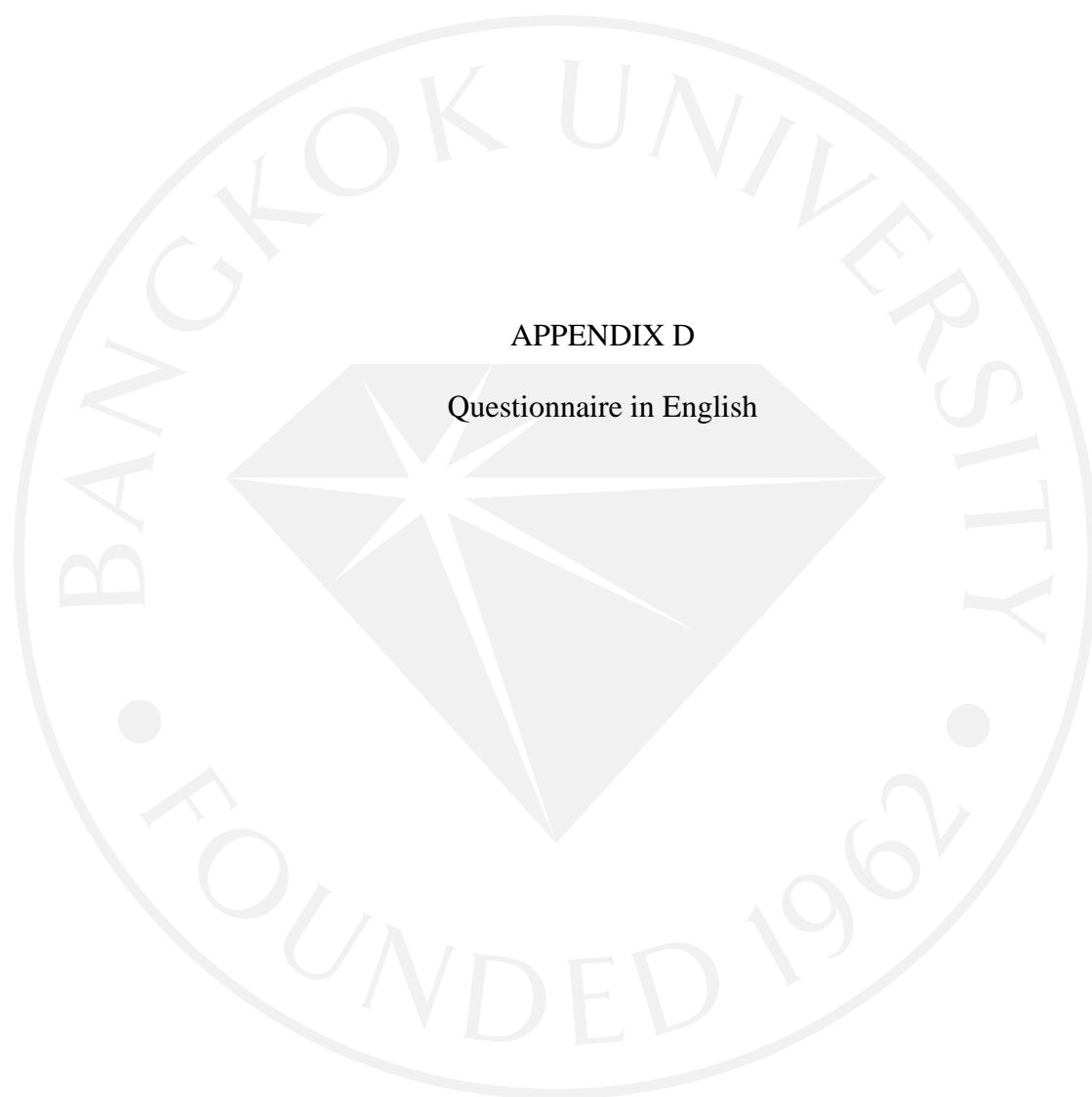
APPENDIX D

Questionnaire in English

July 2007

Dear questionnaire respondent,

My name is Siraya Kongsompong, a Ph.D. candidate in the joint program in School of Communication between Bangkok University and Ohio University (USA). I am seeking your kind participation in a survey as a part of dissertation fulfillment concerned with credibility of leader in organization from subordinate's perception. The objectives of the study are to understand the behavior of leader in organization as well as their effectiveness in communication from the perspectives of their colleagues.

I would ask for your kind cooperation to complete the attached questionnaire and return it within _____ in the self-addressed envelope provided in this questionnaire kit. It will take you approximately 5-10 minutes to finish the questionnaire. I will greatly appreciate your valuable time from your busy schedule in completing the questionnaire.

I guarantee your answers will be kept strictly confidential and used for educational purposes only. However, if you have any questions or need more information about this project, please do not hesitate to contact me at 087-680-4809 or e-mail me at se276505@ohio.edu. Again, let me express my gratitude for your kind participation in this research project.

Sincerely yours,

Siraya Kongsompong

Questionnaire

There are 4 major parts in this questionnaire:
<u>Part 1</u> Your supervisor's personality characteristics.
<u>Part 2</u> Your supervisor's influential behaviors.
<u>Part 3</u> Your supervisor's credibility.
<u>Part 4</u> Your personal information

In order to provide the answers in every part of this questionnaire, think about your "**immediate supervisor.**"

1. Sex of your immediate supervisor.
_____ Male   _____ Female

2. Age of your immediate supervisor.
_____ Under 20 years
_____ Between 20 to 29 years
_____ Between 30 to 39 years
_____ Between 40 to 49 years
_____ 50 years and above

3. Nationality of your immediate supervisor.
_____ Thai   _____ Others,
specify_____

4. How long have you worked with your immediate supervisor?
_____ Less than 2 years
_____ Between 2 to 5 years
_____ Between 6 to 10 years
_____ More than 10 years

5. Which level in organization are you working for?
_____ Supervisor
_____ Manager
_____ Executive
_____ Specialist
_____ Others, specify_____

Part 1: Supervisor's Personality Characteristics

Instructions: The questionnaire below lists 20 pairs of personality characteristics. Please indicate the degree to which you believe each of these characteristics applies to your supervisor ranging from 1 (strong disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

There are no right or wrong answers. Work quickly; record your first impression.

My immediate supervisor......	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Helpful	1	2	3	4	5
2. Defends own beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
3. Independent	1	2	3	4	5
4. Responsive to others	1	2	3	4	5
5. Forceful	1	2	3	4	5
6. Has strong personality	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5
8. Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
9. Assertive	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sensitive to the needs of others	1	2	3	4	5
11. Dominant	1	2	3	4	5
12. Sincere	1	2	3	4	5
13. Gentle	1	2	3	4	5
14. Willing to take a stand	1	2	3	4	5
15. Warm	1	2	3	4	5
16. Tender	1	2	3	4	5
17. Friendly	1	2	3	4	5
18. Acts as a leader	1	2	3	4	5
19. Aggressive	1	2	3	4	5
20. Competitive	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2: Supervisor's Influential Behaviors

Instructions: This survey is concerned with how your supervisor tries to get you or other persons to comply with his/her wishes. Please indicate the degree ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree) to which you believe each of these behaviors is employed by your supervisor when he/she tries to influence you or other persons.

1. My supervisor is extremely careful to avoid attacking individuals' intelligence when he/she attacks their ideas.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

2. When individuals are very stubborn, my supervisor uses insults to soften the stubbornness.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

3. My supervisor tries very hard to avoid having other people feel bad about themselves when he/she tries to influence them.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

4. When people refuse to do a task my supervisor knows is important, without good reason, he/she tell them they are unreasonable.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

5. When people behave in ways that are in very poor state, my supervisor insults them in order to shock them into proper behavior.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

6. My supervisor tries to make people feel good about themselves even when their ideas are stupid.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

7. When people simply will not budge on a matter of importance, my supervisor loses his/her temper and says rather strong things to them.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

8. When people criticize my supervisor's shortcomings, he/she takes it in good humor and do not try to get back at them.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

9. My supervisor likes poking fun at people who do things which are very stupid in order to stimulate their intelligence.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

10. When nothing seems to work in trying to influence others, he/she yells and screams in order to get some movement from them.

Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Agree

Part 3: Supervisor's Credibility

Instructions: On the scale below, please indicate your feeling about your supervisor. Circle the number between the adjectives which best represents your feelings about your supervisor when they are persuading you or other persons.

Number 1 and 5 = Very strong feeling
Number 2 and 4 = Strong feeling
Number 3 = Undecided

1. My supervisor's expertise

Unintelligent	1	2	3	4	5	Intelligent
Untrained	1	2	3	4	5	Trained
Inexpert	1	2	3	4	5	Expert
Uninformed	1	2	3	4	5	Informed
Incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	Competent
Stupid	1	2	3	4	5	Bright

2. My supervisor's trustworthiness

Dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	Honest
Untrustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	Trustworthy
Dishonorable	1	2	3	4	5	Honorable
Immoral	1	2	3	4	5	Moral
Unethical	1	2	3	4	5	Ethical
Phony	1	2	3	4	5	Genuine

3. My supervisor's goodwill

Does not care about me	1	2	3	4	5	Cares about me
Does not have my interests at heart	1	2	3	4	5	Has my interest at heart
Self-centered	1	2	3	4	5	Not self-centered
Unconcerned with me	1	2	3	4	5	Concerned with me
Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	Sensitive
Not understanding	1	2	3	4	5	Understanding

Part 4: Your Personal Information

1. Sex
   _____ Male   _____ Female

2. Age
   _____ Under 20 years
   _____ Between 20 to 29 years
   _____ Between 30 to 39 years
   _____ Between 40 to 49 years
   _____ 50 years and above

3. Highest educational level.
   _____ Under bachelor
   _____ Bachelor's degree
   _____ Master's and above
   _____ Others, specify_____

4. How long have you worked for your current company?
   _____ Less than 1 year
   _____ Between 1 to 5 years
   _____ Between 6 to 10 years
   _____ More than 10 years

5. Which department are you working for?
   _____ Sales and Marketing
   _____ Accounting and Finance
   _____ Human Resource and Administration
   _____ Information Technology
   _____ Others, specify_____

6. Which level in the organization are you working for?
   _____ Operation (do not have any subordinate)
   _____ Supervisor
   _____ Manager
   _____ Executive
   _____ Others, specify_____

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX E

Questionnaire in Thai

กรกฎาคม 2550

เรื่อง ขอความอนุเคราะห์ในการตอบแบบสอบถามสำหรับการทำวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน ท่านผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

      ดิฉัน สิรยา คงสมพงษ์ เป็นนักศึกษาปริญญาเอก สาขานิเทศศาสตร์ ด้านการสื่อสารองค์กร ซึ่งเป็น
โครงการร่วมกันระหว่างมหาวิทยาลัยกรุงเทพและมหาวิทยาลัยโอไฮโอ (สหรัฐอเมริกา) ดิฉันใคร่ขอความ
ร่วมมือจากท่านในการตอบแบบสอบถามซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของงานวิทยานิพนธ์ในหัวข้อ "ความน่าเชื่อถือของ
ผู้บังคับบัญชาในองค์กรจากมุมมองของผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา" โดยแบบสอบถามชุดนี้จะใช้เวลาทำเพียง 5-10 นาที
จุดประสงค์ของงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้เพื่อศึกษาเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมของบุคลากรในองค์กรและประสิทธิภาพในการสื่อสาร
ของผู้บังคับบัญชาจากมุมมองของผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา ความร่วมมือจากท่านถือเป็น**ความสมัครใจ** และคำตอบของ
ท่านมีความสำคัญอย่างยิ่งสำหรับงานวิจัยฉบับนี้ ดิฉันใคร่ขอความกรุณาท่าน**ช่วยตอบแบบสอบถามทุกข้อ** โดย
ตอบให้**ตรงกับความเป็นจริง** มากที่สุด ทั้งนี้เพื่อให้ผลการวิจัยน่าเชื่อถือมากที่สุด

      **เมื่อท่านได้กรอกแบบสอบถามเสร็จเรียบร้อยแล้ว ขอความกรุณาท่านนำแบบสอบถามใส่คืนใน<u>ซอง
เอกสารที่ได้จ่าหน้าซองถึงดิฉัน ปิดผนึก แล้วส่งคืนให้กับผู้ที่มอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้ให้แก่ท่าน</u> อย่างไรก็ดีท่าน
สามารถส่งคืนแบบสอบถามที่กรอกแล้วให้กับดิฉันโดยตรงทางไปรษณีย์ได้เช่นกัน**

      ทั้งนี้เพื่อทำให้ขั้นตอนการรวบรวมแบบสอบถามเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อย ดิฉันขอความร่วมมือจาก
ท่านได้โปรดส่งแบบสอบถามคืนภายใน_____ จักขอบพระคุณยิ่ง

      ดิฉันขอรับรองว่าคำตอบในแบบสอบถามที่ได้รับคืนจากท่านจะถูกเก็บเป็น**ความลับ** และ**ไม่มีผลเสีย
หายใด ๆ** ทั้งต่อตัวท่านหรือองค์กรของท่าน การวิเคราะห์และการนำเสนอผลการวิจัยจะใช้เพื่อจุดประสงค์ใน
การศึกษาเท่านั้น และจะกระทำในภาพรวมโดยไม่มีการอ้างอิงถึงตัวบุคคลหรือองค์กรไม่ว่ากรณีใด ๆ ทั้งสิ้น หาก
ท่านมีข้อสงสัยหรือต้องการข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ ท่านสามารถติดต่อดิฉันได้ที่เบอร์โทรศัพท์
087-680-4809 หรืออีเมล์มาที่ <u>se276505@ohio.edu</u> ดิฉันขอขอบคุณในความอนุเคราะห์ของท่านมา ณ
โอกาสนี้

<div align="center">ขอแสดงความนับถือ</div>

<div align="center">สิรยา คงสมพงษ์</div>

แบบสอบถาม

แบบสอบถามชุดนี้ประกอบด้วย 4 ส่วนหลักได้แก่

ส่วนที่ 1 บุคลิกลักษณะของผู้บังคับบัญชา

ส่วนที่ 2 การโน้มน้าวผู้อื่นของผู้บังคับบัญชา

ส่วนที่ 3 ความน่าเชื่อถือของผู้บังคับบัญชา

ส่วนที่ 4 ข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

ในการตอบแบบสอบถามขอให้ท่านนึกถึง **<u>ผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบัน</u>** ของท่าน

1. เพศของผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่าน

     1)_____ ชาย   2)_____ หญิง

2. อายุของผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่าน

     1)_____ ต่ำกว่า 20 ปี   2)_____ ระหว่าง 20 ถึง 29 ปี

     3)_____ ระหว่าง 30 ถึง 39 ปี   4)_____ ระหว่าง 40 ถึง 49 ปี

     5)_____ 50 ปีขึ้นไป

3. สัญชาติของผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่าน

     1)_____ ไทย   2)_____ อื่น ๆ ระบุประเทศ_____

4. ท่านทำงานกับผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่านมานานเท่าไร

     1)_____ น้อยกว่า 1 ปี

     2)_____ ระหว่าง 1 ถึง 5 ปี

     3)_____ มากกว่า 5 แต่ไม่ถึง 10 ปี

     4)_____ 10 ปี ขึ้นไป

5. ผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่านทำงานอยู่ในระดับใดขององค์กร

     1)_____ หัวหน้างาน (ระดับต้น)   2)_____ ผู้จัดการ (ระดับกลาง)

     3)_____ ผู้บริหาร (ระดับสูง)   4)_____ ผู้เชี่ยวชาญ

     5)_____ อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ _____

ส่วนที่ 1 บุคลิกลักษณะของผู้บังคับบัญชา

<u>คำแนะนำ</u>

แบบสอบถามส่วนนี้ประกอบด้วยบุคลิกลักษณะ 20 ประเภท โปรดระบุหมายเลขซึ่งแสดงถึงระดับความเห็น
ด้วย ที่ท่านเชื่อว่าใกล้เคียงกับบุคลิกลักษณะของผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่านมากที่สุด โดยเรียงลำดับจาก
1 (ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง) จนถึง 5 (เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

แบบสอบถามส่วนนี้ไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด โปรดตอบอย่างรวดเร็วโดยระบุระดับความเห็นแรกเกี่ยวกับ บุคลิก
ผู้บังคับบัญชาที่ท่านนึกถึง

ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉัน......	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. ชอบให้ความช่วยเหลือ	1	2	3	4	5
2. ยืนกรานในความคิดของตน	1	2	3	4	5
3. มีความเป็นอิสระ	1	2	3	4	5
4. รับผิดชอบต่อผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
5. มีอำนาจ	1	2	3	4	5
6. มีบุคลิกที่เข้มแข็ง	1	2	3	4	5
7. เห็นอกเห็นใจผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
8. มีความเมตตากรุณา	1	2	3	4	5
9. มุ่งมั่น	1	2	3	4	5
10. คำนึงถึงความต้องการของผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
11. มีอิทธิพลเหนือผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5
12. จริงใจ	1	2	3	4	5
13. สุภาพ	1	2	3	4	5
14. มีจุดยืนของตนเอง	1	2	3	4	5
15. อบอุ่น	1	2	3	4	5
16. อ่อนโยน	1	2	3	4	5
17. เป็นมิตร	1	2	3	4	5
18. มีความเป็นผู้นำ	1	2	3	4	5
19. ก้าวร้าว	1	2	3	4	5
20. ชอบการแข่งขัน	1	2	3	4	5

-- ต่อหน้าถัดไป --

ส่วนที่ 2 การโน้มน้าวผู้อื่นของผู้บังคับบัญชา

คำแนะนำ

แบบสอบถามส่วนนี้เกี่ยวข้องกับ วิธีที่ผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันของท่าน ใช้ในการโน้มน้าวบุคคลอื่นให้ทำตามสิ่ง
ที่เขาหรือเธอต้องการ โปรดระบุหมายเลขซึ่งแสดงถึงระดับความเห็นด้วย ที่เป็นจริงในการพยายามโน้มน้าวผู้อื่น
ของผู้บังคับบัญชาของท่าน โดยเรียงลำดับจาก 1 (ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง) จนถึง 5 (เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง)

1. เมื่อต้องวิพากษ์วิจารณ์ความคิดบุคคลอื่น ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันระมัดระวังเป็นพิเศษที่จะไม่เน้นเรื่อง
สติปัญญาของบุคคลเหล่านั้น

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

2. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นเป็นคนหัวรั้น ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะใช้วิธีดูหมิ่นบุคคลเหล่านั้นเพื่อลดความดื้อดึง

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

3. เมื่อต้องโน้มน้าวบุคคลอื่น ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันพยายามมากที่จะหลีกเลี่ยงมิให้บุคคลเหล่านั้นรู้สึกในทาง
ลบต่อตนเอง

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

4. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นปฏิเสธที่จะทำงานที่สำคัญ ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะตำหนิบุคคลเหล่านั้นว่าเป็นคนไม่มีเหตุผล
โดยไม่อธิบายเหตุผลประกอบ

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

5. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นประพฤติตัวไม่เหมาะสม ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะใช้วิธีสบประมาทบุคคลเหล่านั้นให้สะเทือน
ใจเพื่อจะได้ปรับปรุงพฤติกรรมของตนเอง

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

6. ถึงแม้ความคิดของบุคคลอื่นจะไม่เข้าท่า ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันพยายามที่จะทำให้บุคคลเหล่านั้นยังรู้สึกดีต่อ
ตนเอง

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

7. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นไม่ยินยอมที่จะทำเรื่องที่สำคัญ ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะอารมณ์เสียและใช้วาจาที่รุนแรงว่ากล่าว
บุคคลเหล่านั้น

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

8. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นวิจารณ์จุดบกพร่องของผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉัน ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะถือเป็นเรื่องตลกและไม่พยายามที่จะเอาคืน

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

9. เมื่อบุคคลอื่นทำสิ่งที่ไร้สาระ ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะชอบกระเซ้าเย้าแหย่บุคคลเหล่านั้น โดยหวังให้เขาปรับปรุงตัว

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง

10. เมื่อผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันไม่สามารถโน้มน้าวบุคคลอื่นได้ด้วยวิธีใดวิธีหนึ่ง ผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉันจะตะโกนโวยวายเพื่อให้บุคคลเหล่านั้นเริ่มทำอะไรบางอย่าง

ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	1	2	3	4	5	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
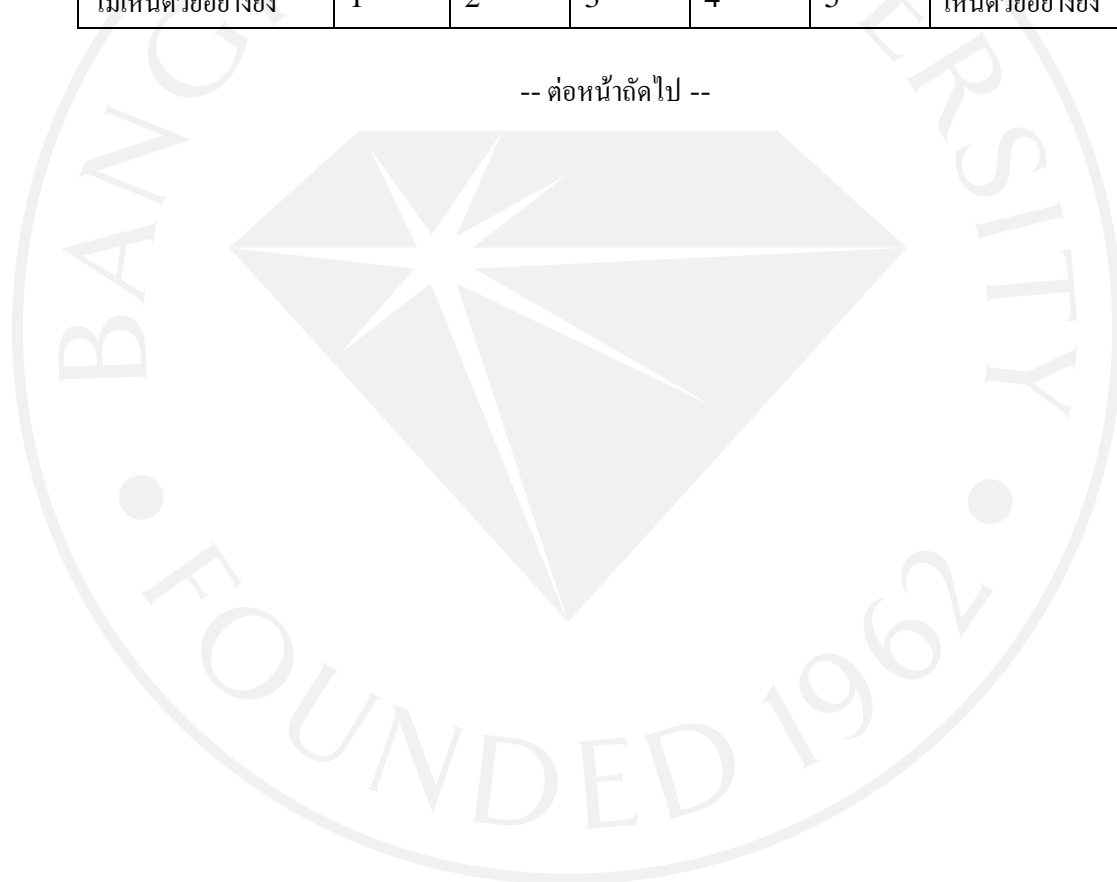
ส่วนที่ 3 ความน่าเชื่อถือของผู้บังคับบัญชา

<u>คำแนะนำ</u>

โปรดระบุ ความรู้สึกที่ท่านมีต่อผู้บังคับบัญชา ในแบบสอบถามส่วนนี้โดยระบุหมายเลขที่อยู่ระหว่างคำคุณศัพท์
ซึ่งแสดงถึงความรู้สึกของท่านที่มีต่อผู้บังคับบัญชาคนปัจจุบันได้ใกล้เคียงที่สุด โดยที่

หมายเลข 1 และ 5 = ความรู้สึกที่รุนแรงมาก

หมายเลข 2 และ 4 = ความรู้สึกที่รุนแรง

หมายเลข 3 = ตัดสินใจไม่ได้

1. ความสามารถของผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉัน						
สติปัญญาไม่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	สติปัญญาดี
ขาดการฝึกฝน	1	2	3	4	5	ฝึกฝนเป็นอย่างดี
ไม่มีความชำนาญ	1	2	3	4	5	มีความชำนาญ
ไม่สามารถรับรู้ถึงสถานการณ์	1	2	3	4	5	รับรู้ถึงสถานการณ์ได้ดี
ไม่มีความสามารถ	1	2	3	4	5	มีความสามารถ
โง่เขลา	1	2	3	4	5	ฉลาดหลักแหลม

2. ความน่าไว้วางใจของผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉัน						
ไม่ซื่อสัตย์	1	2	3	4	5	ซื่อสัตย์
ไม่น่าไว้วางใจ	1	2	3	4	5	น่าไว้วางใจ
ไม่น่าเคารพนับถือ	1	2	3	4	5	น่าเคารพนับถือ
ไม่มีคุณธรรม	1	2	3	4	5	มีคุณธรรม
ไม่มีจรรยาบรรณ	1	2	3	4	5	มีจรรยาบรรณ
เสแสร้ง	1	2	3	4	5	จริงใจ

3. ความมีไมตรีจิตของผู้บังคับบัญชาของฉัน						
ไม่เป็นห่วงเป็นใยฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	เป็นห่วงเป็นใยฉัน
ไม่สนใจและไม่เอาใจใส่ฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	สนใจและเอาใจใส่ฉัน
เอาตัวเองเป็นใหญ่	1	2	3	4	5	ไม่เอาตัวเองเป็นใหญ่
ไม่คำนึงถึงฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	คำนึงถึงฉัน
ไม่สามารถรับรู้ถึงความรู้สึก	1	2	3	4	5	ไวต่อความรู้สึก
ไม่มีความเข้าอกเข้าใจ	1	2	3	4	5	มีความเข้าอกเข้าใจ

ส่วนที่ 4 ข้อมูลส่วนตัวของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. เพศ

    1)_____ ชาย   2)_____ หญิง

2. อายุ

    1)_____ ต่ำกว่า 20 ปี   2)_____ ระหว่าง 20 ถึง 29 ปี

    3)_____ ระหว่าง 30 ถึง 39 ปี   4)_____ ระหว่าง 40 ถึง 49 ปี

    5)_____ 50 ปีขึ้นไป

3. การศึกษาสูงสุด

    1)_____ ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี   2)_____ ปริญญาตรี

    3)_____ ปริญญาโทหรือสูงกว่า   4)_____ อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ _____

4. ท่านทำงานกับองค์กรปัจจุบันมานานเท่าไร

    1)_____ ต่ำกว่า 1 ปี   2)_____ ระหว่าง 1 ถึง 5 ปี

    3)_____ มากกว่า 5 แต่ไม่ถึง 10 ปี   4)_____ 10 ปีขึ้นไป

5. ลักษณะงานที่ท่านทำอยู่เป็นแบบใด

    1)_____ การขายหรือการตลาด   2)_____ บัญชีหรือการเงิน

    3)_____ ทรัพยากรบุคคลหรือธุรการ   4)_____ เทคโนโลยีสารสนเทศ

    5)_____ การผลิตหรือวิจัยค้นคว้า   6)_____ อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ _____

6. ท่านทำงานอยู่ในระดับใดขององค์กร

    1)_____ ปฏิบัติการ (ไม่มีลูกน้อง)   2)_____ หัวหน้างาน (ระดับต้น)

    3)_____ ผู้จัดการ (ระดับกลาง)   4)_____ ผู้บริหาร (ระดับสูง)

    5)_____ ผู้เชี่ยวชาญ   6)_____ อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ _____

-- ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือของท่าน --

APPENDIX F

Interview Protocol

Guideline of interviewing questions

1. How long have you been working with immediate supervisor?

2. Describe the ideal qualifications of a high credible supervisor from your

viewpoint.

2.1 What do you think about supervisor in terms of leadership skill?

2.2 Which type of supervisor that you prefer, task or people-oriented?

2.3 What do you think about supervisor in terms of persuasive skill?

2.4 Which type of supervisor that you prefer, aggressive or less aggressive?

3. What do you think about gender and effectiveness of being a good supervisor?

3.1 What are similarities between male and female supervisors?

3.2 What are differences between male and female supervisors?

3.3 Will there be any differences if the sex of your supervisor is opposite to

current one?

4. If you are given a choice of being supervised by either male or female

supervisor, what will you choose? Why?
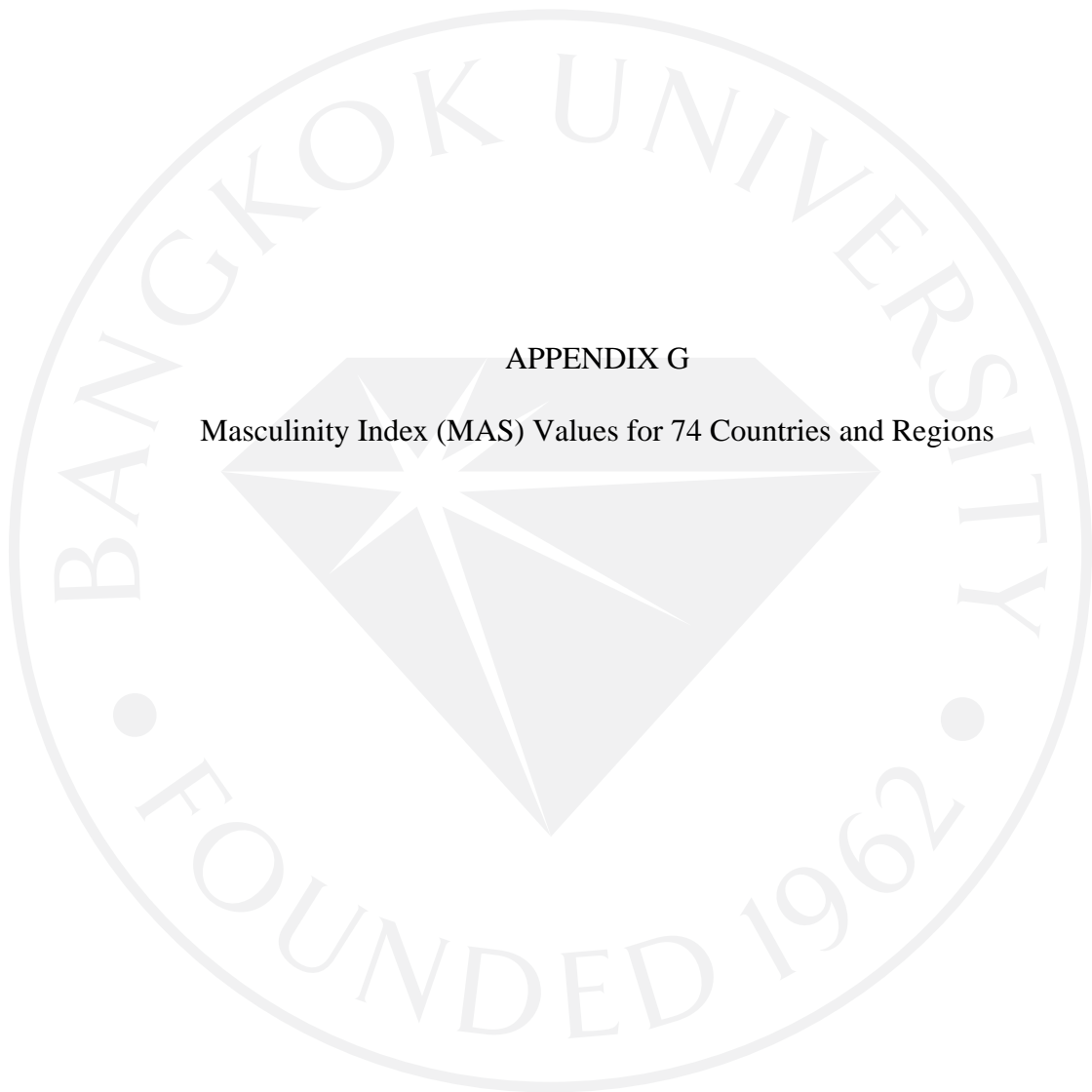
APPENDIX G

Masculinity Index (MAS) Values for 74 Countries and Regions

Rank	Country/ Region	Score	Rank	Country/ Region	Score
1	Slovakia	110	2	Japan	95
3	Hungary	88	4	Austria	79
5	Venezuela	73	6	Switzerland	72
7	Italy	70	8	Mexico	69
9-10	Ireland	68	9-10	Jamaica	68
11-13	China	66	11-13	Germany	66
11-13	Great Britain	66	14-16	Colombia	64
14-16	Philippines	64	14-16	Poland	64
17-18	South Africa	63	17-18	Ecuador	63
19	United States	62	20	Australia	61
21	Belgium Walloon	60	22-24	New Zealand	58
22-24	Switzerland French	58	22-24	Trinidad	58
25-27	Czech Republic	57	25-27	Greece	57
25-27	Hong Kong	57	28-29	Argentina	56
28-29	India	56	30	Bangladesh	55
31-32	Arab Countries	53	31-32	Morocco	53
33	Canada Total	52	34-36	Luxembourg	50
34-36	Malaysia	50	34-36	Pakistan	50
37	Brazil	49	38	Singapore	48
39-40	Israel	47	39-40	Malta	47

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Rank	Country/ Region	Score	Rank	Country/ Region	Score
41-42	Indonesia	46	41-42	West Africa	46
43-45	Canada Quebec	45	43-45	Taiwan	45
43-45	Turkey	45	46	Panama	44
47-50	Belgium Flemish	43	47-50	France	43
47-50	Iran	43	47-50	Serbia	43
51-53	Peru	42	51-53	Romania	42
51-53	Spain	42	54	East Africa	41
55-58	Bulgaria	40	55-58	Croatia	40
55-58	Salvador	40	55-58	Vietnam	40
59	Korea (South)	39	60	Uruguay	38
61-62	Guatemala	37	61-61	Suriname	37
63	Russia	36	*64*	*Thailand*	*34*
65	Portugal	31	66	Estonia	30
67	Chile	28	68	Finland	26
69	Costa Rica	21	70	Slovenia	19
71	Denmark	16	72	Netherlands	14
73	Norway	8	74	Sweden	5

Source: Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind (2nd ed.)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
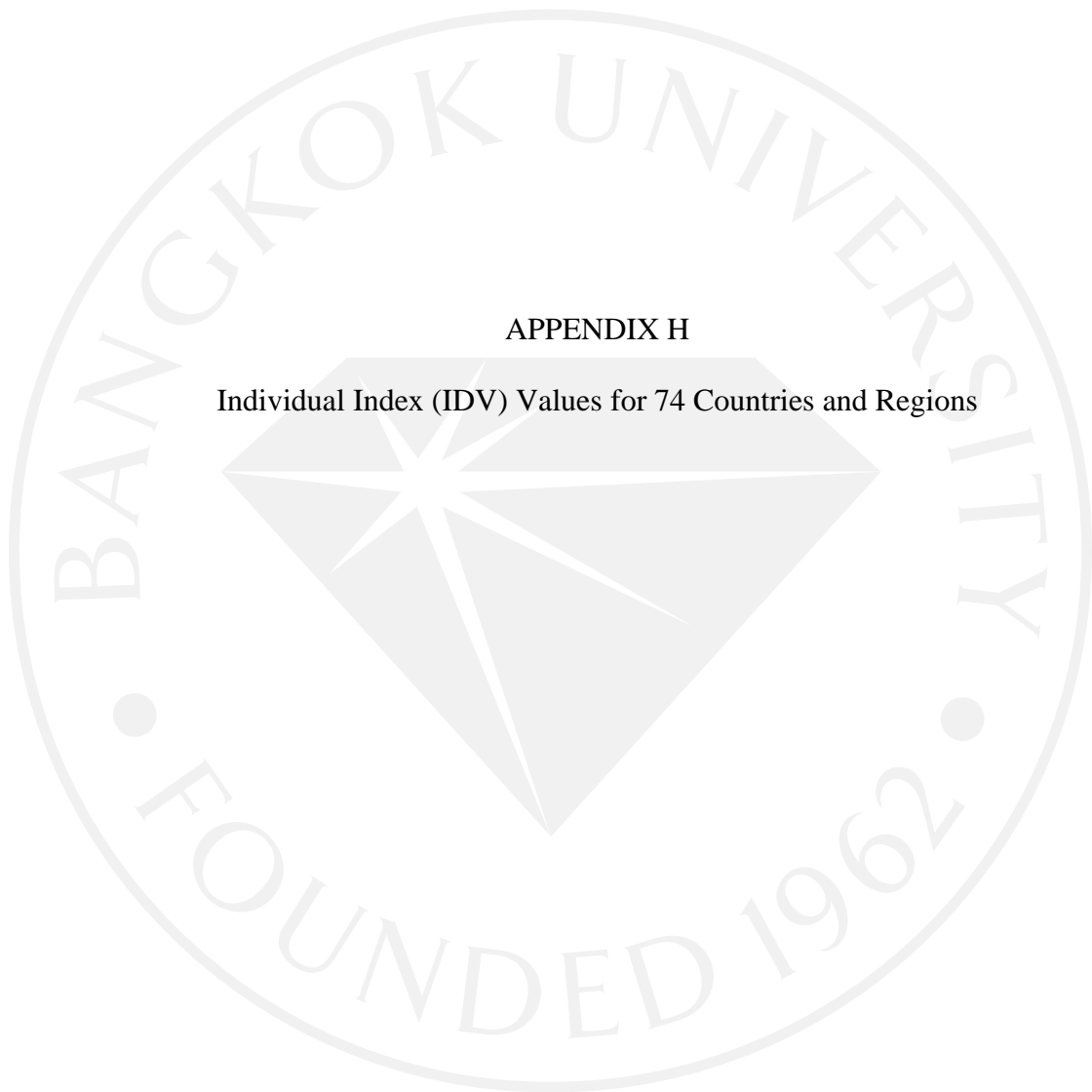
APPENDIX H

Individual Index (IDV) Values for 74 Countries and Regions

Rank	Country/ Region	Score	Rank	Country/ Region	Score
1	United States	91	2	Australia	90
3	Great Britain	89	4-6	Canada Total	80
4-6	Hungary	80	4-6	Netherlands	80
7	New Zealand	79	8	Belgium Flemish	78
9	Italy	76	10	Denmark	74
11	Canada Quebec	73	12	Belgium Walloon	72
13-14	France	71	13-14	Sweden	71
15	Ireland	70	16-17	Norway	69
16-17	Switzerland German	69	18	Germany	67
19	South Africa	65	20	Switzerland French	64
21	Finland	63	22-24	Estonia	60
22-24	Luxembourg	60	22-24	Poland	60
25	Malta	59	26	Czech Republic	58
27	Austria	55	28	Israel	54
29	Slovakia	52	30	Spain	51
31	India	48	32	Suriname	47
33-35	Argentina	46	33-35	Japan	46
33-35	Morocco	46	36	Iran	41
37-38	Jamaica	39	37-38	Russia	39
39-40	Arab Countries	38	39-40	Brazil	38

Rank	Country/ Region	Score	Rank	Country/ Region	Score
41	Turkey	37	42	Uruguay	36
43	Greece	35	44	Croatia	33
45	Philippines	32	46-48	Bulgaria	30
46-48	Mexico	30	46-48	Romania	30
49-51	East Africa	27	49-51	Portugal	27
49-51	Slovenia	27	52	Malaysia	26
53-54	Hong Kong	25	53-54	Serbia	25
55	Chile	23	56-61	Bangladesh	20
56-61	China	20	56-61	Singapore	20
56-61	*Thailand*	*20*	56-61	Vietnam	20
56-61	West Africa	20	62	Salvador	19
63	Korea (South)	18	64	Taiwan	17
65-66	Peru	16	65-66	Trinidad	16
67	Costa Rica	15	68-69	Indonesia	14
68-69	Pakistan	14	70	Colombia	13
71	Venezuela	12	72	Panama	11
73	Ecuador	8	74	Guatemala	6

Source: Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind (2nd ed.)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

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