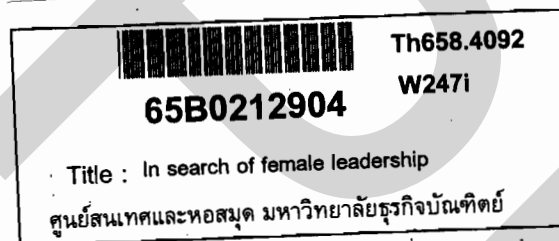




**IN SEARCH OF FEMALE LEADERSHIP:
A STUDY OF CONDITIONS AND FACTORS ASSOCIATED
WITH SUCCESSFUL FEMALE LEADERSHIP IN THAILAND**



By

WANIDA PHONDEJ

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree in Doctor of Business Administration, DPU International College
Dhurakij Pundit University

2010

Declaration

I declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge. It contains neither material previously published or written by another person, nor any material previously submitted for an award of any other degree or diploma at DPU or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the thesis. Also I declare that the intellectual content of this thesis is the result of my own work, except where attributed and acknowledged in the thesis.

Wanida Phondej

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Thesis Title: *In search of female leadership: A study of the conditions and factors associated with successful female leadership in Thailand.*

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ABSTRACT

This research explores the conditions and factors associated with successful female leadership in Thailand and provide a guide to companies' decisions in selecting, developing and retaining future female leaders. The literature review develops a conceptual model linking the conditions and factors associated with female leadership in Thailand. The parent disciplines consisted of leadership theories, leadership personality traits, leadership competencies and gender-based leadership. The immediate discipline focused on the emergence and development of female leadership in Thailand. It also critically evaluates the relationship among different theories and what variables are involved. A conceptual framework and research issues were developed.

To investigate these research issues a qualitative study was conducted within the feminist research paradigm. Then two case studies, the private sector and the public sector were used to investigate. In-depth interviews were then conducted with 40 female leaders in both sectors. Triangulating data was obtained from observations during interviews, self-assessments, and theories in literature. Subsequently, within case analysis was undertaken followed by in-depth, cross case analysis.

The research findings provided rich perspective and insights into Thai female leaders' current status. The female leadership models consisted of leadership talents, leadership competencies and leadership strategies together with supportive factors that help females achieve leadership positions in the Thai culture. Based on the concept of a female leadership model, the implications of findings contributed to

policy measures and professional practice for female leadership. In particular, it contains recommendations for talented women and HR professionals to build three personal powers of women namely, (1) mind power, (2) expert power and (3) socialised power.



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Table of Contents

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	ii
LIST OF TABLES.....	iii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	iv
CHAPTER 1// INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1// Introduction	1
1.2// Background of the Research.....	3
1.3// Research Problem, Questions, and Contributions	6
1.4// Methodology.....	11
1.5// Justification for the Research	12
1.6// Outline of the Study.....	14
1.7// Definitions	15
1.8// Delimitations and Scope	18
1.9// Conclusion.....	18
CHAPTER 2// LITERATURE REVIEW.....	19
2.1// Introduction	19
2.2// Parent Discipline 1: Leadership Theories	22
2.3// Parent Discipline 2: Leadership Personality Traits	49
2.4// Parent Discipline 3: Leadership Competencies.....	65
2.5// Parent Discipline 4: Gender-based leadership.....	83
2.6// Immediate Discipline: Female, Gender, and Leadership in Thailand	96
2.7// Research Gaps in Female Leaderships.....	113
2.8// Research Issues.....	121
CHAPTER 3// RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	128
3.1// Introduction	128
3.2// Justification for the research paradigm	131

3.3// Justification for the research methodology	134
3.4// Justification for the case study method	136
3.5// Case study analysis	157
3.6// Limitations of case study research.....	161
3.8// Conclusions	163
CHAPTER 4// DATA ANALYSIS.....	164
4.1// Introduction	164
4.2// Data Analysis Strategy.....	166
4.3//Profile of participant	171
4.4// Description of the case 1: Research Proposition 1	176
4.5// Description of the case 2: Research Proposition 2	207
4.6// Description of the case 3: Research Proposition 3	220
4.7// Description of the case 4: Research Proposition 4	229
4.8// Conclusions	233
CHAPTER 5//_CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	235
5.1// Introduction	235
5.2// Conclusion related to the research propositions	237
5.2.1// Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 1	237
5.2.2// Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 2.....	258
5.2.3// Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 3	262
5.2.4// Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 4	268
5.3// Limitations of the study	279
5.4// Recommendations.....	280
5.5// Recommendations for future research	300
5.6// Conclusions	301
APPENDIX.....	307
Appendix A: An introductory letter concerning this research	308
Appendix B: Personal details of a participant (Demographic Questionnaires) .	310
Appendix C: The Professional Personality Questionnaire (PPQ)	311
Appendix D: The Behavioural Description Index Questionnaire (BDI)	314
BIBILIOGRAPHY.....	315

List of Tables:

Table Number	Page
2.1//The concept of leadership.....	24
2.2//The differences between being a leader and being a manager.....	28
2.3//From ‘Great Man’ to ‘Transformational’ Leadership.....	34
2.4//McClelland’s Achievement Motivation Theory.....	37
2.5//A Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership.....	45
2.6//The concept of personality.....	50
2.7//The MBTI and four preference pairs.....	59
2.8//The concept of competency.....	66
2.9//The generic competencies.....	71
2.10//The concept of gender based leadership.....	85
2.11//Executives in the private sector by sex, 2006.....	98
2.12// Executives in the public sector by sex, 2006.....	99
2.13//The key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand.....	100
2.14//Illustrating the concept from the literature review.....	113
3.1//A summary of differences among the three approaches to social research...	132
3.2//Qualitative and quantitative approaches.....	135
3.3//Relevant situations for different research strategies.....	137
3.4//Case study tactics for four design tests.....	139
4.1//Details of case study participants.....	170
4.2// Managerial level of the participants.....	171
4.3//Age of the participants.....	172
4.4//Work experience of the participants.....	173
4.5//Marital status of the participants.....	173
4.6//The number of children of the participants.....	174
4.7//The participants’ level of education.....	175
4.8//Summary of the key factors for women to reach high positions in both sectors.....	177
4.9//The descriptions of the individual sub-factors for women	

to reach high positions.....	178
4.10//The personality self assessment result of female leaders in the private sector.....	181
4.11//The personality self assessment result of female leaders in the public sector.....	182
4.12//Summary of the personality characteristics that made females successful leaders in the private sector.....	185
4.13//Summary of the personality characteristics that made females successful leaders in the public sector.....	186
4.14//The description of six personality traits.....	187
4.15//Gender-role specific strengths and weaknesses in female leaders for both sectors.....	197
4.16//The most influence competencies that make females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors.....	204
4.17//The percentage of organisational practice supportive factors.....	207
4.18//The percentage of key factors that participants consider as the main barriers by sectors.....	216
4.19//The percentage contribution of the supportive role of home, education and social environment by sector.....	226
5.1//The individual factors as both influential key factors and main barriers affecting females striving to reach high positions.....	238
5.2//Combined Thai female leadership personality profiles and motives.....	246
5.3//Relation of Thai female leaders' personality traits and leadership competencies.....	254
5.4//Personalities and motives related to Thai female leaders powers.....	264
5.5//Personalities and Motives related to Thai Female Leadership Relationship Behaviours.....	266
5.6//The personality profile matching of leadership ideal profile and Thai female leader personality profile.....	270
5.7//The benefit comparison of Thai female leaders personality traits that off target.....	272
5.8//Ideal Leader Motive Profile matching with	

Thai Female Leader Motive Profile.....	273
5.9//Ideal leadership competency model matching with Thai female leader competency model.....	274
5.10//The Strengths, Weaknesses and Remedies of female leaders' personality models.....	288



List of Figures:

Figure Number	Page
1.1//Outline of study with section numbers and its relation.....	2
1.2//Research Questions, Research Objectives and Research Propositions.....	9
1.3//Justification for the research.....	14
1.4//The outline and conceptual linkage between the chapters of this thesis.....	14
2.1//Outline of Chapter 2 with section number and their inter-relationships.....	21
2.2//Ideal Leader Motive Profile.....	38
2.3//Basic Administrative Skills, Katz (1995).....	40
2.4//Skill Model of Leadership, Mumford et al., 2000.....	41
2.5//The Combination of Leadership Theories for this study.....	47
2.6//The Ideal Leadership Profile.....	57
2.7//The Iceberg Model of Competencies.....	69
2.8//Definition of a “competency”.....	70
2.9//Global Leadership Competencies Model.....	75
2.10//Leadership Competency Model.....	79
2.11//Conceptual model linking Cinderella themes to leadership outcomes through Leadership Attributes.....	82
2.12//The key conditions that influence female leadership advancement.....	91
2.13//Directors of the companies registered at the Stock Exchange of Thailand, 2006.....	97
2.14//Directors of the companies registered at the Department of Business Development, 2006.....	97
2.15//Executives in the public sector by sex, 2006.....	99
2.16//The key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand.....	101
2.17//The concept map for female leadership.....	120
2.18//Summary of research problem, research questions, research objectives, and research propositions	126
3.1//Outline of Chapter 3 with section numbers and their inter-relationships.....	130
3.2// Research questions for this study.....	142

3.3//Research propositions for this study.....	143
3.4//Unit of analysis.....	144
3.5//Basic types of designs for case study.....	146
3.6//Multiple holistic designs for female leaders case study.....	147
3.7//The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 1 and the Research Question 1.....	153
3.8//The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 2 and the Research Question 2.....	154
3.9//The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 3 and the Research Question 3.....	155
3.10//The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 4 and the Research Question 4.....	156
3.11//Triangulation of case study method for female leadership study.....	159
3.12// A summary of the of replication approach for this study.....	160
4.1//Outline of Chapter 4 with section numbers and their inter-relationships.....	165
4.2//Analytic strategies employed in this study.....	166
4.3//Content analysis procedure for this study.....	167
4.4//The cross case analysis of the individual sub-factors for women to reach high positions in both the private and the public sectors.....	179
4.5//Female leadership profiles cross case analysis.....	183
4.6//The cross case analysis of personality traits that made females successful leaders in both the private and the public sectors.....	188
4.7//The percentage of female leaders who applied for any senior positions.....	191
4.8//The female leaders self image in managerial level.....	195
4.9//Competency self assessment result: Female leader competency profiles in the private and the public sectors.....	200
4.10//The competencies that make females successful leaders.....	202
4.11//The percentages of colleague's subgroups that supported female leaders in their career in each sector.....	208
4.12//The percentages of development programs supported leadership development in both sectors.....	210
4.13//The percentages of Gender Discrimination in	

the private and the public sectors.....	211
4.14//Gender stereotype.....	213
4.15//The percentage of possibility to erase gender stereotype by sectors.....	214
4.16//The percentage of personal powers of participants perform to reach high position by sectors.....	220
4.17//The percentage of relationship behaviours of participants as leader by sectors.....	223
4.18//The percentage of behavioural differences between successful female leaders and male leaders by sectors.....	230
4.19//Leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles.....	232
5.1//Outline of Chapter 5 with section numbers and their inter-relationships.....	236
5.2//Thai female leadership personality model: cross case conclusion.....	240
5.3//Thai female leader motive profile and socialised power.....	243
5.4//Thai female leadership competency model cross case conclusion.....	249
5.5//The linking of competencies in the private and the public sectors.....	252
5.6//Thai Female leadership competency models in the private and the public sector.....	253
5.7//Thai Female Leadership Model; Private Sector.....	277
5.8//Thai Female Leadership Model: Public Sector.....	278
5.9//Recommendations for policy measure and professional practice.....	280
5.10//Recommendations for policy measures.....	281
5.11//Mind power developments.....	286
5.12//Expert power developments.....	292
5.13//Socialised Power developments.....	294
5.14//An illustration of the overall brief description this research.....	304

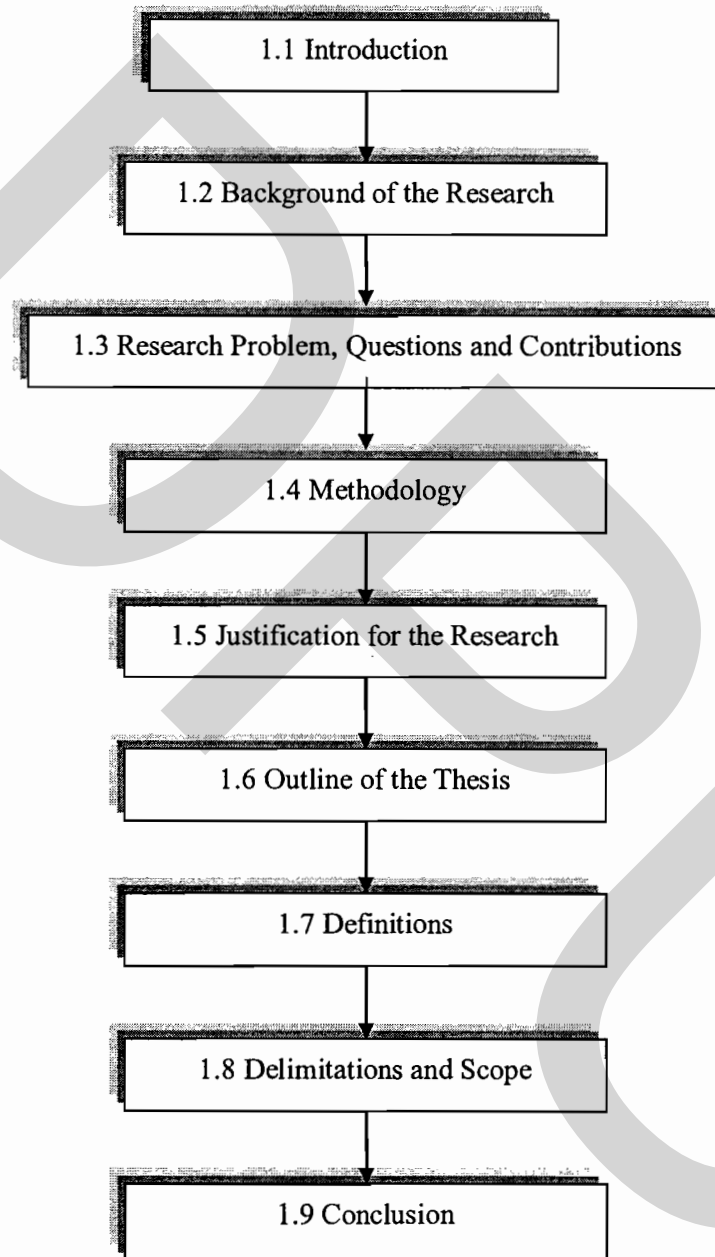
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This research explores the conditions and factors associated with female leadership in Thailand. It considers the debate concerning gender and female leadership in the global context. Furthermore, the key objective is to view female leadership beyond the overriding aim of equality in society: More female leaders in institutions should assist to create a win-win situation within their families and other groups in society, as well as the performance of organisations and firms. This study aims to provide insights for corporations based in Thailand to recruit, develop and retain females in executive leadership positions.

This chapter is presented in nine sections. First, a background to the research (Section 1.2) followed by a definition of the research problem, research question and contributions (Section 1.3). Next, the methodology adopted for the study is outlined (Section 1.4) and then the justification for the research is provided (Section 1.5), the outline of this study is provided next (Section 1.6), followed by definitions (Section 1.7) and delimitations and scope (Section 1.8). Finally, the research paper draws to a close with a conclusion (Section 1.9). This structure is shown in the outline provided in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 Outline of study with section numbers and its relation.



Source: Developed for this research

1.2 Background of the Research

Over the past 20 years, many organisations have become less hierarchical and command-oriented. A profound change has been occurred in the organisational world with structures becoming flat, more matrixes, more complex, and increasingly gender-diversity dependent and team-oriented for high-quality results. In the academic world, many scholars argue that the female leadership style is well suited to the current leadership paradigm of the 21st Century that focuses on team-oriented leadership (Conlin, 2003; Gergen, 2005; and Mitchell, 2000). These studies shed additional light on factors that impact on the rise of females in leadership positions (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eisler, 2005; Helgesen, 1990, 2005; McCracken, 2000; and Wirth, 2001) and identify factors that explain the shift toward increased female leadership.

First, females have changed: In the last decades, more and more women have accomplished good progress in occupations previously reserved for men (Wirth, 2001). As females move from domestic to paid labour, their aspirations, attitudes and performance have changed and improved dramatically. This runs parallel to their occupation in male-dominated functions, positions and roles. It is not surprising that females are entering the male world, competing with the same attributes without altering their femininity (Eagly & Carli, 2003 ; Eisler, 2005 ; and Helgesen, 1990).

Second, female education has changed: With female improvement in educational credentials, increasing number of female graduates at colleges, universities and business schools, women have responded to the mixture of opportunities offered in the corporate environment because they have achieved educational levels comparable to men (Conlin, 2003 ; Peters, 2005 ; Wirth, 2001)

Third, leadership role has changed: Leadership is no longer based on control, coercion, and disempowerment but on inspiration, facilitation, and empowerment (Eisler, 2005). Females seem ideally suited to the new leadership roles which they have widely embraced (Gergen, 2005). Female leaders aim to create a place where relationships flourish and resources are held in stewardship rather than exploited for short term gain (Helgesen, 1990, 2005). As leadership roles change, a larger proportion of workplaces will provide environments that welcome female managerial competence (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

first is for the sake of equality between men and women, since in a democratic world, everyone should have the same opportunities for career advancement including fair access to leading positions. The second argument emphasises the fact that women are an important part of society. In a specific industry for example, a woman's vision and input could be different, and thus contribute in other ways, to benefit the organisation. Therefore, organisations should include women more efficiently. Last, but not least, is the fact that men and women are influenced by different experiences. It could definitely prove to be positive to combine them to broaden the range of alternatives, especially during decision making processes. Consequently, increasingly the number of females at the director level can, amongst other things, extend a company's portfolio of skills, provide role models for younger, high potential females and place companies closer to their customer base and ensure better corporate governance.

Turning from international issues to domestic concerns, in Thailand, females hold significant leadership positions in national and local government, universities, business corporations and family business enterprises (Picavet, 2005; and Yukongdi, 2005) Thai business operations are competing in an increasingly global environment, and female managers and entrepreneurs make substantial contributions in many industrial sectors. However, females continue to be underrepresented at higher organisational levels, and only a small proportion of females make it to the top of Thai organisations (Yukongdi, 2005). Recent official statistics show that females are underrepresented in top management positions in both private and public organisations, despite continuing improvements in educational achievements (Charmponod, 2001; Marie Col, Meksawan, & Sopchokchai, 2001; Picavet, 2005; and Yukongdi, 2005)

From the evidence presented, it is possible to say that the positive results in creating competitive advantage for an organisation achieved from female leadership prove that the world needs new vision and innovations initiated by females. In recent years, the global population has been looking for leaders willing to give it all they have, and female leaders have demonstrated strong leadership skills while still retaining their female talents. Female talent is another factor to study and discuss, but also needs to involve the male point of view. This is certainly an important issue to factor in the debate and emerging practices.

1.3 Research Problem, Questions, and Contributions

1.3.1 Identifying Research Problems in the Area

This study should seek to identify and define the conditions that make it possible, or impossible, for females to access leadership positions in Thai society. These conditions can be divided in the two main factors: - are internal factors and external factors (Klenke, 2002; and Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, & Marks, 2000).

First, the internal factors, such as personality, age, education and experience are the underlying factors for females to become successful leaders (Mumford et al., 2000). These assisting factors found in the personal qualities are set in the following two concepts that are (1) personality traits and (2) competencies.

(1)The concept of the personality trait: Personality traits explore how leaders differ from nonleaders (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). The development of effective leaders must rely on selecting the right people, since it's not easy to change traits. Thus, it is important to discover the characteristics of how to be successful or unsuccessful leaders. A study of personality attributes of female leaders will be undertaken to identify whether female leaders possess common qualities that distinguish them in Thailand.

(2)The concept of competency: Leadership competencies associated with leadership effectiveness are the most likely to be changed through leadership development efforts (Emiliani, 2003; and Martin, 2006). Current trends indicate that identifying competencies is valuable when understanding the leadership development puzzle (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). Females have better social skills and to be described as "interested in other people" (Eagly & Johnson, 1990)

The combination of these two concepts, personality traits and competencies, is of value and complements each other. It helping to understand leaders and demonstrating emerging issues. The configuration of traits should be linked to leadership competencies and the Thailand context in which female leaders emerge.

Second, the external factors, such as the glass ceiling factor explains why women are seldom employed in senior executive leadership position (Eagly & Carli, 2003; and Eagly,2007). These limiting factors found in the environment area, are

embedded within following three structures, namely: (1) economic, (2) socio-cultural, and (3) political.

(1) *Economic structure*: Females working in both private and public sectors are more numerous than males and play significant roles in developing the country (Marie Col, Meksawan, & Sopchokchai, 2001; Picavet, 2005; and Yukongdi, 2005). The problem is that few are in leadership positions; Organisation practices in Thailand do not provide equal opportunities for females and males in managerial careers; Female managers face barriers in organisations and successful females pay a high price and constantly need to prove themselves to gain and retain leadership positions (Marie Col et al., 2001 and Yukongdi, 2005).

(2) *Socio-cultural structure*: Many males and females still believe that a female's primary responsibility is to serve her husband and children (Marie Col et al., 2001; and Yukongdi, 2005). As the parable states, Females have been considered "the hind legs" of organisations and have been expected to follow the leadership of males (Marie Col et al., 2001; and Yukongdi, 2005). This is a socio-cultural problem embedded in the mindset of Thai culture. The perception that leadership is the males' role creates a further barrier for females to move to managerial ranks in the organisational hierarchy.

(3) *Political structure*: During the 20th century changes in legislation to promote gender equality in development and education for females were implemented in Thailand (Marie Col et al., 2001). While the legislation paints a seemingly favourable picture for females, real life shows a far more problematic context. The political development and related issues are indeed a cultural issue in themselves where different aspects are both historically and politically pre-determined. Thus, the position of the ambitious female is also predetermined that only adds to existing challenges.

1.3.2 The Research Problem, Questions, and Propositions

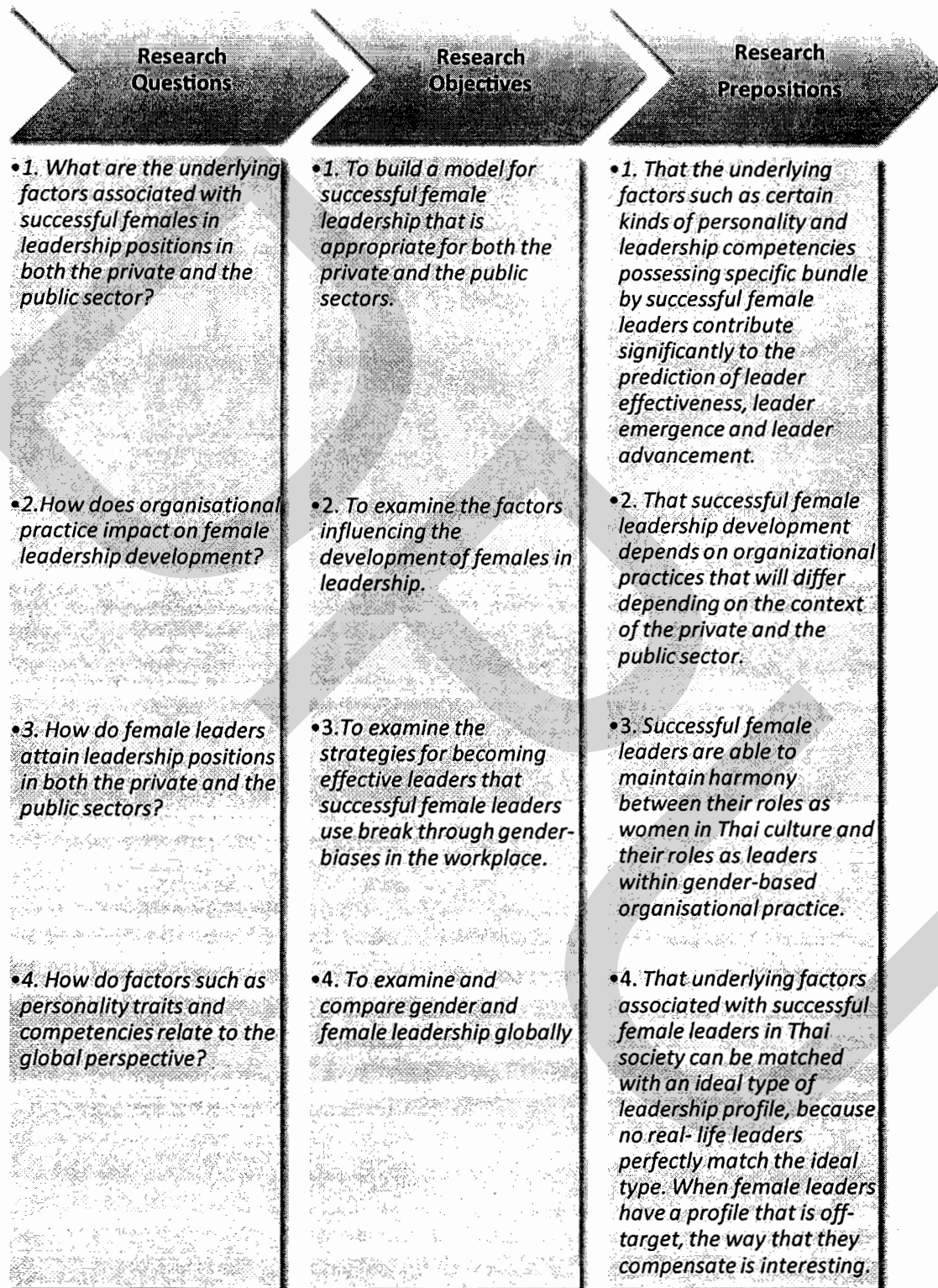
To begin researching this subject it will first be necessary to explore the conditions and factors that develop and/or inhibit the emergence and development of female leadership in the context of Thailand. While much research has been published comparing the leadership styles of women and men, "limiting" factors for female

have been found in the environmental area. This study specifically focuses on factors such as the personality qualities of the female leaders to "assist" females in gaining prominence as leaders. To study what factors facilitate a females' ability to be successful in a leadership position, and the approaches to recruit, develop and retain the talented female leaders. Deficiencies in the literature give rise to the following problem:-

"The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society"

As shown in Figure 1.2 the four research questions, four research objectives and four research propositions are established as a basis to explore the conditions of possibilities for developing Thai female leaders, to provide insights and solutions to the research problem.

Figure 1.2 Research Questions, Research Objectives and Research Propositions



Sources: Developed for this research.

1.3.3 The Research Contributions

These research questions will direct data collection and analysis and assist in answering the research problem. In dealing with the research questions, the findings should provide empirically based contributions for researchers, academics, and practitioners as follow:-

Contribution to researchers: - by providing deeper knowledge to become experts in female leadership through contributions to the scientific community.

Through the personal interest in leadership, competencies, personality traits and theoretical and practical studies there emerged a perception of leadership activities and a better understanding of the phenomena of female leadership. As a competency, this will require considerable practical experience to provide a deep understanding of these phenomena.

Contribution to academics: - by providing knowledge about the conditions and factors associated with female leadership in Thailand, and the global debate about gender and female leadership.

Furthermore, globalisation will continue to be a positive force in adding more females to the ranks of leadership positions. This research study will explain some relevant elements of existing gender research associated with the leadership discussion. These are expected to be mainly comparisons and debates dealing with female and male leadership strategies. Additionally, several contributions concerning the more general understanding of the female role will be introduced.

Contribution to practitioners: - is expected to add to the growth of female leadership beyond the overriding aim of equality in society and to provide insights to corporations based in Thailand about how to recruit, retain, and develop female senior executives.

This study will provide awareness of the fact that a scarcity of female leadership globally, as well as in Thailand, is a problem in today's society. The global business community has taken too long to recognise the power and potential of unleashing the intellectual capital of female in leadership positions. The research findings will provide a guide to companies' decisions in selecting and developing future female leaders.

1.4 Methodology

This research will be undertaken using the qualitative method of case studies, with details to be provided in Chapter 3. As Perry (1998) states, case study research is concerned with describing real world phenomena. The merit of a case study approach is the ability to place people, events and experiences in their social and historical context (Veal, 2005), and flexibility in data collection strategy allows researchers to adapt research strategy as the research proceeds. Thus, the relative freedom to explore the potential outcomes of qualitative research can provide rich and insightful outcomes. In addition, the research method used in this research can lead to a more informed basis for theory development (Yin, 2003). This study is concerned with the theme of leadership which is both a complex concept and an embedded phenomenon. The “how do” research questions, identified in sector 1.3, and the goal of this study is inductive theory building rather than theory testing. Subsequently, a case study approach is appropriate (Perry, 1998; and Yin, 2003).

Based on such a qualitative approach, this thesis will employ replication logic in multiple-case studies as the research design. The unit of analysis for this research will focus on three levels as follows: - First, *the Macro-Level* focuses on the contextual study. The country to be examined is Thailand. Second, *The Meso-Level* focuses on gender-based organisational practice in both the private and the public sectors. Third, *The Micro-Level* focuses on individual study. At this level, interviews focus on executive female leaders. In this instance, forty cases dealing with females in leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors, will be chosen as the subjects.

Multiple methods are implicitly seen as the strength of the case study approach (Neuman, 2006; and Veal, 2005). This thesis will involve construct validity and reliability. The data collection will be carried out through multiple sources of evidence; including *thematic interviews* as a method to study the opinions of “females in leadership position” about leadership, personal background, organisational context, personalities and competencies, employing self assessment questionnaires to determine female leaders’ personality traits, and leadership competencies. A pattern matching analytical strategy will be employed, based on Veal (2005) and Yin (2003).

1.5 Justification for the Research

This research seeks to demonstrate that a wider understanding of the conditions of possibility governing the emergence and development of female leadership exists in Thailand. The justifications for this study should prove both useful in practical and academic situations, as described below: -

The first justification concerns the importance of female leadership as a natural event and a fact of life affecting not only females but also males, to be investigated in all developed and developing countries in the 21st century (Aycan, 2004; and Eagly, 2007). The study of the female gender leadership is both appealing and growing in interest in modern organisations. This is an area of significant academic research and popular issue, as evident in recent articles in the popular press that claim a distinct advantage for females in leadership roles (Conlin, 2003; and Stanford, Oates, & Flores, 1995). Furthermore, from a strategic perspective, the process of how the woman's leadership contributes in creating competitive advantage for an organisation is immensely important.

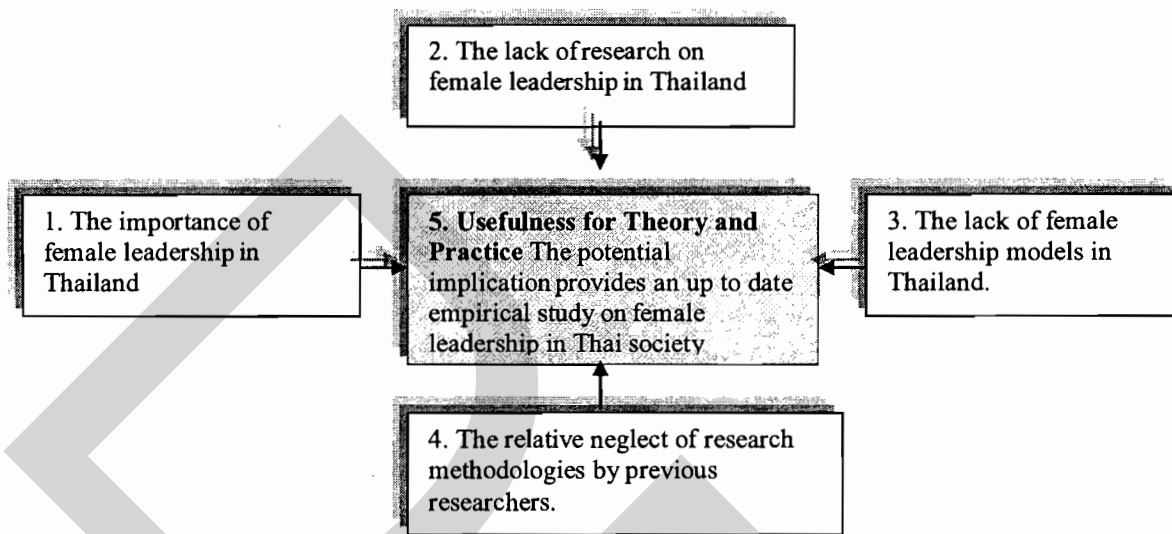
The second justification is the notable lack of research dealing with female leadership in Thailand. Scientific investigation and academic research concerning leadership is mainly dominated by research carried out in North America and Europe (Aycan, 2004). The major problem identified in this research area is the actual lack of research that concerns female leadership in Thailand or Asian countries. For example, in Thailand the few existing studies are mainly confined to the study of women in management (Pongyeela, 1995; Siengthai & Leelakulthanit, 1993; and Yukongdi, 2005), and do not emphasise the phenomenon of female leaders or gender leadership. The observation of female in management in Asian countries has had only a gradual emergence and does not directly address female leadership.

The third justification is the lack of a model for conditions of possibilities likely to influence female leadership in Thailand. This study intends to correct the conditions of possibilities to influence the emergence and development of female leadership phenomenon in Thailand. Particularly interest will be devoted to amalgamating these conditions to promote and support successful female leaders within Thai society and culture.

The fourth justification is the relative neglect of appropriate research methodologies by previous researchers. Leadership researchers have typically used a quantitative approach (Antonakis, Schriesheim, Donovan, Gopalakrishna-Pillai, Pellegrini, & Rossomme, 2004, p. 54). However, to better understand the complex, embedded phenomena, qualitative approaches to studying leadership are also necessary. However, qualitative studies remain relatively rare. Given the contextual and complex nature of leadership, it is important that qualitative methods as a theory-generating approach are employed to complement quantitative methods, whose strengths are based in theory testing.

The fifth justification is usefulness for theory and practice, the potential implication provided by up-to-date empirical studies on female leadership in Thai society. Expected research findings should generate encouragement for those females, who see themselves as leaders, but fear gender based limitations rooted in physical or socio-political conditions. The vision of drawing more deeply on the female resource base in the future rather than is the case today is logical and inclusive. The usefulness of potential applications of research findings will provide a set of guidelines for helping companies predict the likelihood of females succeeding as leaders, as well as those possessing an inherent desire to get to the top by their own efforts.

Figure 1.3 Justification for the research

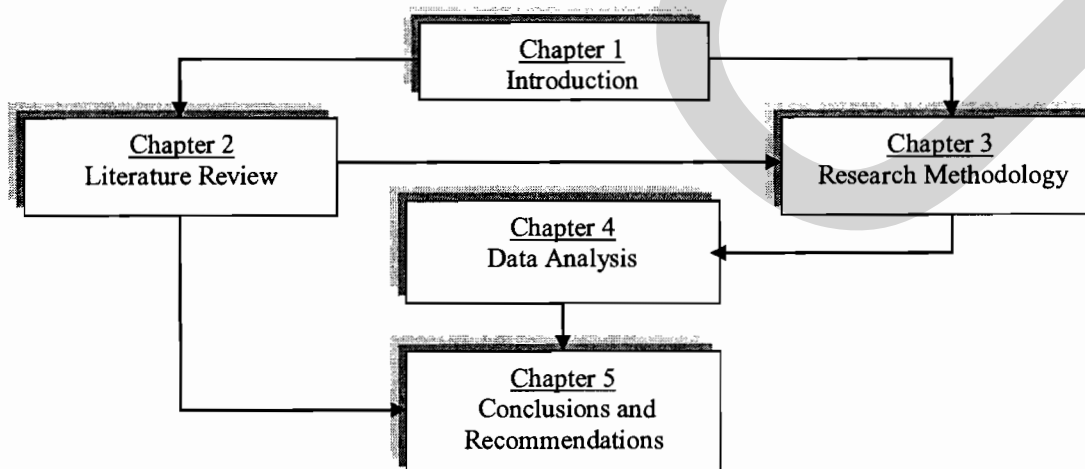


Source: Developed for this research

1.6 Outline of the Study

The outline of this study is presented in Figure 1.4. It shows the chapters in isolation and reveals the conceptual linkage between the chapters of this thesis.

Figure 1.4 The outline and conceptual linkage between the chapters of this thesis.



Source: Developed for this research

Chapter 1: Introduction; provides an overview of the thesis. It outlines a background to the problem, the research questions, significance of the research, conceptual definitions of certain terms, and an overview of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review; reviews the concepts and theories, research works and an extant publication related to the research problem, critically evaluate the relationship between different works and show how they relate to this dissertation and what are the variables involved, identifies weaknesses, gaps, or areas needing further study, and constructs a concept map to guide data collection and analysis.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology; will develop an embedded case research design, data collection method, interview schedule and data analytical scheme, selecting cases on the basis of theory and background.

Chapter 4: Data analysis; describes the findings and analyses the collection of data and presented the finding. The purpose of this chapter is to examine patterns in the collected data, to relate them to the research propositions established for this study, and to highlight factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations; the conclusion of the study will be discussed in relation to the previous literature reviewed in Chapter 2. The conclusions will deal with the finding in relation to the four research propositions, discusses the limitations of the study. It will provide recommendations for policy measures, professional practices and implementation, and then suggestions for further possible future research.

1.7 Definitions

Definitions adopted and used throughout this thesis are set out as key terms to confirm their operational interpretation. These terms include leadership, personality traits, leadership traits, competencies, leadership competencies, and leadership theories. It is appropriate to define such terms so that the holistic contents in this thesis will be understood at a uniform standard.

1.7.1 Leadership

Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) note that leadership involves persuading others to set aside a period of time for their individual concerns and pursues a common goal that is important for the responsibilities and welfare of a group.

Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004), Tubbs and Schulz (2006), and Lussier and Achua (2007) defined leadership as the nature of influencing process - and its resultant outcomes - that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leader's characteristics, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occur.

There is no universal definition of leadership because leadership is complex, and is studied in different ways that require different definitions (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 5). This leadership research will use a single definition that meets the purpose in this study. The definition employed in this study is "*A process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes, such as personality traits, knowledge, and skills.*"

1.7.2 Personality traits

Hogan and Kaiser (2005) defined Personality as (1) generalisations about human nature to what people are like way down deep; and (2) systematic accounts of individual differences to which differences are important and how they arise.

Antonakis et al., (2004) point out that traits refer to stable or consistent patterns of behaviour that are relatively immune to situational contingencies- individuals with traits denoting particular behavioural predispositions would react in similar ways across a variety of situations having functionally diverse behavioural requirements.

Tubbs and Schulz (2006) defined personality as the representative action of the accumulation of enduring physical and mental attributes that provide an individual with his or her identity.

Lussier and Achua (2007) defined traits as distinguishing personal characteristics. Personality is a combination of traits that classifies an individual's behaviour.

In this study, personality traits are defined as *"inborn talent or distinguishing personal characteristics that can make a significant difference in work performance and advancement."*

1.7.3 Leadership traits

The definition of leadership and personality traits employed in this study has adopted the leadership traits definition as *"certain individuals who have special inborn characteristics that differentiate them from nonleaders."*

1.7.4 Competencies

Spencer and Spencer (1993) described a competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual meaning that the competency is a fairly deep and enduring part of a person's personality and can predict performance in a wide variety of situations.

Shermon (2004) described a competency as an underlying characteristic of a person, which enables him/her to deliver superior performance in a given job, role or a situation. This characteristic may be called an "attribute bundle", consisting of knowledge, skills, traits, social role, self – image and motive. The "underlying characteristic", manifests itself in the form of behaviour, which helps identification and measurement of the competency

Tubbs and Schulz (2006) also note that competencies can be described by the acronym KSA: knowledge, skills and abilities, which are more able to be developed.

In the above definitions of competencies, the following is an adaptation of this competencies definition *"The competencies are observable or measurable behaviours which are more able to be developed. These competencies distinguish between superior and other performers."*

1.7.5 Leadership competencies

As mentioned earlier, competencies define what measurable behaviours are required to do the job. Leadership is defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve an organisational goal. Consequently, leadership competencies in this study can be defined as: -“*measurable behaviours that people bring to the job that enable them to carry out leadership tasks.*”

1.8 Delimitations and Scope

This sector discusses the limitation and boundaries of this research. *The first limitation* of this research stems from the fact that the research will only consider females in executives' management positions in Thailand. *The second limitation* is derived from the sheer size (number) of female leaders in Thailand. The selected sample of female leaders to be interviewed has been limited to selected participants. *Furthermore*, when selecting participants; attention will be devoted to the possible errors embedded in their status. The holder of a leadership position may not always be regarded as a good leader.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter has laid the foundation for this research. It has provided the background and introduced the research problem and relevant issues along with the contributions expected to be made by the study. The study was justified and the methodology briefly discussed. In turn, definitions of key terms were presented and delimitations and scope were identified. Finally an outline of the overall thesis was presented.

Given that the foundation for the research has been established, the thesis proceeds with detailed descriptions of the study in the following chapters. Chapter 2 will commence with a discussion of the extant literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In Chapter 1, the overview of the thesis was addressed. The purpose of this chapter is to review relevant literature, identify the main research issues, and to define, understand and investigate the research problem, dealing with female leadership. The aim is also to critically evaluate the relationship between different theories aspects elements research and show how they relate to this dissertation and what variables are involved. The context for this research highlights specific arguments and ideas in this field of study, to identify weaknesses, gaps, or areas further demonstrating why research is useful, necessary, important, and valid.

2.1.2 Background and rationale for the study

Female leadership is not simply the subject of a management consulting report supporting the worthwhile notion that women have a right to be located in leadership positions. It has a theoretical basis can be made on three levels as follows:-

First, the macro-level: involving policy, economic, social and technological issues that should apply in all countries.

Second, the meso-level: at industry levels, focused on gender-based organisational practice in any sectors.

Third, the micro-level: at the level of the individual, concerning female leaders' characteristics such as their personalities and competencies.

There is insignificant academic research that concerns female leadership, especially in Thailand. What is known about female leaders is no longer relevant today, and it is certainly timely to redress the inequities of the situation. Accordingly,

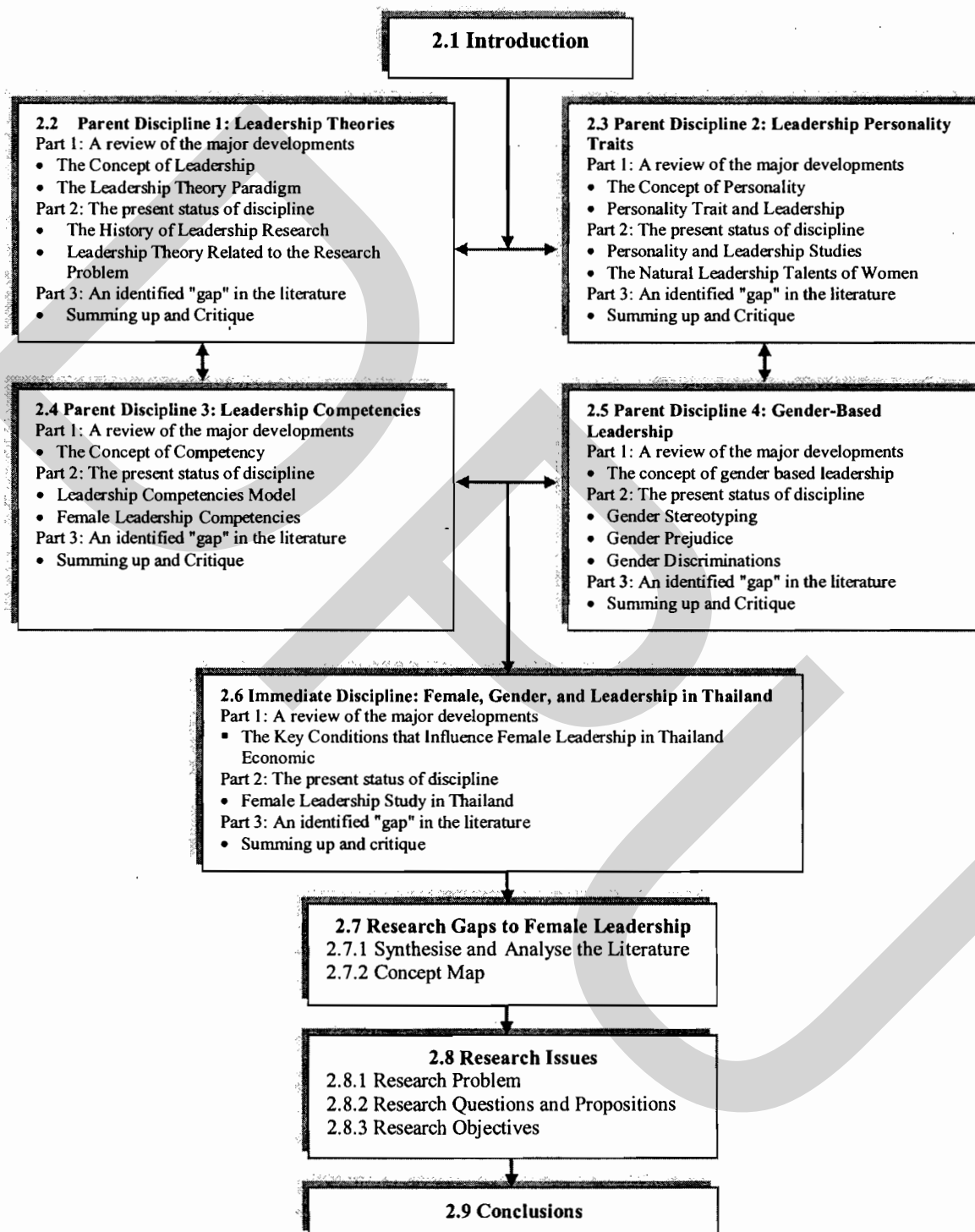
there is sufficient incidence to show that this topic should be considered as a worthy issue for a doctoral dissertation.

As mentioned earlier, this literature review demonstrates the connection of four parent disciplines underpinning the present study; Leadership Theory, Leadership Personality Traits, Leadership Competencies, and Gender-based Leadership. Additionally, a thorough review was conducted of contemporary literature relating to the immediate discipline, which focuses on the emergence and development of female leadership in Thailand.

Each individual discipline is presented along three paths. Part 1: A review of the major developments that have taken place in respect of the topic; a listing and commentary of the various schools of thought; an historical review of key developments; notes on special areas of influence, and similar. Part 2: An up-to-date statement of the current progressive and present status of the discipline. Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature that this research is going to fill.

Consequently, identifying and revising the conceptual dimensions presented in the literature to define the research issues, presents the need to form a new theoretical framework that will be dealt with in the methodology chapter. The structure and map of this chapter are outlined as shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Outline of Chapter 2 with section number and their inter-relationships



Source: Developed for this research

2.2 Parent Discipline 1: Leadership Theories

Leadership Theory is the basis for this thesis. The theoretical framework can be divided into three parts. Part 1: A review of the major developments that begins with the concept of leadership: power and influence, the difference between leadership and management, that leader are born and made. The second component deals with the leadership theory paradigm: the history of leadership research. Part 2: An up-to-date statement of the current progressive and present status of this discipline. This section deals with the leadership theories that relate to the research problem. Part 3: An identified “gap” in the literature where a conclusion is reached with summing up and critique of the parent discipline 1.

2.2.1. Part 1: A review of the major developments: the concept of leadership and the leadership theory paradigm

2.2.1.2 The Concept of Leadership

Leadership is one of social science’s most examined phenomena (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). The topic of leadership has generated excitement and interest since ancient times (Lussier & Achua, 2007) from the early Greek philosophers such as Plato and Socrates to the plethora of management and leadership gurus. Bolden (2004) pointed out that seldom, however, has the need for effective leadership been voiced more strongly than now. It is argued that in this changing, global environment, leadership holds the answer not only to the success of individuals and organisations, but also to sectors, regions and nations.

Leadership is easy to identify in situ; however, it is difficult to define precisely (Antonakis et al., 2004, p.5). Leadership scholars have defined leadership in many different ways, and these differences have resulted in various leadership scholars exploring very different aspects of leadership. For example, Bennis (1993) stated that leaders are the people who do the right thing. Whereas Kotte (1990) pointed out that leadership is about coping with change. Peters (1988) believed that developing a vision and, more importantly, living it vigorously are essential elements of leadership. Zaleznik (1977) claimed that leaders develop fresh approaches to long-standing problems and open issues for new options, thus creating excitement in the work environment.

Although such a large number of leadership definitions may seem to be confusing, it is important to understand that there is no single correct definition. Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy, (2006) mentioned that the various definitions can help us appreciate the multitude of factors that affect leadership.

Bolden (2004) identified that at the heart of the problem of defining leadership exists two fundamental difficulties. Firstly, like notions such as 'love', 'freedom' and 'happiness', leadership is a complex construct open to subjective interpretation. Everyone has their own intuitive understanding of what leadership is, based on a mixture of experience and learning, which is difficult to capture in a succinct definition. Secondly, the way in which leadership is defined and understood is strongly influenced by one's theoretical stance.

In short, leadership is a complex phenomenon that touches on many other important organisational, social and personal processes. It depends on a process of influence, whereby people are inspired to work towards group goals, not through coercion, but through personal motivation.

As mentioned above, the operational leadership definition that meets the purpose of this study is "*A process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes, such as personality traits, knowledge, and skills.*" (Source: developed for this study)

Table 2.1 shows the three concepts of leadership: (1) power and influence, (2) the difference between leadership and management, and (3) leaders are born and made.

Table 2.1: The concept of leadership

	Concept	Representative Authors/year	Summary
1	Power and Influence	Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg (2004); and Hammett (2007)	Power and leadership are related because both involve a process of influence. In organisations, power can be distinguished between positional power and personal power.
2	Leadership and Management	Zaleznik (1977); James M. Burns (1978); John Kotter (1990); Warren Bennis (1994); Tom Peters (1994); and Peter Drucker (1998)	Leadership and management are phenomena that have a lot in common. However; it has been argued that there are some significant differences.
3	Leaders are Born and Made	Lussier & Achua, (2007); Northouse (2003); and Tubbs& Schulz (2006)	Effective leaders are not simply born or made; they are born with some leadership ability and develop it.

Source: Developed for this research

(1) Power and Influence

Consider first the way this study chooses to define leadership. Influence is the keyword in this definition. Hammett (2007) proposed that influencing connotes how leaders go about directing others in the engagement of a shared objective.

To lead means to use power to influence others (De Wit & Meyer, 2004). Power refers to the means leaders have to potentially influence others. Thus, the ability to lead others requires that one has power because power and

influence play such important roles in the leadership process (Antonakis et al., 2004; and Hughes et al., 2006). Some people choose to exercise power and wield influence to accomplish their objectives, rather than lead (Hammett, 2007).

Antonakis et al., (2004) pointed out leaders can derive their potential influence from two general sources: their position and their person. 'Position power' comes from a leader's formal function in the organisation. 'Personal power' is rooted in the specific character, knowledge, skills and relationship of leaders. Managers always have some level of positional power, but they do not necessarily have the personal power needed to get organisational members to follow them.

There are several studies of gender deference in power and influence techniques. For example, Lauterbach and Weiner (1996) conducted a study of gender differences in management upper levels. The results generally supported the idea that female managers showed greater concern for others, and were more likely to act with the organisation's broad interests in mind, consider how others felt about their influence, involve others in planning, and focus on both the task and interpersonal aspect of the situation. Male manager's showed greater concern for self, were more likely to act out of self- interest , show less consideration for how others might feel about the influence attempts, work alone in developing their strategy, and focus primarily on the task alone.

Greenhalgh (1987) conducted a study of women and men in simulated negotiation sessions. The study found that women tend to be more flexible, more empathic, and more likely to reach agreement. When a man visualised a negotiating situation, he sees it as one – a short deal to win or lose, like a sport or game. He concluded that females see it as part of a long-term relationship. And because most business situations involve long term relationships, the "female" approach is more productive.

While males and females demonstrated different influence techniques, it is important to note that neither group overall was more effective than the other. Nonetheless, there may be significant implications of the various techniques for a manager's career advancement. At increasingly higher management levels in an organisation, effectiveness may be defined primarily by the organisation's own norms and values. Managers whose style matches most closely that of their superior's may

have an advantage in evaluations and promotion decisions. This may be a significant factor for females, given the highly skewed representation of males in the most senior executive ranks (Antonakis et al., 2004; Eisler, 2005; and Hammett, 2007).

Eisler (2005) identified the problem, that if females are forced to operate in domination-style structures, they are under tremendous external and internal pressure to “be more like men”. In business, power was synonymous with characteristics such as strength, toughness, control, and decisiveness that are stereotypically considered masculine.

In short, power and leadership are related because both involve a process of influence. In organisations, power can be distinguished between positional power and personal power. True leadership tends to rely on power that arises from relationships and a desire of followers to be 'led'. As Livingston (1971) mentioned the real source of leaders' power is personal power, their own knowledge and skill, and the strength of their own personalities, not the authority conferred on them by their positions.

(2) *Leadership and Management*

A review of the differences between a manager and a leader will now be considered. It has become fashionable over recent years to distinguish leadership from management because the overarching paradigm has shifted from management to leadership (Lussier and Achua 2007). Many leading leadership scholars like Abraham Zaleznik (1977); James M. Burns (1978); John Kotter (1990); Warren Bennis (1994); Tom Peters (1994); and Peter Drucker (1998) described the difference between leadership and management. For instance;

Bennis (1994) noted that management is getting people to do what needs to be done; leadership is getting people to want to do what needs to be done. The manager focuses on system, the leader focuses on people; managers push, leaders pull; managers command, leaders communicate.

Burns (1978) described Transactional (management) versus Transformational (leadership); Transactional leadership: Such leadership occurs when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things. Transformational leadership: Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise

one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in transactional leadership, become fused.

Central to most of these distinctions is an orientation towards change (Bolden, 2004). This concept is well represented in the work of Kotter (1990) who concluded that “management is about coping with complexity; leadership is about coping with change. Its practices and procedures are largely a response to one of the most significant developments of the twentieth century: the emergence of large organisations. Without good management, complex enterprises tend to become chaotic in ways that threaten their very existence. Good management brings a degree of order and consistency to key dimensions like the quality and profitability of products.” (Kotter, 1990, p. 104)

“Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change. Part of the reason it has become so important in recent years is that the business world has become more competitive and more volatile. Faster technological change, greater international competition, the deregulation of markets, overcapacity in capital-intensive industries, an unstable oil cartel, raiders with junk bonds, and the changing demographics of the work force are among the many factors that have contribute to this shift . The net result is that doing what was done yesterday, or doing it 5% better, is no longer a formula for success. Major changes are more and more necessary to survive and compete effectively in this new environment. More change always demands more leadership.” (Kotter, 1990, p. 104)

Table 2.2 summarises the above and provided a sense of the differences between being a leader and being a manager.

Table 2.2 The differences between being a leader and being a manager

Subject	Leadership	Management
Focus	People	Work
Have	Followers	Subordinates
Seeks	Vision	Objectives
Approach	Direction	Speed
Power	Personal charisma	Formal authority
Energy	Release, empowerment	Control
Dynamic	Proactive	Reactive
Persuasion	Sell	Tell
Style	Transformation	Transaction
Exchange	Excitement for work	Money for work
Likes	Striving	Action
Wants	Achievement	Results
Risk	Takes	Minimizes
Rules	Breaks	Makes
Direction	New roads	Existing roads
Concern	Doing the right thing	Doing the thing right
Credit	Gives	Takes

Source: Adapted from Covey (2004). *The 8th Habit from Effective to Greatness*

The distinction of leadership from management as represented by Kotter (1990) and his contemporaries, clearly encourages a shift in emphasis from the relatively inflexible, bureaucratic processes typified as 'management' to the more dynamic and strategic processes classed as 'leadership', yet even this scholar concludes that both are equally necessary for the effective running of an organisation (Bolden, 2004):

"Leadership is different from management, but not for the reason most people think. Leadership isn't mystical and mysterious. It has nothing to do with having charisma or other exotic personality traits. It's not the province of a chosen

few. Nor is leadership necessarily better than management or a replacement for it: rather, leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary activities.

Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business environment.” (Kotter, 1990, p. 103)

Lussier and Achua (2007) stated that there is an overlap between management and the leadership theory paradigm. Under the old management paradigm, managers were primarily autocratic, making decisions, and maintaining tight control over employees. Under the new leadership paradigm, managers are primarily participative, and focus on leadership by sharing the management functions. Leaders and followers have good working relationships, as people are the most important asset. They set objectives together, and influence each other to bring about change to continually improve the organisation.

Bolden (2004) argued that despite the popular appeal of a distinction between leadership and management, there is some doubt as to whether they are really quite as separate as this in practice. Firstly, there is increasing resistance to the way in which such analyses tends to denigrate management as something rather boring and uninspiring. Lussier and Achua (2007) also pointed out that to simplistically stereotype people as either managers or leaders does little to advance our understanding of leadership. Secondly, much research evidence implies that, far from being separate, the practices described as ‘management’ and ‘leadership’ are integral parts of the same job. One should realise that successful leaders are also good at managing, and successful managers are good leaders (Antonakis et al., 2004; Lussier & Achua, 2007). Some view leaders and managers as having different natures, others argue that successful leadership requires successful management, that leadership and management are complementary, that leadership goes beyond management, and that leadership is necessary for outcomes that exceed expectations (Antonakis et al., 2004).

Bolden (2004) pointed out, however that this does not coincide well with the experience of being a manager. People are generally recruited into ‘management’, rather than ‘leadership’, positions and are expected to complete a multitude of tasks ranging from day-today planning and implementation, to longer-term strategic thinking. None of these are done in isolation and, throughout, it is

essential to work alongside other people to motivate and inspire them, but also to know when to relinquish the lead and take a back seat.

“Most of us have become so enamoured of ‘leadership’ that ‘management’ has been pushed into the background. Nobody aspires to being a good manager anymore; everybody wants to be a great leader. But the separation of management from leadership is dangerous. Just as management without leadership encourages an uninspired style, which deadens activities, leadership without management encourages a disconnected style, which promotes hubris. And we all know the destructive power of hubris in organisations.”

(Gosling & Mintzberg, 2003, p. 54)

In brief, leadership and management are phenomena that have a lot in common. Both involve influence, working with people, and goal achievement; however, it has been argued that there are some significant differences. To be successful, these two activities need to be balanced and matched to the demands of the situation (Northouse, 2004, p. 3). Today’s managers must be able to lead as well as manage. Thus, they must continue to manage and focus on leading to be successful. From this point of view, some individuals are influential as leaders whereas others are not. Some followers trust some leaders more than they do others. Lessons can be learned from these individuals.

(3) Leaders are Born and Made

The scope of the science of leadership is reflected in the number of studies (Hughes et al., 2006). However, being an expert on leadership research is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for being a good leader. Some managers may be effective leaders without ever having taken a course or training program in leadership and some scholars in the field of leadership may be relatively poor leaders themselves (Hughes et al., 2006). Some major leadership research findings can give leaders insight about how to be more effective. Effective leaders are not simply born or made; they are born with some leadership ability and develop it (Lussier & Achua, 2007). So, natural ability may offer advantages or disadvantages to a leader.

Of course, not all managers have the qualities needed to be effective leaders-neither by nature or nurture. Some theorists emphasise the importance of ‘nature’, arguing that managers require specific personality traits to be

successful leaders (Hautaluoma, Dickinson, & Inada, 1992; and Keller, 1999). Leaders are effective or ineffective due to their personality traits, or to stretch it a bit, are effective or lack effectiveness because of their beliefs, values and ethics (Hautaluoma et al., 2001). For example, some people make the case that high moral values are essential to success, while others talk about charisma, or extroversion.

Either way, the importance of having good leadership makes finding and developing new leaders one of the highest priorities of the existing top management teams (De Wit & Meyer, 2004, p. 486). It's likely that both ways are of value and complement each other to help us understand leaders, but it's important to understand one important implication. Personality traits are understood within psychology as relatively static in the grown person. If, then, a leader lacks the "required traits", it's unlikely that he or she will ever "get" them. It's possible but unlikely, and that means that the improvement of successful leaders must rely on selecting the right people, since it is difficult to transform traits.

Leadership is to be considered 'natural-inherited' or personality traits that are common to superior leaders and do not need to be taught? Johnson (2005) stated that a heightened emotional intelligence plays a key role in leadership success and emotional intelligence can be successfully acquired and retained through training programs. The traits and characteristics, used to define emotional intelligence as a set of disciplines, are natural capacities of human development, possible to all persons from birth and developed to greater or lesser degrees throughout life (Goleman, 2004). There is sufficient evidence to conclude that superior leaders possess a greater awareness and command of these traits than average leaders (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001; and Johnson, 2005).

The focus on skills and behaviour, however, means that many people can grow to be better leaders, not by changing relatively resistant personality traits, but by learning new skills and behaviour that will make them better leaders (Goleman, 2004; and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

In conclusion, it is true that some people are simply not cut out for leadership positions because of their personalities, and that no amount of training will make it otherwise. It's also the case that leaders can improve over time by learning new skills and leadership behaviours. So, leadership selection processes and

leadership skill development are both considerable (Northouse, 2004; and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

2.2.1.2 The Leadership Theory Paradigm

Whilst practitioners often see theory as separate from practice, within an applied field such as leadership the two are inextricably related. Traditional and contemporary theories of leadership strongly influence current practices, of education and policy and offer a useful framework for the selection and development of leaders (Bolden, 2004, p. 9).

Theories help shape the way one conceives the world by simplifying and summarising large quantities of data but as a result, they can also give rise to assumptions and modes of thought that become unquestioned. For example, traditional leadership theories have their roots in US organisational research and take a particularly individualistic view of leadership. Contemporary theories are beginning to redress the balance, but remain predominantly Anglo-American in origin (Bolden, 2004, p. 9).

Lussier and Achua (2007) defined leadership theory as an explanation of some aspects of leadership; theories have practical value because they are used to better understand, predict, and control successful leadership. In the same way, Hughes et al., (2006) defined leadership theory as a framework for conceptualising relationships between variables and guiding research toward a fuller understanding of phenomena. With a theory a researcher makes public predictions about how certain leadership attributes or behaviours will systematically impact certain leadership effectiveness measures.

A leadership paradigm is a shared mindset that represents a fundamental way of thinking about, perceiving, studying, researching, and understanding leadership. The leadership paradigm has changed in the 60 years during which it has been studied (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 16). This section will also review the change in the leadership paradigm, where the leadership theory evolved into the major paradigms, some of the most influential leadership theories that related to this study, which offer a valuable context for the consideration of wider issues about defining leadership capabilities and development approaches.

2.2.2 Part 2: The present status of discipline: The history of leadership research and leadership theory related to the research problem

2.2.2.1 The History of Leadership Research

Leadership is a complex and diverse field of knowledge and trying to make sense of leadership research can become an intimidating endeavour (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). Literally hundreds of books and thousands of articles have come out in the last few years on leadership. Five broad approaches in leadership theories have emerged in the twentieth century; approaches include trait, behavioural, power-influence, situational, and integrative (Covey, 2004).

The main goal of this section is to understand how leadership study has evolved in the last 100 years, and to review of the most important theories and approaches about leadership. This section begins with a review of leadership theories and tracks their evolution over from the “great man” notion of heroic leaders, through trait theories, behaviourist theories, situational leadership, contingency theory, and on to transactional and transformational leadership. Each of these leadership theories offers some insights into the qualities of successful leaders, but there has been a shift in focus from the generic characteristics and behaviours of the individual to recognition of the importance of responding to different situations and contexts and the leaders’ role in relation to followers.

Bolden, Gosling, Marturano and Dennison (2003) mentioned a review of the leadership literature which reveals an evolving series of 'schools of thought' from “Great Man” and “Trait” theories to “Transformational” leadership (see Table 2.3). Whilst early theories tend to focus upon the characteristics and behaviours of successful leaders, later theories begin to consider the role of followers and the contextual nature of leadership.

Table 2.3 From 'Great Man' to 'Transformational' Leadership

Theories	Representative Authors /year	Summary
Great Man Theories	Dowd (1963)	Based on the belief that leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead. The use of the term 'man' was intentional since until the latter part of the twentieth century leadership was thought of as a concept which is primarily male, military and Western. This led to the next school of Trait Theories
Trait Theories	Stogdill (1948); Mann (1959); and Kouzes & Posner (1993)	The lists of traits or qualities associated with leadership exist in abundance and continue to be produced. They draw on virtually all the adjectives in the dictionary which describe some positive or virtuous human attribute, from ambition to zest for life
Skill Approach Theory	Katz (1955); and Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, Marks, (2000)	This approach is Leader-centered perspective with emphasis on skills and abilities that can be acquired and developed. It defined leadership skills as the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals and objectives.
Behaviourist Theories	McGregor's (1960); and Blake & Mouton (1964)	These concentrate on what leaders actually do rather than on their qualities. Different patterns of behaviour are observed and categorised as 'styles of leadership'. This area has probably attracted most attention from practising managers
Situational Leadership	Adair (1973); Bagardus (1918); Hersey & Blanchard (1972); and Person (1924)	This approach sees leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. For example, whilst some situations may require an autocratic style, others may need a more participative approach. It also proposes that there may be differences in required leadership styles at different levels in the same organisation
Transformational Theory	Bass & Avolio (1994); Burn (1978); and DePree (1992)	The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organisational performance

Source: Adapted from Bolden et al., (2003). *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks*

In brief, this sector shows the numerous leadership theories. Each of these theories takes a rather individualistic perspective of the leader, although a school of thought gaining increasing recognition is that of "dispersed" leadership.

This approach, with its foundations in sociology, psychology and politics rather than management science, views leadership as a process that is diffuse throughout an organisation rather than lying solely with the formally designated 'leader'. The emphasis thus shifts from developing 'leaders' to developing 'leaderful' organisations with a collective responsibility for leadership (Bolden et al., 2003).

2.2.2.2 Leadership Theories related to the research problem

In order to understand the phenomenon in depth and be able to develop a new comprehensive framework for female leadership, it is necessary to analyse the previous leadership theories and understand the leadership phenomenon from their own perspective. Different leadership theories can relate to the research problem and can be analysed. The focus of this theory is to approach the strengths and weaknesses of each theory and then apply this study which also focuses on the factors affecting the success and development of female leadership.

As a result, this study reviews some of the most influential leadership theories, which offer a valuable context for the consideration of wider issues about defining leadership capabilities and development approaches, which relate to the research problem. In addition, this study includes three major theoretical perspectives for studying female leadership: (1) Trait Approach Leadership Theories, (2) Skills Approach Leadership Theory, and (3) Transformational Leadership Approach. This female leadership study is now in a position to integrate overlapping and complementary conceptualisations of leadership.

(1) Trait Approach Leadership Theory

The scientific study of leadership began at the turn of the 20th century with the "Great Man" perspective. It was based on the assumption that leaders are born, not made. The leader is endowed with superior traits and characteristics that differentiate him from his followers (Covey, 2004). Research of trait theories addressed the following two questions: What traits distinguish leaders from other people? What is the extent of those differences? Researchers wanted to identify a set of characteristics or traits that distinguished leaders from followers, or from inactive leaders (Lussier & Achua, 2007; and Antonakis et al., 2004).

The trait research was shut down following the rather pessimistic interpretations of these findings by many leadership scholars. This was the first major crisis that leadership research faced. It took almost 30 years for this line of research to re-emerge. Currently, the trait perspective appears to be enjoying a resurgence of interest (Antonakis et al., 2004; and Northouse, 2004).

Northouse (2004) reviewed the focus of trait approach. The first review, focused exclusively on the leader; what traits do leaders exhibit? And who has these traits? The second review focused on an organisations use of personality assessments to find “Right” people and depends on the assumption that the right of leaders will increase organisational effectiveness. It also specify characteristics and traits that for measuring personality assessment.

Throughout history people have described the characteristics they have seen in great leaders of their time (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). Hundred of trait studies were conducted during the 1930s and 1940s to discover a list of qualities (Lussier & Achua, 2007; and Northouse, 2004). However, no one came up with a universal list of traits which all successful leaders possessed, or traits that will guarantee leadership success. Subsequently, the focus of leadership research moved away from the personal characteristics of leaders, and towards learning what it was that effective leaders actually did – observable behaviours and skills. For decades trait theories of leadership were shunned and largely ignored. More recently, there has been general recognition that personal traits do indeed play an important role in shaping a leader’s effectiveness (Northouse, 2004) Specifically, leader’s personality and motive; personality describes a person's behavioural tendencies, motives describe the inner drives behind these behavioural habits. These traits can work to help or hinder a leader as they go about their work.

Motives are the internal factors that affect behaviours. The word motive is derived from the Latin *motivus*, meaning "to move". McClelland’s trait theories of Achievement Motivation Theory attempts to explain and predict behaviour and performance based a person need for achievement, power, and affiliation, (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The summary of this theory is shown in the Table 2.4.

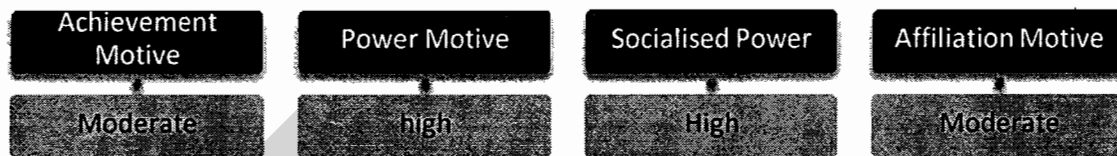
Table 2.4 McClelland's Achievement Motivation Theory

Motive	Meaning	Example
Need for achievement (n-Ach)	The unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishment through individual effort.	People with a strong n-Ach tend to have an internal locus of control, self confidence, and high energy traits.
Need for Power (n-Pow)	A desire for strong action such as to attack, support, advise or control others, and influence others' emotions.	People with a strong n-Pow have the dominant trait and tend to be self-confident with high energy.
Need for Affiliation (n-Aff)	The unconscious concern for developing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships.	People with a strong n-Aff have the trait of sensitivity to others.

Source: Adapted from Lussier & Achua (2007). *Effective Leadership*

Leader Motive Profile Theory identifies the personality profile of effective leaders based on a person's need for achievement, power, and Affiliation Motive profile (Lussier & Achua, 2007). McClelland found that effective leader consistently have the same motive profile, and that Leader Motive Profile (LMP) has been found to be reliable predictor of leader effectiveness (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982), includes a high Power Motive, which is Socialised Power that is greater than the Affiliation Motive and with a moderate Achievement Motive. The achievement score is usually somewhere between the power and affiliation score. Socialised Power is not included in the motive profile. Effective leaders use Socialised Power with included the traits of sensitivity to others and stability. The summary of Ideal Leader Motive Profile is shown in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Ideal Leader Motive Profile



Source: developed for this research

Northouse (2004) stated that the application of the Trait Approach provides direction as to which traits are good to have if one aspires to a leadership position. Through various tests and questionnaires, individuals can determine whether they have the selected leadership traits and can pinpoint their strengths and weaknesses. It can be used by managers to assess where they stand within their organisation and what is needed to strengthen their position.

In conclusion, this section reviews the history of the Trait Approach Leadership Theory. A large number of leadership studies were conducted throughout the 20th trying to find a set of personal characteristics that define a great leader. However, a general list of traits which all successful leaders have has not been created. There are several strengths and criticisms with this approach to leadership, Strengths: Much research to backup findings and practical use of traits in personal assessment helped to identify one's strengths. One of the criticisms was that there's not a single or universal list of traits a leader has to possess. The studies focus solely on the leader and not on the outcomes that specific traits can have or generate in the process of leadership.

The question of how leaders differ from non-leaders is one of the oldest in psychology, yet it remains a source of disagreement and controversy in the leadership domain. A consensus remains elusive regarding the magnitude of leader trait effects on leadership. Zaccaro, Kemp, and Bader (2004) noted, though, that the current resurrection of leader trait research rested on studies that exhibited more conceptual breadth, methodological soundness, and statistical sophistication than its predecessors. They anticipate that such progress will continue.

(2) Skills Approach Leadership Theory

The second approach in the Leadership Theories that relates to the research problem is the leadership skills approach. While the traits approach took into account the personality of the leader, the leadership skills approach takes into account the knowledge and abilities that the leader has. Although different in focus, the traits approach and the skills approach both centre their attention in the leader, as its main purpose.

Leadership as a set of skills or competencies is an idea that has been advanced for more than half a century (Kroeck, Lowe, & Brown, 2004), with emphasis on skills and abilities that can be acquired and developed (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). Northouse (2004) defined leadership skills as the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals and objectives.

The skills approach theory describes leadership from a competencies perspective, and provides a structure for understanding the nature of effective leadership (Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly, Marks, 2000; and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). From this perspective, as Covey (2004) stated, one can learn and improve critical competencies that tend to predict the differences between outstanding performers (leaders) and average performers (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Northouse (2004) summarised leadership studies based on the skills approach in two models; the first model is the Three-Skills Approach as proposed by Robert Katz in 1955. The second model is the skill of leadership, proposed by Michael Mumford and colleagues in the year 2000. These two models are complementary to each other, while they offer different views on leadership from the skills point of view.

The first model: Three-skill approach by Robert Katz (1955), the author recognizes three different abilities that a leader should have. These are: technical skills, human skills, and conceptual skills.

- A technical skill is to have knowledge and be competent and proficient in a specific work or activity. This skill involves hands-on ability with a product or process. It is most important at lower levels of management.

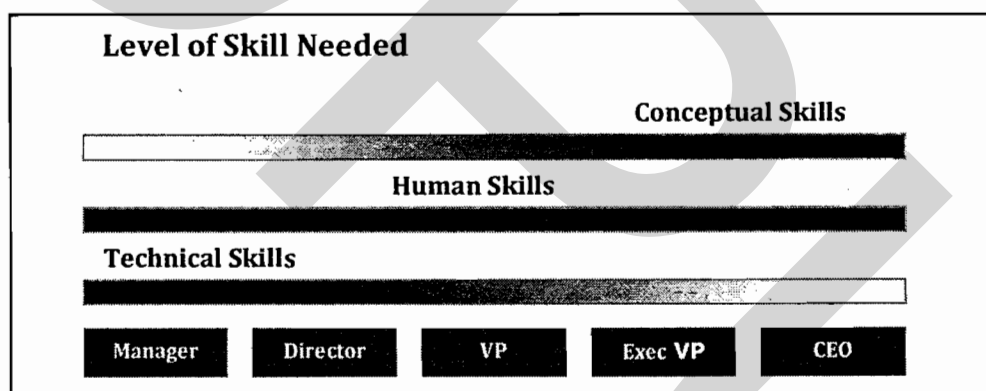
- A human skill is having knowledge about and being able to work with people. This skill allows a leader to assist group members in working

cooperatively to achieve common goals, and creates an atmosphere of trust where members feel they can become involved and impact decisions in the organisation. It is important at all levels of the organisation.

- A conceptual skill is the ability to do the mental work of shaping the meaning of organisational policy or issues. This skill allows leaders to work easily with abstraction and hypothetical notions. Leaders are central to creating and articulating a vision and strategic plan for an organisation. It is most important at top management levels.

Based on Katz observations, the level of importance of each set of skills was directly correlated with the level that the person has in the organisation. The next figure displays this relationship.

Figure 2.3 Basic Administrative Skills, Katz (1995)



Source: Adapted from Northouse (2004), *Leadership Theory and Practice*

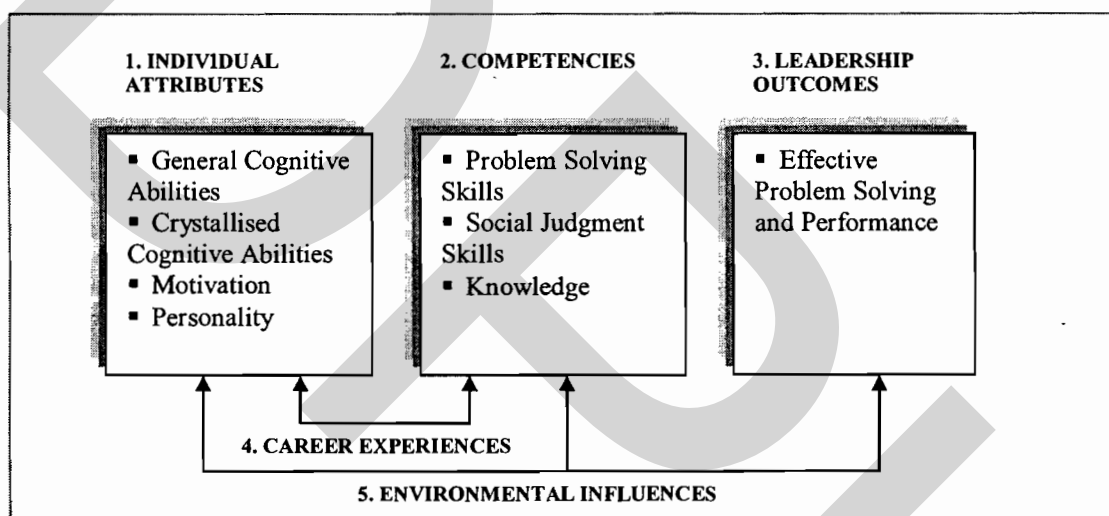
The higher the position in the organisation, the less technical skills were required to fill the position, in the same manner as more conceptual skills are required. On the other hand, the lower the position in the organisation more technical skills and less conceptual skills were required. A very interesting observation from the diagram is that human skills are always required no matter the level or the position in the organisation.

The second model: skills-based model, in the late 1990s Mumford and his colleagues proposed a new model based on the skills that a leader should have. The research studies goal was to identify the leadership factors that

create exemplary job performance in an organisation, and highlight the capabilities that make effective leadership possible rather than what leaders do. Then, this model also suggests many people have the potential for leadership.

The skills- based model has five components, and they are: individual attributes, competencies, leadership outcomes, career experiences and environmental influences. A well-known representation of the model is as follows:

Figure 2.4: Skill Model of Leadership, Mumford et al., 2000



Source: Adapted from Northouse (2004), *Leadership Theory and Practice*

From this view, there is clearly the complexity of the model when compared to the Katz Model. As illustrated the model has five components, they are: (1) Individual attributes, (2) Competencies, (3) Leadership outcomes, (4) Career experiences, (5) Environmental influences.

(1) Individual attributes

The first component of this model, has four individual attributes that have to be taken into account when studying leadership. These components are:

- **General cognitive ability:** In simple terms, it refers to a person's intelligence. It has nothing to do with experience, only inborn talent.

- **Crystallised cognitive ability:** Intellectual ability learned or acquired over time. It includes a wide range of abilities like learning new skills and comprehending complex information.

- **Motivation:** In this model, motivation is seen as an essential part to develop the leadership skills. Three aspects have to be taken into account; willingness, dominance, and social good.

- **Personality:** Just to make sure that authentic leadership, has a clear and precise personality. In this model, any personality characteristic that helps to cope with complex organisational situations is highly related to leadership performance.

(2) Competencies

The second component of the model has three key areas of competencies that can be studied to define a leader, the areas are:

- **Problem solving skills:** It refers to a leader's creative ability to solve new and unusual, ill-defined organisational problems. It comprehends the whole range of abilities that are needed to solve a problem.

- **Social judgment skills:** These skills refer to the ability of leaders to understand people and social systems. There are four in this model, these are: perspective taking, social perceptiveness, behavioural flexibility and social performance.

- **Knowledge:** Building complex knowledge is basically building up complex structures based on simpler ones. Knowledge has a positive impact in the way leaders approach complex issues and identify solutions to problems.

(3) Leadership outcomes

The third component of the model depicted has to do with the outcomes of leadership. The outcomes are directly influenced by the leader's competences. The two indicators for outcomes in the model are:

- **Effective Problem Solving:** A key ability, to be able to solve problems. Creatively and effectively.

- **Performance:** Degree to which a leader has successfully performed his/her assigned duties.

(4) Career experiences

This component of the model connects the individual attributes with the competencies. For this model, the skills and knowledge of leaders are shaped by the career experiences. Then again, to face increasingly complex matters helps them to build their skills. In this model, experience shapes the leaders skills. The leaders can be helped in developing their skills by a) giving them challenging job assignments, b) mentoring, c) appropriate training and d) hands-on experience in solving new and unusual problems.

(5) Environmental influences

The last of the components in the model represents everything that lies outside the characteristics, competencies and experiences of the leader, for instance, outdated technology, subordinates' skill inadequacies.

In summary, this approach emphasises the competencies of the leader. Underlying is then, the notion that a leader can be made. Leaders can learn certain skills and turn themselves into outstanding leaders. The Katz Model explains that effective leadership depends on three basic skills: technical, personal and conceptual. The importance of each one of the skills just stated is based on the level leaders are in the organisation. On the other hand, in the Mumford's model, the five components are: individual attributes, competencies, leadership outcomes, career experiences and environmental influences. Basically, the model states that competencies are essential to become an effective leader. And what's even more interesting is that competences are affected by the individual attributes and the career experiences that the leader has. Both models presented here are descriptive in the approach of leadership; none of these two models is predictive or is intended to find a perfect mix of qualities and skills that produce the right leader.

(3) Transformational Leadership Approach

An overarching paradigm has shifted from management to leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2007), as reviewed in the Section 2.2.1.3 Leadership and Management, concerning differences between a manager and a leader. Today's managers have an evolving role: Successful managers use a truly democratic form of leadership as they share the responsibility of management with the employee (Sashkin, 2004).

James MacGregor Burns was the first to put forward the concept of 'transforming leadership'. Transforming leadership "is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Burns, 1978). This scholar went on to suggest that "Transforming leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality". At the heart of this approach is an emphasis on the leaders' ability to motivate and empower his/her followers and also the moral dimension of leadership.

Burn's ideas were subsequently developed into the concept of 'transformational leadership' where the leader transforms followers. Bass and Avolio (1994) also stated that the goal of transformational leadership is to 'transform' people and organisations in a literal sense – to change them in mind and heart; enlarge vision, insight, and understanding; clarify purposes; make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles, or values; and bring about changes that are permanent, self-perpetuating, and momentum building.

The Transformational Approach has been widely embraced within all types of organisations as a way of transcending organisational and human limitations and dealing with change (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It is frequently contrasted with more traditional 'transactional' leadership, where the leader gains commitment from followers on the basis of a straightforward exchange of pay and security etc. in return for reliable work. The Table 2.5 contrasts these two approaches which note similarities with the common conceptualisation of 'management' versus 'leadership' (Burns, 1978).

Table 2.5 A Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership
1. Builds on a man's need for meaning	1. Builds on man's need to get a job done and make a living
2. Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics	2. Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks
3. Transcends daily affairs	3. Is mired in daily affairs
4. Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles	4. Is short-term and hard data orientated
5. Focuses more on missions and strategies	5. Focuses on tactical issues
6. Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent	6. Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions
7. Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging	7. Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems
8. Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals	8. Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits

Source: Adapted from Covey (1992). *Principle-Centred Leadership*. New York: Summit Books.

Transformational Leadership centres on an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplishment achievement or results beyond expectations (Northouse, 2004). Leaders take actions to try to increase their associates' awareness of what is right and important, to raise their associates' motivational maturity and to move their associates to go beyond the associates' own self-interests for the good of the group, the organisation, or society. Such leaders provide their associates with a sense of purpose that goes beyond a simple exchange of rewards for effort provided (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003).

Transformational Leadership is also concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals; treats followers as complete human beings, including assessing their motives and satisfying their needs. Transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways (Northouse, 2004). These leaders attempt to optimise development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to need for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimise the development of their organisation as well. High performing associates build high performing organisations (Bolden et al., 2003).

In the search for reasons concerning “the Rise of Female Leaders”, Eagly (2003) refers to transformational way of leading, in which empowerment and commitment of employees is a key element, is more congruent and advantageous to the female than the conventional, transactional leadership style, characterised by “clarifying subordinate responsibilities”. Such a style includes the act of reward of achievements and reached goals and the correction of failures. She also finds that “transactional leadership styles are more common amongst male leaders and show negative or nil relation to effectiveness” (Eagly, 2003, p. 16)

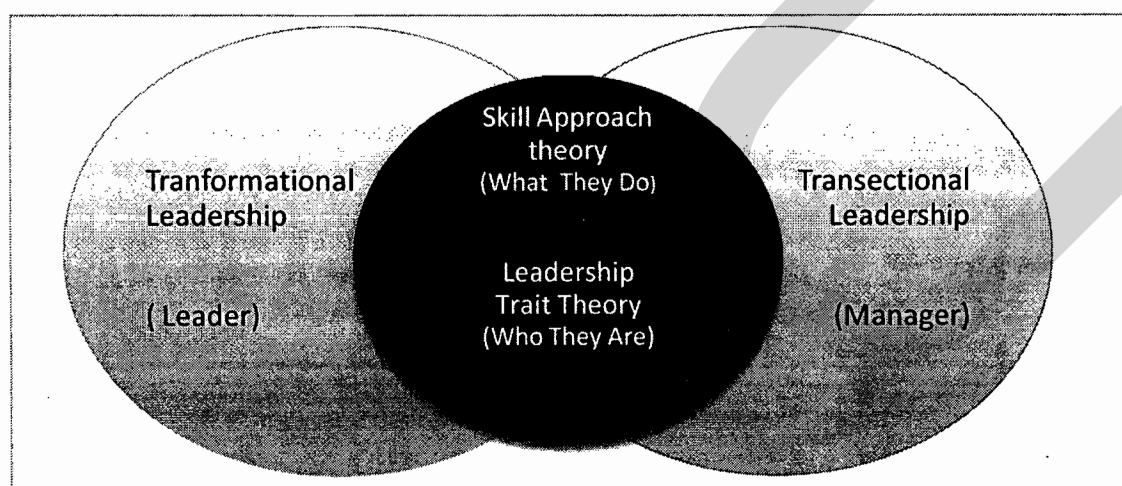
In summary the Transformation Leadership Approach provides a general way of thinking about leadership that stresses ideals, inspiration, innovations, and individual concerns (Northouse, 2004). The key to understanding Transformational Leadership is that it takes into account the followers needs and encourages the followers to improve (Northouse, 2004). Transformation Leadership can be taught to individuals at all levels of the organisation and positively impact on a firm’s performance. Transformation Leadership may be used as a tool in recruitment, selection, promotion, and training development and can be used to improve team development, decision-making groups, quality initiatives, and reorganisations (Saskin, 2004). In Eagly's study, women were more likely to be transformational leaders, defined as those who serve as role models, mentors and empower workers and encourage innovation even when the organisation they lead is generally successful. A

transformational leadership style may be especially congenial to women because this blends feminine characteristics (Eagly, 2003).

Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature: Summing up and critique of the Parent Discipline I: Leadership Theory

Consequently, this theoretical framework begins with the concept of leadership linking to leadership theories that relate to female leadership. The concept of the Trait Approach is that leaders are born not made. In contrast, the concept of the Skills Approach is leadership can be learned. The last approach, Transformation Leadership, contrasts the two approaches of transactional and transformational leadership and notes similarities within common conceptualisation of 'management' versus 'leadership'. In addition, there has been an increased call for "feminine leadership," seen as more transformational than transactional, as the key to managerial success (Powell, Butterfield, Alves, & Bartol, 2004). The combination of these leadership theories can provide the background for the female leadership study as show in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 The Combination of Leadership Theories for this study



Source: Developed for this research

As mentioned, Leadership Theory can be approached in several ways. The Personality Trait Approach, for example, makes the case that high moral values are essential to success, while others talk about charisma, or extroversion. In contrast, another way of looking at leaders and their effectiveness is not to look at WHO they are, but what they DO, their behaviour competencies. In this approach one considers what effective and ineffective leaders DO differently.

It's likely that both ways are of value and complement each other, to help us understand leaders, but it's important to understand one important implication.

Personality traits are understood within psychology as relatively unchanging in the adult population. If, then, a leader lacks the "required traits", it's unlikely that he or she will ever "get" them. It's possible but unlikely, and that means that the development of effective leaders must rely on selecting the right people, since it's not easy to change traits.

The focus on competencies, however, implies that many people can become better leaders, not by changing relatively change resistant personality traits but by learning new knowledge and skills that will make them better leaders.

In addition, the several studies on gender deference in power and influence techniques also show males and females emphasised different influence techniques, At this point, it is helpful for this study to look at specific personalities, the knowledge and skill of executive female leadership, what do effective female leaders do and how do they exercise influence over their followers?

Accordingly, there are two gaps in recent research. One is leader selection; the other is leadership skill development. Both are important for female leadership. The research has not sufficiently accounted for this. Thus it is necessary to find the appropriate model for female leadership. The following section therefore will focus on the Second and the Third Parent Disciplines; Leadership Personality Traits and Leadership Competencies.

Parent Discipline 2: Leadership Personality Traits

In Parent Discipline 1: Leadership was defined as “A process by which a person influences others to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation” (Source: developed for this study). Given this definition, one question that leadership researchers have tried to answer over past 100 years is whether certain personal attributes or characteristics help or hinder the leadership process (Hughes et al., 2006). Also, what characteristics are used to differentiate successful from unsuccessful leaders or executives from first line supervisors?

The purpose of this parent discipline is to review what is currently known about personality and leadership. As an overview, this framework reviews in three parts. Part 1: A review of the major developments that deal with some of the key research findings for this concept, the concept of personality and personality trait and leadership. Part 2: An up-to-date statement of the current progressive and present status of this discipline. This section deals with personality and leadership studies and the natural leadership talents of women. And Part 3: An identified “gap” in the literature that summarises the research gap for this female leadership dissertation.

2.3.1 Part 1: A review of the major developments: The concept of personality and the leadership personality trait

2.3.1.1 The Concept of Personality

Over the years psychologists have developed many theories to explain how unseen structures may cause individuals to act in their personality. For example, Sigmund Freud (1913) believed that the intra-psychic tensions among the id, ego, and superego caused one to behave in characteristic ways even if the real motives behind the behaviours were unknown (i.e., unconscious) to the person.

Personality psychology studies personality based on theories of individual differences. One emphasis in this area is to construct a coherent picture of a person and his or her major psychological processes (Bradberry, 2007). Another emphasis views personality as the study of individual differences, in other words, how people differ from each other. A third area of emphasis examines human nature and how all people are similar to one other. These three viewpoints merge together in the study of personality.

Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organised set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations (Ryckman, 2004). The word "personality" originates from the Latin persona, which means mask. Significantly, in the theatre of the ancient Latin-speaking world, the mask was not used as a ploy device to disguise the identity of a character, but rather was a convention employed to represent or typify that character. Consequently, personality may refer to many definitions such as personality traits and personality types (Hughes et al., 2006). Table 2.6 shows the concept of personality.

Table 2.6 The concept of personality

Concept	Representative Authors/year	Summary
Personality Traits	Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, Cloninger, & Gough, 2006; Howard & Howard, 2001	The patterns of relatively enduring characteristics of human behaviour.
Personality Types	Lampe, 2004	The psychological classification of different types of people.

Source: Developed for this research

The concept of personality trait refers to recurring regularities or trends in a person's behaviour and the trait approach to personality maintains that people behave the way they do because of strengths in the traits they possess. Traits are unseen characteristics that can affect the way people act (Hughes et al., 2006). They can be inferred from consistent patterns of behaviour and reliably measured by personality inventories. According to this perspective, traits are relatively stable over time; differ among individuals, and influence behaviour (Howard & Howard, 2001). The Five Factor Model (FFM) is the major theories of personality traits (Goldberg, et al., 2006).

The concept of personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people (Lampe, 2004). Personality types can be distinguished from personality traits, which come in different levels or degrees. According to type theories, for example, there are two fundamental types of people, introverts and extraverts (Hughes et al., 2006). DISC assessment, Enneagram of personality, and Myers-Briggs Type Indicator are examples of the major theories of personality types (Lampe, 2004).

Briefly, personality trait refers to patterns of relatively enduring characteristics of human behaviour. Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people.

2.3.1.2 Personality Trait and Leadership

The term *trait* has been the source of considerable ambiguity and confusion in literature, referring sometimes and variously to personality, temperaments, dispositions, and abilities, as well as to any enduring qualities of the individual, including physical and demographic attributes (Zaccaro, Kemp & Bader, 2004).

Today, personality theorists conclude that traits have both inherited and learned components (Howard & Howard, 2001). The inherited part is usually referred to as temperament and the learned part is usually called personality. Personality then, developed based on genetics and environmental factors (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

A personality trait name is a convenient way to refer to a collection of inherited (nature) and learned behaviours (nurture) that tend to occur together in the same person (Howard & Howard, 2001).

Although useful insights about personality have come from many different theories, most of the research addressing the relationship between personality and leadership success has been based on the trait approach, that emphasis is most appropriate here (Howard & Howard, 2001; Hughes et al., 2006; Goldberg et al., 2006). Because of personality traits are useful concepts for explaining why people act fairly consistently from one situation to the next. Knowing how two people differ on a particular personality trait can help to predict more accurately how they will tend

to act in a variety of situations (Lussier & Achua, 2007; and Zaccaro et al., 2004). Therefore, knowing personalities helps to explain and predict leaders' behaviour and job performance (Hogan & Holland, 2003; and Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002).

The trait approach maintains that a leader's behaviour reflects an interaction between his or her personality traits and various situational factors (Hogan, & Holland, 2003). Traits play a particularly important role in determining how people behave in unfamiliar, ambiguous, or what might be called weak situations. On the other hand, situations that are governed by clearly specific rules, demands, or organisational policies and strong situations often minimise the effects traits have on behaviour (Hogan & Holland, 2003; and Tett & Burnett, 2003).

Their existence can be inferred by a leader's consistent pattern of behaviour (Bono & Judge, 2004). For example, the personality trait of dependability differentiates leaders who tend to be hard-working and rule abiding, from those who do not like to work hard and are more prone to break rules. Leaders achieving higher scores on the traits of dependability on personality inventory would be more likely to come to work on time, do a thorough job in completing work assignments, and rarely leave work early. Whilst leaders who score lower on dependability would be late to work more often, make impulsive decision, or fail to follow through with commitments (Hughes et al., 2006).

The strength of the relationship between personality traits and leadership effectiveness relationship is often inversely related to the strength of the situation. (i.e., personality traits are more closely related to leadership effectiveness in weak situations) (Hughes et al., 2006). Given the accelerated pace of change in most organisations today, it is likely that leaders will be facing even more unfamiliar and ambiguous situations in the future. Therefore, personality traits may play an increasingly important role in a leader's behaviour (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). If organisations can accurately identify those personality traits and the individuals who possess them, then they should be able to do a better job promoting the right people into leadership positions (Stevens & Ash, 2001). If the right people are in leadership positions, the odds of achieving organisational success should be dramatically improved (Stevens & Ash, 2001; and Sorcher & Brant, 2002).

Part 2: The present status of discipline: personality and leadership studies and the natural leadership talents of women

2.3.2.1 Personality and Leadership Studies

There is an extensive history of research examining the link between personality characteristics and effective leadership (Hughes et al., 2006). Personality characteristics have been shown to predict overall leader effectiveness in terms of business outcomes, the ability of the leader to build an effective team, subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness, and executive derailment. Furthermore, personality is also predictive of emergent leadership - that is, early identification of leadership potential (Robie, Brown, & Bly, 2008).

Recall that the trait theory of leadership was the foundation for leadership studies (Lussier & Achua, 2007) and trait theory is still being studied (Antonakis et al., 2004). The largest set of leader trait studies published in the last decade has focused on leader personalities (Zaccaro et al., 2004). These studies have examined primarily (a) leadership and the Five Factor Model (FFM) and (b) leadership and dimensions of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI).

(a) Leadership and the Five Factor Model (FFM)

Research in personality has coalesced around the premise that personality traits can be broadly organised into five major headings: neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

The Five-Factor Model (FFM) or Big Five has been around since 1936. With computers and factor analysis software, research in the 1980s has consistently confirmed that these five personality factors are the most reliable for differentiating personality traits (Howard & Howard, 2001). The Five-Factor Model of personality traits is the most widely accepted way to classify personalities, because of its strong research support (Goldberg et al., 2006; Lussier & Achua, 2007; Howard & Howard, 2001; Hughes et al., 2006).

The purpose of the Five-Factor Model is to reliably categorise, into one of five dimensions, each dimension that includes multiple traits. The Five-

Factor Model of personality categorises traits typically referred to by the five letters O, C, E, A, and N (Howard & Howard, 2001).

O refers to one's originality or openness to new experiences. A person high in O has an appetite for new ideas and activities, and is easily bored. Those low in the O factor prefer familiar territory and tend to be more practical (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

C refers to one's consolidation or conscientiousness. A person high in C tends to consolidate energy when accomplishing one or more goals. A person low in C prefers multitasking and a more spontaneous work style (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

E refers to one's "extraversion." A person high in E likes to be in the thick of the action, while a person low in E prefers to be away from noise and stimulation (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

A refers to one's accommodation ability or agreeableness. A person high in A tends to accommodate the wishes and needs of others, while a person low in A tends to cater to his or her own personal priorities (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

N refers to one's need for stability or negative emotionality. A person high in N is very reactive and prefers a stress-free workplace. A person low in N is very calm and relatively unaffected by stress that usually burdens others (Howard & Howard, 2001; Zaccaro, et al., 2004).

Recent studies support the relationship between the Five-Factor Model and successful leadership, for example, Stevens and Ash (2001) found that conscientiousness and extroversion were positively correlated with preferences for managerial work and job performance. They also found that agreeableness and openness were associated with greater preferences for participative management styles. Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt (2002) used meta-analysis to examine 78 studies that linked one or more of the Big Five factors to leadership. They reported that extraversion exhibited the strongest relationship to leadership, followed by conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness. Agreeableness demonstrated the weakest relationship to leadership. Judge et al., (2002) also differentiated between leader emergence and leader effectiveness, finding that all factors but agreeableness

were associated with emergence; all five factors, though, were significantly associated with effectiveness. Ployhart, Holtz, and Bliese (2002) also reported some stronger evidence for agreeableness; however, finding in a longitudinal study of leadership growth and development that agreeableness was associated with increased displays of adaptability.

On the other hand, some recent studies show the relationship between the Five-Factor Model and the failure of leadership, as Robie, Brown, and Bly (2008) investigated the moderating effects of a derailing trait composite measure on the relationship between five major personality dimensions and boss ratings of overall performance, advancement potential, and career difficulty risk. The sample for this study was taken from 144 participants. They were executives (45%) and middle-level managers (55%) who were primary male (80%), White (90%). A derailing trait is one that is associated with unexpected failure to reach a top position in an organisation. The results of the study suggested that high scores on derailing traits will typically lead to higher performance ratings when examined across the executive success factors spectrum. Even though derailing traits moderated the relations between several of the personality factors and advancement potential and almost all of the personality factors and career risk difficulty, the expected level of performance for those high in derailing traits is typically much higher at low levels of the personality factors and virtually the same at high levels of the personality factors. The results suggest that derailment traits may actually be more functional than we previously thought. Similarly study on less effective leaders by Ames & Flynn (2007), proposes that individual differences in assertiveness (extraversion) play a critical role in perceptions about leaders. They argue that individuals seen either as markedly low in assertiveness or as high in assertiveness are generally appraised as less effective leaders. Moreover, the authors claim that observers' perceptions of leaders as having too much or too little assertiveness are widespread. The study results suggest that assertiveness might have been overlooked in research that has been focused on identifying what makes a leader rather than on identifying what breaks a leader.

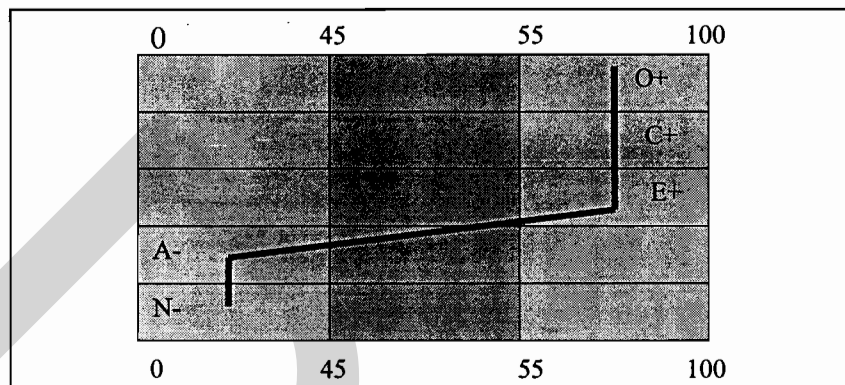
The study on the relationship between personality and ratings of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, Judge, Bono, and Joyce (2004) used meta-analysis to examine 26 independent studies that link this

relationship. They report that personality traits were related to three dimensions of transformational leadership: idealised influence and inspirational motivation (charisma), intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration and three dimensions of transactional leadership: contingent reward, management by exception active and passive leadership. Extraversion was the strongest and most consistent correlate of transformational leadership. Although results provided some support for the dispositional basis of transformational leadership especially with respect to the charisma dimension generally, weak associations suggested the importance of future research to focus on both narrower personality traits and non-dispositional determinants of transformational and transactional leadership.

Howard and Howard (2001) pointed out that, leaders, who are generally calm (N-), must be capable of occasionally showing agitation (N+) so that people don't regard them as unfeeling. Though they are general outgoing and assertive (E+), they must occasionally retire in solitude (E-), or other may conclude that they're uncomfortable with themselves. They may espouse a vision (O+), but they must also be practical and efficient (O-) so that people don't think they're out of touch with reality. Though they can be unyielding (A-), they must be nurturing or occasionally being spontaneous and playful (C-), or others may conclude that they're headed for breakdown.

As a result, the natural leader defined in Five-Factor Model terms is visionary (O+); dedicated to a goal (C+); energetic, outgoing and persuasive (E+); competitive (A-); and resilient (N-). This pattern is presented as a big five profile in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6 The Ideal Leadership Personality Profile



Source: Adapted from Howard and Howard (2001, p.117). *The owner's Manual for Personality at Work*.

Although, there has been substantial research over the last two decades on the Five-Factor Model profile of an ideal leader. This does not mean people who fail to fit this profile are unable to lead; rather, the Five-Factor Model profiles the typical leader's personality, based on organisational studies. These personality traits move along a continuum, and one can exercise non-preferential behaviours when necessary (Howard & Howard, 2001).

If the ideal, optimal, or target infrastructure profile for leadership has been established, then what are the consequences when a leader has a profile that is off-target? If a leader matches the ideal on all but one or two dimensions, what are the specific liabilities and how does the leader compensate of them?

In summary, the Five-Factor Model of personality traits is the most widely accepted way to classify personalities. The recent studies shown the relevance of the Five-Factor Model and successful and failed leadership, The study of lives and personalities has been concerned with questions of which types of people emerge as effective leaders and why, because their focus has been on what makes leaders rather than on what breaks them (Ames & Flynn, 2007). Most researchers, for example, Judge, et al.,(2002); Judge et al., (2004); Ployhart et al., (2002); Stevens and Ash (2001), conducting leadership studies have attempted to specify which personality characteristics are present in attributions of successful leadership. Far

fewer studies, for instance, Robie et al., (2008) and Ames and Flynn (2007), have identified attributes associated with ineffective leadership.

However, there has been extensive research on the Five-Factor Model profile of an ideal leader. Neither are there any magic set of scores to equate good leadership nor must a leader be ineffective just because one or two scores fall short of the ideal (Howard & Howard, 2001). The fact that some people have an ideal profile for leadership doesn't mean that those who don't have such a profile should be excluded from the opportunity to lead (Robie, Brown, & Bly, 2008; Howard & Howard, 2001). Instead, the ideal profile highlights important characteristics of leadership that need to be addressed in some way. Introverted leaders can excel in any situation, but it will be more natural (and comfortable) for them to work in a more introverted environment (Howard & Howard, 2001).

(b) Leadership and dimensions of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

Personality traits provided a useful framework for describing leadership behaviours, but they are not the only way to describe personality. An alternative way to describe how leaders and followers differ in day to day behaviour patterns is through types, or in term of personal typology. Unlike traits, which assume people fall somewhere along a continuum of low to high scores on any particular bright or dark side personality dimension, personality typology assumes that there are qualitatively difference types of leader (Hughes et al., 2006).

Another substantial body of leadership research has examined the associations between dimensions of MBTI and leadership indices. The MBTI measures four types of preferences regarding information, experiences, and making decisions (McCaughey M. H., 1990). The first measure, extraversion versus introversion, indicates a preference for social engagement versus a preference for introspection and ideas. The sensing versus intuition measure indicates a preference for sense data and fact (what can be experienced) versus a preference for possibilities and theoretical patterns. The measure of thinking versus feeling indicates a preference for using logic and rational analysis in making decisions versus a preference for making decision using personal values and emotional reactions. Finally, the judging and perceiving measure reflects a preference for planning and organising versus spontaneity and flexibility (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004).

Table 2.7 The MBTI and four preference pairs

Extraversion (E) <i>Energy produced through social engagement</i>	Where to get the energy	Introversion(I) <i>Energy produced through introspection and ideas</i>
Sensing (S) <i>Information gathered through the sense data and fact (what can be experienced)</i>	How to perceive the world	iNtuition (N) <i>Information acquired as possibilities and theoretical patterns</i>
Thinking (T) <i>Conclusions based on logical and rational analysis</i>	How to make decisions	Feeling (F) <i>Conclusion based on personal values and emotional reactions</i>
Judging (J) <i>Focus on planning and organising</i>	Life style	Perceiving (P) <i>Focus on spontaneous and flexibility</i>

Source: Developed for this research

Zaccaro (2001) used the tables from M.H. McCauley (1990) to compare successful executives with a sample of middle-and lower-level managers and unsuccessful executives. He found that a greater proportion of the iNtuition-Thinking (NTs) (40%) were represented in the successful executive sample than in the sample of lower-level manager or less-effective executives (21%).

Several other recent studies have found links between dimensions of MBTI and leadership. Schneider, Ehrhart, and Ehrhart (2002) reported preferences for Extraversion and Judging to be associated with teacher and peer ratings of leadership in a sample of high school students. Connelly, Gilbert, Zaccaro, Threlfall, Marks, and Mumford (2000) explored the relationship of leadership skills and knowledge to leader performance; found that preferences for iNtuition predicted army officer career achievement.

McCauley (1990) and Zaccaro (2001) suggest that leaders differ somewhat from nonleaders in their preferences for Extroversion, iNtuition, Thinking, and Judging (ENTJ) although some contradictory findings have been reported for Sensing and Perceiving (SPs).

Tan & Tiong, (2001) reported personality type and the Singapore manager; where Singaporean managers have been notably pragmatic and effective in maintaining an efficient system. Managers and administrators are inclined towards

Thinking and Judging (TJs) that is a sound description of the Singaporean manager. Given the predominance of TJs among executives, the question is "Are management teams, particularly those in the higher echelons of decision making, lacking the contributions of other styles?" (established for this research). In the light of research that suggests Feeling (Fs) are more co-operative and supportive than Thinking (Ts), while Perceiving (Ps) are more flexible and creative than Judging (Js), there should be concern about the consequences of over representation. The risks of over representation of any one style, resulting in a loss of contributions from others may need to be examined and avoided. Ensuring the presence of different types within an organisation enhances its organisational strengths and effectiveness. They also pointed out Singapore managers may find it vital to enhance their iNtuition (Ns) and Perceiving (Ps) dimensions, drawing on the creative and perceptual frames to better face the challenges of regionalisation and globalisation in the twenty-first century.

In brief, Personality type assumes that there are qualitatively different types of leaders (Hughes et al., 2006). The MBTI measure four types of preferences regarding information, experiences, and making decisions; extraversion versus introversion; sensing versus intuition; thinking versus feeling; judging versus perceiving. Several recent studies found links between dimensions of MBTI and leadership (Connelly et al., 2000; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Ehrhart, 2002; Tan and Tiong, 1999; Zaccaro, 2001). The reports show leaders differ somewhat from nonleaders in contradictory finding. McCauley (1990) and Zaccaro (2001) suggest leaders' preferences for iNtuition and Thinking, (NT) although some contradictory findings have been reported for Sensing and Perceiving (SPs), while Tan and Tiong (1999) reported Singapore Managers and administrators are inclined towards Thinking and Judging (TJs).

2.3.2.2 The Natural Leadership Talents of Women

It is an anatomical fact that male brains are about 10 percent larger than female brains (Fisher, 2005). On the contrary, women have more nerve cells in certain areas. Women also tend to have a larger corpus collusum – the group of nerve fibres that connects left and right hemispheres (Fisher, 2005). That makes women faster at transferring data between the computational, verbal left half of the

brain and intuitive, visual right half of the brain and, therefore, women outperform men at communication and interpersonal skills (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

Fisher (2005) described some of the biological underpinnings of female natural talents. According to Fisher, it was identified women express specific talents more regularly than men, aptitudes that stem, in part, from women's brain architecture and hormones, plus skill that leadership theorists now support as essential to leadership effectiveness. These talents are not exclusive to women, of course, yet women display them more regularly than men.

1) Web Thinking: Women's Contextual View

Women integrate more details faster and arrange these bits of data into more complex patterns. As they make decisions, women tend to weigh more variables, consider more options, and see a wider array of possible solutions to a problem. Women tend to generalize, to synthesize, to take a broader, more holistic, more contextual perspective of any issue. They tend to think in webs of factors, not straight lines (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

2) Mental Flexibility

Women's brain architecture for web thinking has endowed them with another talent-mental flexibility that assists leadership in our dynamic global economy. Moskalew reported (as cited in Fisher, 2005, p.136) that "women" effectiveness as managers, leaders and team-mates outstrips the abilities of their male counterparts in 28 out of 31 managerial skill areas. Among these skills the product of women's mental flexibility was to "generate new idea" and "imagination".

3) Verbal Articulation: Words Are Women's Tools

Women verbal skills begin to emerge in early childhood. Infant girls babble more than infant boys. They speak sooner, with longer utterances and more complex grammatical constructions. By age twelve, girls excel at grammar and spelling and at understanding and remembering what they read. Moreover, American women share this verbal fluency with women in Japan, Nepal, England, and every country where these skills have been tested- most likely because women's verbal aptitudes are associated with gender differences in the brain, as well as the female hormone, Estrogen (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

Women are born. Words are a woman's tools. Words still sway minds and hearts. And as contemporary women leaders have opportunities to express their "voices" in the workplace, their power will increase (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

4) Executive Social Skills

Women have what scientists call "executive social skills." Women, on average, have a better sense of taste, touch, smell, and hearing. They see better in the dark, have better peripheral vision, and remember more objects in the room or landscape. With these skills, women are built to read minds. In fact, several of these "people skills" are associated with the female hormone estrogens. So it's not surprising that women already hold over 60 percent of jobs in the booming service sector of the world economy - another way they lead (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

5) Networking, Collaboration, and Empathy

Along with women's executive social skills are their remarkable facilities for networking, collaboration, empathy, inclusion, and sharing power. These feminine dispositions to work in egalitarian teams, network, and support others were unquestionably vital to ancestral women who need to support one another and their children. Today, these traits are still notable impressive contributions to the contemporary business environment (Fisher, 2005; and Matlin, 2008).

In another study about talent in women, McCracken (2000) conducted the case studies "Winning the Talent War for Women: Sometimes It Takes a Revolution" the result also show identical skills of women and men. Of the woman, a partner might say, "She's really good, she gives 100%. But I just don't see her interacting with a CFO. She's not as polished as some. Her presentation skills could be stronger." The conversation about the man would vary slightly, but significantly: "He's good. He and I are going to take a CFO golfing next week. I know he can grow into it; he has tremendous potential." Beginning with these subtle variations in language, careers could go in very different directions. A woman was found a bit wanting, and male partners couldn't see how she would get to the next level. This study summed up, "Women get evaluated on their performance; men get evaluated on their potential."

In short, many studies show that the unique themes for female leaders are inspiring commitment, self development ability and enlightening communication. This makes female leadership style often more motivating and inspirational and which centres on and is positive around communication working relationships. That is well suited to the current leadership paradigm of the 21st Century. These global challenges can be taken on by women and men who adapt to appropriate leadership style and values (Werhane, 2007).

Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature: Summing up and critique of the Parent Discipline 2: Personality and Leadership

The Theoretical Framework 2, reviewed personality and leadership that shows human personality is complex, mysterious and wonderful. Human individuality is genetically too complex for any one system to explain. As Zaccaro et al., (2004) pointed out, some researchers focused on destructive personal attributes that contribute to harmful or negative leadership influences. Although this line of research is in its early stages and has yielded somewhat inconsistent findings, it has begun to provide a counter perspective to the overwhelming body of research that has pointed to the personality attributes that facilitate leadership.

Tubbs and Schulz (2006) also concluded that an individual's core personality is a relatively permanent characteristic. It is formed by hereditary, cultural, familial and social interactions. Personality research suggests that an individual's core personality is formed early in the life of an individual and once acquired is rather immutable (Srivastava, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2003). Hogan et al., (1994) posited that personality predicts leadership—who we are is how we lead—and this information can be used to select future leaders or improve the performance of current incumbents.

Personality is also predictive of emergent leadership - that is, early identification of leadership potential. Generally, it has been demonstrated in terms of the Five-Factor Model of personality traits (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). Many studies show the relationships of the Five-Factor Model to successful and failed leadership (Ames & Flynn, 2007; Judge, et al., 2002; Judge, 2004; Ployhart et al., 2002; Robie et al., 2008; and Stevens & Ash, 2001).

The other model, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, has shown a marked shift in characteristic MBTI types as one move up the corporate ladder. Personality type assumes there are qualitatively differences between types of leaders (Hughes et al., 2006). Several recent studies have found links between dimensions of MBTI and leadership (Connelly et al., 2000; Schneider et al., 2002; Tan & Tiong, 1999; and Zaccaro, 2001). The reports shows leaders differ somewhat from nonleaders in contradictory finding (McCauley, 1990; Tan & Tiong, 1999; and Zaccaro, 2001).

According to these two concepts; personality trait and personality type, the personality trait concept is the most widely accepted way to classify personality in leadership studies (Goldberg et al., 2006; Lussier & Achua, 2007; Howard & Howard, 2001; and Hughes et al., 2006).

Fisher (2005) and Matlin (2008) identified specific talents of women such as web thinking, mental flexibility, verbal articulation, executive social skills, networking, collaboration, and empathy. Many studies also supported the unique talents of female leaders. That makes female leadership style well suited to the current leadership paradigm of the 21st Century (Werhane, 2007).

Consequently, this theoretical framework demonstrates that personality traits defined as inborn talents that relate to this study, are individual factors of female leaderships. Despite the fact that there are many personality and leadership studies, unfortunately, they do not directly address female leadership.

2.4 Parent Discipline 3: Leadership Competencies

Despite the fact that the personality trait approach to leadership, as reviewed in Parent Discipline 2, has proved unsuccessful in isolating a definitive set of leader characteristics, the competency approach to leadership development and assessment is becoming increasingly widespread (Bolden, 2004). In practical, every major organisation has ideas about what it takes to be an outstanding leader. Many organisations have developed formal “competency models”, descriptions of knowledge, skills, abilities, and other attributes of effective leaders as explicit statements of these ideas (Alldredge & Nilan, 2000; Bolden, 2004; and Hay Group, 2003).

Recall the definition of leadership in this study “*Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes, such as personality traits, knowledge, and skills*” (developed for this study). In relation to this definition, the competency models are typically used for a number of purposes, including leadership recruitment, leadership development, and leadership retention (Alldredge & Nilan, 2000; Emillani, 2003; Martin, 2006; Shermon, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Therefore, the intention of the parent discipline approach to leadership is to review literature related to the definition of competency and the linkage between competency and leadership. Whilst this approach has its strengths, it leads to a relatively prescribed approach to leadership development. The changing nature of work and society may demand new approaches that encourage a more collective and emergent view of female leadership and female leadership development and of sharing the role of “female leader” more widely within organisations.

2.4.1 Part 1: A review of the major developments : The Concept of Competency

2.4.1.1 The concept of competency

The terms competency and competencies have become widely used in training and career guidance but there is no common agreement on their meaning (Evangelista, 2006). The aim of this sector is to review the most prevalent approaches which originated, respectively, in the United States and Great Britain. As shown in the Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 The concept of competency

Concept	Representative Authors/year	Summary
The American Approach	Bolden, 2004; Sherman, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993	The personal characteristics which make work performance possible or the ability based on behaviour
The English Approach	Evangelista, 2006; and Sherman, 2004	The tasks a person is capable of performing or an ability based on a work task for a job output

Source: Developed for this research

In the American approach, a competency can be defined as “each personal characteristic which allows the optimum execution of a particular task in given organisation. For example the following can be considered competencies: An underlying characteristic of an individual means the competency is a fairly deep and enduring part of a person’s personality and can predict performance in a wide variety of situation in job tasks (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; and Sherman, 2004). In this approach, competencies are the pre-determining factors which make possible good work performance. It is worth highlighting that in this definition competencies are not ‘concrete’ factors in the same way as personal characteristics such as ability and aptitude. The term allows reference to such factors without having to list them every time (Bolden, 2004; Sherman, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

In The ‘English’ approach, the term competence (please note that different spelling, in British English have competence and competences, while in American English competency and competencies) means “a specific work related task which an individual is capable of carrying out according to a predetermined standard. In this acceptance, competences are specific, observable ways of conducting a given task which an individual is capable of carrying out according to a prescribed performance standard” (Evangelista, 2006). In this case, indicating a person’s competences means listing the main tasks of particular job he/she is capable of

performing. This approach is derived from that developed in U.K. where a series of performance standards (the 'National Occupational Standards') has been put in place for a large number of occupations. It is necessary to satisfy these standards in order to be considered capable of doing a particular job (Evangelista, 2006; and Shermon, 2004).

Conclusions, in the American approach definition, competencies are the personal characteristics which make work performance possible (Evangelista, 2006; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993) or the ability based on behaviour (Shermon, 2004). Whereas, in the English approach definition, competences are the tasks a person is capable of performing (Evangelista, 2006) or an ability based on a work task for a job output (Shermon, 2004).

- What is competency?

The word competency comes from a Latin word meaning "suitable" (Bueno & Tubbs, 2004). Many Scholars defined competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation, which enables him to deliver superior performance in a given job, role or a situation (Bolden, 2004; Shermon, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

The core competence scope relates to the KSAO model. KSAO stands for **K**nowledge, **S**kill, **A**bility and **O**ther attributes.

- *Knowledge*: The specific information acquired typically through formal education to perform a particular job (Shermon, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

- *Skill*: The proficiency of using a tool or equipment. Skills are acquired in an educational environment or and informal one (Shermon, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

- *Ability*: Ability refers to specifics such as intelligence, spatial orientation, reaction time and stamina, Abilities are often measured by tests that provide estimate the extent to which a person has the specific ability to perform a given task (Shermon, 2004).

▪ *Other attributes*: Underlying characteristics need for doing a job well. Include individual's core personality, self-image (attitude), traits, and motives (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

To summarise, **K** and **S** are organised into technical skills (visible competency), **A** and **O** translate into non-technical skill (underlying competencies) (Shermon, 2004).

1) Technical skills are related to specific areas of expertise such as an industry, process, technological package or functional area as a knowledge or skill (e.g., knowledge of safety regulation & international compliance codes, order management, upstream-downstream integration skills). These competencies are generally acquired through some form of training (e.g., course work, formal education) which may be accompanied by some type of certification (Shermon, 2004).

2) Non- technical skill often considered "soft skills" – usually abilities and personal attributes. These competencies generally are not specific to an industry, process, technological package or functional area (Shermon, 2004).

It can be helpful to think of competencies in terms of an iceberg, as shown in figure 2.6. Technical competencies or skills and knowledge are at the tip - the portion above the waterline that is clearly visible that can be developed easily by training. On the other hand, Non technical competency (underlying competencies) are below the waterline - they are more difficult to assess, and often harder to develop. Underlying competencies can be understood as manifestations of how a person views him or herself, how he or she typically behaves, or motives of him or her (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Figure 2.7 The Iceberg Model of Competencies

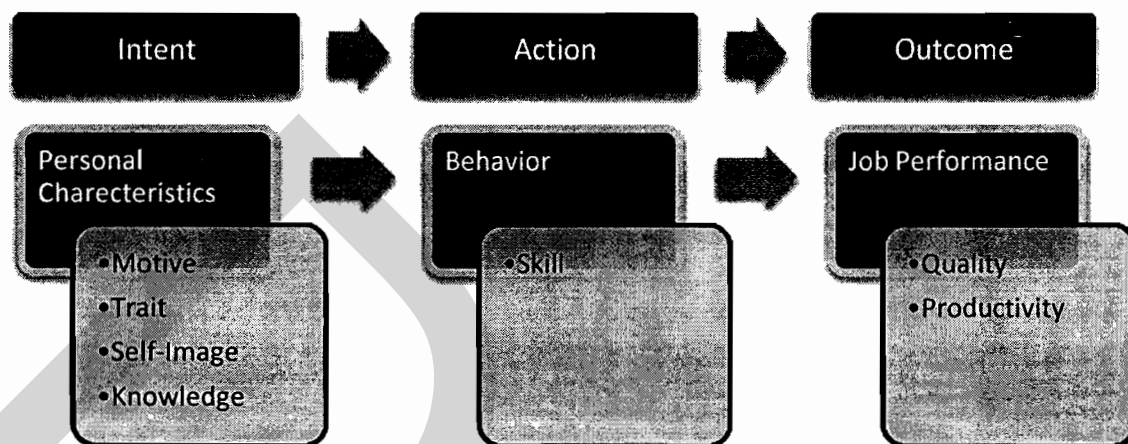


Source: Adapted from Spencer and Spencer, 1993, *Competence at Work*.

According to Figure 2.7, while surface knowledge and skill competencies are relatively easy to develop; training is the most cost-effective way to secure these employee abilities. Core motive and trait competencies at the base of the personality iceberg are more difficult to assess and develop; it is the most cost-effective to select for these characteristics (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Spencer & Spencer (1993) argued in the complex jobs, competencies are relatively more important in predicting superior performance than are task-related skills, intelligence or credentials. Leadership is the complex jobs, organisations should select core motive and trait competencies and teach the knowledge and skills required to do specific jobs.

Motive, trait, and self-image competencies predict skill behaviour actions which in turn predict job performance outcomes. Competencies always include an intent, which is the motive or trait force that causes action toward an outcome. Behaviour without intent doesn't define a competency (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Figure 2.8 shows definition of a competency.

Figure 2.8 Definition of a “competency”



Source: Adapted from Spencer and Spencer, 1993, *Competence at Work*.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) have defined an interesting list of competencies in their classic book “Competence at work; models for superior performance”. They have summarised the 20 years of research and findings from 286 studies of entrepreneurial, technical and professional, sales, human service and managerial jobs from industry, government, military, health care, education and religious organisations. The authors have defined 20 different generic competencies, which belong to six clusters as shown in table 2.9.

Table 2.9 The generic competencies

Competencies Cluster		Generic Competencies
1	Achievement and Action	1. Achievement Orientation 2. Concern for order, quality and accuracy 3. Initiative 4. Information Seeking
2	Helping and Human Service	5. Interpersonal understanding 6. Customer service orientation
3	Impact and Influence	7. Impact and influence 8. Organisational awareness 9. Relationship building
4	Managerial	10. Developing others 11. Directness: Assertiveness 12. Teamwork and cooperation 13. Team leadership
5	Cognitive	14. Analytical thinking 15. Conceptual thinking 16. Technical/professional/managerial expertise
6	Personal Effectiveness	17. Self-control 18. Self-confidence 19. Flexibility 20. Organisational commitment

Source: Adapted from Spencer and Spencer, 1993, *Competence at Work*.

2.4.2 Part 2: The present status of discipline: leadership competencies model and female leadership competencies

2.4.2.1 Leadership Competencies Model

Despite the fact that trait and behavioural theories of leadership have proved unsuccessful in isolating a definitive set of leader characteristics, the competency approach to leadership development and assessment is becoming increasingly widespread (Bolden, 2004, p.15). Leadership transform vision into practice by inspiring followers to want to experience the change process, to influence their followers to willingly jump into that experience. Leaders need a specific set of competencies to guide their actions. Although competencies will always differ from one leader to the next, having a core set to draw from increases their chance for success. These competencies can be thought of as the inner tools for motivating employees, directing systems and processes, and guiding the business towards common goals that allow the organisation to increase its value (Bolden, 2004; and (Intagliata, 2000).

A leader competency model describes the characteristics that an organisation desires in its leaders or some delimited subset of its leaders. These characteristics are usually described as behaviours, or more broadly as competencies. Organisations might begin with a more general model developed from research in the field, for instance, Goleman's emotional competency model or Bass's transformational leadership model, and adapt it to organisations context and needs, or they might develop a model "from scratch"; that is, from examining what has predicted successful leadership in their organisation or exploring what is expected to predict successful leadership in the future (McCauley, 2004).

Global competence is a characteristic that multinational businesses are likely to expect of their leaders (London & Maurer, 2004). This is a combination of personality characteristics, such as openness and flexibility, knowledge about business operations in other cultures and skills, such as language. Global developmental experience improves knowledge and skills, but characteristics are less likely to change (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

One of the main focus areas of leadership competency research is to examine the key competencies which leaders need in various roles to be efficient. In 1973, David C. McClelland published a paper "Testing the Competence rather than Intelligence" which has been credited for launching the competency movement in psychology (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The notion of management and leadership competence owes much of its origin to the work of McBer consultants for the American Management Association in the late 1970s and early 1980s. The aim of this work was "to explain some of the differences in general qualitative distinctions of performance (e.g. poor versus average versus superior managers) (Bolden, 2004; and Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Spencer and Spencer (1993) conducted a study to define the managerial competency model for managers by organisational level: First-line supervisor, Middle Managers, and Executive. They defined the first level supervisors as people supervising exempt technical and professional employees. "Middle managers" comprise all managers that fall between first-level supervisors and executives. They defined the executives have: title like "General Manager," "Commanding Officer", "Director", "Vice Presidency" and responsibility for a large, multifaceted division within a very large organisation. The result reported that executives have more indicators per model than other managers. They appear to have more different competencies and indicator overall and also appear to combine their competencies in more complex ways and in more intricate combinations. Executives appear to use more different competencies per incident than first-line supervisors. The most common executive-level indicators of influence and impact are using subtle strategies to influence other and working to establish the organisation's credibility or reputation (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Spencer and Spencer (1993) reported that top-performer leaders are characterised by socialised Achievement Orientation, Organisational Awareness, and Relationship Building more often than are most managers. Some competencies, such as Concern for Order and self-Control, are virtually absent from the leadership models. Then, leadership competency model have divided into two major competency clusters: (1) Achievement & Action cluster, (2) Impact & Influence cluster, and (3) Managerial cluster (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

(1) *Achievement & Action clusters* is the largest leadership competency cluster, it is the largest competency cluster for executives, and the most frequent single competency for executives is Achievement Orientation (Spencer & Spencer, 1993, p. 215).

Achievement orientation, the leader is also expected to display excellent information processing, project management, customer service and delivery skills, along with proven business and political acumen (Bolden, 2004). Top-performer leaders are more likely to talk about taking calculating entrepreneurial risks, supporting new ventures or new idea, and calculated the costs and benefit of the decision than are middle managers and supervisors (Bolden, 2004; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

(2) *Impact & Influence clusters*: the most common leadership competency cluster is Impact and Influence (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This cluster consists of two competency; 1) Relationship Building and 2) Organisational awareness.

1) Relationship building, developing and using a network of contacts (both inside and outside the organisation) is mentioned in all the leadership competency models. In some cases, extensive community involvement or leadership characterises in top executive. This seems to vary according to the organisation and the community (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). They build partnerships, walk the talk, show incredible drive and enthusiasm, and get things done (Bolden, 2004).

2) Organisational awareness becomes more important and is mentioned more frequently at the executive level. It is found in relation to the executive's own organisation and in relation to outside organisations (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

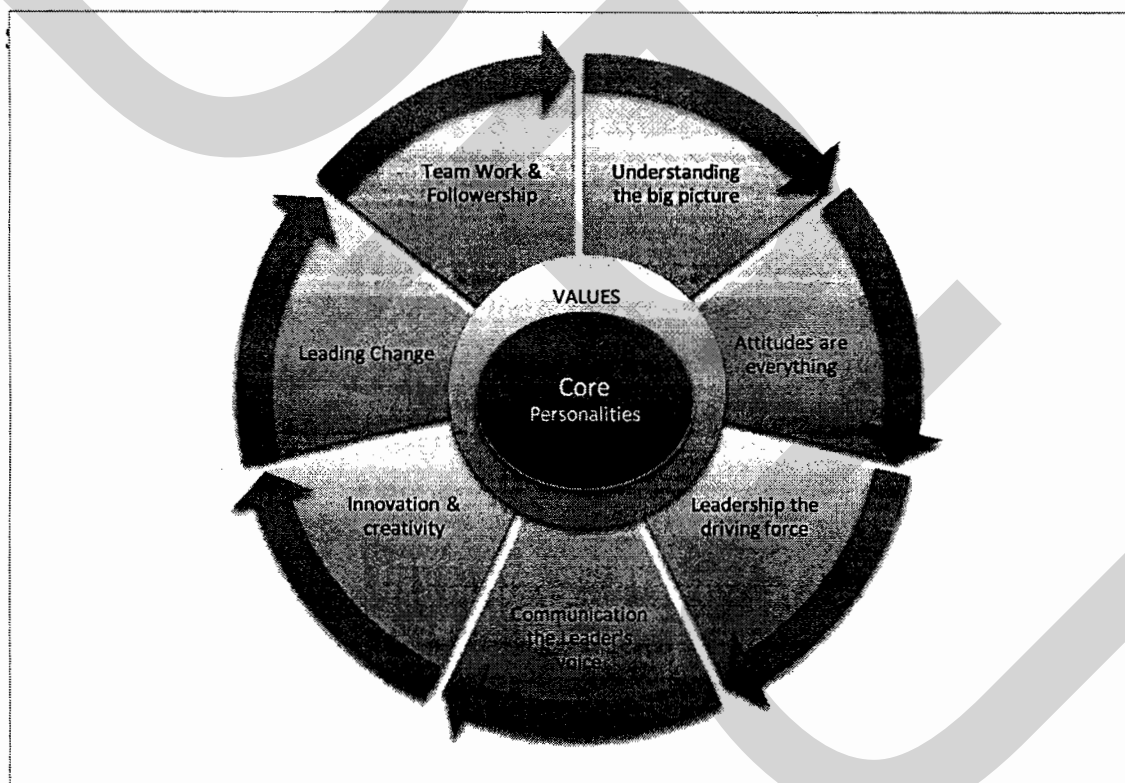
(3) Managerial cluster consists of Directiveness: Assertiveness and the use of position power (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Directiveness is mentioned as distinguishing superior executives more frequently than it is in the generic managerial model. It is mostly seen as telling people directly what to do, setting expectations and limits, and confronting performance problems directly. Appropriately firing poor performers who fail to

improve is also mentioned in several models as distinguishing superior executive from average performance (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

In the other interesting study by Tubbs and Schulz (2006), the scholars attempt to answer two of the most frequently asked questions of leadership (1) what competencies and meta-competencies comprise leadership and (2) can leadership, in fact, be taught and learned. Tubbs and Schulz (2006) described the competencies associated with effective leadership, and illustrated the model global leadership competencies as show in Figure 2.9.

Figure 2.9 Global Leadership Competencies Model:



Source: Adapted from Tubbs and Schulz (2006), *Exploring a Taxonomy of Global Leadership Competencies and Meta-competencies*.

The model in Figure 2.9 shows that leadership competencies can be represented by three concentric circles. These three circles describe three distinct aspects of leadership. The innermost circle includes an individual's core personality.

The second circle includes an individual's values. The outermost circle represents an individual's leadership behaviours and skills, (i.e., meta-competencies). The authors contend that (1) the attributes in the innermost circle are more or less fixed at a young age and are unlikely to be changed as a result of leadership development efforts; (2) that a person's values are somewhat more malleable than personality characteristics, yet more stable and perhaps more resistant to change than behaviours; and (3) that the behaviours represented in the outermost circle are the most likely to be changed through leadership development efforts. Subsequently, Tubbs and Schulz (2006) described the model global leadership competencies development efforts must be targeted on the outermost circle in the model.

These behaviour competencies have been derived from the interviews and discussions with over fifty-thousand leaders in North America, South America, Europe and Asia over the past thirty-five years in organisations that are large and small, union and non-union, for-profit and not-for-profit. As describe below:-

1) Attitudes are everything: Demonstrating a compelling and achievable vision and a decisive pursuit of that vision are more likely to lead to organisational success. Showing inclusiveness and respect for diversity is another competency that can lead to an organisation's success. Attitudes include demonstrating appropriate self-confidence and confidence in others as well (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

2) Leadership, the Driving Force: Achievement-related themes pervade the best leaders, discussion of how they influence, develop, or lead others. They use cost-benefit arguments to convince others as well as to make their own decision, they set challenging goals for others (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Competencies in this area of the model include inspiring others, going against outdated or ineffective practices, building trust, varying leadership to the demands of the situation, delegating effectively, evaluating others, mentoring others, leading with sensitivity and empathy, seeing nuances of alternatives, not just either/or extremes, and serving as an appropriate role model for others (Tubbs & Schulz ,2006).

3) Innovation and Creativity: Leaders support others' innovation or entrepreneurial ideas (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The leader demonstrates

innovation, creativity and thinks 'outside the box' (Bolden, 2004). *This* competencies in this area include developing an organisational climate that supports innovation, improving creative decision-making, using weird ideas that work, avoiding indecision based on old paradigms, learning the art of reframing, and continually encouraging people to use and develop their creative abilities (Tubbs & Schulz ,2006).

4) Teamwork and Followership: Competencies in this portion of the model include learning to focus, employing no-fault problem solving, developing a team oriented culture as well as team-based incentive and reward systems, managing your boss, effectively navigating organisational politics, supporting others on the team, effectively utilizing empowerment, developing self-directed work teams, and effectively utilising process improvement teams to improve organisational effectiveness (Tubbs & Schulz ,2006).

5) Communication, The Leader's Voice, Effective communication competencies include demonstrating appropriate emotional intelligence, active listening, non-defensiveness, appropriate and skilful use of language, and body language, effective interviewing, effective negotiation, rumour control, techno-etiquette, and presentational skills (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). The leader is expected to show a true concern for people that is drawn from a deep level of self-awareness, personal reflection and emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998)

6) Understanding the Big Picture, Leaders can gain the respect of followers by demonstrating their knowledge of the entire organisation. Behaviour can include use of systems theory to show the realisation that changes in one part of the organisation often can and impact on other parts of the system. Effective utilization of technology such as the Internet and an organisational Intranet are other such behaviours. Acting in a way that demonstrates global sensitivity is another skill. Utilizing effective compensation plans is another critical organisation-wide competency. Demonstrating an overarching commitment to ethical practices is still another "big picture" competency (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

7) Leading Change, Competencies in this area of the model include creating transformational change, developing an organisational culture that embraces continuous learning, building support mechanisms to create and sustain change efforts, managing the change process, developing change agents, and

encouraging individual as well as structural change in the organisation (Tubbs and Schulz, 2006). Fewer than half of the leadership competency frameworks reviewed referred directly to the leaders' ability to respond and adapt his/her style to different circumstances (Bolden, 2004).

Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2001) have defined emotional intelligence domains and associated with leadership Performance. These scholars also separate leadership competencies in emotional intelligence, as described below: -

- Personal Competence is divided into self-awareness (emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence) and self-management (emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement, initiative and optimism).

- Social Competence is divided into social awareness (empathy, organisational awareness and service) and relationship management (inspirational leadership, influence, developing others, change catalyst, conflict management and teamwork and collaboration). Altogether there are 18 different kinds of competencies in emotional intelligence.

Bolden et al., (2003) reviewed 26 leadership and management competency frameworks in use throughout the public and private sectors in UK, They concluded that a somewhat moderated version of transformational leadership tends to be promoted in most frameworks. Whilst many go beyond simple definitions of behaviours, to consider the cognitive, affective and inter-personal qualities of leaders, the role of followers is usually only acknowledged in a rather simplistic, unidirectional manner. Leadership, therefore, is conceived as a set of values, qualities and behaviours exhibited by the leader that encourage the participation, development, and commitment of followers.

In conclusion, the leadership competencies started work that has been done during the 70's and 80's by David C. McClelland, until now numerous studies of leadership competency are being conducted. Leadership competencies have been defined in the view of behaviour competency (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Tubbs & Schulz, 2006; and Goleman et al., 2001). These leadership competency study reviews also showed clearly related results (Bolden et al., 2003; Goleman et al., 2001; Spencer & Spencer, 1993; and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006). As described below:-

(1) *Personal competence* related to achievement & action cluster and managerial cluster (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; and Goleman et al., 2001):

- The achievement orientation competency (Spencer & Spencer, 1993) shows related to one leadership behaviours and skills: leadership, the driving force (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

- The directiveness competency shows related to one leadership behaviours and skills: attitudes are everything (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

(2) *Social Competence* related to impact & influence cluster (Spencer & Spencer, 1993, and Goleman et al., 2001):

- The relationship building competency (Spencer & Spencer, 1993), this competency is related to two behaviours and skills: teamwork & followership, and communication, the leaders voice (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

- The organisational awareness competency (Spencer & Spencer, 1993) also demonstrates the relation in two leadership behaviours and skills: understanding the big picture, and leading change (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

Subsequently, this relationship of these leadership competency models can be illustrated in Figure 2.10.

Figure 2.10 Ideal Leadership Competency Profile

Personal Competence (Achievement and Action, and Managerial Cluster)		Social Competence (Impact and influence Cluster)	
Generic Competencies	Behaviours and skills	Generic Competencies	Behaviours and skills
Achievement Orientation	1) Leadership, the Driving Force	Relationship Building	1) Teamwork & Followership 2) Communication, the Leader's Voice
Directiveness	2) Attitudes are everything	Organisational Awareness	3) Understanding the Big Picture 4) Leading Change.

Source: Developed for this research

Emiliani (2003) also presented a similar leadership competency model used by a Fortune 100 Company that contains four categories: Leadership; Business Acumen; Communication; and Personal. The author pointed out that this competency model is typical of those that favour transformational leadership characteristics over traditional transactional leadership characteristics, which are considered ineffective at motivating followers to achieve the level of performance required in business today.

Although the competency development of frameworks and standards can be a valuable way of encouraging individuals and organisations to consider their approach to management and leadership development, Bolden et al., (2003) argue that, therefore, it is in the application of these standards and frameworks that difficulties often occur. When working with frameworks and standards there is frequently a temptation to apply them deductively to assess, select and measure leaders rather than inductively to describe effective leadership practice and stimulate debate. With an increasing awareness of the emergent and relational nature of leadership it is their opinion that the standards approach should not be used to define a comprehensive set of attributes of effective leaders, but rather to offer a 'dictionary' with which individuals, organisations, consultants and other agents can debate the nature of leadership and the associated values and relationships within their organisations.

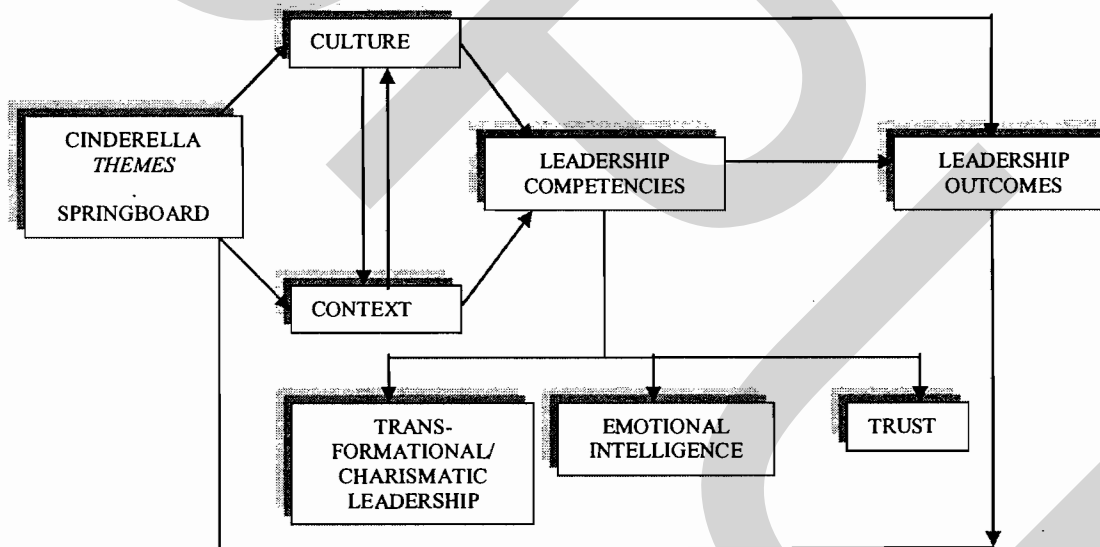
2.4.2.2 Female Leadership Competencies

In the globalise world, Werhane (2007) argued that ideally, the best global leaders are not merely value-driven but are what we have called "ethical leaders," who embody their values in all that they do and promote. These are all characteristics of women. Many scholars have indicated that females do have better social skills and to be described as "interested in other people (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, and Werhane, 2007).

Klenke, K. (2002) examines famous female leaders from different fields Ruth Simmons, Mary Kay, and Oprah Winfrey, who exercise their leadership in three different context, academic, businesses and the media. The result shown that like many successful leaders, these women have a strong set of core

values, a relentless drive for progress, and a remarkable ability to communicate their visions. They are charismatic personalities who also possess the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotional as a source of information, energy trust, creativity and influence. The three female leaders display enthusiasm and optimism and form bonds among their respective communities of followers and motivate them into collective action. As charismatic leaders, they hold strong emotional convictions regarding their values and beliefs and have displayed confidence, determination and persistence in the face of adversity, as the heroine in the Cinderella fairy tale did. The specific competencies were transforming/transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, and ability to build trust.

Figure 2.11 Conceptual model linking Cinderella themes to leadership outcomes through Leadership Attributes



Source: Klenke, K. (2002), p. 20, *Cinderella stories of women leaders: connecting leadership contexts and competencies*.

Unfortunately the small N in the study (as low as three) may have seriously limited their power to detect significant effects.

2.4.3 Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature: Summing up and critique of the Parent Discipline 3: Competency and Leadership.

Parent Discipline 3: Competency and Leadership; A review of the literature was conducted to explore the linkage between competency and leadership. The review illustrates two concepts of competency, the American approach and the English approach. According to the American approach, many scholars defined competency as an underlying characteristic of an individual that is related to superior performance. Leadership competencies have been defined in the view of behaviour competency. The linking between competency and leadership also illustrates as leadership competency model.

Until now numerous studies of leadership competency have been conducted. The competency models developed for particular positions, such as CEOs, span different companies or industries. These study reviews also showed clearly related results in two main competency clusters; the achievement & action cluster and impact & influence cluster (Alldredge, & Nilan, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001; Hay McBer, 1995; Spenser & Spencer, 1993; and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

Since the majority of those holding executive level positions are men, published leadership models are based on research conducted primarily about men. A careful search of the literature shows only a few published leadership competency models for female leaders. For example, Klenke, K. (2002) provides the connection between leadership contexts and competencies and determines shared competencies of successful female leaders that are their defining leadership attributes. But this study did not discuss particular behaviours, and uses only three female leaders as participant.

2.5 Parent Discipline 4: Gender-based leadership

Even in post industrial societies, it is noted that political, corporate, and other leadership positions at the highest levels has remained largely a male prerogative (Eagly & Carli, 2004). Although women have gained considerable access to supervisory and middle management positions, they remain in short supply as elite leaders and top executives (Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Carli, 2004; and Oakley, 2000). For example, women in the company of the Fortune 500 constitute only 16% of all corporate officers, 10% of top corporate officers, and 1% of chief executive officers (CEOs) (Catalyst, 2002, 2003). If gender were without effect, one would expect that the proportion of women in executive roles would be higher, approximating the proportion of women in the professional workforce. The statistics suggest that women are not often recognised and developed, or promoted to these positions.

2.5.1 Part 1: A review of the major developments: The concept of gender based leadership

2.5.1.1 The concept of gender based leadership

The scarcity of women at higher levels in organisations could be the result of a variety of conditions. Recall that the aim of this study is to explore the key conditions influencing females to have access to leadership positions. Gender is a condition that appears to matter and affect the advancement of women in organisations. To review these important issues, the literature on gender-based leadership is significant in understanding the issues faced by females in leadership roles.

At the present time, women are increasingly praised for having excellent leadership skills and, in fact, women, more than men, manifest leadership styles associated with effective performance as leaders (Antonakis, Angerfelt, & Sivasubramaniam, 2005; Eagly, 2007; and Peters, 2005). Nevertheless, more people prefer male than female bosses, and it is more difficult for women than men to become leaders and to succeed in penetrating the ranks of male-dominated leadership roles (Eagly, 2007; and Oakley, 2000).

Antonakis et al., (2005) pointed out that it would be desirable, economically as well as ethically, that those leaders who are evaluated and reach top positions of political or economic power do so as a result of their ability and competence and, all else being equal, not because of their gender. But to the changing of female leaders, it is well established that men dominate most of society's significant activities, particularly high-status leadership positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Various reasons might exist for this phenomenon, ranging from the argument that biological factors account for the fact that males are usually physically stronger and thus deserving of the power they have, to the reasoning that differences in power and influence reflect socially constructed expectations and constraints that makes it easier for men to rise to top positions of leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Antonakis et al., (2005) argued that the biological-differences argument appears to be incredible for a variety of reasons. Appelbaum, Audet, & Miller (2003) reviewed that men and women are biological different in terms of leadership is difficult to support, researchers are investigating other directions: not only that men and women are similar, women may be equally effective, questioning the credence to biological sex as a valid research hypothesis to differentiate male versus female leadership, so that the biological sex approach gives way to broader studies. Interestingly, though learning is evolving, the thinking behind the biological approach appears to linger. Despite the fact that many researchers found only few, if any, differences in the innate abilities of male and female managers (Oakley, 2000), stereotypes persist that portray women as less capable leaders than man (Appelbaum et al., 2003). An alternative position suggests that social role expectations spur or inhibit the advancement of individuals to positions of power (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

In short, Gender bias is related to three issues: gender stereotypes, gender prejudice, and gender discrimination (Matlin, 2008). Gender stereotypes are therefore the beliefs that one's associates with females and males. In other words, stereotypes refer to thoughts about a social group; which may not correspond to reality (Matlin, 2008, p. 37). Prejudice is a negative attitude or emotional reaction toward a particular group of people. Discrimination refers to biased treatment of a particular group of people (Matlin, 2008). Table 2.10 contrasts these three terms the related to the most general term, gender bias.

Table 2.10 The concept of gender based leadership

Concept	Representative Authors/year	Summary
Stereotypes	Eagly & Carli, 2004 ; and Maltin, 2008	Belief about women's characteristics <i>Example: Chris believes that female leaders aren't very smart.</i>
Prejudice	Eagly & Carli, 2004; Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, et al., 2008; and Maltin, 2008	Negative attitude or emotional toward women <i>Example: Chris doesn't like female leaders.</i>
Discrimination	Eagly & Carli, 2004 ; and Maltin, 2008	Biased behaviour toward women <i>Example: Chris won't hire women for leadership roles.</i>

Source: Adapted from Matlin (2003). *The Psychology of Women 6th ed*

2.5.2 Part 2: The present status of discipline: Gender Stereotyping; Gender Prejudice; and Gender Discriminations

This section looks at how women are represented in leadership role in three kinds of Gender Bias; Gender Stereotyping: Representation of women and men in leadership roles, Gender Prejudice: Attitude forward Female leaders and the last one is Gender Discriminations: gender-based barrier to leadership advancement.

2.5.2.1 Gender Stereotyping: Representation of women and men in leadership role

Stereotyping is the belief that one associate with particular groups of people and is one of basis of misleading people (Maltin, 2008; and Neuman, 2006). Stereotypes can be defined as “cognitive shortcuts” that help to differentiate among different groups of people and, in the case of gender stereotypes, between women and men (Catalyst, 2007).

Gender stereotypes can become a powerful yet invisible threat to women leaders and the organisations in which they work and lead. The impact of

stereotypical bias is often underestimated (Catalyst,2007). The concern of the effects of gender on leadership begins by acknowledging the profound divide in power and authority that separates women from men (Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Gender stereotypes are so pervasive that they extend to a wide range of human behaviours (Maltin, 2008). For example, most people also assume that male leaders are more effective than female leaders (Maltin, 2008). Men are in charge of the most significant activities of most organisations and governments (Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Gender stereotypes emphasize “natural differences” between women and men, but the empirical literature reports that gender differences are far from natural. Extensive research on gender differences and similarities reveals that women and men are actually more similar than different, and that there is more variation among women and among men than there is between women and men (Catalyst, 2007).

A growing body of research points to stereotyping as one of the key contributors to this gender gap in corporate leadership (Catalyst, 2007). Several authors consider stereotypes to be a major force impacting a woman’s ability to advance in an organisational setting (Antonakis et al., 2005; Eagly, 2007; Oakley, 2000; Schein, 2001; and Wellington, Kropf, & Gerkovich, 2003). Gender stereotypical biases can also lead to unfair performance evaluations (Antonakis et al., 2005; and Schein, 2001).

In the early 1970s Schein identified managerial sex typing as a major psychological barrier to the advancement of women in the United States (Schein, 2001). The globalisation of management brings to the forefront the need to examine the relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics in the international arena. In the year 2001, a review of the replications of the Schein research in the United States, United Kingdom, Germany, China, and Japan provides the basis for a global look at the “think leader–think male” phenomenon. Implications of the outcomes, especially among males, for women's progress in management worldwide are discussed.

Another example of the “think-leader-think-male” mindset, Vinnicombe and Singh (2002) reported on a study of male and female managers in

one very large insurance company. It uses the Personality Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) to identify the managers' own management styles, and their perceptions of the style of "the successful manager" who had reached the top team in their organisation. The PAQ identifies two dimensions of management from which 4 categories can be found. The survey of 363 managers revealed significant gender differences. The study provides further evidence of a shift in perceptions of leadership styles towards genderless management, high on both instrumental and expressive traits. However, women are still thinking in "think leader-think male" mode, which may limit their confidence to put themselves forward for promotion.

Catalyst (2005) report also examined perceptions of women's and men's leadership among very senior U.S. managers, where more than 30 percent of study participants were CEOs. The study showed that managers perceived distinct differences between women and men leaders. For example, respondents both women and men perceived that more women leaders than men leaders were effective at "caretaker" behaviours such as supporting others and rewarding subordinates. However, they perceived that more men leaders than women leaders were effective at "take charge" behaviours such as delegating and problem-solving. Notably, the study finds these perceptions are not supported by research on actual leadership behaviour, which finds that gender is not a reliable predictor of how a person will lead.

In addition, Robinson and Lipman-Blumen (2003) used data collected from 1984 to 2002 from 2,371 male and 1768 female middle and senior managers in the United States. Consequently, the authors demonstrate not only that traditional gender role stereotypes do not hold up. But also those counter-stereotypical patterns exist.

Gender stereotypes are widely shared within cultures. This can be problematic as they tend to over-simplify reality, especially when it comes to complex social behaviours (Catalyst, 2007). For example, Catalyst (2006) reports on stereotyping examined perceptions of women's and men's leadership among Western European managers. The study compared managers' perceptions from four groups of culturally similar countries; Anglo (United Kingdom, United States), Germanic (the Netherlands, Germany), Latin (France, Italy, Spain), and Nordic (Denmark, Norway, Sweden) and found that in every group managers held stereotypical perceptions of

women's and men's leadership. Further, the findings of this research suggest that these perceptions bear some striking similarities across cultures. Importantly, in some cultures, stereotypical perceptions discredited the effectiveness of women leaders at highly valued leadership attributes.

In an Asian country, Sandhu & Mehta, (2008) also report that managing gender differences and expectations is an important issue in India. Their research has been designed to assess the strength of psychographic dimensions in discriminating between men and women executives in the banking organisations. Data has been collected from a sample of 187 executives (consisting of 100 men and 87 women). The results reveal lack of appreciation for women's capabilities and sensitivity to gender issues. Sandhu and Mehta (2008) thus proposed that organisations could significantly benefit by harnessing the underutilised talent of their female employee pool and fostering an environment of respect, dignity and equity based on merit rather than on gender.

Despite the numerous business contributions of women leaders, men are still largely seen as the leaders by default (Catalyst, 2007). It's what researchers call the "think-leader-think-male" mindset (Hoyt, 2002; Schein, 2001; and Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002). As "atypical leaders," women are often perceived as going against the norms of leadership or those of femininity. Caught between impossible choices, those who try to conform to traditional, i.e., masculine, leadership behaviours are damned if they do, doomed if they don't (Catalyst, 2007). That, therefore, woman's accomplishments may not advance them in the same way would advance a man. Even women who attempt to avoid negative consequences of stereotype-biased evaluation by adopting a more "masculine" approach tend to be evaluated less favourably than men (Eagly, 2007; Eagly & Carli, 2004; and Schein, 2001).

2.5.2.2 Gender Prejudice: Attitude toward female leaders.

Public discourse on the shortage of women in high-level leadership positions would seem to support the claim that the prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviours are at least partially responsible for the phenomenon (Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Gender-role stereotyping of women and the obvious incompatible expectations for being a woman and being a leader, have been shown to be problematic for women in leadership. Other stereotypical expectations that impact female leaders are those associated specifically with the role of women in authority. Female leaders are expected to be nurturing, supportive, warm and caring (Eagly, 2007, Eagly & Carli, 2004).

Consistent with this idea that prejudice emerges at the intersection of a group's stereotype and the requirements of a social role, Eagly and Karau (2002) proposed a role incongruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. The term gender role thus refers to the descriptive and injunctive expectations associated with women and men. Prejudice against women as leaders flows from the incongruity that people often perceive between the characteristics typical of women and the requirements of leader roles (Eagly & Carli, p. 293).

The disparity between the success of male and female leaders may result from the incongruity between the female sex role and the leadership role (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, & Reichard, 2008). In thinking about women as leaders, people combine two divergent sets of expectations, those about leaders and those about women, whereas in thinking about men as leaders, people would combine largely redundant expectations (Eagly & Carli, p. 293).

Paradoxically, becoming prototypical of desirable leadership in a group or organisation does not ordinarily protect women from prejudiced evaluations. Instead, being similar to her male counterparts may produce disadvantages because such women can be regarded as undesirably masculine (Heilman, 2001). These disadvantages arise from the injunctive norms associated with the female gender role, by which niceness, kindness, and friendliness are especially valued in women (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 293).

Another effect of incongruity between the female gender role and leadership roles can be the inhibition of women's leadership behaviour when the female gender role is brought to mind. Thinking about negative stereotypical portrayals of one's group can cause group members to become concerned about fulfilling the stereotype, and this concern can derail their performance in the stereotypic domain. Then, in an apparently unrelated experiment on leadership, the

women, but not the men, who had been exposed to the female-stereotypical portrayals expressed less preference for a leadership role versus a nonleadership role (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 293). Combined with evidence the stereotypical commercials activated the female stereotypes, these findings suggest that thinking about the stereotypical female role can lower women's leader aspirations, perhaps by increasing their anxiety about fulfilling the stereotypes that women are not suited to leadership (Antonakis et al., 2005).

An outcome of gender role research is the identification of multiplicity of possible factors beyond gender roles that contribute to perceptions of leadership (Appelbaum et al., 2003). Overall, people hold more favourable attitudes toward women in general than toward men primarily because of the very positive communal qualities ascribed to women. Women who are effective leaders tend to violate standards for their gender because they are perceived to manifest male-stereotypes, communal attributes. Unlike traditional women who are considered warm and nice but not especially instrumentally competent, women who excel and display leadership are considered instrumentally competent but not particularly warm (Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997). This perceived gender-role violation can, in turn, lower evaluations of women in leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 294).

Gender roles lead people to expect and prefer women to be communal, creating a double bind for female leaders, who must demonstrate exceptional competence to be seen as equal in ability to men and must also avoid threatening others with their competence and lack of warmth. Women who appear to be direct, competent, and assertive may thus be seen as illegitimately seeking leadership or influence, but gain from combining competence with warmth. Conversely, there is generally no incongruity between the male gender role and behavioural latitude than women have. Men's greater resistance to female leadership also contributes to the slowed ascendance of women into higher proportions than women. Research thus makes a strong case that prejudicial barriers against female leaders are a major factor accounting for their rarity in elite leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 297).

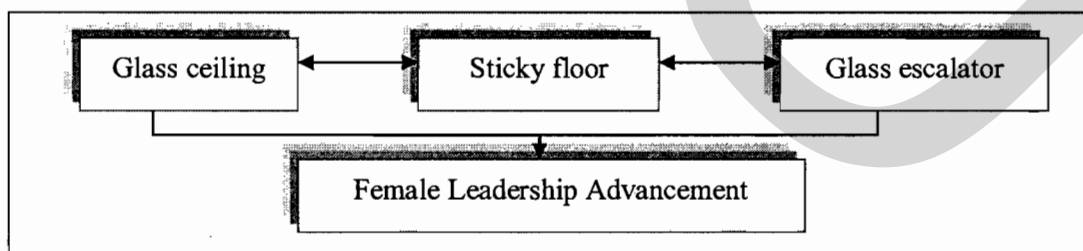
Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, and Reichard (2008) provide an in-depth test of role congruity theory (Eagly, & Karau, 2002). The studies identify

current male and female leader prototypes and show evidence of both descriptive and prescriptive biases associated with gender in evaluating leaders. In addition, they examined participant sex-type finding that feminine individuals expect that leaders are more sensitive than masculine individuals, who expect that leaders are more masculine, strong, and tyrannical than feminine individuals. Similarly, sensitivity was more strongly associated with female leadership, whereas masculinity, strength, and tyranny were more strongly associated with male leadership. However, for female leaders to be perceived as effective they needed to demonstrate both sensitivity and strength, although male leaders only needed to demonstrate strength.

2.5.2.3 Gender Discriminations: gender-based barrier to leadership advancement.

Scholars have conducted many studies focusing on gender inequalities in the business world and most of them agree on a common theme. It appears that qualified and ambitious females who want to achieve the highest positions in organisations stumble on a large number of obstacles, which has a negative effect on the development of these women's careers and for the organisation in general because much talent is wasted. Women experience discrimination in terms of promotion; three related kinds of gender discrimination are called the glass ceiling, the sticky floor, and the glass escalator. As shown in Figure 2.12.

Figure 2.12 The key conditions that influence female leadership advancement



Source: Developed for this research

After the term glass ceiling was introduced in 1986 in the Wall Street Journal ("the corporate Woman," 1986), it spread rapidly among journalists and other writers and soon became a part of the culture (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 292). The glass ceiling is presumably an invisible barrier that seems to prevent women from reaching the top level in many professional organisations (Matlin, 2008). Compared to men, women are less likely to be promoted to management positions in fields such as college teaching and business (Dawley, Hoffman, & Smith, 2004; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; and Oplatka, 2006).

Labour theorists have constructed a different metaphor to describe a related gender discrimination situation. The metaphor of the sticky floor describes the situation of women who are employed in low-level, dead-end jobs with no chance of promotion (Matlin, 2008). Many women are office workers, cashiers, and waitresses. They are not considered for positions with greater responsibility. In fact, these women have no opportunity to even see a glass ceiling, and they certainly will not bump into it (Matlin, 2008).

A third metaphor describes another component of gender bias. The glass escalator phenomenon applies to men who enter fields often associated with women, such as nursing, teaching, library science, and social work; in these occupations, men are often quickly promoted to management positions (Cubillo & Brown, 2003; and Oplatka, 2006).

Leader succession is a traumatic event in any organisation and unfortunately the list of successor candidates rarely includes women. Women generally face discrimination with respect to promotion (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Sandhu and Mehta (2008) also reported that women perceive that male executives are promoted more rapidly than equally qualified female executives in their organisations. Dawley, Hoffman, and Smith, (2004) examined the effect of leader successor gender on post-succession performance and put together theories regarding gender stereotypes, organisation leadership, and leadership succession. This study adds to the organisational leadership literature by exploring traditional perceptions of male and female leaders, newer perspectives regarding leader-gender characteristics and leadership styles, and merging those streams of literature with current theories regarding leader-successor origin. The hypotheses were tested using a sample from

one of few forums that yields a sufficient mix of male and female leaders; US NCAA Division I women's head basketball coaches. Results suggest neither gender outperforms the other. More importantly, finds that gender successor origin moderates the relationship between the gender of the successor and short-term organisational performance.

The other popular explanation for the gender gap in workplace leadership is that women's human capital investment in education, training, and work experience is lower than men's (Eagly & Karau, 2002). However, with respect to education, this argument has little force. In the United States and many industrialised countries, women now attain university degree at higher rates than men do (Peters, 2005). As Conlin (2003) also states that, in 2010, the ratio of female to male bachelor's degrees will be 1.42:1; for master's degrees, the ratio will be 1.51:1.

In human capital discussions, most attention has focused on women's greater involvement in domestic work, which may result in their acquiring less training than men, contributing less effort to paid work, and experiencing more interruptions in their work history (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p.281). Because the custodial care aspect of domestic work (e.g., laundry, cooking) is typically obligatory and routine, women tend not to opt out of such responsibilities because of time constraints or employment obligations. Rather than reduce time spent with children, women sacrifice personal time, sleep, or other housework to accomplish these chores. This gender differential in parenting contributes to women's lesser job experience and more frequency job interruptions, mothers are less likely to be employed than are women without children and, when employed, tend to work fewer hours. In contrast, fathers are more likely to be employed than are men without children and spend more hours on the job (Kaufman & Uhlenberg, 2000; and Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 282).

Salary discrimination is the most obvious kind of treatment discrimination with women earning less money than men (Matlin, 2008). When dealing with human capital, one explanation for the gender wage gap has received some support; namely, that women have less job experience and consistency of employment than men (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 283). O'Neill & Polachek (1993) thus attributed women's workplace advancement, in large part, to their increased work experience. They found that during the 1970s and 1980s, women who had less

experience accounted for 21% of the wage gap. Such findings suggest that trade-offs between women's domestic work and their employment contribute to their lack of workplace advancement. Nevertheless, the inability of human capital variables to account for the majority of the gender wage gap leaves ample room for other causal factors. The overriding importance of other factors is further suggested by evidence that women receive substantially smaller gains in authority than men do for similar human capital investments. Whereas gains in human capital benefit women's wages, the benefits to their power and authority are muted; such findings raise questions about the adequacy of women's performance in leadership roles as well as possible resistance to women's rise in organisational hierarchies (Eagly & Carli, 2004, p. 283).

2.5.3 Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature: Summing up and critique of the Parent Discipline 4: Gender-Based leadership

The Parent Discipline 4: What follows is a Gender-Based Leadership literature search for factors that could explain why women are seldom employed in certain high-prestige occupations and why women are treated differently from men in the workplace. The literature review roughly identifies three groups of gender bias. The first approach is Gender Stereotyping: that is a representation of women and men in leadership roles, which seems to be based on the premise that leadership is innate for men. A second area of thought, Gender Prejudice: refers to an attitude toward female leaders that refers to negative attitudes, acknowledging the role of socialisation and explores the notion of gender role as a determinant of leadership. A third concept involves Gender Discrimination in the workplace that indicates biased behaviour, accepting the gender gap in workplace leadership where women's human capital investment in education, training, and work experience is lower than men's. There are three kinds of gender discrimination in promotion; glass ceiling, the sticky floor, and the glass escalator.

This review highlights some of the potential issues that an executive woman may face as opposed to those facing an executive man. First, a woman with a non-nurturing, gender-role incongruent, leadership style may exhibit separation and anxiety and feelings of isolation, which in turn may result in the perception that she is not effectively performing her leadership role. Second, gender-role stereotyping, and

the organisational conditions that facilitate it, can cause negative performance evaluations, a lack of developmental opportunities, and, therefore, fewer promotions of women into leadership roles. Third, the impact of stereotyping on behaviour may even force women out of leadership roles in order to maintain the power status quo. The foregoing may result in heightened discomfort and rejection of characteristics associated with women as a gender group. Given an existing environment of gender-role congruent expectations, gender-role stereotyping and the potential male desire to maintain power, these factors give credence to the fact that they may combine to create an environment for a female leader substantially different to that likely to be faced by male leaders.

2.6 Immediate Discipline: Female, Gender, and Leadership in Thailand

According to analysis of Parent Disciplines 1, 2, 3, and 4, the extant literature review addressed and identified key factors influencing female leadership. The relationship of leadership theories, personality traits, competencies and gender provided the theoretical framework for this study.

Consequently, the Immediate Discipline focuses on the conditions of possibilities that are influencing the emergence and development of the female leadership phenomenon in Thailand. The first objective of this section is to identify the key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand. The second objective is to review female leadership studies conducted in Thailand.

2.6.1 Part 1: A review of the major developments: The Key Conditions that Influence Female Leadership in Thailand.

At the present time, a large number of Thai female leaders provide testimony to the abilities of women to lead, in addition to contributing to the economic and social opportunities that women have to develop to full potential (Picavet, 2005, and Yukongdi, 2005). However, male superiors are often sceptical about women's leadership skills. Not having opportunities to work and socialise closely with their male superiors, place women at a disadvantage to be leaders (Picavet, 2005). Although Thai women have performed impressively, and found success in many fields, they are still way behind men in leadership positions in both the private sector and the public sectors (Marie Col, Meksawan, & Sopchokchai, 2001; Picavet, 2005; and Yukongdi, 2005).

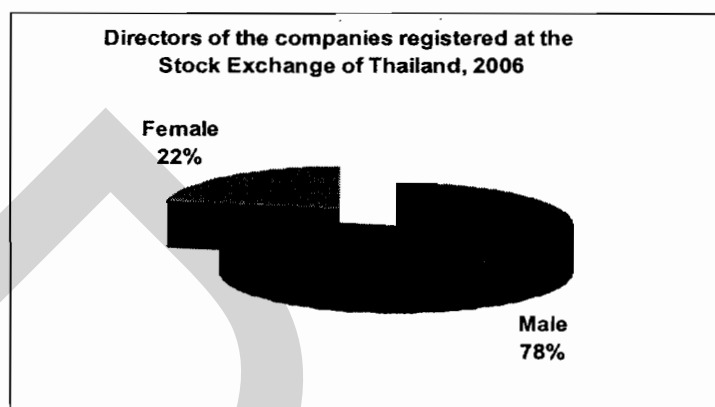
2.6.1.1 The proportion of female leaders in Thailand

The recent report on Thailand gender-disaggregated statistics, 2008, shows that female leaders are underrepresented in top management positions in both the private and the public sectors, as described below:-

(1) The Proportion of Female Executives in the Private Sector

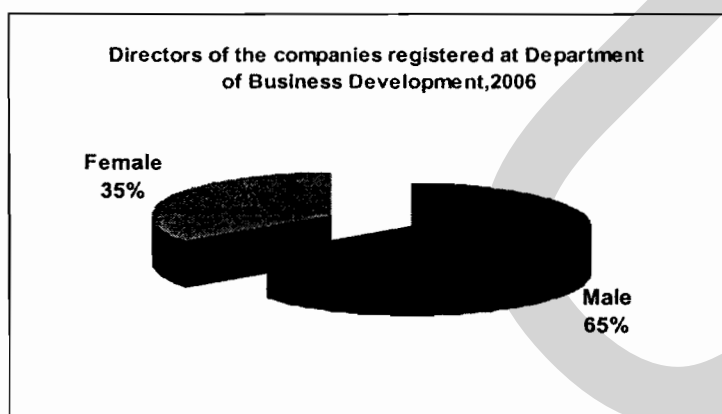
In 2006, there were 139 female directors of the 218 companies registered at the Stock Exchange of Thailand. They accounted for 21.6% of a total of 642 directors. The share of female directors of the companies registered at the Ministry of Commerce was higher – at 35%, as shown in the Figure, 2.13, 2.14 and Table 2.11.

Figure 2.13 Directors of the companies registered at the Stock Exchange of Thailand, 2006



Source: Report on Thailand Gender-Disaggregated Statistics 2008, *Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (OWAFD) in collaboration with United Nations Development Program.*

Figure 2.14 Directors of the companies registered at the Department of Business Development, 2006



Source: Report on Thailand Gender-Disaggregated Statistics 2008, *Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (OWAFD) in collaboration with United Nations Development Program*

Table 2.11 Executives in the private sector by sex, 2006

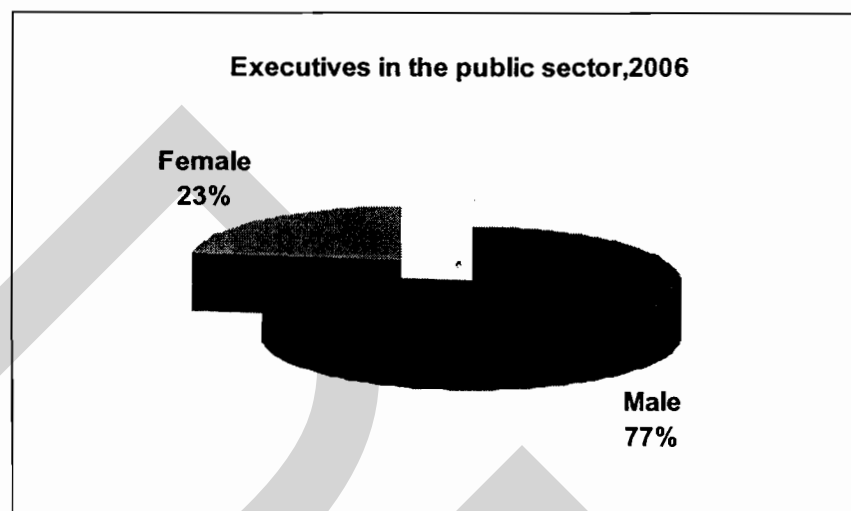
Executives in the private sector	number			%	
	total	male	female	male	female
Directors of the companies registered at the Stock Exchange of Thailand	642	503	139	78.35	21.65
Directors of the companies registered at the Department of Business Development	1,168,131	754,878	413,253	64.62	35.37

Source: Report on Thailand Gender-Disaggregated Statistics 2008, *Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (OWAFD) in collaboration with United Nations Development Program*

(2) The Proportion of Women in Executive Positions in the Public Sector

In the public sector, executive positions in public sector mean deputy director of a department and higher (C9-11), excluding the Office of His Majesty's Principal Private Secretary, and the Bureau of the Royal Household. The share of female executives of the public sector was higher – at 23%, as shown in the Figure, 2.15, and Table 2.12.

Figure 2.15: Executives in the public sector by sex, 2006



Source: Report on Thailand Gender-Disaggregated Statistics 2008, *Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (OWAFD) in collaboration with United Nations Development Program*

Table 2.12 Executives in the public sector by sex, 2006

Executives in the public sector	number			%	
	total	male	female	male	female
C 9	269	201	68	74.72	25.28
C 10	210	164	46	78.09	21.91
C 11	31	27	4	87.09	12.91
Total	510	392	118	76.86	23.14

Source: Adapted from the Report on Thailand Gender-Disaggregated Statistics 2008, *Office of Women's Affairs and Family Development Ministry of Social Development (OWAFD) and Human Security in collaboration with United Nations Development Program*

2.6.1.2 The key conditions that influence female leaders in Thailand.

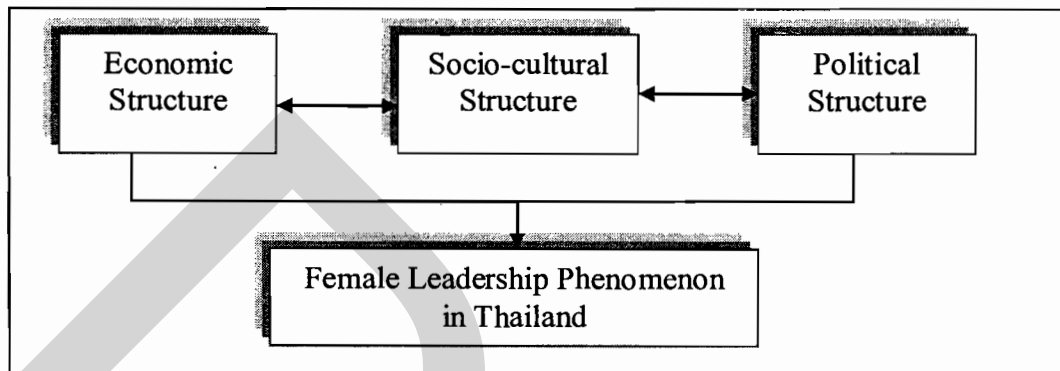
The key conditions that make it possible or difficult for females to have access to leading positions in the Thai society are embedded within the three structures: (1) Economic, (2) Socio-cultural, and (3) Political. As shown in Table 13 and Figure 2.16.

Table 2.13 The key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand.

Factor	Representative Authors/year	Summary
(1) Economic Structure	Appold, Siengthai, & Kasarda, 1998 ; Aycan, 2004; and Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004	Economic expansion has contributed to an increase in demand for managers and professionals. The problem is that this expansion does not contribute in an increase of managerial careers with equal opportunities for females and males in Thailand.
(2) Socio-cultural Structure	Hofstede, 1980, 2007; Picavet, 2005; Yukongdi, 2005	Thai culture is characterised by high masculinity. The perception that leadership is a man's role creates a barrier for women to move up the organisational hierarchy into managerial ranks.
(3) Political Structure	Charmpoonod, 2001; Picavet, 2005; Yukongdi, 2005	The political culture developed by men, the need for a family life and the upkeep of the household, keep women away from politics. Additionally, some organisational practice discriminated against women.

Source: Developed for this research

Figure 2.16 The key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand



Source: Developed for this research

(1) *Economic Structure*

Thailand is classified as a developing country. Its economy has grown rapidly over the past decade (Intarakumnerd, Chairatana, & Tangchitpiboon, 2002). Although the developing countries of Asia are playing increasingly active roles in the world economy, systematic research on female leadership has been generally confined to the more industrialised countries (Appold, Siengthai, & Kasarda, 1998; Aycan, 2004; and Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004).

Since the 1980s, Thailand has experienced robust economic growth and has been transformed from an agrarian economy to an export-oriented industrializing nation (Intarakumnerd, Chairatana, & Tangchitpiboon, 2002 and Yukongdi, 2005). Over the past two decades, women's participation rate has been relatively high at more than 60 per cent. In 2003, 65 per cent of women participated in the labour force compared with 81.1 per cent of men (National Statistical Office Thailand, 2003). Women's overall status in Thailand has improved significantly, particularly, in terms of health and education.

Today, Thai women play a key role in the country's economy. They have a better education and laws have been enacted to support these changes (Picavet, 2005). Females working in the services, trade, tourism, education, and the pharmaceutical sector are more numerous than men and also play a significant role in

these fields in the economic development of the country (Picavet, 2005). The problem is that very few of them are in any leading positions.

All will agree that the majority of females have limited economic power (Appold, Siengthai, & Kasarda, 1998; Maria Col et al., 2001; Picavet, 2005; and Yukongdi, 2005). Female economic dependency on men is more or less important in relation to the type of context, but generally the state of dependency is not contested. The problem is that this state of economic dependency is nevertheless considered as a normal state.

The majority of women remain employed in low qualified jobs in agriculture or industry (OWAFD, 2008). In the north and the south women work mostly in agriculture, and in the central area in 'small businesses and the service sector, while in the north east domestic such as weaving is common (OWAFD, 2008; Picavet, 2005). The majority of women do not have real economic power. Women are often considered not so much as independent but rather as dependent on men and easy to manipulate, dissatisfied, and jealous (Picavet, 2005).

However, in the managerial context, especially in foreign companies, females are considered better workers because they are generally more motivated, and harder-working. They are seen as more flexible because of their need for financial independence and more stable because they know who they are and where they are going. Furthermore, they are also more discerning. In a great number of manufacturing industries and services, foreign managers work more easily with female personnel (Picavet, 2005). The problem seems to be that the view of females attributes and qualities seem to be highly appreciated in foreign companies.

In brief, Thailand has experienced rapid economic growth over the past two decades. Economic expansion has contributed to an increase in demand for managers and professionals (Yukongdi, 2005). The problem is that this expansion does not contribute in an increase of managerial careers with equal opportunities for females and males in Thailand.

(2) Socio-cultural structure

Cultures of developing countries tend to be somewhat more collectivistic and place more importance on power and distance (Hofstede 1980, 2007). It is still generally the case that relationships and the networking that sustains

them tend to be very important in the cultures of developing countries. Relationships and networking are more important than rules and procedures in virtually every aspect of social, political, and economic life of these countries (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004),

Thailand, as a developing country, demonstrates that Thai culture is also characterised by high power distance (Hofstede 1980, 2007) and thus status differences among citizens are often very large. Komin (1991) describes the Thai social system as hierarchical. Class distinction and social difference in Thailand are broadly defined by such personal characteristics as family background, age, gender, and level of education. Clearly then power status will affect female in leadership position.

Social differences in the Thai culture also have much to do with gender differences. Traditional conceptions of men and women appear to relegate women to domestic roles and men to public ones. However, today many middle and upper class women work outside the home as professionals or the owners of major commercial enterprises (Sriussadaporn-Charoenngam & Jablin, 1999). As a result leadership position may be influenced by traditional masculine characteristics over feminine ones (Komin, 1991).

Thai culture is characterised by low masculinity (Hofstede 1980), thus Thai societies differ according to the extent to which societies impose rigid differentiation of gender roles. When society makes a sharp division between male and female activities, "the distribution is always such that men take more assertive and dominant roles and woman the more service-oriented and caring roles" (Hofstede, 1980).

Educational and social conditioning generally resulted in women being ranked lower than men in Thai society (Picavet, 2005). Women's traditional roles encompasses domestic tasks, bringing up children, and satisfying the needs of the husband when he returns home from work (Picavet, 2005). Balancing between family obligations and career is a challenge for most women, and if they have to choose, many would choose family over their career.

Social values in Thailand are based on the family, education and Buddhism. The question of cultural values and traditions is a sensitive area (Picavet,

2005). However, shared awareness around this issue is now developing in line with modern lifestyles (Yukongdi, 2005 and Marie Col et al., 2001).

The pattern of communication in organisations in Thailand, is often indirect, non-assertive, non-confrontational, and usually downward. Negative feedback is often avoided or given very indirectly as it is seen as destructive and disruptive to group harmony (Hofstede 1980, Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004).

Every society has its own form of sex discrimination and this cannot be eradicated through legislation alone. To meet the economic/technological challenge, the specificities of each society have to be studied in the light of their history and cultural background (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004). In Asian societies, there is a clear distinction in gender expectations, and the expected role of the leader is much more similar to that of the prototypical father, rather than that of prototype mother or of a generic "parent" (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004).

A traditional parable in Thailand compares the people of Thailand to the legs of the elephant with the male in the front "leading" and the female in the back "following". The societal image of the female in the Thai culture seems to be bounded by two dimensions; mothers and wives (Yukongdi, 2005; and Marie Col et al., 2001). This rigid image creates confusion because, in fact, many Thai females work outside the home. The problem however, is that many men and women still believe that women's primary responsibilities are to serve their husbands and children.

In general, in developing countries societies and organisations are expected to take care of their workers as well as the workers' families. Leaders in organisations tend to establish close interpersonal relationships with subordinates as well as with people in higher authority. Subordinates expect personalised relationships, protection, close guidance, and supervision. Leaders are willing to assume responsibility for their followers, and in return, demand from their followers' loyalty. The leader is assumed to "know what is best" for subordinates, and is expected to guide them in difference aspects of life including non work-related issues. Such a leader typically shows a strong concern for the well-being of subordinates as well as his or her family (Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004).

In Thai society, the relationship between the employer and employee is likened to that of a parent and child. Employers are expected to take care of their employees. In fact in Thai culture, for example, it would be unacceptable to permit women to perform dangerous tasks or transfer them to work in remote locations. This action is not interpreted as a form of discrimination against women by employees or employers, but is thought to be part of an employer's duty of care to their employees. In Thailand where the women's movement is less advanced compared with western countries, this practice is less of an issue in Thai culture and is accepted by society. In this situation, men are taking on the protective role. This may also help to explain why employers and employees do not perceive any existence of discrimination against women and therefore it is not necessarily a reflection of managerial denial in organisations (Yukongdi, 2005).

On a cultural level, the general perception is that gender discrimination is very weak. Furthermore, there are no clauses or provisions that can be said to discriminate against women in terms of promotion to managerial positions (Yukongdi, 2005). The problem is that in reality, their promotion is slower, even if their numbers have increased considerably. As the parable states, women have been considered the "hind legs" of organisations and have been expected to follow the leadership of men. This is a socio-cultural problem which is embedded in the mindset of the Thai culture. Since people do not perceive such embedded organisational practices as discriminatory, it is difficult to initiate changes.

Conditions such as stereotypes about gender role, cultural norms, educational opportunities and government legislation have all contributed to the state of women in Thailand over the past two decades (Yukongdi, 2005). The Problem seems to be the existence of barriers that female managers face in organisations.

The stereotype of gender roles appears to be accepted by society and will continue to be a barrier for the advancement of women to managerial positions. Women are not expected to be successful in careers outside the home, and especially not more successful than their husbands. More often than not, females themselves lack ambition, self-confidence, aggressiveness and the necessary dedication to excel in the professional world (Marie Col et al., 2001). The problem is that females themselves might be imprisoned in their own stereotype, their

expectations and their own shortcomings. All this creates a context of discouragement and lack of motivation to engage in battles for higher level positions.

The persistent stereotyping of women in more nurturing and caring roles will continue to influence them to select fields that are viewed by society to be more suitable to women's gender roles such as nursing and teaching. This means women will continue to be underrepresented in other fields, such as engineering and mathematics. Furthermore, leadership roles in the family, communities, businesses, and government are generally linked to male roles (Yukongdi, 2005). The problem is that the perception that leadership is a man's role. This further creates a barrier for women to move up the organisational hierarchy into managerial ranks.

There is little support from either men or women to become leaders competing with men. Some "independent" women might dare to break the traditional role of followers, as prescribed in the "hind-legs of the elephant". They may become leaders who are willing to challenge, to take risks, to make decisions and to strive for achievement especially in male-dominated careers (Yukongdi, 2005 and Marie Col et al., 2001). The problem is that these females are often condemned by both genders. The pressure created in this context adds to other constraints and increases great pressure when reaching for top positions. Many females might think twice before taking such challenges.

(3) Political Structure

Women have enjoyed a significant political role at certain periods during the course of Thailand's history. In the 13th century a woman ruled the kingdom of Lamphun, and then three other women ruled this kingdom during the 16th century. However, these situations were due more to the circumstances than to the prevailing laws and customs, because the role of women from the upper classes was generally limited to religious practice and forming political alliances. The political culture developed by men, intentionally or otherwise, and the need for a family life and the upkeep of the household, kept women away from politics (Picavet, 2005).

During the late 20th Century, changes in legislation to promote gender equality in employment and educational opportunities for women have been implemented. These changes have contributed in the improvement of the status of Thai women. Women managers have reported having equal access to training and

promotion opportunities. Undeniably, the situation has improved and the gap between men and women has been reduced. On the surface, it would appear that Thai men and women are walking "side by side" (Marie Col et al., 2001).

Although, the positive effect of legislation is acknowledged, the elimination of the embedded socio-cultural beliefs from organisational practices remains very difficult to achieve. Changing peoples' perceptions, cultural behaviour and expectations through legislation has always been a challenge, if not an impossibility. This issue is yet another obstacle facing females striving for leadership positions in Thailand. On the one hand, the legislation paints a seemingly favourable situation for females, whilst, on the other hand, the practices in real life show a far more problematic context.

The political culture developed by men, intentionally or otherwise, and the need for a family life and the upkeep of the household, keep women away from politics. Today women may truly be regarded as politically active, although decision-making power and control of political levers still remains largely in the hands of men (Picavet, 2005). The problem is that the political development and related issues needed in the culture itself are both historically and politically pre-determined. Thus, the position of the ambitious female is also pre-determined adding to the challenges.

It is obvious that women participate in politics more than men, but do they not appear in executive levels (Charmponod, 2001; OWAFD, 2008). However, there are few women in key roles in political parties or government. They are also to be found as administration heads. At the same time, it is interesting to observe that the proportion of female personnel in the majority of ministries is over 50% (Charmponod, 2001). Nevertheless, the trend shows that there will be an increasing number of women who will become executives in politics (Charmponod, 2001; and OWAFD, 2008). The problem is whether the test of reality will, once again, counteract the efforts of the striving female because of all the embedded economic, socio-cultural and political structures.

Additionally, some organisational practice discriminated against women. Employers preferred to hire unmarried women, and reserved specific jobs with higher pay for men whom they claimed were more mobile and physically suited

for the job. Women were disadvantaged and had fewer opportunities to advance into leadership positions (Yukongdi, 2005).

2.6.2 Part 2: The present status of discipline: Female leadership study in Thailand

2.6.2.1 Female Leadership Study in Thailand

Little is known of women managers in less industrialised countries, such as Thailand, as most of the knowledge is drawn from research studies on women managers in industrialised countries (Appold, Siengthai, & Kasarda, 1998; Aycan, 2004; and Den Hartog & Dickson, 2004). An extensive search of the literature found that there is a scarcity of empirical research examining women in management in Thailand. The majority of the studies pertaining to women managers in Thailand were conducted in the 1980s and 1990s, such as Siengthai & Leelakulthanit, (1993), Dunn & Sheehan, (1993), and Pongyeela (1995). Yukongdi (2005) stated that what is known of Thai women managers in the past may no longer be relevant today.

Yukongdi (2005) provided an update on the overall status of Thai women in management. The study considers individual, organisational, societal and institutional variables since focusing on one level is insufficient to fully understanding the impact of multiple influences on Thai women's present managerial status. By drawing on published research, official statistics, newspaper contributions and key studies from the ILO, Asian Development Bank, and the United Nations Development Fund, the paper reviews the progress made by women managers in Thailand since the beginning of the 1990s.

Siengthai & Leelakulthanit (1994) conducted research on women managers in Thailand. The authors found that women of privileged background and higher social class tended to have greater access to education, and consequently, better employment opportunities than women of a lower socioeconomic background. This group of women is able to afford help with childcare and household responsibilities, unlike women of lower socio-economic status.

Hutchings (2000) also supported the notion that social class rather than gender is the key determinant of women's advancement in organisations in

Thailand. The author presents the findings of research conducted in Thailand that examines the equity practices of local and foreign organisations. The managers of these organisations make equity policy decisions that are influenced by a combination of the cultural and social environments in which they operate and their own organisational policies and managerial positions. Against a background of social closure and inequality theories, this article discusses some of these cultural and social factors and their influence on current equity responses in the workplaces of selected organisations in Thailand. One important finding from this study is the suggestion that denial was prevalent among the managers concerning gender discrimination (Hutchings, 2000). The managers in the study said that men and women were treated equally in the workplace. Based on the author's own work experience in Thailand, in the context of Thai society this is not interpreted as denial on the part of the organisation. As this is an exploratory study to be based on interviews with chief executive officers and human resource managers in a small number of firms, the findings must be interpreted with caution and cannot be taken as representative of all organisations in Thailand. Nevertheless, the findings are expected to be supportive of previous research.

Yukongdi (2005) argued that the western concept of discrimination is fairly unfamiliar to the Thai people, in very much the same way that some Thai words do not have an equivalent in English (for example, *Krengchai*—the closest concept in English is 'to be considerate'). The Socio-cultural attitudes towards women in Thailand have gradually changed as the country undergoes modernisation and western ideas permeate Thai society. In Thai culture, the stereotyping of gender roles appears to be accepted by society. Gender inequalities persist because of discriminatory social norms and customs, legislation and regulations. If people do not perceive such organisational practices as discriminatory, then it would be difficult to initiate changes. Yukongdi (2005) recommends that further research is needed to examine the meaning of discrimination as perceived by the Thai people.

Yukongdi (2005) pointed out that the position of women in management in Thailand in future will depend on the effectiveness of organisational practices and policies that are in place to eliminate discrimination in the workplace,

and the role of the government in regulating the environment and ensuring that it promotes gender equality.

Another group of female leadership studies in Thailand are to be found in doctoral dissertations. All studies of female leadership styles in Thailand, for example Pongyeela (1995), Cheaupalakit (2002), Chirametakorn (2001), and Saetang (2004) earned doctoral degrees from western universities, especially in USA.

Pongyeela (1995) conducted research to test if there are differences in leadership styles between American and Thai female managers in service industries. The differences were determined on the basis of the difference in national cultural background, religious belief, and some demographic backgrounds. The results of the study indicated that there are significant differences in initiating structure and consideration between American and Thai female leaders in service industries. A significant difference existed in initiating structure between Christian and Buddhist female managers, but was not given consideration. The analyses failed to show significant differences in the initiating structure and consideration of styles of leadership when controlling differences in nationality and age, educational level, and length of work experience.

From the year 2000, doctoral dissertations studying Thai female leadership in Thailand were examined in relationship to transformational, transactional leadership and female leaders in Thai culture. For example, Chirametakorn (2001) found that the Thai sample differed consistently from those from U.S. samples in that transactional leadership was positively (not negatively) related to extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. However, this may be consistent with culture variables of power and distance and collectivism. Cheaupalakit (2003) determined the leadership styles of male and female leaders executive positions in public universities in Thailand, The results indicated that, in general, female leaders significantly exhibited more total transformational components and less total management-by-exception qualities than did their male peers. A recent dissertation by Saetang (2004) showed that female leaders more frequently engaged in democratic workplace leadership style than male leaders. Results from multiple correlation analysis suggested that subordinates' satisfaction

with supervision was accounted for by both transformational and transactional leadership.

The study of female leadership lacks empirical research in Thailand. The excellent study by Yukongdi (2005) provided an update on the overall status of Thai women in management. The author argued that the western concept of discrimination is somewhat unfamiliar to the Thai people and needed to be examined. On the other hand, almost all doctoral dissertations are rooted in a definition of transformational leadership that are drawn from research studies in western countries. Due to cultural contexts, many studies show significant differences between American samples and Thai samples (Chirametakorn, 2001; and Pongyeela, 1995).

2.6.3 Part 3: An identified "gap" in the literature: Summing up and critique of Immediate Discipline: Female, Gender, and Leadership in Thailand

This empirical framework reviewed the factors that influence female leadership in Thailand. In particular, the key aspects of following structures: Economic, Socio-cultural, and Political. Social differences in the Thai culture also have much to do with gender differences. Traditional concepts of men and women appear to relegate women to domestic roles and men to public ones. However, today, many middle and upper class women work outside the home as professionals or are the owners of major commercial enterprises.

As in many countries, the perception that leadership is the role of male creates a further barrier for females to move up the organisational hierarchy into managerial ranks. Thus, the review illustrates that very few Thai women are in any leadership positions in both private and public sectors. In Thai culture, the stereotyping of gender roles appears to be accepted by society (Yukongdi, 2005). Yukongdi (2005) pointed out that the western concept of discrimination is fairly unfamiliar to the Thai people. So, understanding and appropriating Thai society and culture is critical in influencing female leadership.

However, there is insignificant empirical research into this female leadership especially in emerging economies such as Thailand. Yukongdi (2005) stated that what is known of Thai women managers in the past (1980s and 1990s) may no longer be relevant today. In addition, the review also shows almost all doctoral

dissertations are rooted in a definition of transformational leadership. Focusing on one area is not enough to fully understand the impact of multiple influences on Thai women's present leadership status.

In conclusion, female leadership has gained significant attention in leadership research. A problem that is commonly observed is that fewer females are leaders than males in the world. Despite the scarcity of role models and various socio-cultural and organisational obstacles, however, some women do emerge as leaders. Documenting the important contributions of women leaders will enhance opportunities to create more women leaders in the future. However, there are still many areas that require future research of the issues dealing with leadership and gender in Thailand.

2.7 Research Gaps in Female Leaderships

2.7.1 Synthesis and analyses the literature

Miles & Huberman (1994) pointed out that a conceptual framework is something that explains, either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied, the key factors, constructs and variables and the presumed relationship between them. Maxwell (2005) also stated that the conceptual framework is primarily a conception or model of what is out there that researchers plan to study and why and what is going on with these things that provides a basis for a tentative theory of the phenomena that researchers are investigating. The functions of this theory are to support the research design- and to help the researcher assess and refine the research goals, develop realistic and relevant research questions, select appropriate methods, and identify potential validity, reliability and sensibility threats to research conclusions. It also helps researchers justify their research.

Leadership is one of social science's most examined phenomena. The concepts of leadership are integrally linked to various factors. This conceptual framework is one way to understand and explain the underlying factors for females to become successful leaders. The framework is constructed by incorporating pieces and borrowed from parent and immediate disciplines. Where the structure overall coherence is built, and not ready-made. In this way female leadership conceptual models can be developed, as illustrated in Table 2.14.

Table 2.14 Illustrating the concept from the literature review

FACTORS	HIGHLIGHTING	PRODUCT
Internal Factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Individual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personality Trait ▪ Competency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female Leadership Profile, ▪ Female Leadership Competencies
External Factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Organisational Practice ▪ Women's Contextual 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Gender-Based Related ▪ Thailand Contextual Influence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female Leader Succession ▪ Different Socialization Patterns for Women

Sources: Developed for this research

2.7.1.1 The Internal Factors: Individual Factors

Internal factors illustrate the relationships of Parent Discipline I, II, and III, that provide individual female leaders factors. Beginning with leadership theories linked to two concepts, (1) personality traits and (2) competencies that relate to female leadership.

(1) The Concept of the Personality Trait

In this dissertation, personality traits are defined as inborn talent or early-life experiences that promote a consistent pattern of leadership performance across a variety of group and organisational situations (Antonakis et al., 2004). Personality traits can then explore how leaders differ from nonleaders. The development of effective leaders must rely on selecting the right people, since it's not easy to change traits. This finding is classified by Peter Senge (1990) who defined the five disciplines for a learning organisation as:- system thinking, personal mastery, mental models, building shared vision and team learning. Peter Senge (1990, p. 359-360) states in his book "The Fifth Discipline" the five disciplines of the learning organisation "might just as well be called the leadership disciplines as the learning disciplines". The author has written: "These disciplines span the range of conceptual, interpersonal and creative capacities vital to leadership. But most of all, they underscore the deeply personal nature of leadership. It is impossible to reduce natural leadership to a set of skills or competencies."

Unfortunately, leadership researchers have yet to unlock the mystery or describe to individuals the right way or direction to a profile that represents an ideal leader. According to the factors likely to pursuit the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society, human personality directly copes with the problem in two ways:-

First, these associations may be important factors in discovering the characteristics of females as successful or unsuccessful leaders. The personality attributes of the female leaders study was undertaken to identify whether female leaders possess common qualities that distinguish them in Thailand, and to identify personality traits of these female to create a leadership profile that is conducive to today's diverse workplace where information is shared freely, collaboration is vital and teamwork distinguishes the best organisations.

Second, the Five Factor Model (FFM) ideal profile for leadership (as shown in Figure 2.6, page 57) is an ideal type of concept classification that presents a purely abstract model of an event, process, or idea. It is used in building social theory and in the analysis of data (Neuman, 2006, p. 55). Ideal types are not explanations because they do not tell why or how something occurs. This dissertation will use the ideal profile for leadership to see how well observable female leadership phenomena match up to the ideal type. Even if no real-life leaders match the ideal type, the model helps thinking about and studying leadership. When a female leader has a profile that is off-target, or a female leader matches the ideal one, the way that leader compensates is not merely just interesting but worth reporting.

(2) The Concept of the Competency-Based Approach

In contrast, the concept of skill or a competency-based approach helps believe that leadership can be learned. The focus on behaviour competencies, however, implies that many people can become better leaders, by gaining new knowledge and skills that will make them better leaders (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

Leadership competencies associated with leadership effectiveness are the most likely to be changed through leadership development efforts. Current trends indicate that identifying competencies is valuable when understanding the leadership development puzzle (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). A question to be answered is how similar or different are these attributes of effective global leadership from female leadership development priorities in Thailand?

Although, much of the literature on leadership competencies and talent clearly show that related results, carried on the leadership competency models are rooted in research conducted mainly on male leaders. In addition, there is a gap in recent research, where leader selection and leadership skill development are both important for female leadership. Current research does not sufficiently account for this deficiency. Thus, it is necessary to find an appropriate model for female leadership. Nevertheless, the world is changing in ways that can profit from women's skill as well as those of men. As the female mind becomes unleashed on the modern world, societies will benefit, even in lands where it is currently shackled (Fisher, 2005). Consequently, for companies to ignore this way of leading in a globalised world and to ignore it is to risk being left behind where women, as well as men, will

lead the major global corporations in this new century. Such literature is relevant to this dissertation in relation to competency as a factor that allows the possibility for females to attain leadership positions.

In brief, the combination of these two leadership perspectives, the trait school of leadership and competency based school of leadership, can provide a background for a female leadership study. It is likely that both perspectives are of value and complement each other by helping to understand leaders, demonstrating emerging issues and integrating and hybridising this research that configuration of traits should be linked to leadership competencies, and the context in which they emerge, and be used to predict emerging leadership. Consequently, this study will also attempt to analyse the relationship between competence and personality. As illustrated in the iceberg model (Figure 2.7, Page 69), what is easy to see on the surface is easy to develop. What is at the core of personality is hidden and difficult to change.

2.7.1.2 External factors: The Gender Based Organisational Practice and Thailand Contextual Influence.

The external factors showed association of Parent Discipline IV, and the Immediate Discipline that provides gender based organisational practice and Thailand contextual influence.

(1) Gender Based Organisational Practice

The literature review on gender-based leadership searches for conditions that explain arguments for and against female leaders in organisational practice. It provides many disadvantages to and explanations why women have not reached the top, due to gender bias, gender prejudice, and gender discriminations in the workplace. Despite penetrating the middle management ranks of many businesses, women continue to lag far behind men in their appointments to top leadership positions. Many explanations exist about why the glass ceiling exists, but few theories offer suggestions as to how women break through this ceiling.

Although, female leaders tend to be more transformational than male leaders (Bass, 1999; Eagly & Carli, 2004; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; and Jogulu & Wood, 2006), female leaders score somewhat higher than males on an assessment of leadership effectiveness, and are also correlated to business

high profit margin (Adler, 2001; Konrad & Kramer, 2007; and Smith, Smith, & Verner, 2006). Surprisingly, most research suggests that more people say they would prefer to work for a male than for a female (Eagly, 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2003, and Eagly & Karau, 2002). Female leaders are especially likely to be downgraded when they act in a traditionally masculine fashion and when they are rated by traditionally masculine males (Matlin, 2008).

Organisational practices in Thailand, in the public sector, involve a long-term women's development master plan (1983-2001) approved by the cabinet that foresees women as a minimum of 30 percent of officials working in local and national administration and in decision-making positions. There are no clauses or provisions that can be said to discriminate against women. However, the data reveals bias in the upper levels. As the parable states, women have been considered the 'hind legs' of the civil service and have been expected to follow the leadership of men (Marie Col et al., 2001).

On the other hand, in the private sector, women accounted for 30 percent of the supervisors in Thai firms, while there were two or three times as many women in upper management than in multinational companies. Furthermore, relative to the US and Japanese organisations, a greater representation of women was found at both the bottom and top of the organisational hierarchy in Thai firms (Yukongdi, 2005). Equal opportunities in foreign firms are more real (Picavet, 2005). There seems to be different organisational practice in both sectors.

For this dissertation, the proposal is to understand "*Why some Thai women ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors*". As Appelbaum, Audet, and Miller (2003) propose, the assessment that a female leadership style is less effective than a man's is not fact-based but rather driven, by socialisation, to a perception that it certainly persists. Research focusing on the debate between male and female effectiveness should be redirected, since it seems quite clear that questions regarding leader effectiveness and leader emergence are better than an individual's sex or even gender role. As a result, it is important to gain a better understanding of how women successfully lead.

(2) Thailand Contextual Influence

Like many other countries, Thailand's understanding of a woman's rights, role and status is less than progressive. By the start of 21st Century, it could almost be said that Thai men and women are walking "side by side" (Marie Col, Meksawan, and Sopchockchai, 2001). The perception that leadership is the males' domain further creates a barrier for females to move up into leadership positions. However, some women do emerge as leaders in Thai society.

The immediate discipline explains the conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand and how they are embedded within the following structures: economic, socio-cultural, and political. It also highlights the many problems that female leaders face in these conditions. Picavet (2005:50) pointed out that on the one hand the Thai people have preserved their fundamental cultural values. On the other hand, Thai women are increasingly equal to men in a context where harmony is primordial. In Thai culture, the stereotyping of gender roles appears to be accepted by society (Yukongdi, 2005; Picavet, 2005; and Marie Col et al., 2001). The western concept of discrimination is largely unfamiliar to Thai people. Consequently, understanding and appropriating Thai society and culture that influence female leadership is critical.

In summary, the literature shows an insignificant amount of empirical research into female leadership in Thailand. Basically, the research is dated. In addition, recent doctoral dissertations focus on transformational leadership and, therefore, do not fully take into account the impact of multiple influences on the present leadership status of Thai women. The underlying factors that influence Thai female leaders to be successful in leadership position are not specifically addressed in current research. Moreover, the actual practice in Thailand is distinct and different to what western research suggests.

2.7.2 Concept Map

A concept map of a theory is a visual display of that theory—a picture or what theory says is going on with the phenomenon of the study (Maxwell, 2005). Like theory, a concept map consists of two things: concepts and their relationships.

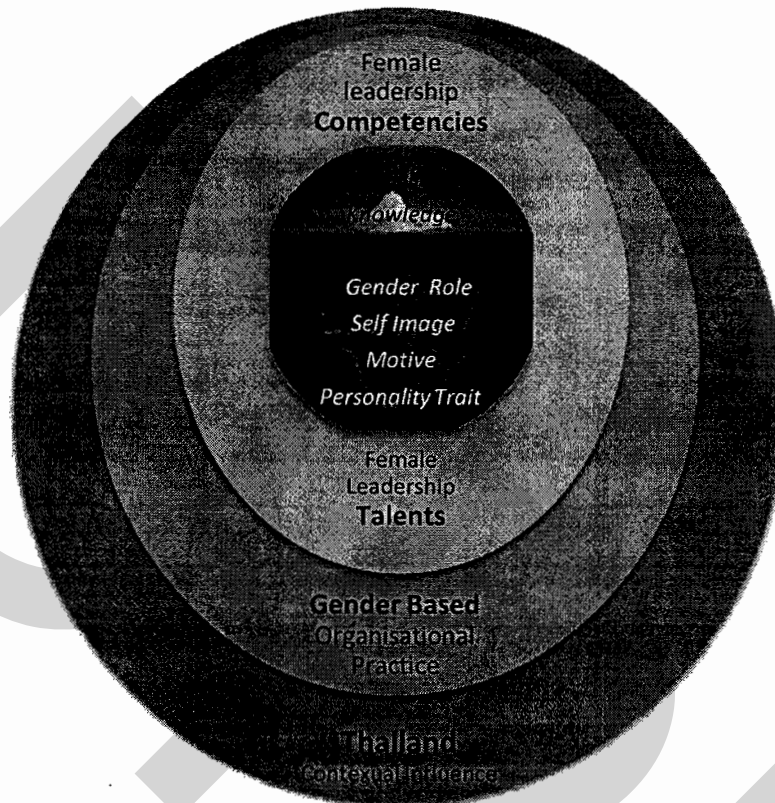
For this dissertation, there are two reasons for creating concept maps:

1. To pull together, and make visible, what the impact theory is, or to clarify an existing theory (Maxwell, 2005, p. 47). This allows the researcher to see implications of the theory, its limitations, and its relevance for this dissertation.
2. To develop theory, like memos, concept maps are a way of “thinking on paper”; they can help the researcher see unexpected connections, or identify holes or contradictions in the theory and help the researcher to figure out ways to resolve these (Maxwell, 2005, p. 47).

The female leadership concept map illustrated in the Venn diagram, representing concepts as overlapping circles (Maxwell, 2005), helps make comparisons. Similarities are shown in the overlapping area and differences are shown in the areas that do not overlap.

Figure 2.17 represents the concept map by means of three concentric circles. That describes factors that condition the possibilities of female leadership; internal factors and external factors. The circle illustrates the direct influence of female leaders.

Figure 2.17 The concept map for female leadership



Sources: Developed for this study

The innermost circle illustrates the internal factor of female leaders. It is the strongest influence on leaders, highlighting female leadership talents and female leadership competencies, as illustrated in the iceberg model. Female leadership talents are hidden and difficult to change. Female leadership competencies are easy to see on the surface and are easy to change through leadership development. These conditions appear to be under the control of the individual. A combination of them seems to be required to improve the productivity of the organisation. Female leaders need to assess their competencies and talents so that the most qualified and interested women put themselves forward for promotion to higher positions (Marie Col et al., 2001).

The second circle and the third circle demonstrate external factors. The second circle emphasises gender-based organisational practice and then generates female leader succession. Yukongdi (2005, p. 280) also supported that the position of female leadership in Thailand in the future will depend on the effectiveness of

organisational practices and policies that are in place to eliminate discrimination in the workplace, and the role of the government in regulating the environment and ensuring that it promotes gender equality.

The outside circle represents Thailand contextual influence that is seen to give rise to or inhibit leadership dispositional antecedents. Antonakis (2004) states that it is crucial to understand the contextual factors in which leadership is embedded, before we can obtain a more general understanding of leadership. Leaders are capable of environmental monitoring and of adjusting their style to fit a particular context.

2.8 Research Issues

This section identifies the research issue in relation to this study. The research issue has been based on the literature review, from the parent disciplines and the immediate discipline. Using a theoretical framework to focus data collection and analysis is a practice that improves qualitative research enquiry (Yin, 2003). The development of a conceptual framework and concept map essentially allows focusing on the most meaningful aspects of this dissertation. The ability to focus research is done by creating a research problem then putting it into a research context. Consequently, research problems, research questions, research propositions, and research objectives are developed.

2.8.1 The Research Problem

To begin researching this subject it was first necessary to explore the conditions of possibility that are influencing the emergence and development of the female leadership phenomenon in Thailand context. What factors facilitate a female's ability to be successful in a leadership position? How to recruit, develop and retain talented female leaders? Deficiencies in the literature give rise to the following problem:-

"The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society."

2.8.2 The Research Questions, Research Objectives and Research Propositions

Research question help researchers to provide focus for the study and guidance on how to conduct it (Maxwell, 2005). It is possible to express research questions in the form of objectives (Veal, 2005). The research proposition is a theoretical statement that specifies the relationship between two or more concepts and says something about the kind of relation (Neuman, 2006). Each proposition directs attention to something that should be examined within the scope of the study (Yin, 2003, p. 23). In general terms, a research proposition is a statement that is possibly true and can be tested using appropriate methodology. Based on the background and literature review described earlier, this study has four research questions; four researches propositions; and four objectives as follows:

2.8.2.1. Research Question 1, Research Objective 1 and Research Proposition 1

The female leadership phenomenon is influenced by a multitude of factors. This dissertation tries to discuss how internal and external factors are related to successful female leadership. The most influential factors, talents and competencies, will be analysed to direct this dissertation by asking questions like; why and how some Thai women ascend to leadership positions? Do successful Thai female leaders have some female leadership profiles and leadership competencies in common?

The literature is unclear when explaining underlying factors that promote female leaders to be successful. The main theories of leadership are still defined by male traits. Based on the conceptual framework developed, Research Question 1, Research Objective 1, and Research Proposition 1 have been developed.

Research Question 1:

What are the underlying factors associated with successful females in leadership positions in both the private and the public sector?

Research Objective 1:

To build a model for successful female leadership that is appropriate for both the private and the public sectors.

Research Proposition 1:

That the underlying factors such as certain kinds of personality and competencies possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement.

2.8.2.2. Research Question 2, Research Objective 2, and Research Proposition 2

The number of working females in both the private and public sectors are greater than that of males. Furthermore, the number of females in leading positions is relatively small compared to male in similar positions. Additionally, the private sector differs from the public sectors in terms of values and objectives of organisations. Public sector organisations are more value-based since their activities and their functions are related to the public good. They operate within a legislative framework and are responsive to citizens of the state. Alternatively, private sector organisations have as their objective to make a profit. It is important to understand how these conditions affect successful females in leading positions in both the private and public sectors, to ensure that the selection and development of female leaders is reliable. From this foundation, Research Question 2, Research Objective 2, and Research Proposition 2 are developed.

Research Question 2:

How does organisational practice impact on female leadership development?

Research Objective2:

To examine the factors influencing the development of females in leadership

Research Proposition 2:

That successful female leadership development depends on organizational practices that will differ depending on the context of the private and the public sector.

2.8.2.3. *Research Question 3, Research Objective 3 and Research Proposition 3*

On gender-based and cultural perspectives in leadership studies, many explanations exist as to why the glass ceiling exists, but few theories offer suggestions how women break through this ceiling. Whether cultural factors influence peoples' ratings of male and female leaders, and are people especially likely to downgrade Asian women if they are in leadership positions in a traditional masculine field? Unfortunately, few studies on leadership examine cultural factors.

It is important to gain a better understanding of why some Thai women ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors, how some women successfully lead?, what strategies female leaders adopt to deal with these constraints in gender-based organisational practice? From this groundwork, the Research Question 3, Research Objective 3 and Research Proposition 3 are developed.

Research Question 3:

How do female leaders ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors?

Research Objective3:

To examine the strategies for becoming effective leaders that successful female leaders use break through gender-biases in the workplace.

Research Proposition 3:

Successful female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders within gender-based organisational practice.

2.8.2.4. Research Question 4, Research Objective 4 and Research Proposition 4

In today's global world, organisations do not seem to make enough effort in developing and taking advantage of the expanding pool of female leadership talent (McCracken, 2000; and Werhane, 2007). Within the Thai context, they need to maintain world competitiveness, and ensure that female leaders are prepared to conquer the economic challenges of the present global world. This is the basis on which Research Question 4, Research Objective 4 and Research Proposition 4 are developed.

Research Question 4:

How do factors such as personality traits and competencies relate to the global perspective?

Research Objective4:

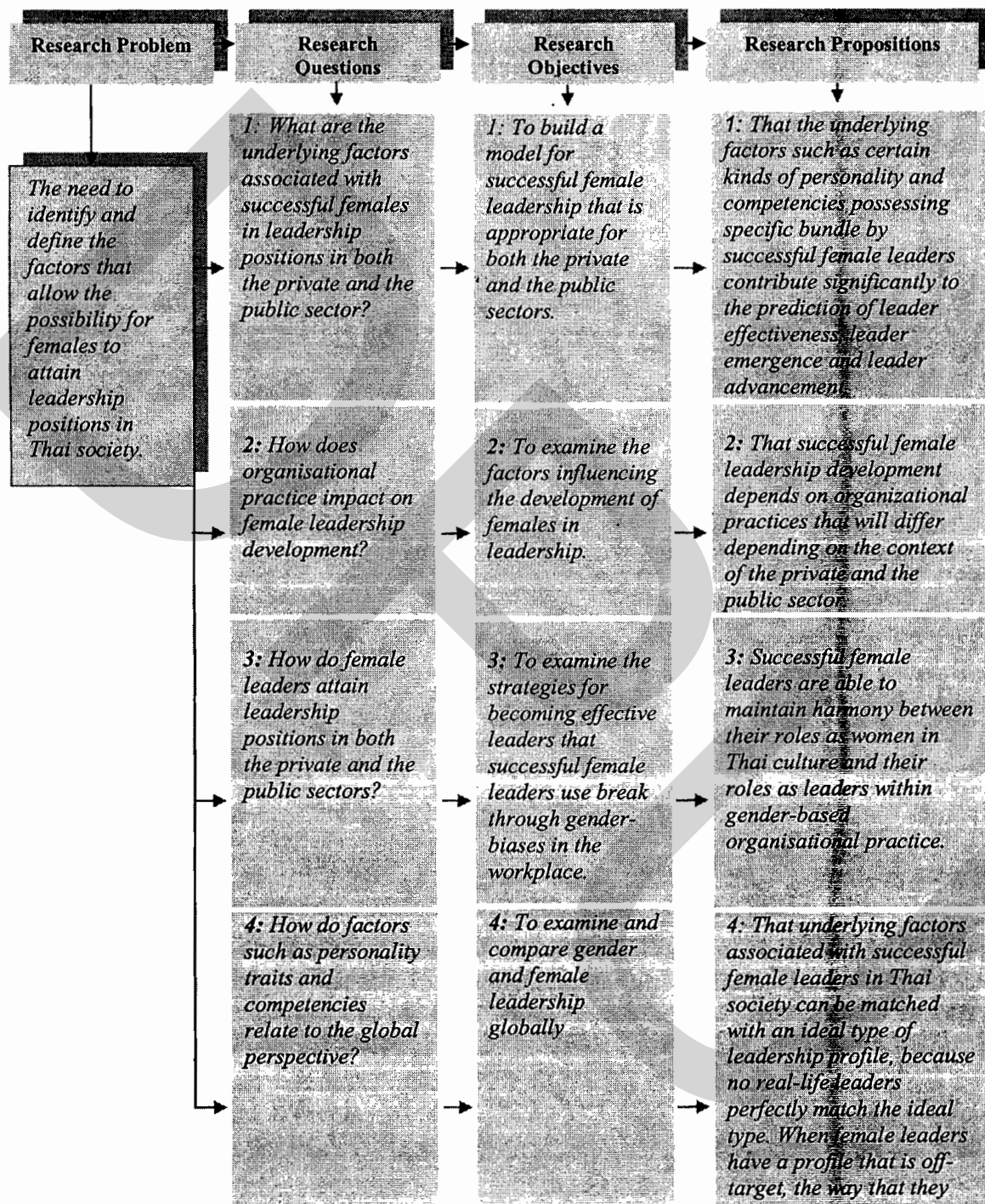
To examine and compare gender and female leadership globally.

Research Proposition 4:

That underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society can be matched with an ideal type of leadership profile, because no real- life leaders perfectly match the ideal type. When female leaders have a profile that is off-target, the way that they compensate is interesting.

As shown in Figure 2.18 the research problem, four questions, four research objectives and research propositions are established as a basis from which to explore the condition of possibilities for developing Thai female leaders, to provide insights and solutions to the research problem.

Figure 2.18 Summary of research problem, research questions, research objectives, and research propositions.



Sources: Developed for this research

2.9 Conclusions

This chapter has presented the literature review related to the emerging field of female leadership to investigate the research problem: *“The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society.”*

The initial discussion considered the contribution of the parent and immediate disciplines based on female leadership. It also justified the value of this research as being a contribution of the development of theory and of practical value to corporations based in Thailand to acquire, cultivate, and retain females in executive leadership positions. Moreover, within the parent discipline the concepts of leadership to understand and explain the underlying factors for females to become successful leaders are made. Furthermore, the immediate discipline provided an update of the overall status of the female leadership phenomenon and female leadership studies in the context of Thailand.

The research gaps are based on an understanding identified in the literature review. They are to be expressed as research questions and to be used as section headings in the data analysis and conclusions of the thesis (Yin, 2003). In addition, the research issues identified the conditions of possibilities that are influencing the emergence and development of the female leadership phenomenon in Thai society.

Moreover, the research problems to be faced, if the corporations based in Thailand should make effort in developing and taking advantage of expanding pool of female leadership talent, were emphasised. The propositions involved testable statements. The thesis proposed to build a model for successful female leadership that is appropriate for both the private and the public sectors.

The next chapter discusses the methodology adopted, and the procedures used, to investigate the research problem and answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the literature and research issues relevant to the “The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society” and developed (1) research questions, (2) research objectives, and (3) research propositions as follows :-

(1) Research Questions

- What are the underlying factors associated with successful females in leadership positions in both the private and the public sector?
- How does organisational practice impact on female leadership development?
- How do female leaders ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors?
- How do factors such as personality traits and competencies relate to the global perspective?

(2) Research Objectives

- To build a model for successful female leadership that is appropriate for both the private and the public sectors.
- To examine the factors influencing the development of females in leadership.
- To examine the strategies for becoming effective leaders that successful female leaders use break through gender-biases in the workplace.
- To examine and compare gender and female leadership globally.

(3) Research Propositions

- That the underlying factors such as certain kinds of personality and leadership competencies possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement.
- That successful female leadership development depends on organizational practices that will differ depending on the context of the private and the public sector.
- Successful female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders within gender-based organisational practice.
- That underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society can be matched with an ideal type of leadership profile, because no real-life leaders perfectly match the ideal type. When female leaders have a profile that is off-target, the way that they compensate is interesting.

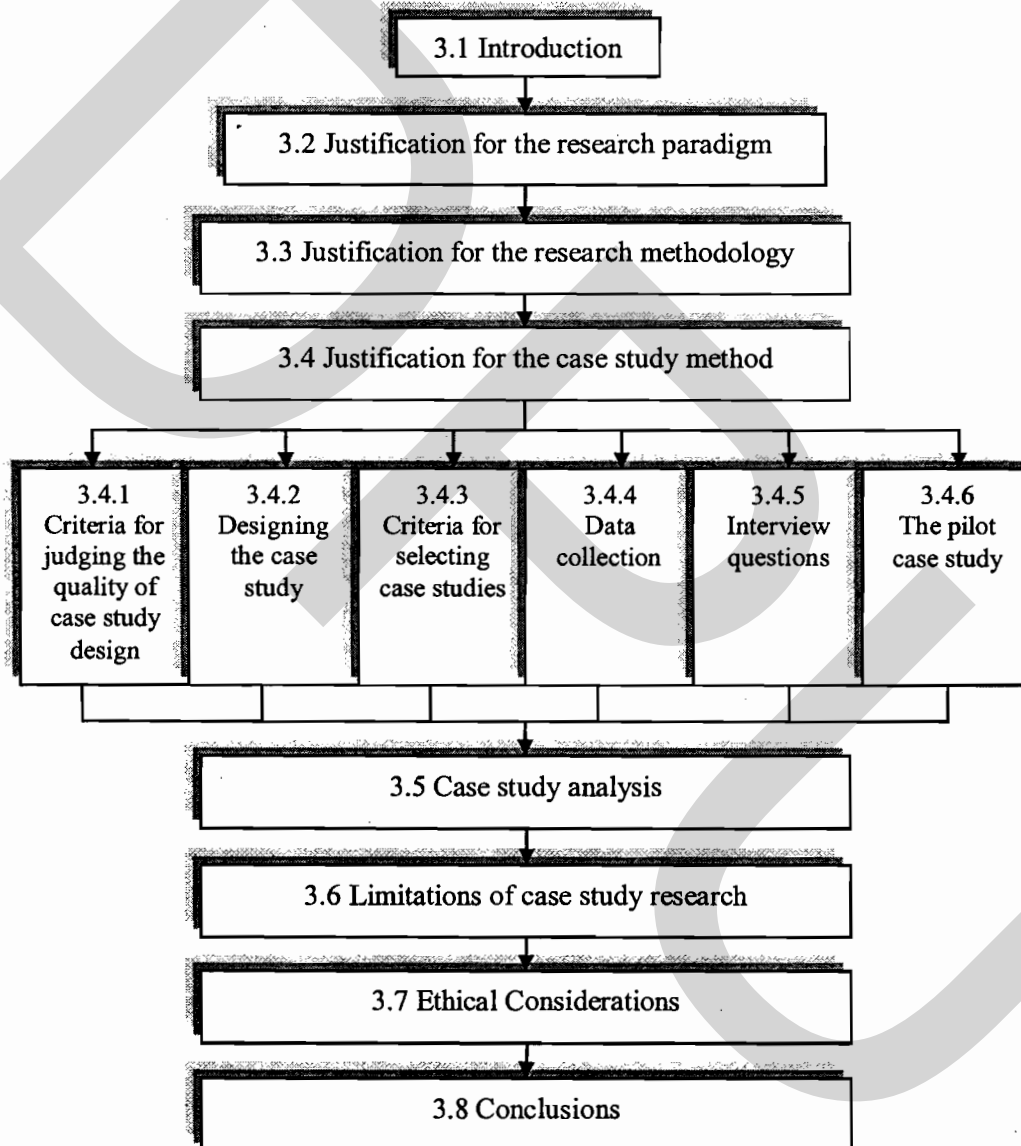
This chapter describes the design and methodology of the study, such as developing case research design, data collection method, interview schedule and data analytical scheme, selecting cases on the basis of theory and background.

A rationale is provided for adopting the case study methodology used for investigating the research problem and the research questions developed as a result of the literature review.

The chapter is presented in eight sections as outlined in Figure 3.1. The section starts with a justification for the paradigm (Section 3.2). Section three presents the justification on methodology (Section 3.3). Section four describes the qualitative research (Section 3.4) including criteria judging the quality of case study design (Section 3.4.1), discussion of the design for the case study (Section 3.4.2), criteria for selecting multiple case studies (Section 3.4.3), data collection (Section 3.4.4), interview questions (Section 3.4.5), and the pilot case interviews (Section 3.4.6). Following this, section five presents a case study analysis (Section 3.5). Limitations of the case study research are acknowledged, and means of overcoming them (Section

3.6) next before ethical considerations are addressed (Section 3.7). Finally, a conclusion is made (Section 3.8).

Figure 3.1 Outline of Chapter 3 with section numbers and their inter-relationships



Source: Developed for this research

3.2 Justification for the research paradigm

One of the critical decisions that researchers will need to make in designing their study is the choice of an appropriate paradigm. This use of the term “paradigm” which derives from the work of the historian of science Thomas Kuhn, refers to a set of very general philosophical assumptions about the nature of the world (ontology) and how we can understand it (epistemology), assumptions that tend to be shared by researchers working in a specific field or tradition. Paradigms also typically include specific methodological strategies linked to these assumptions, and identify particular studies that are seen as exemplifying these assumptions and methods (Maxwell, 2005, p. 36).

The paper considers research strategies at a deeper level than the induction/deduction level-considered in scientific paradigms. At a more specific level, positivist social science is a paradigm relevant to quantitative research (Neuman, 2006). From a different perspective, there are paradigms that are relevant to qualitative research, for example critical theory, feminism, and even more specific traditions within these (Maxwell, 2005). The ideal-type approaches answer basic questions about research differently. Table 3.1 shows the differences among the three approaches to social research.

Table 3.1 A summary of differences among the three approaches to social research.

	Positivism	Critical Social Science	Feminist
1. Reason for research	To discover natural laws so people can predict and control events	To smash myths and empower people to change society	To empower people to advance values of nurturing others and equality
2. Nature of social reality	Stable pre-existing patterns or order that can be discovered	Multiple layers governed by hidden, understanding structures	Gender-structured power relations that keep people oppressed
3. Human nature	Self-interested and rational individuals who are shaped by external forces	Creative, adaptive people with unrealised potential, trapped by illusion.	Gender being with unrealised potential often trapped by unseen forces
4. Human Agency	Powerful external social pressures shape people's actions; free will is largely an illusion	Bounded autonomy and free choice structurally limited, but the limits can be moved	Structural limits based on gender confines choices, but new thinking and action can breach the limits
5. Role of common sense	Clearly distinct from and less valid than science	False beliefs that hide power and objective conditions	The essence of social reality that is superior to scientific or bureaucratic forms of reasoning
6. Theory looks like	A logical, deductive system of interconnected, definitions, axioms, and laws	A critique that reveals true conditions and helps people take action	A critique that reveals true conditions and helps people see the way better world
7. Good evidence	Is based on precise observations that others can repeat	Is informed by a theory that penetrates the surface level	Is informed by theory that reveals gender structures
8. Relevance of knowledge	An instrumental orientation is used; knowledge enables people to master and control events	A dialectical orientation is used; knowledge lets people see and alter deeper structures	Knowledge raises awareness and empowers people to make change

Source: Adapted from Neuman, 2006, p.105. *Social Research Methods 6th ed*

The following paragraphs relate the three scientific paradigms, (1) positivism social science, (2) critical social science, and (3) feminist research; and their elements, to this research.

(1) *Positivism social science* is an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity (Neuman, 2006, p.82). Positivism does not usually allow the researcher to work with dynamic phenomena and it makes no allowances for the contribution of relatively unobservable realities that are present in the female leaders context, for example, like a follower's belief in a female leader.

The purpose of this research is not to test an established theory or to find a cause - effect relationship, as positivism's purpose usually is. The phenomenon to be explored is dynamic and may even change within the time frame of this research; moreover, a positivist viewpoint cannot accommodate the experiences and interpretations of humans interacting within a work environment like the gender-based organisational practice in both the private and the public sector. Thus positivism was not considered to be appropriate for this research.

(2) *Critical social science* can be used to examine long-term organisational processes. The purpose of social science is to reveal what is hidden to liberate and empower people. Abduction is used to create explanatory critique. Social reality and the study of it necessarily contain a moral-political dimension, and moral-political positions are unequal in advancing human freedom and empowerment (Neuman, 2006).

This research does not seek to influence the consciousness of participants but rather to investigate how a theory may be developed to assist in the future development of female leadership. Thus this paradigm is also unsuitable for this research.

(3) *Feminist research* is less well known than the two major ones, positivism social science and critical social science. It uses multiple research techniques, often qualitative research and case studies, in an attempt to give voice to women, and work to correct the predominant male oriented perspective. Feminist

research is flexible in choosing research techniques and crossing boundaries between academic fields (Neuman, 2006).

This research, desires to understand the underlying factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society, the knowledge raises awareness and empowers people to make changes (Neuman, 2006). In brief, feminist research was the best paradigm for supporting female leadership. Thus this research was undertaken using the feminist research paradigm.

3.3 Justification for the research methodology

Having established the paradigm chosen for this research, the next step is to establish the research method and justify the methodology which is appropriate within the feminist research paradigm. How can data about this research area be collected?

Leadership researchers typically use quantitative approaches (Antonakis, Schriesheim, Donovan, Gopalakrishna-Pillai, Pellegrini, & Rossomme, 2004); however, to better understand complex, embedded phenomena, qualitative approaches to studying leadership are also necessary (Antonakis et al., 2004). Given the contextual and complex nature of leadership, it is important that the qualitative method-as theory-generating approach-complement quantitative methods to study contextually rich and holistically embedded phenomena described below as follows:-

Conducting research requires following a sequence of steps. The steps vary slightly according to whether it involves qualitative or quantitative approach and data. Each approach uses several specific research techniques (e.g., survey, interview, and historical analysis); there is much overlap between the type of data and the approach to research. Most qualitative researcher examines quantitative data, and vice versa (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

The style of focusing and redefining the topic is different depending on the type of research. The qualitative research style is flexible and encourages slowly focusing on the topic throughout the study. The researchers often combine focusing on a specific question with the process of deciding the details of study design that occur while they are gathering data. By contrast, quantitative research focuses on a specific problem within a broad topic. Researchers narrow a topic into a focused

question as a discrete planning step before they finalize study design. They use it as step in the process of developing a testable hypothesis and guide the study design before they collect any data (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

Although both share basic principles of science, the two approaches differ in a significant way (see table 3.2).

Table 3.2 Qualitative and quantitative approaches

Quantitative Approach	Qualitative Approach
Test hypothesis that the researcher begins with.	Capture and discover meaning once the researcher becomes immersed in the data
Concepts are in the form of distinct variables.	Concepts are in the form of themes, motifs, generalisations, and taxonomies.
Measures are systematically created before data collection and are standardised.	Measures are created in an ad hoc manner and are often specific to the individual setting or researcher.
Theory is largely causal and is deductive	Theory can be causal or noncausal and is often inductive.
Procedures are standard, and replication is frequent.	Research procedures are particular, and replication is very rare.
Analysis proceeds by using statistics, tables, or charts and discussing how what they show relates to hypotheses.	Analysis proceeds by extracting themes or generalisations from evidence and organising data to present a coherent, consistent picture.

Source: Neuman (2006, p.157) *Social Research Methods 6th ed*

Due to the lack of prior research on the conditions of possibility for Thai female leaders the goal of this study is inductive theory building rather than theory testing. This study concerns the theme of leadership which is a complex concept and an embedded phenomenon. Thus the relative freedom to explore the potential outcomes of qualitative research can provide insightful outcomes. Subsequently, the qualitative approach is appropriate (Perry, 1998; and Yin, 2003). In brief, a qualitative method is appropriate for this research into an under-researched phenomenon.

3.4 Justification for the case study method

A case study is a story about something unique, special, or interesting and can be about individuals, organisations, processes, programs, neighbourhoods, institutions, and even events (Yin, 2003). The case study gives examines the story behind the result by capturing what happened to bring it about, and can be a good opportunity to highlight a project's success, or to bring attention to a particular challenge or difficulty in a project.

Case studies have been used in varied investigations, particularly in sociological studies, but increasingly, in instruction. Yin, Stake, and others who have wide experience in this methodology have developed robust procedures (Tellis, 1997). Case studies, on the other hand, are designed to bring out the details from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data.

Whereas a quantitative hypothesis-deductive positivistic approach focuses on what, where, when, who type questions, in general, case studies are the preferred strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed (Yin, 2003), when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. This research problem is a “how” question. Thus, the research will be more valuable if derived from an exploratory approach. Yin (2003) outlines the relevant situations for different research strategies as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Relevant situations for different research strategies

Strategy	Form of research Question	Requires control of behavioural events?	Focuses on Contemporary events?
Experiment	How, Why?	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, What, Where, No Yes How many, How much?	No	Yes
Archival analysis	Who, What, Where, No Yes How many, How much?	No	Yes/No
History	How, Why?	No	No
Case study	How, Why?	No	Yes

Source: Yin (2003, p. 5). *Case Study Research 3rd ed*

Veal (2005) summarised the particular merits of case study method as follows:

- The ability to place people, organisations, events and experiences in their social and historical context.
- Ability to treat the subject of the study as a whole, rather than abstracting a limited set of pre-selected features.
- Multiple methods- triangulation- are implicit and seen as strength.
- The single or limited number of, cases offer a manageable data collection task when resources are limited.
- Flexibility in data collection strategy allows researchers to adapt their research strategy as the research proceeds.
- There is no need to generalise to a defined wider population.

This research is in a feminist paradigm that attempts to give voice to women, and work to correct the predominant male oriented perspective. In which case, the case method can be useful. The key issue is that case studies help researchers connect the micro level, or the actions of individual people, to the macro level, or large-scale social structures and processes. Case study research raises questions about

the boundaries and defining characteristics of cases. Such questions help in the generation of new thinking and theory (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003). “Case studies are likely to produce the best theory” (Walton, 1992, as cite in Neuman, 2006)

This study is concerned with successful females in leadership positions. It is undertaken using the qualitative method of case studies. The merit of this case study approach is the ability to place people, events and experiences in their social and historical context (Veal, 2005), and the flexible data collection strategy shows the research strategy as the research process. Thus the relative freedom to explore the potential outcomes of qualitative research can provide insightful outcomes. Confirming the case that research is justified in using the case study method.

3.4.1 Criteria for judging the quality of case study design

Quality is required in qualitative research and the researcher must ensure that it meets the required level of credibility. Reliability and validity are central issues in all measurement. Both concern connecting measure to constructs. Reliability and validity are silent often ambiguous, diffuse, and not directly observable. Perfect reliability and validity are virtually impossible to achieve. Rather, they are ideas researchers strive for (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

Reliability means dependability or consistency. It suggests that the same thing is repeated or recurs under identical or very similar conditions. The opposite of reliability is a measurement process that yields erratic, unstable, or inconsistent results (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

Validity suggests truthfulness. It refers to how well an idea “fits” with actual reality. The absence of validity occurs if there is a poor fit between the constructs researchers used to describe, theorise, or analyse the social world and what actually occurs in the social world. In simple terms, validity addresses the question of how well the social reality, being measured through research, matches with the constructs researcher use to understand it (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

Most qualitative researchers accept the basic principle of reliability and validity, but rarely use the terms because of their association with quantitative measurement. In addition, qualitative researchers apply the principles differently (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003).

Criteria for judging the quality of research designs are also essential. In empirical research, there are basically four tests to establish the quality of any empirical social research (Yin, 2003). Table 3.4 list the four tests and the case study tactic for dealing with them. It is more complex than the standard “validity” and “reliability” concepts to which most students have been exposed.

Table 3.4 Case study tactics for four design tests

Test	Case study tactic	Phase of research in which tactic occurs
Construct validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Use multiple sources of evidence ▪ Establish chain of evidence ▪ Have key informants review draft case study report 	data collection data collection composition
Internal validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Do pattern-matching ▪ Do explanation-building ▪ Address rival explanations ▪ Use logic models 	data analysis data analysis data analysis data analysis
External validity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Use theory in single-case studies ▪ Use replication logic in multiple-case studies 	research design research design
Reliability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Use case study protocol ▪ Develop case study database 	data collection data collection

Source: Yin (2003, p.34) *Case Study Research 3rd ed*

Validity in Qualitative Research means being truthful (Neuman, 2006). Qualitative researchers are more interested in authenticity than in the idea of single version of truth. Authenticity means giving a fair, honest, and balanced account of social life from the viewpoint of someone who lived it every day (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003). This research employs all the design test and case study tactics described in Table 3.4 as follows:-

Construct validity: establishing correct operational measures for the concepts being studied (Yin, 2003). That is the focus on the development of correct operational measures for the concepts under review (Yin, 2003). As Table 3.4 shows regarding case studies, three tactics are available to increase construct validity: multiple sources of evidence, establishing a chain of evidence, and having the case informants review the draft case study report.

Data collection for case studies can rely on many sources of evidence. Yin (2003) pointed out six sources of evidence: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artifacts. For this research only five of the six sources apply, as physical artifacts, as commonly used as data source in anthropology and history, were not suitable for the area of the study. Details of these multiple sources of evidence are discussed in detail in Section 3.4.4.

Internal validity: establishing a causal relationship, whereby certain conditions are shown to lead to other conditions, as distinguished from spurious relationships (Yin, 2003). For case study analysis, one of the most desirable techniques is using a pattern-matching logic. Details for using pattern-matching data analysis in this research are discussed in detail in Section 3.5.

External validity: establishing the domain to which a study's findings can be generalized (Yin, 2003). It deals with the problem of knowing whether a study's findings are generalisable beyond the immediate case study. The generalisation is not, however, automatic. A theory must be tested by replicating the findings. In this research, details of using replication logic in multiple-case studies are discussed in research design in Section 3.4.3.

Reliability of Qualitative Research means dependability or consistency (Neumen, 2006; and Yin, 2003). Moreover, Yin (2003) pointed out that the idea of reliability refers to minimising the errors and bias in a study. Most qualitative researchers consider a range of data sources and employ multiple measurement techniques. Yin (2003) also summarises that reliability is demonstrating that the operations of a study such as the data collection procedures can be repeated with the same results.

According to Table 3.4, Yin (2003) recommended that a two tactic procedures should be adopted to develop case study reliability. For this research, the

interview protocol was developed in the research design phase and tested in the pilot case interviews, before it was used for the main data collection, and is addressed in Section 3.4.6. The next section will discuss the design of the case study itself (3.4.2).

3.4.2 Designing the case study

Case study research fits within the feminist paradigm (Neuman, 2006) and is essentially inductive, theory building research (Perry, 1998). Nevertheless, it also acknowledges that “fact and theory (induction and deduction) are each necessary for the other to be of value” (Perry, 1998).

Perry (1998) also summarises grounded theory is at one extreme of the induction versus deduction continuum and emphasises generating theory from data alone. But it is impossible to go theory-free into any study. Pure induction might prevent the researcher from benefiting from an existing theory, just as pure deduction might prevent the development of a new and useful theory. Prior theory is developed from the literature, pilot studies, and/or convergent interviews, to provide a first step in be the first step in the theory-building process of case study research. Given these conditions, a blend of induction and deduction appears to be the preferred position for this research.

A research design is the logic that links the data to be collected to the initial questions of a study. Yin (2003, p. 20) described a research design as:

“A logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions.”

Yin (2003) also pointed out that another way of thinking about a research design is as a blueprint of research dealing with at least four problems: what questions to study, what data is relevant, what data to collect and how to analyse the results. For the case study, Yin (2003) recommended that there are five components of research design; a study’s questions, propositions, units of analysis, the logic linking the data to the propositions and the criteria for interpreting the findings.

3.4.2.1 Study's Questions

The case study strategy is most likely to be appropriate for “how” and “why” questions. As shown in Table 3.3 (Section 3.4), for this research, the questions how and why have been used. Figure 3.2 shows the research questions for this study.

Figure 3.2 Research questions for this study

- *What are the underlying factors associated with successful females in leadership positions affect both the private and the public sector?*
- *How does organisational practice impact on female leadership development?*
- *How do female leaders ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors?*
- *How do factors such as personality traits and competencies benchmark the background of the global perspective?*

Source: Developed for this research

3.4.2.2 Study's Propositions

Study's Propositions refer to each proposition while directing attention to something that should be examined within the scope of the study. For this research, propositions are developed from the research questions as shows in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Research propositions for this study

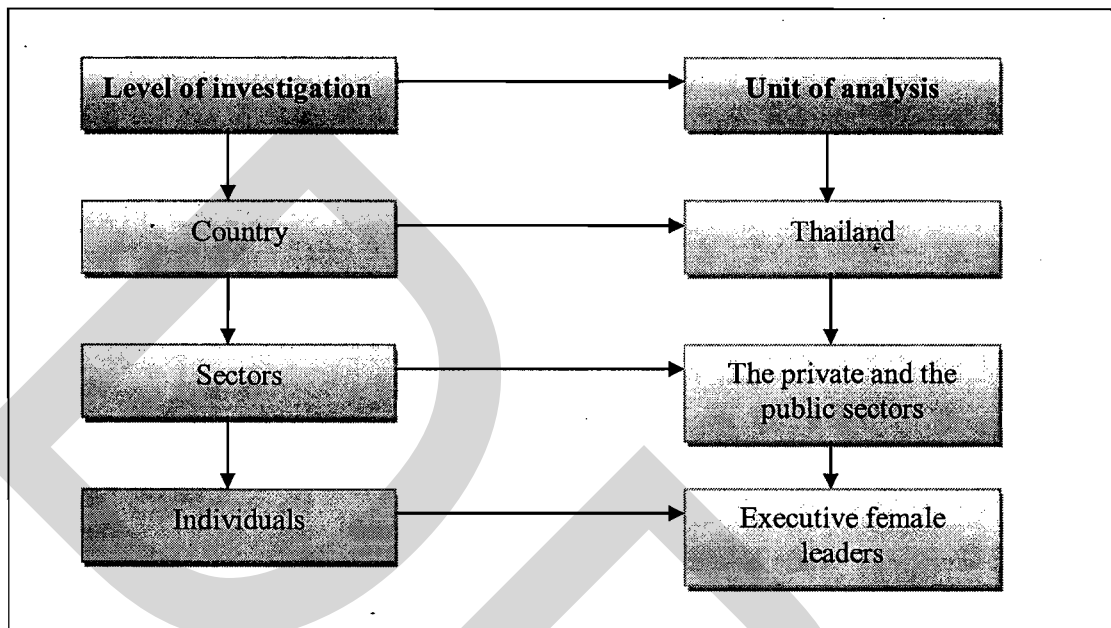
- *That the underlying factors such as certain kinds of personality and leadership competencies possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement.*
- *That successful female leadership development depends on organizational practices that will differ depending on the context of the private and the public sector.*
- *Successful female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders within gender-based organisational practice.*
- *That underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society can be matched with an ideal type of leadership profile, because no real-life leaders perfectly match the ideal type. When female leaders have a profile that is off-target, the way that they compensate is interesting.*

Source: Developed for this research

3.4.2.3 Unit of analysis

Unit of analysis specifies whether the level of investigation will focus on the collection of data about individual people, groups, organisations, movements, institutions countries, and so forth (Neuman, 2006; and Zikmund, 2003) Researchers tailor theoretical concepts to apply to one or more of this unit of analysis (Neuman, 2006). For this research, the concept map as illustrated in Chapter 2 can be applied to several units, the individual, sectors and country. It uses the concepts with analysis units to design a study and measure concepts. The unit of analysis is divided into three units as illustrated in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 Unit of analysis



Source: Developed for this research

As Figure 3.4 shows, the unit of analysis for this research refers to the relationship between the level of investigation and the analysis. Firstly, Thailand has been selected as the country to be investigated. Secondly, the sectors to be examined were the private and the public sectors. Thirdly was the individual level, where interviews focused on executive female leaders.

The definition of successful leaders used for this research is “those who have been effective in their leadership roles to date and are expected to continue to be successful as they are promoted higher in the organisation” (McCauley, 2004, p.201). This research is concerned with successful females in leadership positions. Of key importance in the case study method is the selection of the cases. Thus, high profile female leaders have been deliberately chosen to increase the likelihood of illustrating a particular proposition. Accordingly, all the participants must be the firm’s chairwoman of the board, CEO/president, primary owner, or a woman directly reporting to the chief executive in the private sector. In the public sector the participants must be the female executives in level 9, 10, and 11. Most

importantly, all of them must be identified as average performers-to outstanding performers' leaders in their organisations. They have been selected because of their leadership capability, rather than for political reasons or as a reward for technical contributions, and are well-respected by peers. Female leadership is a rapidly developing role that simply does not have many star performers. The best approach is to look for female leaders anywhere-where they exist.

Turning to the number of interviews, Perry (1998) pointed out that a PhD thesis requires about 35 to 50 interviews. 40 cases of females in leadership positions, in both the private and the public sectors, were chosen as the subjects. The purpose of this research study is to explain the conditions of possibilities of successful female leaders. Therefore it will explain or predict the similar female leaders in similar situations or a significant proportion of them.

3.4.2.4 The logical linking of the data to the propositions and criteria for interpreting the finding.

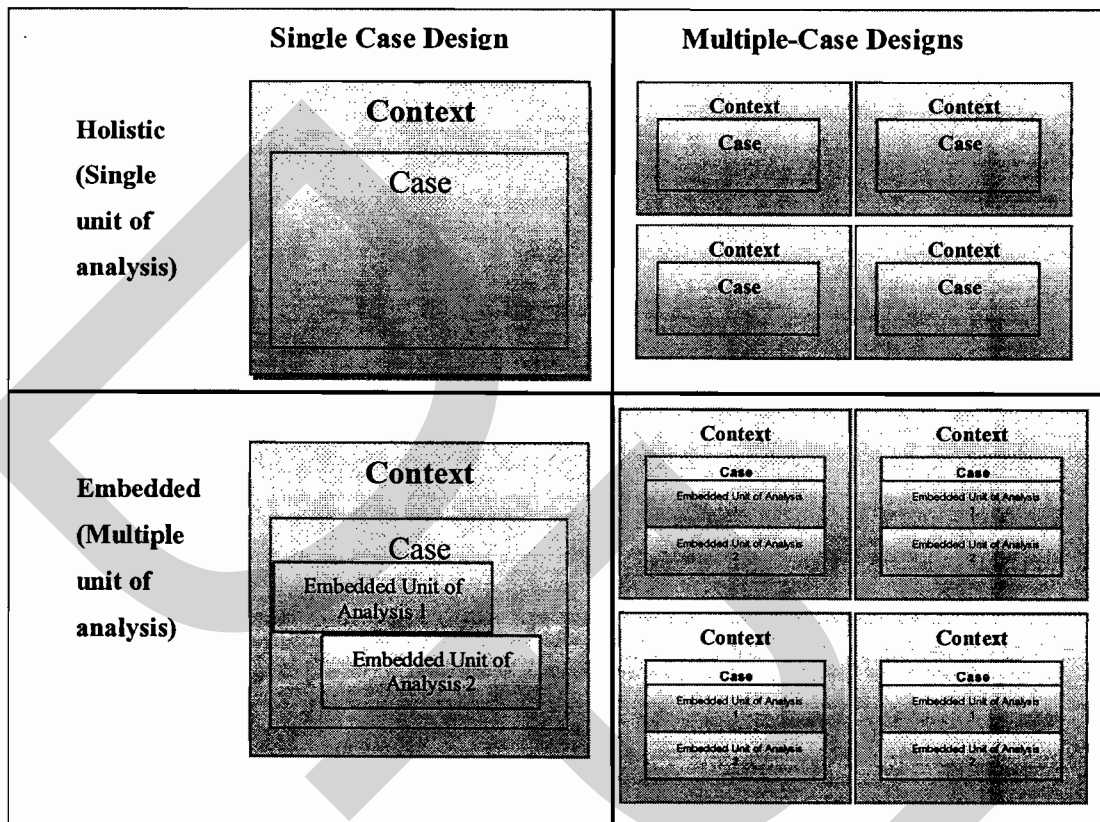
A good case study is expected to show its effectiveness in terms of linking data and establishing a set of criteria for interpreting the findings (Yin, 2003). Criteria for interpreting the quality of research designs are also essential. The case study tactics have been described in Section 3.4.1.

In summary, for this research the five components of research design are addressed. In particular, the unit of analysis is discussed and determined with reference to the female leadership in Thailand. The follow section will discuss the criteria for selecting case design.

3.4.3 Criteria for selecting case design

The research design is the blueprint that guides the research study towards its objectives. The case study research designs for this thesis are based on basic types of designs for case study approaches proposed by Yin (2003). As Figure 3.5 shows, there are four types of designs based in a 2X2 matrix (Yin, 2003).

Figure 3.5 Basic types of designs for case study



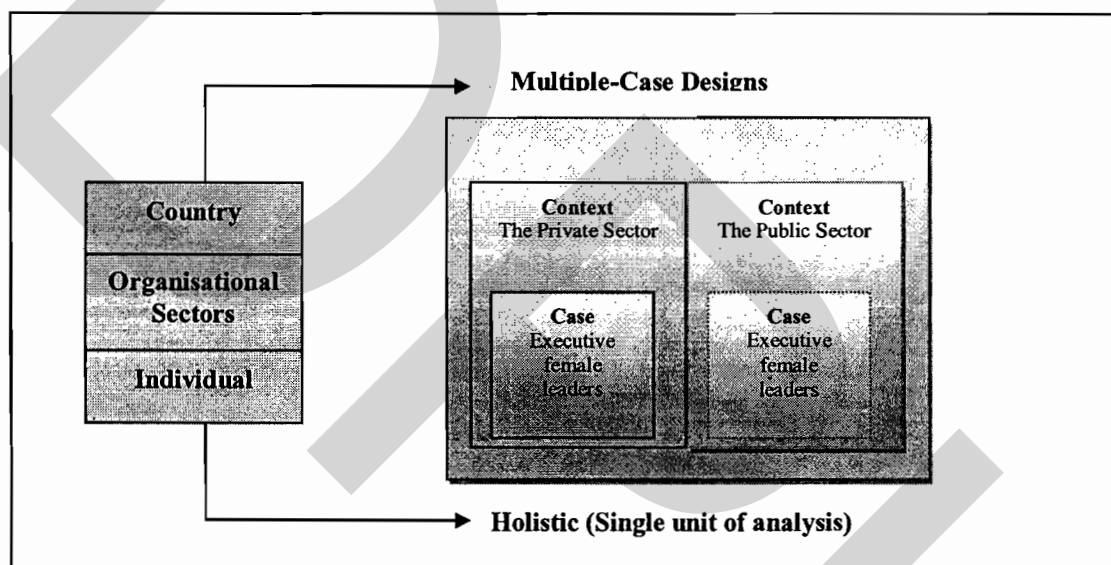
Source: Based on Yin (2003, p. 34) *Case Study Research 3rd ed*

Yin (1994) identified that the matrix assumes single and multiple case studies that reflect different design situations and within these two types, there can be unitary or multiple units of analysis. The four types of case study designs are; single-case (holistic) designs, single-case (embedded) designs, multiple-case (holistic) designs and multiple-case (embedded) designs.

The first component of the process is the selection of either a single or a multiple case design. Single case design can be used in one of three environments, when the case represents a critical case to test an existing well-formulated theory, if the case is extreme or unique and when a case presents a phenomenon, which has previously not been presented (Yin, 2003). For this research none of these criteria were met, therefore, a single case design was not appropriate.

Multiple case designs depend on the type of research to be undertaken. This research is focus on executive female leaders. It aims to use the experiences and opinions of executive female leaders to build a broad theory of the condition of possibilities for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society. Thus a multiple holistic design was justified. This is illustrated in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6 Multiple holistic designs for female leaders case study



Source: Developed for this research

The multiple case designs follow a replication, not a sampling logic. The cases serve in a manner similar to multiple experiments, with similar results (a literal replication) or contrasting results (a theoretical replication) predicted explicitly at the outset of the investigation (Yin, 2003).

3.4.4 Data collection

This section focuses on the data collection for this research. There are three main elements that should be considered for data collection. First, the sources of data collection must be identified. This is followed by selection of the methodology for the actual collection and finally the time allocated to this task must be planned.

First, data collection for case studies can rely on many sources of evidence. This study uses construct validity and reliability by using multiple sources of data (Neuman, 2006; Veal, 2005; and Yin, 2003). Multiple methods are implicit and seen as the strength of the case study approach (Neuman, 2006; and Veal, 2005). Multiple sources of evidence can be obtained. In this research, data will be mainly draw from documentation and interviews. Documenting the data sources employed published sources, including magazine and biographies.

The principal source of data in this research comes from interviews as they provide valuable insights (Yin, 2003). Personal interviews are direct communications where interviewers in face-to-face situations ask respondents questions. This versatile and flexible method is a two-way conversation between an interviewer and a participant (Zikmund, 2003).

For this research, the subject participants were 40 executive female leaders deliberately selected from both the private and the public sectors. Following the participants' agreement to take part in the study, before the interview each person was contacted and sent

1. *An introduction letter about the research (appendix A)*
2. *A curriculum vitae of a leader (appendix B)*
3. *The two self-assessment questionnaires (appendices C and D).*

The participants were asked to complete and return the material prior to the interview that lasted 1.5 hours. The participants completed thematic interviews; including female leadership talents themes, female leadership competencies themes, and female leadership contextual themes. A number of female leaders were selected to participate in face-to-face interviews to further explore specific personality traits, competencies, and issues. The interviews were conducted in Thai language, recorded and notes made. The discussions were open but confidential and were made during July to September 2009.

3.4.5 Interview Questions

The questions in the case study protocol should reflect the set of concerns from the initial design. The questions can, remarkably, occur at any of the five levels (Yin, 2003). As described below:-

Level 1 questions: asked of specific interviewees (Yin, 2003).

Level 2 questions: asked of the individual case (These are the questions in the case study protocol to be asked by the investigator during a single case, even when the single case is part of a larger, multiple-case study (Yin, 2003).

Level 3 question: asked to define the pattern of finding across multiple cases, since the cross case questions cannot be addressed until the data from the single case (in a multiple-case study) are examined (Yin, 2003).

Level 4 questions: asked of an entire study (Yin, 2003), for example, calling on information beyond the case study evidence and including other literature or published data that may have been reviewed.

Level 5 normative questions: about policy recommendations and conclusions, going beyond the narrow scope of the study (Yin, 2003).

Of these five levels, only the Level 1 and Level 2 questions are for data collection purposes (Yin, 2003:74) and described below.

Level 1 question:

- Tell me about your background
- a curriculum vitae of a leader (appendix B) is developed

Level 2: questions

The Female Leadership concept map in Chapter 2 described three levels defining the condition of possibilities of female leadership. This extremely important factor is at the micro-level or individual level of female leaders that has the strongest influence on leaders. It highlights female leadership talents and competencies predicting successful leadership. The other two levels of this female leadership concept map are the contexts, that consist of organisational practice and the Thai context for identifying the role of these contexts in becoming a successful female leader? The following shows the themes and subthemes listed covered in all interviews:-

(1) *Female Leadership Talents Themes*

Talent measures are “natural” personal characteristics associated with success in certain jobs and when appropriately matched to the job, are the best predictors of superior performance. They are also the most difficult to develop because they require “looking below the surface” at underlying skills, abilities and work styles (McCauley, 2004).

a. *Personality interview questions*

Personality:

- What are the first three words that close friends might use to describe you?
- What are the personality characteristics that you feel have made you a successful leader?

Gender Role:

- How would you describe gender role-specific strengths and weaknesses in leaders?

Self Image:

- Do you see yourself at the top of the hierarchy or in the middle of a web?

Motive:

- Have you ever applied for any senior positions? Did you apply yourself? Why-why not?
- Do you have a clear vision and concrete objectives in your life?
- What have you performed done as an individual to reach your present position?

Source: Developed for this research

b. *Personality trait self assessment questionnaire (see appendix C)*

The Professional Personality Questionnaire (PPQ) is a brief questionnaire measuring five broad scales that are designed to assess the Big Five Factors of McCrae and Costa 1987 (Barrett, 2002). It was constructed to provide a brief but reliable measure of the factors, suitable for use in Industrial/Organisational (I/O) personnel selection and staff development screening. The test remained a research instrument that is only now being made available to the wider test community. Each item uses a binary “yes/no” response format and is scored 1/0 in the target direction.

(2) Female Leadership Competencies Themes

Behaviour competencies measures focus on what leaders actually do, namely their observable actions (McCauley, 2004).

a. Competencies interview questions

- What are the competencies that you feel have made you a successful leader?
- What part of this job comes easiest to you?
- What part of this job is most difficult for you?
- Tell me about an experience in the last year or two that you would consider a high point, something you were able to do of which you are proud.
- Tell me about an experience in the last year or two that you would consider a low point, something you did that did not go as well as you would have liked.

Source: Developed for this research

b. Competencies self assessment questionnaire (see appendix D)

The competencies self assessment questionnaire consist of 20 Behavioural Description Index (BDI) based on the generic competencies of Spencer and Spencer (1993). Participant are asked to rate how well a statement describes them on a five point scale from 'very well' to "not at all"

(3) Female leadership contextual themes

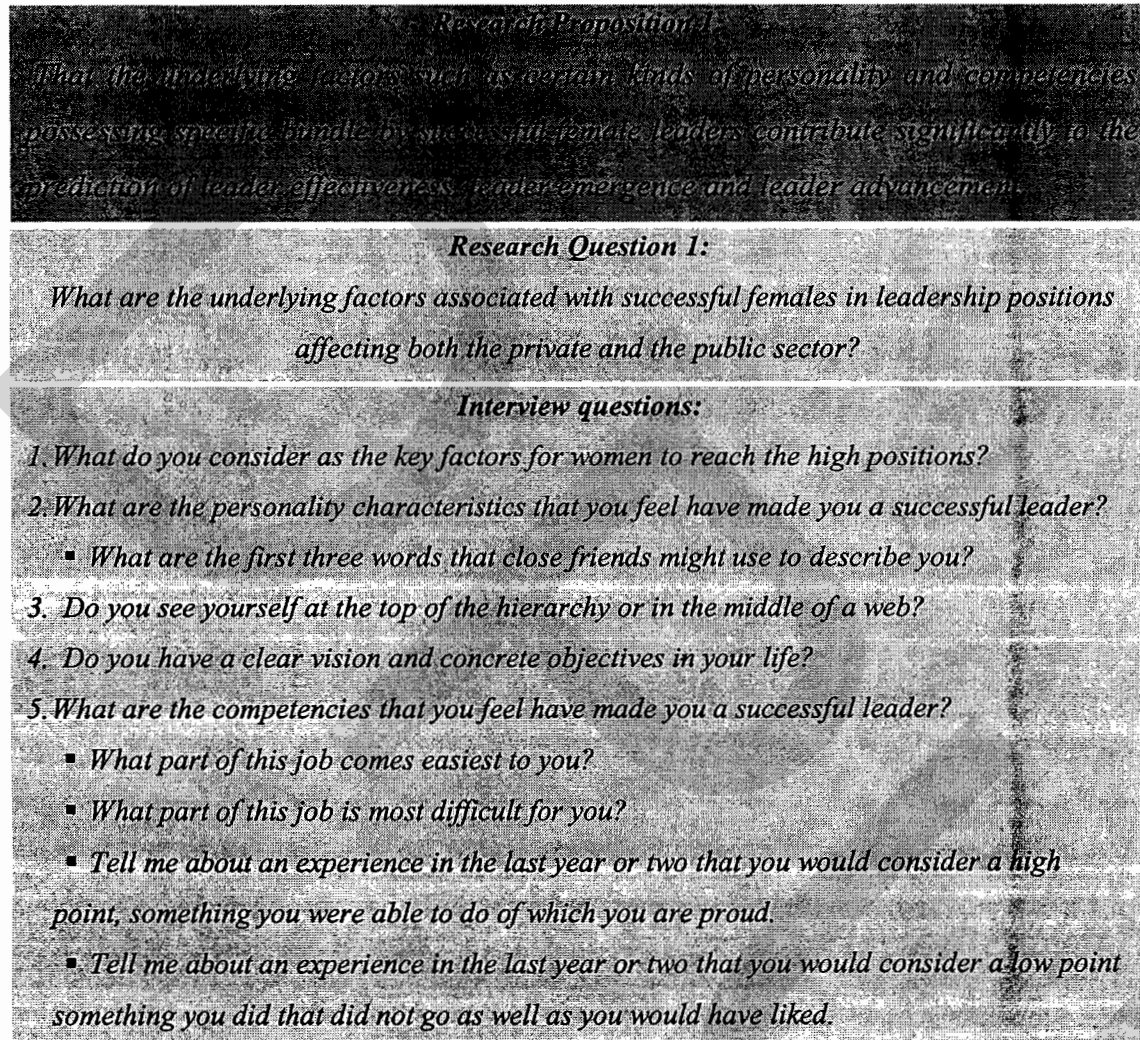
In predicting leadership success, contextual variables are most often viewed as moderator variables that influence the degree to which particular individual difference variables are related to leadership success (McCauley, 2004).

- What has supported you in your career?
- What formal development programs, training programs, etc., provided by this or other organisations, supported your leadership development?
- Have you ever experienced or felt any disregard or any kind of discrimination from your employees/ co-workers because of your sex?
- Do you think there are stereotypes of men and women in Thai culture? Do you think it is possible to erase them?
- What do you consider as the main barriers?
- What is the role of home, education and social environment in growing to be a leader?
- What relationships with others have helped you advance and develop professionally?

Source: Developed for this research

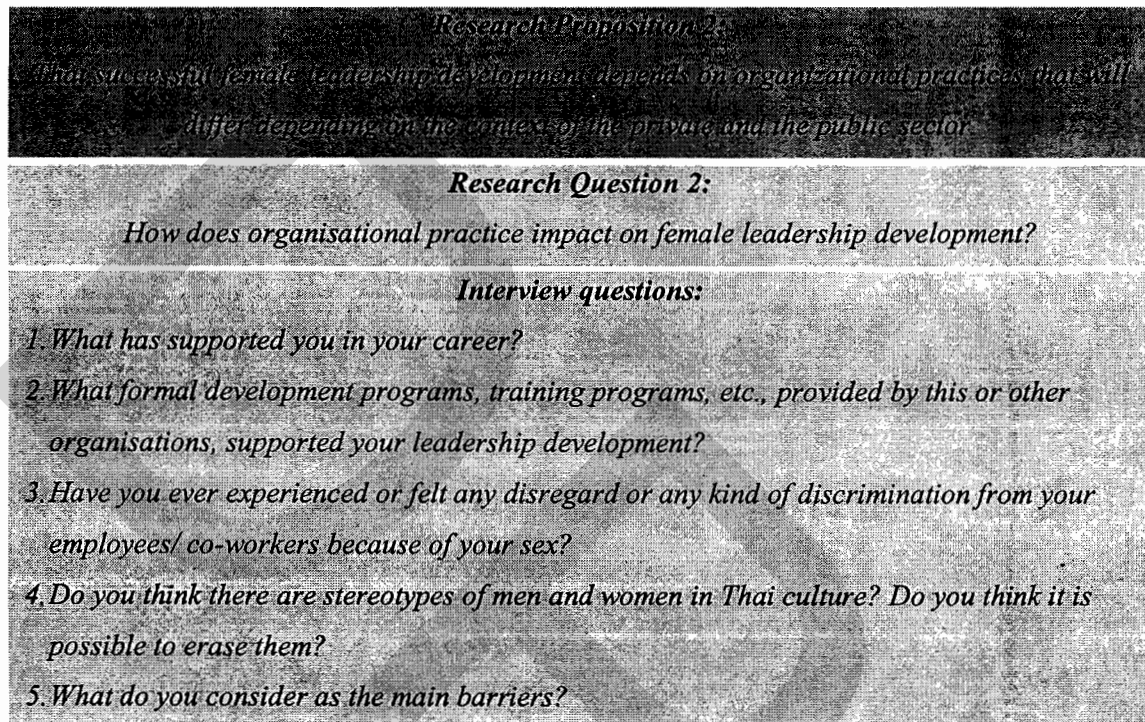
The interview questions were related to the four research propositions and research questions and also to the relevant theories drawn from the literature reviewed, as shown in Figure 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, and 3.10 :-

Figure 3.7 The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 1 and the Research Question 1



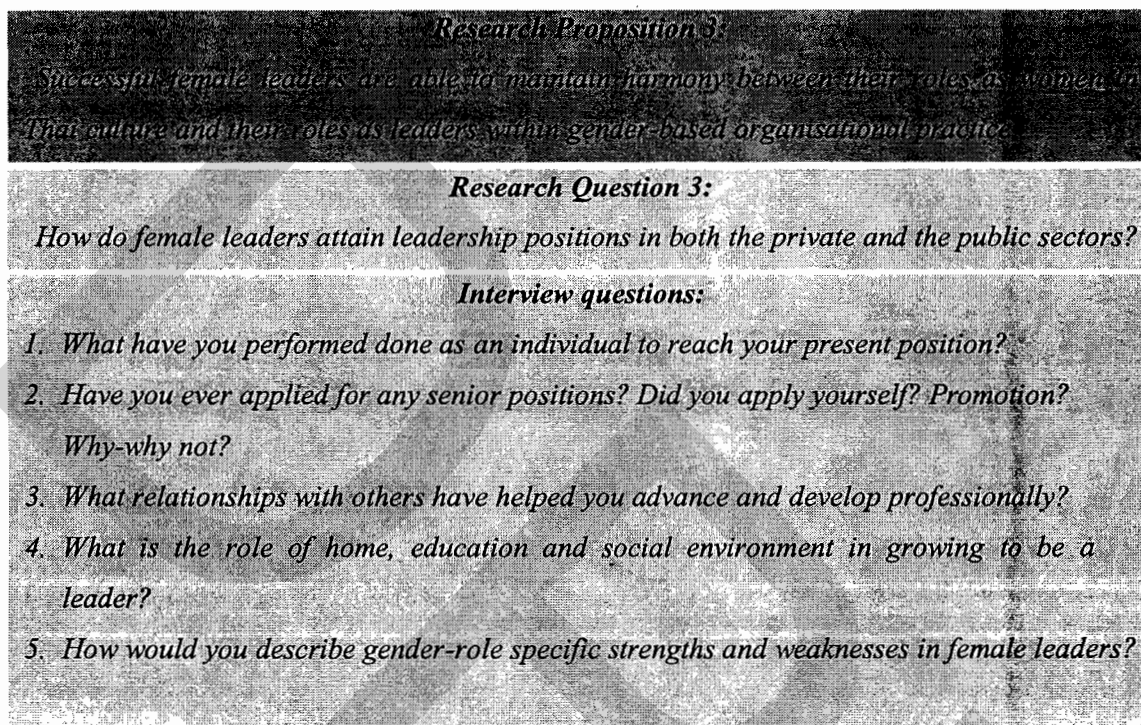
Source: Developed for this research

Figure 3.8 The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 2 and the Research Question 2



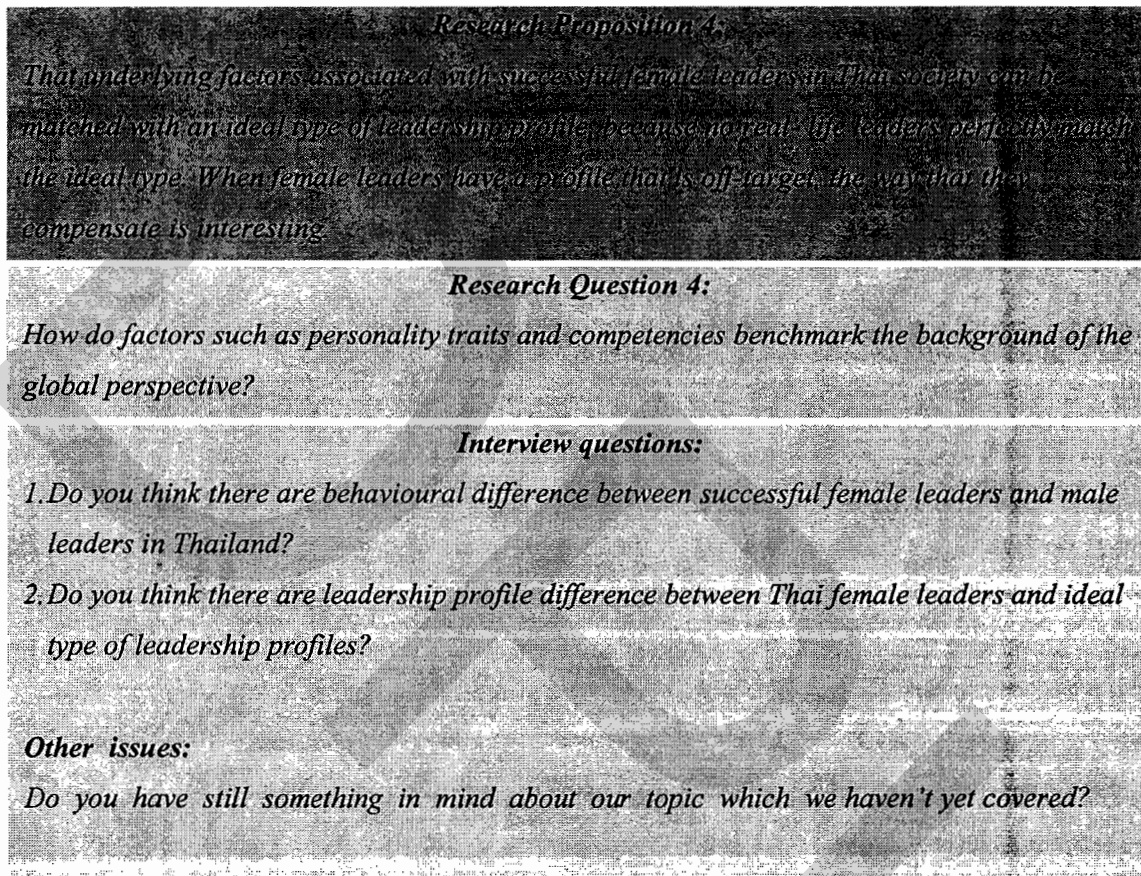
Source: Developed for this research

Figure 3.9 The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 3 and the Research Question 3



Source: Developed for this research

Figure 3.10 The interview questions which relate to the Research Proposition 4 and the Research Question 4



Source: Developed for this research

3.4.6 The pilot case interviews

A pilot case study is the collective term used to describe small-scale exploratory research techniques that use sampling (Zikmund, 2003). Pilot case studies help the researchers to develop prior theory and general approaches for the data collection process and to review and revise their data collection plans before the main case studies are conducted (Yin, 2003).

For this research, two pilot interviews were conducted in Bangkok. First, an executive female leader in the private sector was tested as a pilot interview. Secondly, a pilot interview was conducted with an executive female leader in the public sector. Both pilot tests assisted the researcher to develop relevant lines of

questioning and to provide conceptual clarifications for the research design (Yin, 2003) and develop the protocols used in the research.

3.5 Case study analysis

In general, data analysis means a search for a pattern in data-recurrent behaviours, objects, phases, or ideas. Once a pattern is identified, it is interpreted in terms of a social theory or the setting in which it occurred (Neuman, 2006; and Yin, 2003). Data analysis involves examining, sorting, categorising, evaluating, comparing, synthesising, and contemplating the coded data as well as reviewing the raw and recorded data.

An ideal type is used by many qualitative researchers. Ideal types are models or mental abstractions of social relations or processes. They are pure standards against which the data or “reality” can be compared. An ideal type is an artificial device used for comparison, because no reality ever fits the ideal type (Neuman, 2006).

Qualitative research uses ideal types in two ways: to contrast the impact of contexts and as analogy (Neuman, 2006). This research uses ideal types to interpret data in a way that is sensitive to the context and cultural meanings of members and to bring out the specifics of each case and to emphasise the impact to the unique context. This research makes a contrast between the private and public sector contexts, thus, it uses the ideal type to show how specific circumstance, cultural meanings, and the perspectives of specific individuals are central for social setting or process.

Veal (2005) summarised the three main methods of analysis outlined by both Burns (1995) and Yin (2003):-

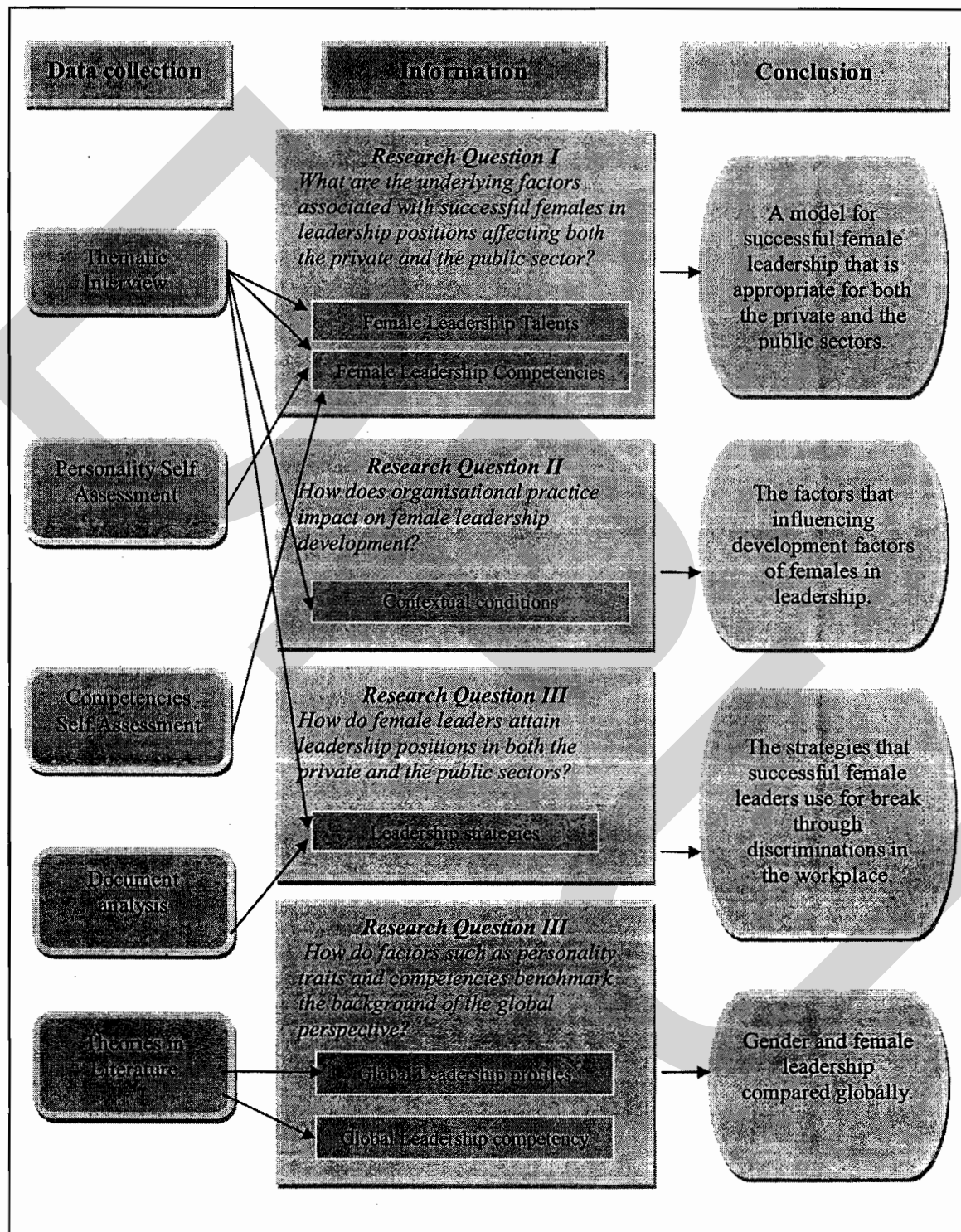
- (1) *Pattern matching* – relating the features of the case to what might be expected from some existing theory;
- (2) *Explanation building* – often an iterative process whereby a logical/causal explanation of what is discovered is developed by to-and-fro referencing between theory, explanation and data.
- (3) *Time series analysis* – explanations are developed on the basis of observing change over time.

For case study analysis, one of the most desirable techniques is using a pattern-matching logic. Yin (2003) suggests that comparison be made between an empirical pattern and one or several predicted patterns. If the patterns coincide, the results can help a case study strengthen its internal validity. This study is a discerning one; pattern matching is relevant, because the predicted pattern of specific variables is defined prior to data collection, and pattern matching forms of analysis are possible within the context of this study. It is pulling together of the results of different sorts of analyses to form coherent conclusions that presents the challenge (Veal, 2005).

A second analytic technique is, in fact, a special type of pattern matching. The phenomenon is explained by a number of causal links (Yin, 2003). In this research, the process started by making an initial statement or proposition about the conditions and factors associated with female leadership in Thailand. This was followed by a comparison of the findings of one case against the statement or proposition. The statement or proposition was then revised and other details compared against the revision. The process was repeated against the other cases.

The use of multiple data sources suggests that triangulation is common in this case study (Veal, 2005). Different data sets provide information on the research questions and point to the conclusion as illustrated in Figure 3.11.

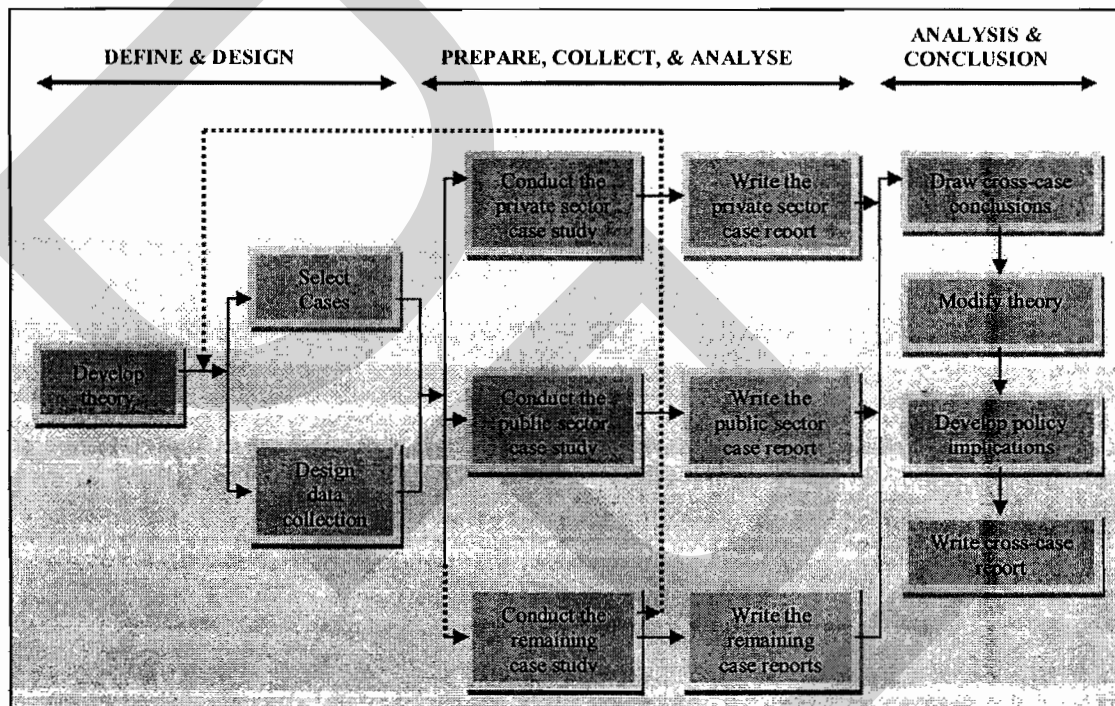
Figure 3.11 Triangulation of case study method for female leadership study



Source: Developed for this research

In summary, this research uses a multiple case studies design and selected two cases, the private and the public sectors, to provide literal replications. The replication approach to multiple-case studies is illustrated in Figure 3.12.

Figure 3.12 A summary of the of replication approach for this study



Source: Adapted from Yin (2003:50) *Case Study Research 3rd ed*

The Figure 3.12 indicates that the initial step in designing the study must consist of theory development and then show that case selection and the definition of specific measures are important steps in the design and data collection process (Yin, 2003, p.50). For this research, each individual case study, the private and the public sectors, consisted of a "whole" study, each case's conclusions are then considered to be the information needing replication by other individual case. Both the individual and multiple-case results are the focus of a summary report. For each individual case, the report indicates how and why a particular proposition was demonstrated (or not demonstrated). Across cases, the report indicates the extent of the replication logic and why certain cases are predicted to have certain results, whereas other cases, if any, are predicted to have contrasting results.

An important part of Figure 3.12 is the dotted line feedback loop. The loop represents the situation in which an important discovery occurs during the conduct of one of the individual case studies- for example, if one of the cases did not, in fact, suit the original design. Yin (2003) pointed out that a second feedback loop could represent the situation in which the discovery led to reconsidering one or more of the study's original theoretical propositions. Under either circumstance, "redesign" should take place before proceeding further.

3.6 Limitations of case study research

This section discusses the limitations of the case study research and how to overcome these limitations.

Firstly, one concern relates to the development of a theory, based on case analysis as it results from a lengthy development phase which can then lead to complexities that are too difficult to comprehend (Eisenhardt, 1989; and Parkhe, 1993). This research complex theory issue was avoided in this study by the development of prior theories and specific research issues.

Secondly, the case methodology may be difficult to undertake due to operational and logistical problems (Eisenhardt, 1989; Parkhe, 1993; and Yin, 2003). In this research, the problem was overcome by the research design using theoretical replication across the cases to achieve external validity (Yin, 2003). Additionally, using multiple research methodologies for the case study, and a systematic process for fieldwork for data collection, is to achieve construction validity. Subsequently, during data analysis the information collected was compared to achieve internal validity (Yin, 2003).

Finally, it may be a concern that the findings of this research are specific to females in executive management positions in Thailand. To overcome this, future studies should be undertaken at each organisational level.

3.7 Ethical considerations

The ethical issues are the concerns, dilemmas, and conflicts that arise over the proper way to conduct research (Neuman, 2006). Many ethical issues are a balance between two values: the pursuit of scientific knowledge and the rights of those being studied or of others in society (Neuman, 2006). The ethical concern for this research is derived from the mandate of Social Research Association.

First, obligations to society: This research aims to benefit society and the groups and individuals within it. It maintains high scientific standards in the methods employed in the collection and analysis of data and the impartial assessment and dissemination of findings.

Second, obligations to subjects: This research strives to protect subjects from undue harm arising as a consequence of participating in the research. Thus, subjects' participation should be voluntary and as fully informed as possible. Before the study was conducted, a written agreement to participate was provided by people after receiving an introduction letter about the research procedure. All respondents were advised that participation in this study was purely voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time they choose. To minimise wasting participants' time, the research design avoids inconvenience to potential subjects by making greater use of available data rather than embark on a new inquiry.

Privacy and Confidentiality: To protect privacy and confidentiality of participants, the information on research participants is protected from public disclosure. The researcher keeps the name of participants secret from the public, and will not release information in a way that permits linking specific individuals to specific responses and is publicly presented only in an aggregate form.

Data Protection: Information about personality assessment and competency assessment concern privacy and the collection of such information makes it reasonable to identify personal information as private property. The participant will be provided with a copy of the finding on request.

3.8 Conclusions

This chapter describes the research methodology utilised in this research. Based on qualitative data, the research uses case study research methodology as this was found to be an appropriate methodology, since no particular theory had been developed for the special topic "*The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society.*" Data collection was based on multiple sources of evidence. Interviews, self-assessment, and content analysis have been used for this study. Triangulation plays an important role in the data collection and data analysis for this research.

This approach was necessary to ensure a vigorous and diverse collection of information. The final aim of this research is to filter out what is consistent or inconsistent, so that meaningful conclusions can be made from the data. Finally, limitations of the case study methodology and ethical issues were also considered.

The next chapter will set out the finding and data analysis of the study as described in the methodologies and protocols established in this chapter.

CHAPTER 4

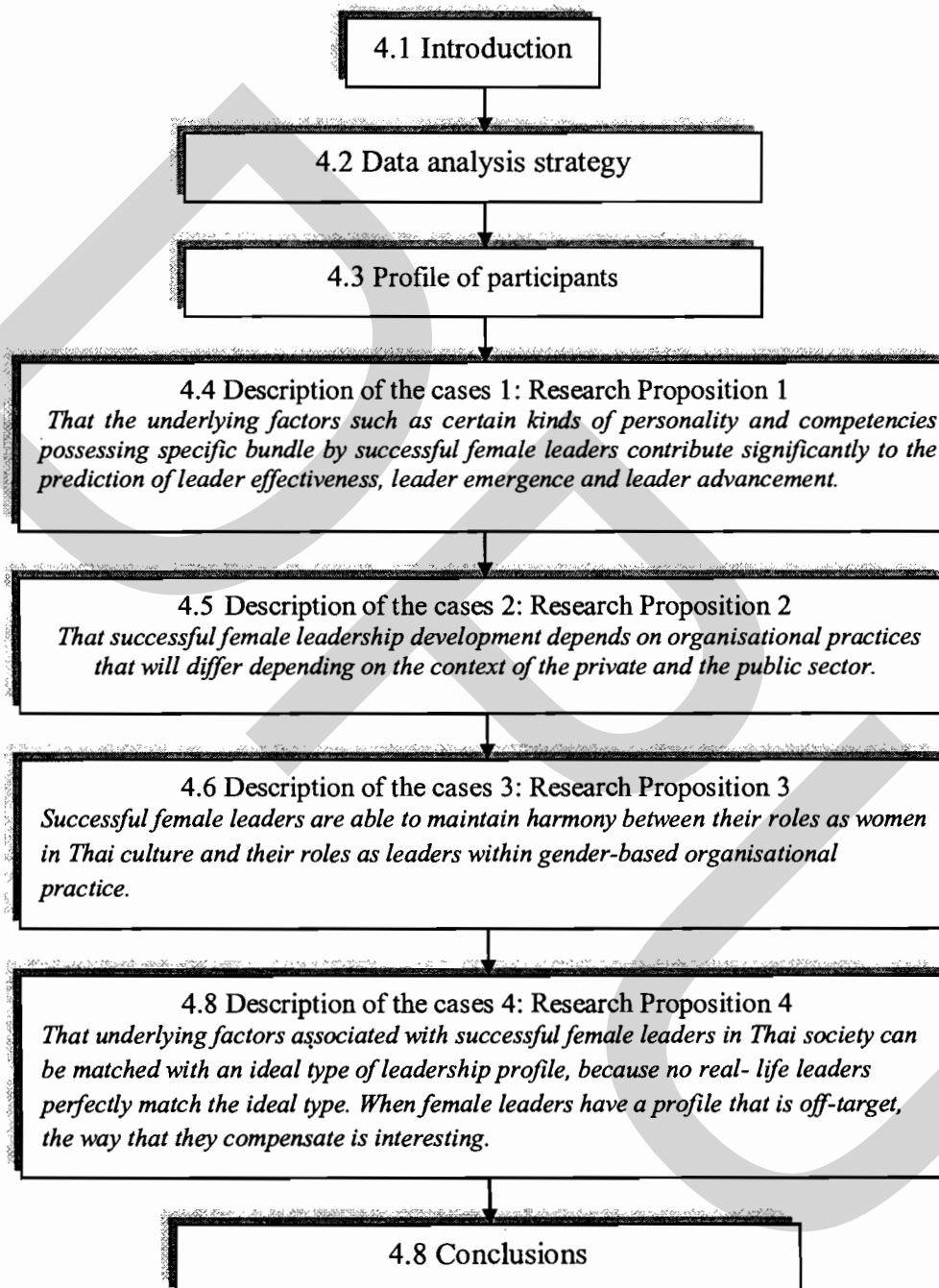
DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 described the methodologies available to conduct research of this nature coupled with an eventual classic of methodology used to collect and analyse the case study data. In turn, this chapter now analyses the collection of data and presented the finding. The purpose of this chapter is to examine patterns in the collected data and to relate them to the research propositions established for this study.

The chapter is presented in the following four sections as outlined in Figure 4.1. First section is the introduction of this chapter (Section 4.1); Second presents data analysis strategic (Section 4.2); the profile of participants (Section 4.3) including their level, age, education, and other details of the case study participants. This is followed by, describes the case including an analysis of research propositions 1 to 4 (Sections 4.4 to 4.8). Finally, the chapter provides a conclusion (Section 4.8).

Figure 4.1 Outline of Chapter 4 with section numbers and their inter-relationships:-



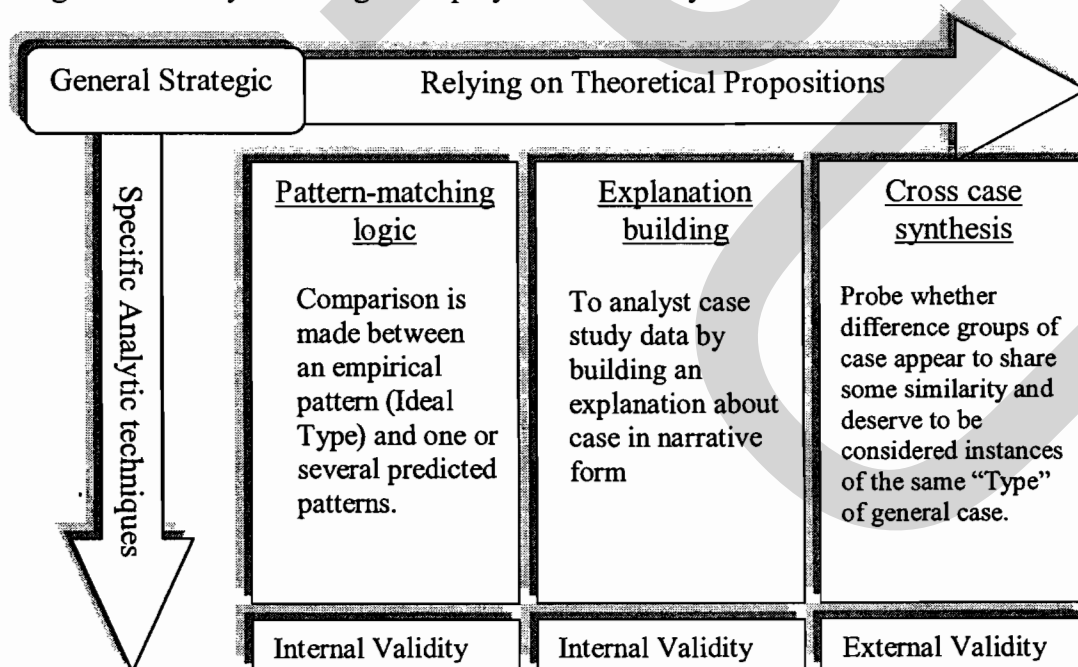
Source: Developed for this research

4.2 Data Analysis Strategy

Qualitative data analysis requires decisions about how the analysis will be performed (Maxwell, 2005). Data analysis consists of examining, categorising, tabulating, testing, or otherwise recombining both quantitative and qualitative evidence to address the initial propositions of a case study (Yin, 2003).

The case analysis recommended by Yin (2003), is adopted in this study. A general analytic strategy defining priorities about what to analyse, and why, is “relying on theoretical propositions”. Such a proposition is an example of a theoretical orientation the case study analysis that helps to focus attention on certain data and to ignore other data. Theoretical propositions about causal relations answer the how and why questions that can be extremely useful in guiding case study analysis. In addition, this strategy can be used in three specific analytic techniques when analysing this case study: pattern-matching, explanation building and cross case synthesis, as shown in Figure 4.2:-

Figure 4.2 Analytic strategies employed in this study

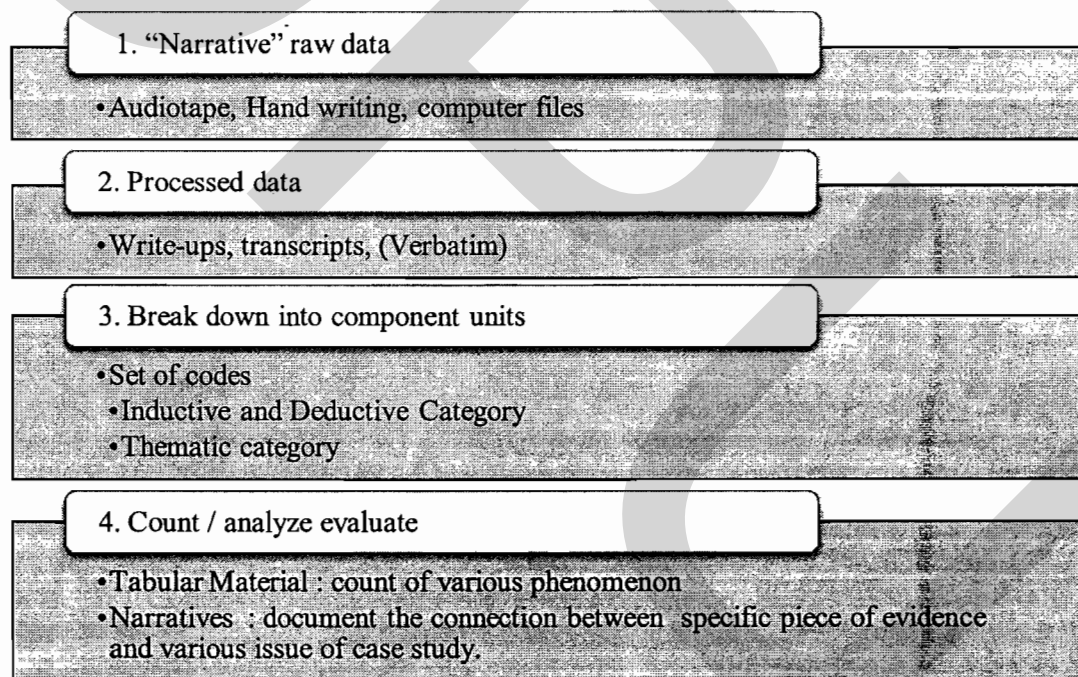


Source: Developed for this research

4.2.1 Procedure: Content Analysis

Qualitative content analysis defines itself within this framework as an approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytical rules and step by step models, without rash quantification (Mayring, 2009). It involves various activities used to organize, interpret, synthesize, conceptualize, and report information. This study examines data for recurring themes, word patterns, relationships among categories, and evolving themes. Furthermore, the procedure of content analysis is then divided up in to the following four steps: (1) narrative raw data, (2) processed data, (3) break down into component units, (4) count / analyze evaluate, as shown in Figure 4.3:-

Figure 4.3 Content analysis procedure for this study



Sources: Developed for this research

(1) Step One: Narrative raw data

Qualitative analysis begins with working on raw data. Raw qualitative data exist most often as a body of unorganised, unstructured field notes, or narrative, which is in the form of words, not numbers (McNabb, 2002, p. 368). To generate

findings that transform raw data into new knowledge, audio devices, hand writing, and computer files recordings, help an analyst to return to the setting.

(2) Step Two: Processed data

This study adopted “content analytical transcription” that is the combination of transcription and content analytical elements-summing up protocol (creation of abstracts; inductive category formation) and selective protocol (deductive category formation).

A transcription is converting a spoken-language source into written, typewritten or printed form. Transcripts are needed to include all information collected via recordings that have to be written down. Intensive content analysis of each transcript was undertaken to develop the tables used in cross case analysis (Sections 4.4 to 4.8).

(3) Step Three: Break down into component units

Content analysis seeks to reduce the material; through preserving the essential contents by producing a manageable, short text. Category definitions, prototypical text passages, and rules for distinguishing different categories were formulated in respect to theory and materials, completed step by step, and revised by a process of analysis.

Coding allocated to the research issues was adapted and added to as deeper understanding of the data was developed by inductive, deductive, and thematic categories.

Inductive category formation: procedures for summarizing were used to develop aspects of interpretation and categories, as near as possible to the original material (Mayring, 2009).

Deductive category application: works with prior formulated, theoretical derived aspects of analysis, bringing them in connection with the text (Mayring, 2009).

Thematic category: refers to any method of categorising segments of qualitative data into meaningful themes. The collection of data is correspondingly conducted with a method which seeks to guarantee comparability by defining topics and the same time remaining open to the views related to them (Flick, 2002). In practice, themes serve to identify, label and interpret features of data simultaneously

describe and organise. Content analysis is a rigorous form of thematic coding that should normally have good integrate reliability; codes can then be used as basis for quantitative analysis.

(4) Step Four: Count / analyse evaluate

The design of the databases should be such that other researchers would be able to use the material based on the descriptions contained in the documentation. All types of relevant documents should be added to the database, as well as tabular materials, narratives, and other notes (Tellis, 1997).

Tabular materials have records and variables adequately documented with names, labels and descriptions of all variables, fields, records and their values that should indicate the unit of measurement.

Narratives are documenting the connection between specific piece of evidence and various issue of case study (Yin, 2003). A narrative can be descriptive, explanatory, or interpretive. It tells a story. It focuses more on the organizing role a narrative itself may have on the biographical events, or historical processes, being studied. It is a mode that focuses more on the subjects than on conceptual models.

4.2.2 Details of case study participants and coding apply

The two cases in this research were selected to provide both theoretical and literal replication. Each of the cases consisted of 20 participants drawn from top level management in the public and the private sectors in Thailand. The successful female leaders contributed a depth of information to this research. Each interview dealt with an individual and was coded appropriately. The number of interviews was limited to 40 because replication was well established and further interviews were not providing additional data. Each interviewee was allocated a code to maintain anonymity for the participants. The initial code represents which sector the interviewer was allocated to. A number was also allocated to show the order of the interviews. Finally, a code representing each of the participants was applied. This is shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Details of case study participants

Sector	Participant Code	Age	Education	Managerial level	Industry/Ministry
Private Code: PV	PV1	50	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Retail trade
	PV2	45	Master Degree	Division Director	Insurance
	PV3	40	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	Educational service
	PV4	46	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Accounting
	PV5	47	Master Degree	Division Director	Health care
	PV6	58	Bachelor Degree	General Manager	Social assistant
	PV7	46	Master Degree	Managing Director	Publisher
	PV8	50	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	International trade
	PV9	50	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Bank & Finance
	PV10	61	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	Educational service
	PV11	50	Master Degree	Division Director	Retail trade
	PV12	45	Master Degree	Managing Director	Business consulting
	PV13	58	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	Educational service
	PV14	43	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	Information technology
	PV15	43	Master Degree	Managing Director	Food and Beverage
	PV16	45	Bachelor Degree	Managing Director	Health-Care
	PV17	47	Master Degree	Managing Director	International Trade
	PV18	47	Doctoral Degree	Managing Director	Information technology
	PV29	55	Bachelor Degree	Managing Director	International trade
	PV20	46	Master Degree	Division Director	Industry
Public Code: PB	PB1	55	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Interior
	PB2	56	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Interior
	PB3	58	Bachelor Degree	Deputy & Director General	Finance
	PB4	52	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Commerce
	PB5	60	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Commerce
	PB6	59	Master Degree	Deputy & Permanent Secretary for Interior	Education
	PB7	56	Master Degree	Deputy & Permanent Secretary for Interior	Finance
	PB8	55	Doctoral Degree	Division Director	Justice
	PB9	49	Master Degree	Division Director	Education
	PB10	51	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Labour
	PB11	58	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Labour
	PB12	58	Doctoral Degree	Division Director	Education
	PB13	52	Master Degree	Division Director	Public Health
	PB14	60	Master Degree	Division Director	Public Health
	PB15	58	Bachelor Degree	Division Director	Public Health
	PB16	59	Master Degree	Division Director	Public Health
	PB17	55	Doctoral Degree	Division Director	Education
	PB18	58	Doctoral Degree	Division Director	Education
	PB29	50	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Justice
	PB20	58	Master Degree	Deputy & Director General	Justice

Sources: Developed for this research

4.3 Profile of participants

As previously discussed in Chapter 3, thematic interviewing strategies and self-assessment questionnaires were applied to collect data. The participants were selected by using the following definition of successful leaders “Those who have been effective in their leadership roles to date and are expected to continue to be successful and they promoted higher in the organisation” (McCauley, 2004). This section provides a profile of the participants in relation to their managerial level, age, education and other details.

4.3.1 Managerial level

Participants were asked to indicate their managerial level. The statistics from this question are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Managerial level of the participants

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Managerial Level	Frequency	Percent	Managerial Level	Frequency	Percent
Division Director	7	35 %	Division Director	11	55 %
General Manager	1	5 %	Deputy & Director General	7	35 %
Managing Director	12	60 %	Deputy & Permanent Secretary for Interior	2	10 %

Source: Developed for this research

In the private sector, the Managing Director was the largest category of participants. The second largest group was Division Director followed by General Manager. In public sector, the Division Directors group was the largest category. The second largest group was Deputy & Director General followed by Deputy & Permanent Secretary for Interior.

4.3.2 Age

The participants were asked to indicate their age and work experience in one of the following three categories: 40-45 years, 46-50 years, and 51-60 years. The results are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Age of the participants

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Age	Frequency	Percent	Age	Frequency	Percent
40-45	6	30%	40-45	0	0%
46-50	10	50%	46-50	1	5%
51-60	4	20%	51-60	19	95%
48.6	Total Average		56.4	Total Average	

Source: Developed for this research

In the private sector, the largest group of participants was between 46 and 50 years of aged (50%), the second largest group consisted of participants who were between the ages of 40 and 45 years (30%), 80% of the participants in these two groups were under the age of 50. As a result, the total average age of participants in the private sector is 48.6 years.

In the public sector, 95% of participants were between 51 and 60 years was aged, the total average age of aged. The total average age of participants in the private sector was 56.4 years. Therefore, participants in the private sector were about 8 years younger than participants in the public sector.

4.3.3 Work Experience

The participants were asked to indicate their years of work experience by selecting one of the three following categories: 15-20 years, 21-25 years, and 26 years plus. The results are shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Work experience of the participants

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Experience	Frequency	Percent	Experience	Frequency	Percent
15-20	5	25%	15-20	0	0%
21-25	8	40%	21-25	3	15%
26-	7	35%	26-	17	85%
24.6	Total Average		31.8	Total Average	

Source: Developed for this research

In the private sector, 40% of the participants had between 21 and 25 years of work experiences, the second largest group consisted of participants who had work experience over 26 years of work experiences (35%), These two groups together consisted of 75% of the total participants in the study. The total average work experience of participants in the private sector is 24.6 years.

In the public sector, 85% of the participants had work experience over 26 years. The total average years of work experience of participants' in the private sector was 31.8 years. It was demonstrating that the majority of the participants in the private sector had 6 years less work experience than participants in the public sector.

4.3.4 Marital Status

Participants were asked to indicate whether they were single or married.

The results are as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Marital status of the participants

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Marital status	Frequency	Percent	Marital status	Frequency	Percent
Single	6	30%	Single	7	35%
Married	14	70%	Married	13	65%

Source: Developed for this research

The majority of participants were married in both the private and the public sector (65%-70%).

4.3.5 Children

Participants were asked about how many children they have. The results are as shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 The number of children of the participants

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Children	Frequency	Percent	Children	Frequency	Percent
0	10	50%	0	7	35%
1	3	15%	1	2	10%
2	6	30%	2	6	30%
3	1	5%	3	2	10%
0.9	Total Average		1.7	Total Average	

Source: Developed for this research

In the private sector, 50% of the participants had no children. Overall, the private sector had the average of one child. In the public sector, 35% of the participants had no children. However, the private sector had approximately two children.

4.3.6 Education

Participants were then asked to indicate their educational level. The results are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 The participants' level of education

Private Sector			Public Sector		
Education	Frequency	Percent	Education	Frequency	Percent
Bachelor Degree	6	30%	Bachelor Degree	4	20%
Master Degree	8	40%	Master Degree	12	60%
Doctoral Degree	6	30%	Doctoral Degree	4	20%

Source: Developed for this research

In both the private and the public sectors, the majority of participants (40-60%) had obtained Master Degree.

In summary, this section presents the characteristic of the female leaders in Thailand that has contributed data for this study. The case is divided into two sectors; the Private Sector (PV) and the Public Sector (PB). Moreover, there is a discussion of the individual participants providing details of managerial level, age, work experience, marital status, number of children, and education of participants.

4.4 Description of the case 1: Research Proposition 1

Research Proposition 1 suggests that the underlying factors such as certain kinds of personality and competencies possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement. Based on the literature reviewed and the collected data, a number of other findings relevant to female leader in both the private and the public sectors in Thailand can made.

This section is divided into six sub-sections relating to the underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thailand. Furthermore, they focused on individual factors such as personality traits, self image, motive, gender role, and competencies.

4.4.1 The key factors for women to reach high positions

To begin considering the underlying factor associated with successful female leaders in Thailand, Participants were asked to identify the key factors for women to reach high positions. The categories were defined by the use of inductive and deductive categories, the key factors were derived by deductive proceeding/ conform to the conceptual framework, and the sub factors were derived by inductive proceedings (from data). Summary of the key factors for women to reach high positions from interviewees in both sectors is presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Summary of the key factors for women to reach high positions in both sectors

Key Factors	Private Sectors		Public Sectors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Individual Factor	20	100%	20	100%
<u>Sub-Factors</u>				
Achievement Drive	11	55%	7	35%
Human Relations	8	40%	4	20%
Competences	7	35%	11	55%
Neat & Careful	6	30%	1	5%
Self Control	4	20%	7	35%
Communication skill	3	15%	1	5%
Integrity	2	10%	3	15%
Organizational Practice	2	10%	4	20%
Thai Social and Culture	2	10%	0	0%

Source: Developed for this research

This table shows that 100% of participants in both the private and the public sectors considered individual factor to be the most influence key factors for women to reach high positions. However, only 10%-20% of the participants believed that organisational practice and Thai social and culture were key factors.

The result emerges from content analysis by inductive proceedings (from data) share some similar individual sub-factors in both the private and the public sectors, but percentage difference. The descriptions of the individual sub-factors also showed in Table 4.9:-

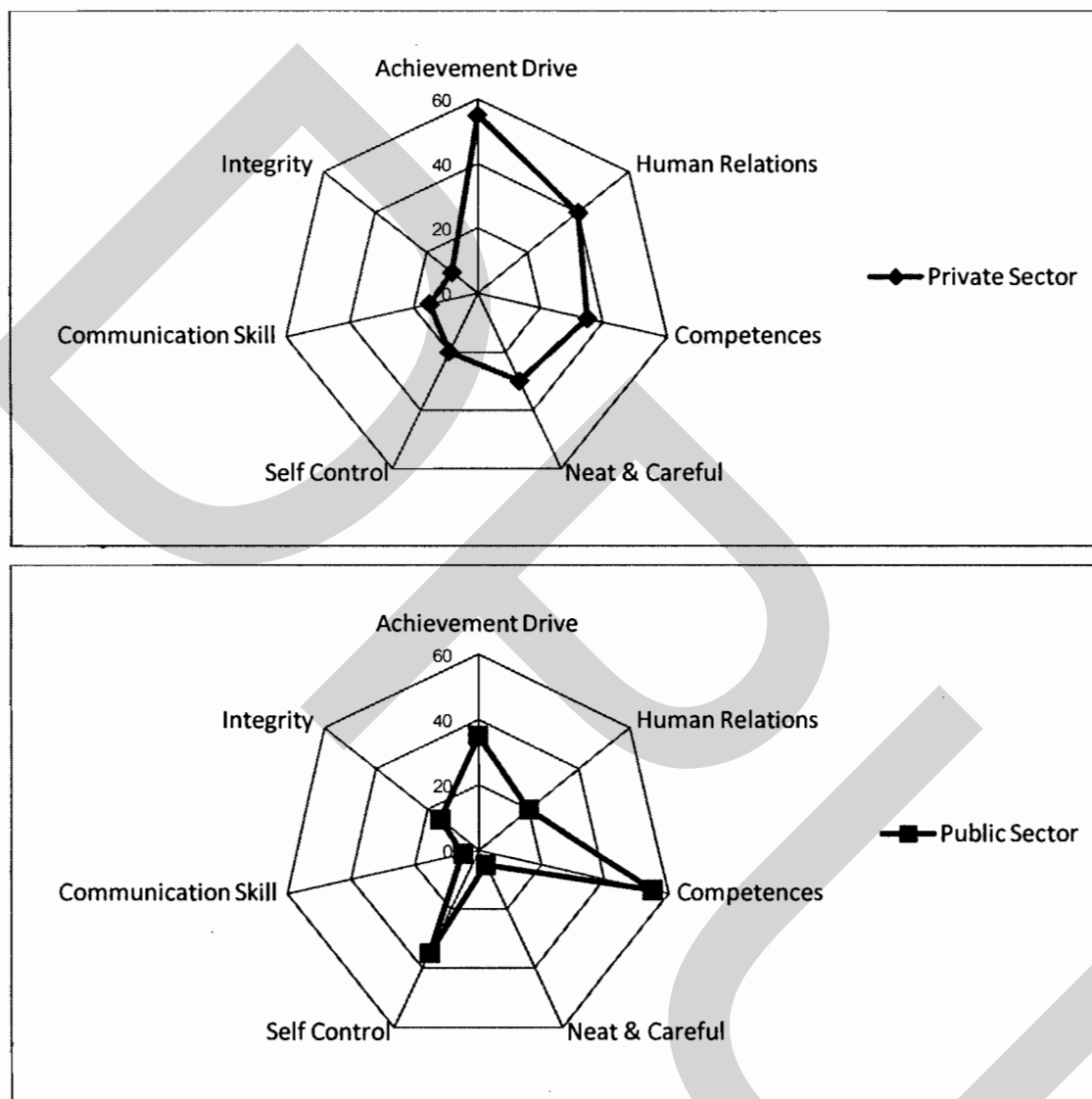
Table 4.9 The descriptions of the individual sub-factors for women to reach high positions

The individual sub-factors	
Achievement Drive	A concern for working well or for competing against a standard of excellence.
Human Relations	Working to build or maintain friendly, warm relationships or networks of contracts with people understand and take care of other people. Negotiation and communication
Neat & Careful	Generalize, and synthesize, to make border, more holistic, more contextual perspective of any issue.
Competences	Knowledge and skill, capable to perform a particular job, ability based on a work task for a job output.
Self Control	The ability to control one's emotions and desires is the capacity of efficient management to the future.
Communication Skill	The skill that facilitate people to communicate effectively with one another.
Integrity	Honest and upright, stand for truth and righteousness at all times.

Source: Developed for this research

According to Table 4.8, the participants indicated similar individual sub-factors but percentage difference in each sector. As a result, the cross case analysis of the individual sub-factors for women to reach high positions in both the private and the public sectors was developed as shown in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4 The cross case analysis of the individual sub-factors for women to reach high positions in both the private and the public sectors



Source: Developed for this research

This substantial impact of the individual sub-factors for women to reach high positions in both the private and the public sectors has a percentage difference.

- *Achievement Drive*: 55 percent of participants in private sector believed Achievement Drive is the most important factor, however only 35 percent of participants in the public sector considered this factor.

- *Human Relations:* 40 percent of female leaders in private sector believed it is important, but only 20 percent of participants in public sector considered this factor.

- *Competences:* On the other hand, 55 percent of female leaders in public sector believed “Competences” is the most important factor, while only 35 percent of female leaders in private sector believed the same factor.

In brief, the finding data revealed that the participants believed that the most influential key factor for women to reach high positions were individual factor. This view was derived consistently from each sectors interviewed. This is inconsistent with the concept of organisational factor and Thai social and culture factors that form the basis of the following propositions. The following sub-section will explore the individual factors such as personality traits, self image, motive, gender role, and competencies for a more appropriate model within the private and the public sectors.

4.4.2 The personality characteristics that made females successful leaders

This section explores the specific personality characteristics that help female successful leaders. In order to determine the characteristics, each participant was asked to complete the personality traits self assessment questionnaire and provide the answer to the interview question “What are the personality characteristics that you feel have made you a successful leader?”

According to a personality traits self assessment questionnaire, Professional Personality Questionnaire (PPQ) is a brief questionnaire measuring five broad scales that are designed to assess the Big Five Factors; Openness to New Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Negative Emotionality. Each Big Five Factors also has three sub-three personality traits as describe in Table 4.9. The PPQ consists of 50 Questions. Each item uses a binary “yes/no” response format and is scored 1/0 in the target direction. The results of female leaders self assessments are shown in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.10 The personality self assessment result of female leaders in the private sector

Big Five Factors	Self Assessment Personality Traits Score							
	Mean Score	Low scores 1-3		Midrange Scores 4-6		High Scores 7-10		
Openness to New Experience	7.45	Preserver		Moderate		Explorer		
		n	-	n	4	n	16	
		%	-	%	20	%	80	
Conscientiousness	6.7	Preserve		Balance		Challenge		
		n	-	n	10	n	10	
		%	-	%	50	%	50	
Extraversion	5.1	Introvert		Ambivert		Extrovert		
		n	4	n	11	n	5	
		%	20	%	55	%	25	
Agreeableness	3.25	Challenger		Negotiator		Avoider		
		n	14	n	6	n	-	
		%	70	%	30	%	-	
Negative Emotionality	2.6	Resistant		Responsive		Receptive		
		n	14	n	6	n	-	
		%	70	%	30	%	-	

Source: Developed for this research

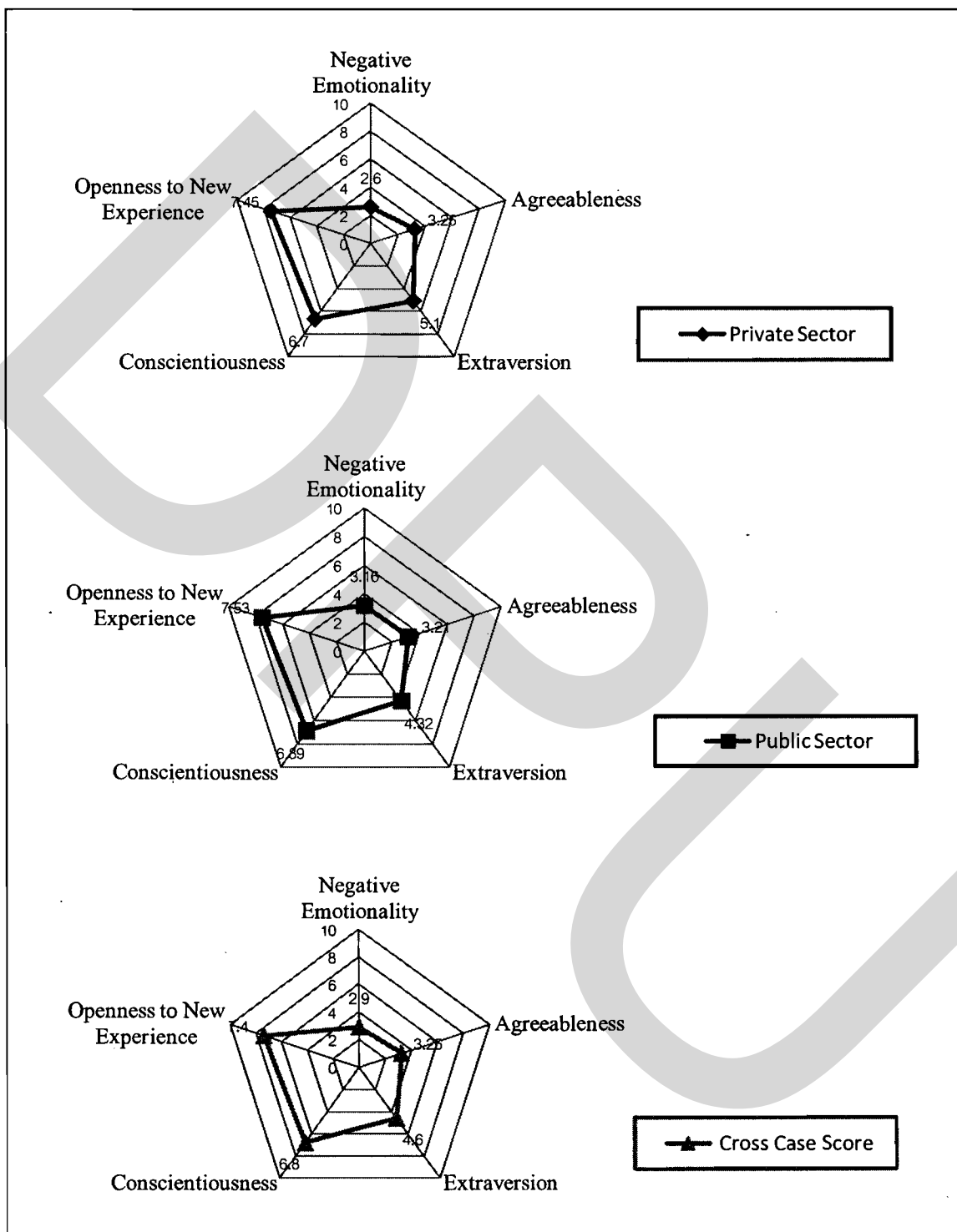
Table 4.11 The personality self assessment result of female leaders in the public sector

Big Five Factors	Self Assessment Personality Traits Score						
	Mean Score	Low scores 1-3		Midrange Scores 4-6		High Scores 7-10	
Openness to New Experience	7.5	Preserver		Moderate		Explorer	
		n	-	n	3	n	17
		%	-	%	15	%	85
Conscientiousness	6.9	Flexible		Balanced		Focused	
		n	2	n	5	n	13
		%	10	%	25	%	65
Extraversion	4.3	Introvert		Ambivert		Extrovert	
		n	6	n	13	n	1
		%	30	%	65	%	5
Agreeableness	3.2	Challenger		Negotiator		Ambler	
		n	10	n	10	n	-
		%	50	%	50	%	-
Negative Emotionality	3.2	Resistant		Responsive		Reactive	
		n	10	n	10	n	-
		%	50	%	50	%	-

Source: Developed for this research

According to Tables 4.10 and 4.11, the female leadership personality profiles show average sample means were very similar in both sectors. Cross case analysis of personality profile of female leaders are illustrated in Figure 4.5.

Figure 4.5 Female leadership profiles cross case analysis



Source: Developed for this research

Female leadership profiles are provided in Figure 4.5, the result shows female leaders in both sectors fall within the “Explorer” (O+, average score 7.4). Furthermore, they are common “Focused” on the goal (C+, average score 6.8). Additionally they are general “Ambivert” (E=, average score 4.6). They can be unyielding and moderate “Negotiator” (A-&A=, average score 3.25) as well. The last personality trait demonstrates female leader are “Resilient” (N-, average score 2.9) that means they are generally clam.

The following section deals with the question “What are the personality characteristics that you feel have made you a successful leader?” At the time of interviews participants in each sector, the results presented in this section were based primarily on the data analysis derived by inductive procedures (from data). It was discovered that participants indicated the same personality traits that they feel made them successful leaders, the six personality traits previously mentioned were Explorer, Focused, Ambivert, Negotiator, Challenger, and Resilient. The results of this section are illustrated in the Tables 4.12 and Table 4.13.

Table 4.12 Summary of the personality characteristics that made females successful leaders in the private sector

Openness to New Experience	Preserver (Conservative, practical, efficient)	Moderate (good managing the tension between innovation and efficiency)	Explorer (curious, imaginative, visionary) n=3/15%
Conscientiousness	Flexible (spontaneous, playful, comfortable with chaos, good at multitasking)	Balanced (keeps work and private demands in balance)	Focused (organised, perfectionist, ambitious) n=1/85%
Extraversion	Introvert (private, reserved, inhibited)	Ambivert (enjoys a balance of solitude and sociability) n=4/20%	Extravert (sociable, enthusiastic, active)
Agreeableness	Challenger (Questioning, competitive, proud) n=7/35%	Negotiator (comfortable holding out for the win-win situation) n=4/20%	Adapter (accepting, good as a team player, serving, helping)
Negative Emotionality	Resilient (Content, controlled, Secure, stress-free) n=5/25%	Responsive (Occasionally bothered by stressful circumstances)	Reactive (tense, alert, anxious)

Source: Developed for this research

Table 4.13 Summary of the personality characteristics that made females successful leaders in the public sector

Openness to New Experiences	Preserver (Conservative, practical, efficient)	Moderate (good managing the tension between innovation and efficiency)	Explorer (curious, dreamer, visionary) n=6/33%
Conscientiousness	Flexible (spontaneous, playful, comfortable with chaos, good at multitasking)	Balanced (keeps work and private demands in balance)	Focused (organised, perfectionist, ambitious) n=3/15%
Extraversion	Introvert (private, reserved, inhibited)	Ambivert (enjoys a balance of solitude and sociability) n=4/20%	Extravert (sociable, enthusiastic, active)
Agreeableness	Challenger (Questioning, competitive, proud) n=3/15%	Negotiator (comfortable holding out for the win-win situation) n=5/25%	Adapter (accepting, good as a team player, serving, helping)
Negative Emotionality	Resilient (Content, controlled, Secure, stress-free) n=8/40%	Responsive (Occasionally bothered by stressful circumstances)	Reactive (tense, alert, anxious)

Source: Developed for this research

Tables 4.12 and 4.13 illustrate the six personality traits, Explorer, Focused, Ambivert, Negotiator, Challenger, and Resilient that make females successful leaders in the both sectors. The meanings of each trait are described in Table 4.14 below:-

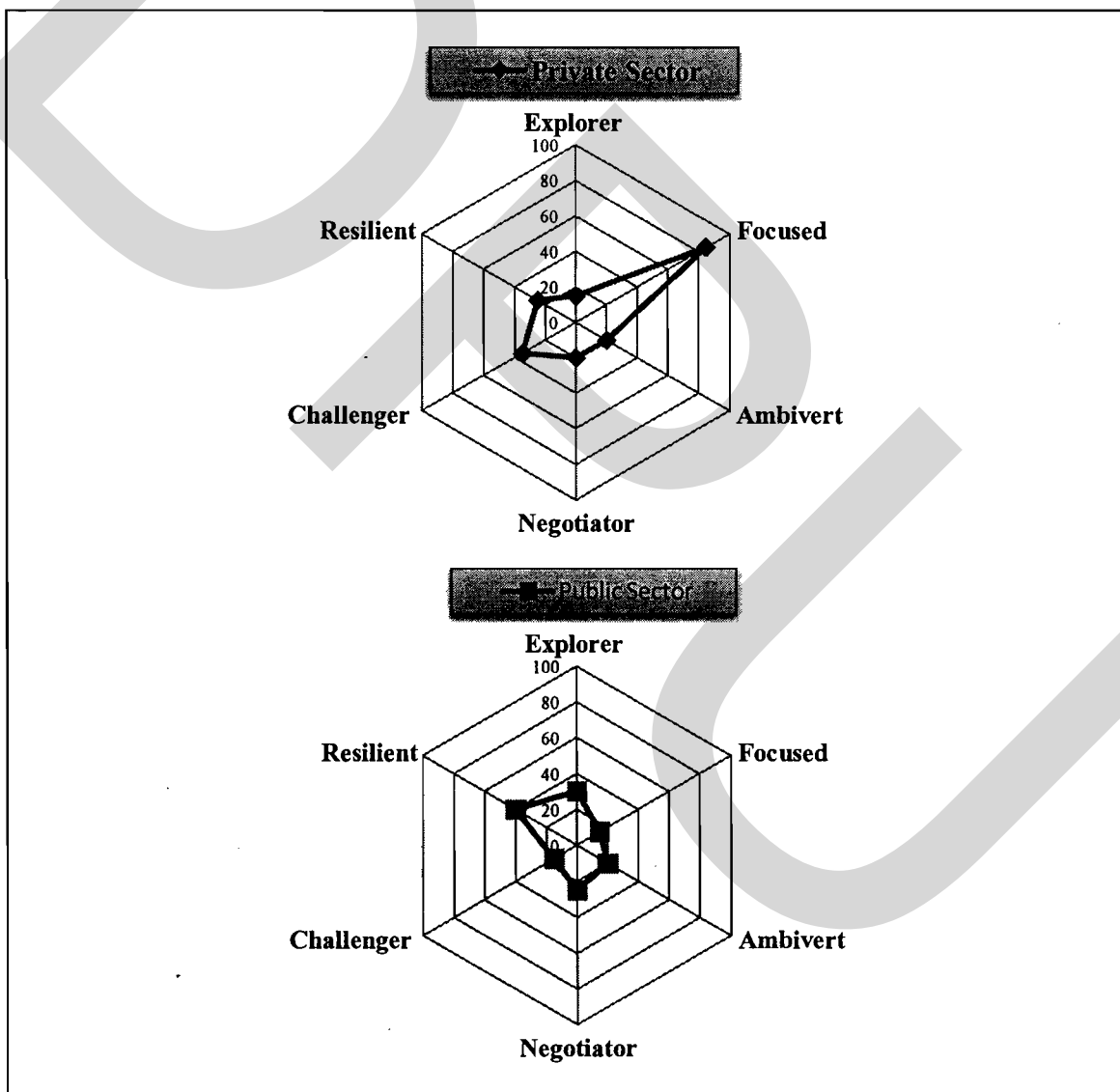
Table 4.14 The description of six personality traits

Personality Traits	Description
Explorer: O+ Curious, dreamer and visionary	Have many broad interests and like to be on the cutting edge of new technology and idea. Enjoy novel methods and new approaches to thinking about things. Prefer trying new things out even when there are accepted ways of doing them. Happy in jobs that exploited these characteristics, when they were allowed to do things their way be generally creative.
Focused: C+ organized, perfectionist, ambitious	A person with very high standards who likes everything to be done properly. Believe that old-fashioned virtues like punctuality, Neatness and regard for rules and regulations are important. Prefer jobs where these qualities can come into play and are rewarded.
Ambivert: E= enjoys a balance of solitude and sociability	Tend to move easily from working with other people to working alone. May come across as an Introvert if co-workers are strong Extraverts or as an Extravert if they are strong Introverts. Sometimes wanting to be with others, sometimes wanting to be alone.
Negotiator: A= comfortable holding out for the win-win situation	Tend to be able to shift between competitive and cooperative situations fairly easily, usually pushing for a win-win strategy. Can work well either as a team member or as an independent. At worst moments, they might be regarded by others as sitting on the fence between opposite views as they try to help both sides to compromise.
Challenger: A- Questioning, competitive, proud	Tend to relate to authority by being skeptical, tough, guarded, persistent, competitive, or aggressive. Independent in their thoughts and ask questions, especially to protect their self-interest and to make sure they win. Able to face unpopularity if it is necessary and some people might regard them as ruthless.
Resilient :N- Content, controlled, Secure, stress-free	Stress-free, guilt-free, and urge-resistant, very attentive, they may appear to others to be too laid back and relaxed; to be uncaring, lethargic, insensitive, or unaware of the seriousness of problems; or to have tunnel vision. Feel happier in jobs where people know what is expected of them, even when this may be very difficult. Many professional positions are of this kind.

Source: Adapted from Howard and Howard, 2001

According to Tables 4.12 and 4.13, the personality characteristics that made females successful leaders in both sectors show the same traits. However the scores show percentage differences. As a result, a cross case analysis of personality profiles of female leaders is illustrated in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 The cross case analysis of personality traits that made females successful leaders in both the private and the public sectors



Source: Developed for this research

This considerable influence of personality traits that made females successful leaders in the private sector demonstrates that "Focused" is the most powerful personality trait; the score confirms 85 percent (that connotes almost all participants in the private sector had the same opinion). While a low percentage of participants (15-35%) indicated other traits: Explorer, Ambivert, Negotiator, Challenger, and Resilient.

The following are typical answers to the question "What are the personality characteristics that you feel have made you a successful leader?", that support "Focused" as an influencing personality trait of successful female leaders in the private sector.

"I tend to work toward my goals, disciplined, and dependable fashion"

"I probably have a strong will to achieve and do so with hard work, good preparation, and much organisation. When I promise to deliver, I do."

"I typically consolidate my time, energy, and resources in pursuit of my goals."

"I get things done, running a company involves having a lot of irons in the fire, and you need to apply discipline to them all to keep the business on tracks."

"I am never giving up, if something does not go right, I try something else."

Additionally, when participants were asked to answer the question "What are the first three words that close friends might use to describe you" or "What people say about you?" The answers showed strong providing the evidence as described below:

"They perceive me as very hard driving, aggressive, demanding; they say I get things done."

"I am perceived to be a workaholic, overly demanding, compulsive, meticulous, or stubborn.

Beyond the use of interviews, a search collecting executive female interviewing documents in magazines and biographies was also conducted in various magazines. A high profile female Executive Vice President for a large private sector Thai company, indicating the following:

"Ambitions and expansive visions are the hallmarks of a great leader. While many people have great ambitions and ideas, only a few make their dreams come true."

In contrast, according to Figure 4.6, in the public sector, 55 percent of the participants indicated that "Resilient" is the personality trait that made them successful leaders. While, a relatively small percentage (15%) of participants mentioned "Focused", while the other four personality traits Explorer, Negotiator, Ambivert and Challenger were at least mentioned.

Some typical answers to the question "What are the personality characteristics that you feel have made you a successful leader?" that support "Resilient" as an influencing personality trait of female leaders in the public sector, include:

"I tend to responded to stressful situations in a calm, secure, steady, and rational way"

"In problem solving, I don't take it personally. I put myself out there in the open and try to understand where the problem is coming from. I try to find the common ground and sweep away the things that are getting in the way"

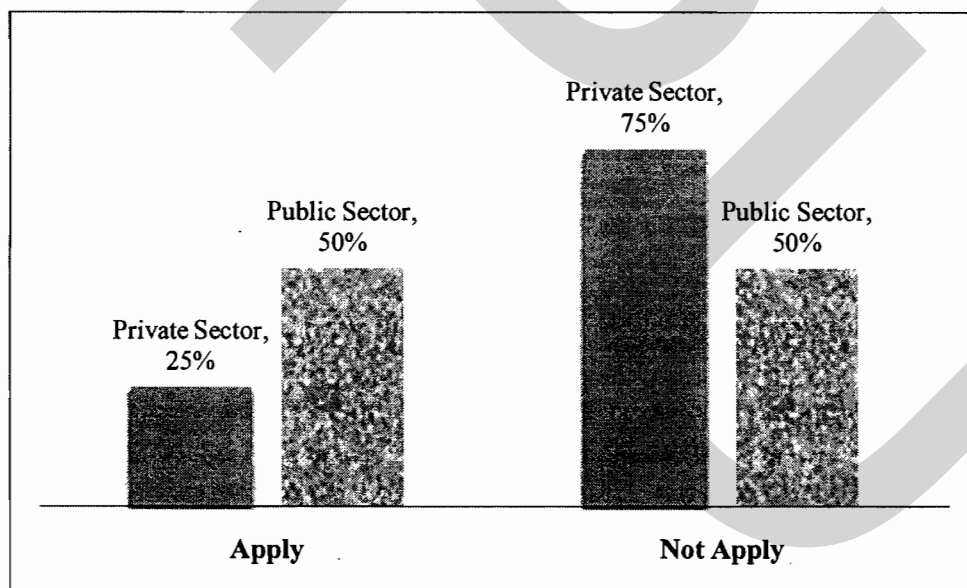
"As problems arise, I move into a problem-solving mode rather rapidly and proceed in a rational analytic way until the problem or the sources of the stress have been handled."

In brief, this section found that the six main personality traits that made females successful leaders are (1) Explorer, (2) Focused, (3) Ambivert, (4) Negotiator, (5) Challenger, and (6) Resilient. However the scores show percentage difference. “Focused” meaning organised, perfectionist, ambitious was the most considered personality trait in the private sector. In contrast, “Resilient” that means content, controlled, secure, stress-free was the most important personality trait in found the public sector.

4.4.3 Female Leader Motive

The aim of this sub-section is to explore female leader motives. Each participant was asked to answer the following two questions “(1) Have you ever applied for any senior positions? (2) Did you apply yourself? Why-why not?” The results of this section are illustrated in Figure 4.7 below:

Figure 4.7 The percentage of female leaders who applied for any senior positions



Source: Developed for this research

The result in Figure 4.7 demonstrates that a small percentage (25%) of participants in the private sector applied for senior positions. While 50 percent of female leaders in the public sector applied for senior positions.

The reasons supporting the different views in each sector, arose during interviews to the question “Why-why not’s”. For example, private sector cases did not attempt to apply for senior positions, as one interviewee described:

“For me, power means coming up with fresh ideas, being an architect and builder rather than just building on an existing managerial position. I think power is the ability to accomplish what you want to accomplish.”

In contrast, during an interview with a female leader in the public sector, it was found that many women who make it to senior management felt a need to prove their superiority. One such view is stated as follows:

“I believe in my experience, knowledge and skill. So, I need to prove my potential for promotion to a higher position and for career advancement. In my opinion, women who lack confidence are likely to avoid potential leadership positions.”

In addition, when each participant was asked to answer the question “Do you have a clear vision and concrete objectives in your life?” All participants from both sectors had clear vision and concrete objectives in their lives. Moreover, they answered similarly mentioning the in three basic motives: (1) power, (2) affiliation, and (3) Achievement Motive (McClelland, 1985) as now described below:

(1) *Power Motive*: the desire to have influence, give orders and have them carried out.

As illustrated in Figure 4.7, only 25 -50 percent of participants from both sectors ever apply for senior positions. The participants said they view power in terms of influence, not position. They indicated that they are trying to find balance in their lives and to make a difference. One such view is stated below:

“Women should not be hard on themselves. They should realise that there are times when things will go smoothly and times when nothing seems to work well, women have to be patient, a good partner and marriage help. I don't have to choose between a career and family anymore. Get my work done and go home. It is okay to go home.

(2) *Affiliation Motive*: a heartfelt interest in helping other.

Participants also focus on family and social affairs. Many participants remained determined to adjust their business life towards social responsibility rather than focus only on business objectives. Moreover, in their leadership position, it is important to be good religious adherents. Many bring this out in the form of the value of meditation. They want employees to feel comfortable as at home, so therefore they also live where they work. Here are some typical answers:

“We are responsible for the world around us, the people around us too. I feel, I am able to develop and nurture the qualities in my own life, and that therefore leadership will be a means to restore values in the different arenas of life.”

“I volunteer for things that are of interest to me. My volunteer project is a charitable work carried out by a network of those who want to provide paths to education and true happiness for people less fortunate than ourselves. I get skill sets for leadership by getting other volunteers to work with me, and it is an extraordinarily difficult task.”

(3) *Achievement Motive*: The need to create and build something of value

Participants focus on themselves and the organisation, where participants listen to employees and take care of them like a big family. Another thing they have in common is that their earlier bosses believed in them and think that they made a great job. The work is their life, where they don't separate work time from spare time. Many aim to develop their companies into self-sustaining enterprises that will provide an important stimulus for national growth and development. One participant who runs her own business provides the following explanation:

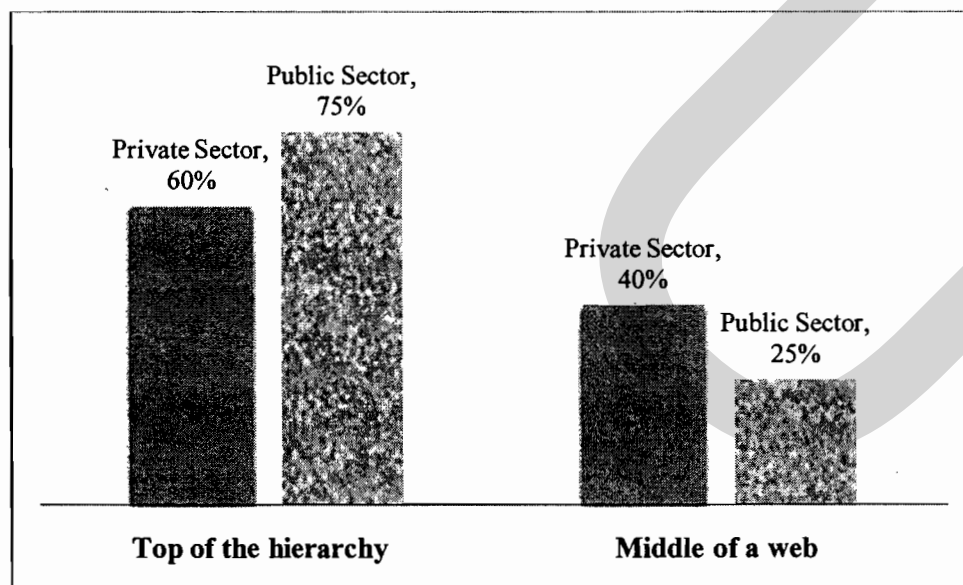
“Today my goal is twofold, First I want my company to become one of the major players in the Business Consulting Service in Thailand, achieving world-class performance, Second, I want to improve my work-life balance, Now my life vision is to be a happy person, I need to have fun in my life, within work and out of it.”

In summary, this sub-section illustrates participants’ motives in both sectors. Deductive data analysis shows participants in both sectors combine of low power motivation, moderate affiliation motivation, and high Achievement Motive.

4.4.4 Female leaders self image

This sub-section looks at female leaders self image. In order to determine this issue, each participant was asked to answer the following question: “Do you see yourself at the top of the hierarchy or in the middle of a web?” A summary of their answers are provided in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.8 The female leaders self image in managerial level.



Source: Developed for this research

According to the Figure 4.8, the findings illustrate some 60 percent of participants in the private sector perceived themselves at the top of the hierarchy. While 75 percent of participants in the public sector perceived themselves at the top of the hierarchy. The idea involving this issue was also discussed by participant in the public sector as follow:

"In the right way, I should be in a higher position. I never use Patron-Client System. Unfortunately, the political impact in the public sector is not transparency and does not put the right man in the right job"

In addition, 40 percent of participants in the private sector perceived themselves in the middle of a web. A number of participants demonstrated that they felt limited by a lack of confidence to see themselves as leaders. One participant in the private sector expressed concern that women often do not feel entitled to be leaders.

"The action people take on their ideas, has a lot to do with their self image, if women think of themselves as someone who can come up with good solutions they'll bring more ideas to the table, and will try to take action on them. On the other hand, if women don't have a good self image, they won't be open to share their ideas, nor to take action on them."

Self image is seen as a factor related to the values of participants themselves. Participants in both sectors want to become associated with feminine leadership. They do not copy a masculine leadership model. They dare to be themselves and learn to guide their own life with the principles and concepts of their own desires. One participant in the private sector indicated the following:

"I would also like to say that I think feminine leadership style is making a difference. I think that women are generally more sustaining and caring, more naturally concerned with justice, equality, and a humane approach. Women have a great deal of compassion and I am quite lucky to be women."

Women whose take leadership roles must stay focused and clear a path for success. They do not waste time being a sufferer when they can realise their own vision of becoming a successful leader.

Furthermore, many participants in both sectors believed that female leaders must be nice, good looking leaders with good manners. A well-dressed personality is another issue that discuss during interview. Moderate dresses draw more positive evaluations than extremely feminine or masculine clothing. Many participants stated the good character performs the roles of female leader.

“In my opinion, women have beauty power that allows women to get certain things based on their physical assets. Women leaders have to take care of themselves to be good looking personality, healthy and nice shape”

In summary, participants in both sectors have a clear idea of what kind of leader they want to be. They have positive self image. Participants' self image determines what they are (Feminine Leadership) and how they perform (Good Looking Personality).

4.4.5 Gender role

This sub-section aims to explore specific strengths and weaknesses of the gender role. During the interview; participants were asked to identify gender-role specific strengths and weaknesses in female leaders. The categories were derived by inductive procedures (from data). Responses to the interview questions are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15 Gender-role specific strengths and weaknesses in female leaders for both sectors

Gender Role	Private sector		Public sector	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Strengths	20	100%	18	90%
Feminine values (caring, compassion, empathy, and non violence)				
Weaknesses	14	70%	20	100%
-Gender-leader role incongruity				

Source: Developed for this research

According to Table 4.15, it is revealed that participants in both sectors indicated gender role specific had the same strengths and weaknesses for female leaders.

The strength of the gender role is "Feminine Values" such as caring, compassion, empathy, and non violence. Many participants felt that being a female had benefited them in their careers. One female leader in the public sector suggested the gender role can be the strength of female leaders as many participants mentioned:

"I believe that understanding gender role difference with regard to behaviour expectations, position within the family, legal rights, public status, education, and types of work; it sometimes can be a source of women's special strength."

"The advantage of the gender role as mother and sister, show women to be more relationship centred, with compassion, empathy and non violence than men, and tend to be more interested than men in the co-operatives, social aspects of their situation. Additionally, good leaders really know where they can shine and excel, and so they position themselves to do whatever that is required more often".

The weakness of the gender role is "Gender-leader role incongruity". Several participants noted this during their interviews. Some of the traditional

conservative beliefs such as a woman's place is in the home raising a family, where women are followers, not leaders, prevented women from participating in public life. Where career interruptions due to family responsibilities. These roles also caused them while trying to fulfil their role in their company. During the interviews some participants agrees with the tradition roles for women in Thai society caused them issues, it was also stated that:

“Many people in Thai culture still see an incongruity between the female gender role and the leader role in any level of social: family, community, and country. This makes it harder for Thai women to attain leadership positions and puts them in an unwelcome spotlight when they do.

“Women assume a leadership style that is gender role incongruent, a stereotypically “masculine” leadership style. They may receive negative evaluations from participants. As a result, women have to work hard to prove outstanding work performance”

In summary, results show the strength of the gender role is 'Feminine Values' such as caring, compassion, empathy, and non violence. The weakness of the gender role is 'Gender-leader role incongruity'. Although women leaders reached the top in a variety of ways, they share one quality in that know what is required to become an effective leader. They do understand that they must play their strengths and manage their weakness to become and effective leaders.

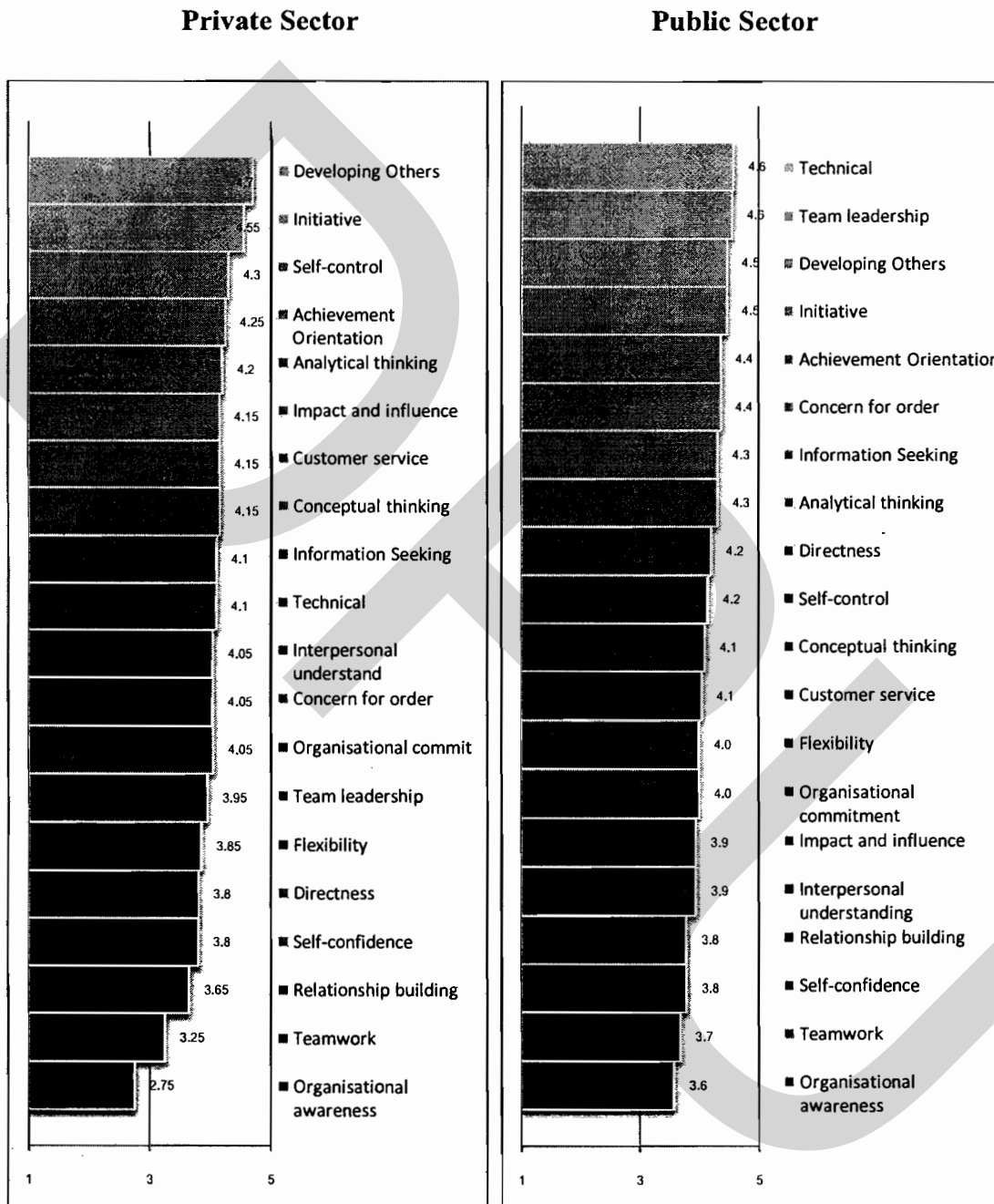
4.4.6 Leadership competencies

This sub-section discusses female leadership competency that is one of the interesting issues in developing talented female leaders. This section aims to identify leadership competency profiles and find the most powerful competencies that made for successful leaders in each sector.

The first task was to identify leadership competency profile for both sectors. To determine this issue, each participant was asked to complete a competency self assessment questionnaire: Behavioural Description Index (BDI), based on the

generic competencies of Spencer and Spencer (1993). It consists of 20 questions of 20 competencies. Participants were asked to rate how well a statement described them on a five point scale ranging from 'very well' to 'not at all'. Additionally, participants were asked to confirm this competency profile by answering two interview questions: "What part of this job comes easiest to you?", and "Tell me about an experience in the last year or two that you would consider a high point, something you were able to do of which you are proud." The summaries of the competency profiles are shown in Figure 4.9:

Figure 4.9 Competency self assessment result: Female leader competency profiles in the private and the public sectors



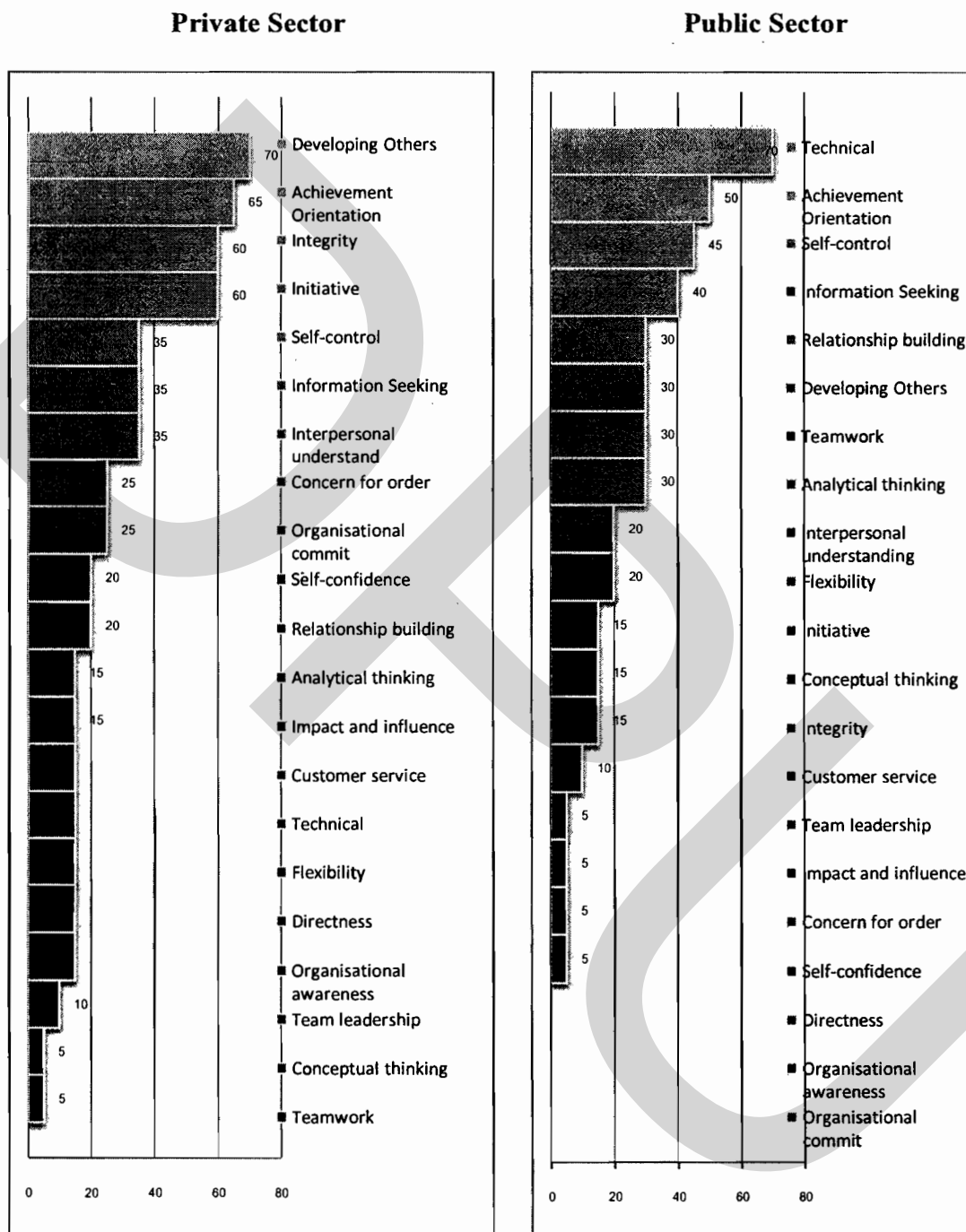
Source: Developed for this research

As Figure 4.9 indicates, participants in the public and the private sectors share a leadership competency profile across sectors. It demonstrates that the top three

competencies are Developing Others, Initiative, and Achievement Orientation. While the bottom three competencies are Relationship Building, Teamwork and Organizational Awareness. Although Technical competency and Team leadership competency are the two uppermost competencies found in the public sector, these two competencies are located only in the midpoint of the female leader competency profile in the private sector.

The second purpose of this section is to identify the most powerful competencies that made females to be successful leaders. Participants were asked to answer the competency thematic interview questions; "What are the competencies that you feel have made you a successful leader? The result is shown in Figure 4.10.

Figure 4.10 The competencies that make females successful leaders



Source: Developed for this research

As shown in Figure 4.10 the results were derived by inductive procedures (from data). Within this area, the competencies that identify females as successful leaders show different competencies for participant in both sectors. The integrity

competency emerges from an inductive analysis in both sectors. Especially in the private sector, integrity competency is one of the most important competencies that make participants successful leaders. The following quotes represent some of the strong feelings held by these participants about walking in integrity, as stated below:

"I think integrity is too important to be taken so lightly, so is being considerate of commitments made to people. I was known for my honesty and integrity, and the other people trusted me. Whatever I try to do to someone else, I do to myself."

"I believe that the qualities of leadership are integrity and honesty. I am going to deal fairly with people, no trickery. If people are not going to keep faith with the best, then they don't have any business being in this business."

Although, results show only a small percentage (5%) of participants in the public sector indicated "integrity" as a competency to make them successful as female leaders, it does not mean that participants in the public sector do not have "integrity" competency. When asked the question "What part of this job is most difficult for you? Tell me about an experience in the last year or two that you would consider a low point, something you did that did not go as well as you would have liked." many presented strong feelings about the abuse of power. They cannot use illegal power in a bad, dishonest or harmful way. As one participant stated:

"I think the part of job that is most difficult for me is a work policy that takes advantage for the organisation rather than others, and works for an immoral leader. Corruption in my view is a chronic reality, with leaders being perceived as seeking personal advantage rather than possessing genuine concern for others."

According to Figure 4.10, the most influential competencies that make females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors are the top four competencies in each sector. The top four competencies in the private sector are Developing Others, Achievement Orientation, Integrity, and Imitative. Whereas the

top four competencies in the public sector are Technical/ Managerial Expertise, Achievement Orientation, Self Control, and last is Information Seeking. The cross case analysis of competency that make participants successful leaders in each sector is illustrated in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 The most influence competencies that make females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors

Private sector			Public sector		
Competency	Description	%	Competency	Description	%
<i>Developing Others</i>	The intent is to teach or to foster the development of one or several other people	70	<i>Technical /managerial expertise</i>	Expands and uses technical knowledge, Enjoys technical work; shares expertise	70
<i>Achievement Orientation</i>	A concern for working well or for competing against a standard of excellence.	65	<i>Achievement Orientation</i>	A concern for working well or for competing against a standard of excellence.	50
<i>Integrity</i>	Behaves in an honest, fair and ethical manner; shows consistency in words and actions; models high standards of ethics. (http://www.tsa.gov/assets/)	60	<i>Self Control</i>	The ability to keep emotions under control and to restrain negative actions when face with opposition from others, or working under conditions of stress.	45
<i>Initiative</i>	Doing more than is required or expected in the job, doing things that no one has requested, which will enhance job results and avoid problems or creation new opportunities.	60	<i>Information seeking</i>	An underlying curiosity, a desire to know more about things, people, or issues drives information seeking.	40

Source: Developed for this research

As Table 4.16 illustrates, the most influential competencies making females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors are not the same, the only exception is “Achievement Orientation” which placed very high on both lists in both sectors. Some typical answers to support “Achievement Orientation” as an influential competency for female leaders in the private sector:

“I want to do the job well and work toward an implicit standard of excellent”

“I work hard, focus on the task, and improve performance.”

“I like to set challenging goals, when I start working the goal is 100 % of target and when I finish the task it is to achieve 200% of the maximum target”

“For me, it not only works to meet others’ standards. I like to create my own measure of excellent. If others can do it, I have to do it better”

Similarly, participants in the public sector also mentioned this competency in the same meaning. This group explained:

“I am able to accomplish any tasks without obstacle.”

“I am hard working, tolerant, and dedicated to my goal, to achieve the target with excellent quality.”

In this sub-section, participants in the public and the private sectors share female leadership competency profiles in the top three competencies: Developing Others, Initiative, and Achievement Orientation. The bottom three competencies are Relationship Building, Teamwork and Organizational Awareness. However, the most influential competencies that make females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors are not the same, other than Achievement Orientation.

In summary, this section presented data relating to Research Proposition 1. Data from the two sectors reveal that the underlying factors associated with successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence, and leader advancement. Evidence shows that the most influential key factors for women to reach high positions are individual factors. This idea is supported by opinions from participants in both sectors. Results show they have similar personality profiles but the most important personality factor that makes them successful leaders is different. "Focused" is the most considered personality trait in the private sector; while "Resilient" is the most considered personality trait in the public sector. They also possess positive self images as Feminine Leadership and Good Looking Personality. They also combine low power motivation, high affiliation motivation, and high Achievement Motive. The strength of the gender role is 'Feminine Values' and the weakness is 'Gender-leader role incongruity'. Concerning participants' competencies, both groups share a competency profile in the top three competencies. The interesting finding is Achievement Orientation is the most influential competency that makes females successful leaders in both sectors.

4.5 Description of the cases 2: Research Proposition 2

Research Proposition 2 seeks to gain an understanding of gender based organisation practice influencing female leadership development. From interviews and data collection, a number of findings have emerged. There is an understanding how this conditions affects successful females in gaining leading positions in both private and public sectors. This section is derived into the following five sub-sections: (1) gender based organisational practice, (2) development program, (3) gender discrimination, (4) gender stereotype, and (5) main barriers.

4.5.1 Understanding gender based organisational practice

Understanding gender based organisational practice is important to promote female leaders' development in both private and public sectors. Participants were therefore asked to consider what supported them in their careers. The results were established by inductive procedures (from data) as described in Table 4.17.

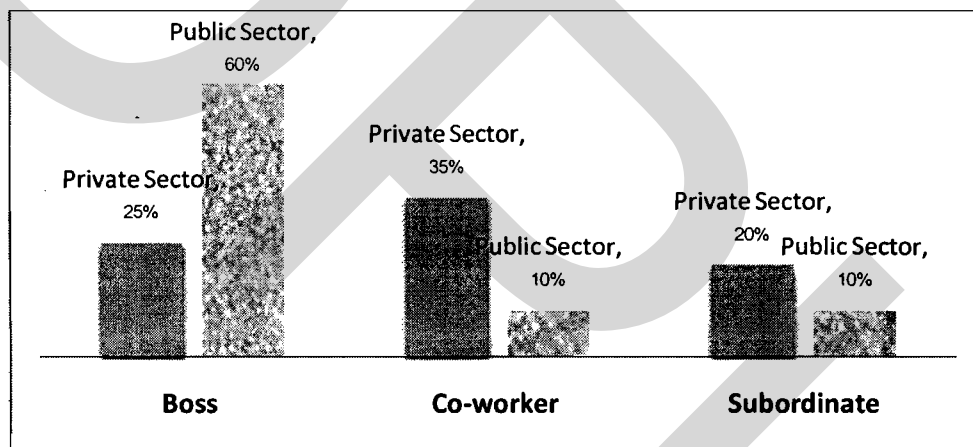
Table 4.17 The percentage of organisational practice supportive factors

Organisational Practice Support	Private sector		Public sector	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Colleague	16	80%	16	80%
<u>Sub-Groups</u>				
-Boss	5	25%	12	60%
-Co-worker	7	35%	2	10%
-Subordinate	4	20%	2	10%
Organisational Practice	4	20%	4	20%
<u>Sub-Factors</u>				
-Culture	2	10%	-	-
-System	2	10%	4	20%

Source: Developed for this research

As shown in Table 4.17, the majority of participants (80%) in both sectors believed they were supported by their colleagues. On the other hand, only 20 percent of participants considered organisational practice supported them in their career. Although they believed they had support of their colleagues there is a percentage difference in sub-groups of colleagues. The cross case analysis shows significant difference in the following scores in boss, co-worker, and subordinate, supporting them. As illustrated in Figure 4.11.

Figure 4.11 The percentages of colleague's subgroups that supported female leaders in their career in each sector



Source: Developed for this research

According to Figure 4.11, although participants in the private sector considered each subgroup to be evenly supportive, 35 percent of participants mentioned co-worker to be an important support as stated below:

"I got a very good team that made company growth until now, I develop people, team work, encourage and understanding each other make work is fun"

However, the data reveal that 60 percent of female leaders in the public sector considered their bosses were an influence person who supported them in their career. One comment that pointed up this from participants' experience is:

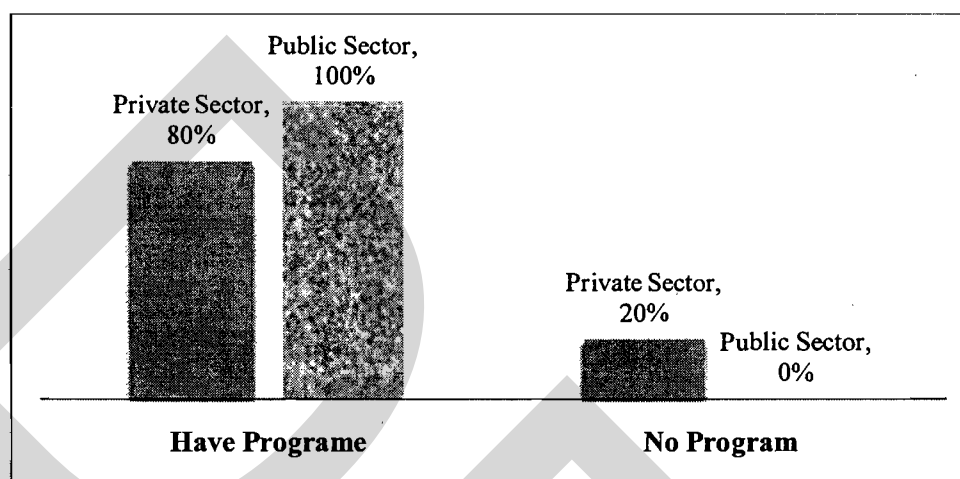
“Political issues are accepted as the most influence factors for a government official. Once a new Government transforms, the policy is change. Government officials have to transform any project, change the project name, change target groups to meet the policy of a minister. As a result, superior officer supportive is very important for government officials”

In brief, the participants from both sectors believe they had support from their colleagues. But they hold different opinions; participants in the private sector believe boss, co-worker, and subordinates were equally important in a good team. By contrast, there appears to be negative attitudes concerning political issues in the public sector, where the boss is the most influential supporting factor.

4.5.2 Development Program

This sub-section reviews on female leadership development programs. The participants were asked the following question during their personal interviews: “What formal development programs, training programs, etc., provided by this or other organisations, supported your leadership development?” The results are illustrated in Figure 4.12.

Figure 4.12 The percentages of development programs supported leadership development in both sectors



Source: Developed for this research

Results shown in Figure 4.12, illustrates that participants in both sectors have development programs supporting leadership development. Most of the female leaders interviewed attended some kind of leadership development training, often short courses, from a wide mix of organisational internal and external sources, and mix gender programs. As a participant in public sector stated:

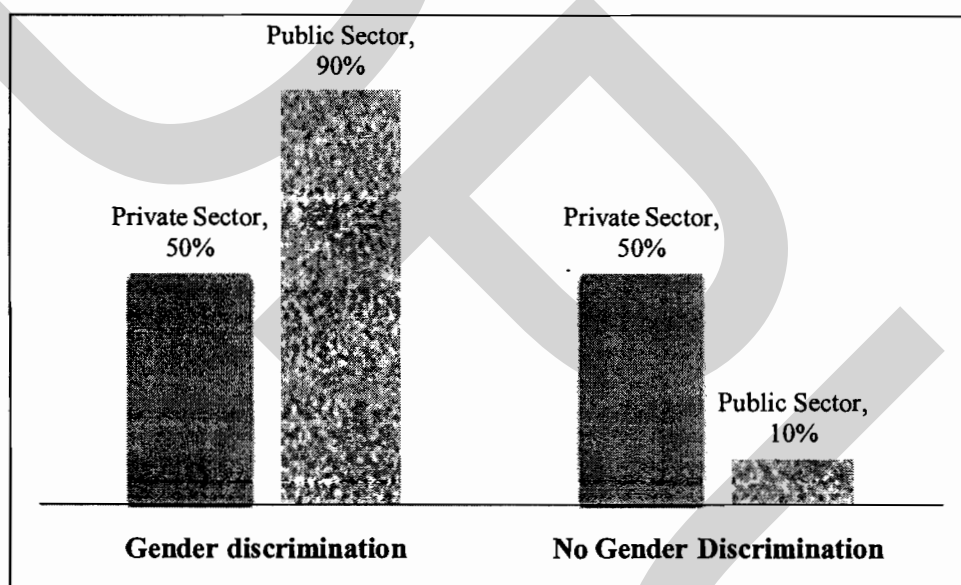
“The leadership development programmes were arranged by the office of the Civil Service Commission. It is a standard program for everyone promoted to a senior position. Unfortunately, there is a difference in the way men and women typically develop. Styles differ and needs differ in developing that raw material into a leadership style.”

This information leads to the conclusion that typical leadership skills are already dealt with in mainstream programs. However, a number of participants highlighted a lack of specific management training, skills training, professional development, decision making skills and mentorship programs, which support women being effective leaders.

4.5.3 Gender Discrimination

This sub-section aims to explore the type of gender discrimination faced by participants in their workplace. The participants were asked to answer the question “Have you ever experienced or felt any disregard or any kind of discrimination from your employees/ co-workers because of your sex?” the finding is illustrated in Figure 4.13.

Figure 4.13 The percentages of Gender Discrimination in the private and the public sectors



Source: Developed for this research

As illustrated in this figure, gender discrimination typically occurs more often in public than private sector. Specifically, 90% of the participants in the public sector had experienced some form of discrimination from their colleagues. In the private sector, 50 percent of participants also experienced discrimination.

Participants in the public sector also indicated that they experienced discrimination in the promotion process, where some participants reported they felt they had to outperform men to receive the same rewards, the words below is a direct quotation from one participant :

“Routinely discriminates against me by holding me to different standards than the men. My performance reviews are always worse than male counterparts with similar or less skills and performance.”

At the same time, participants in the private sector also experienced discrimination, when questioned about their competence, one participant mentioned:

“In roles that have been held mainly by men, my competence is often questioned. In these situations, I face a double standard. I have to be extra-competent to be recognized as effective. If I am more common, this type of bias is less likely to be happening.”

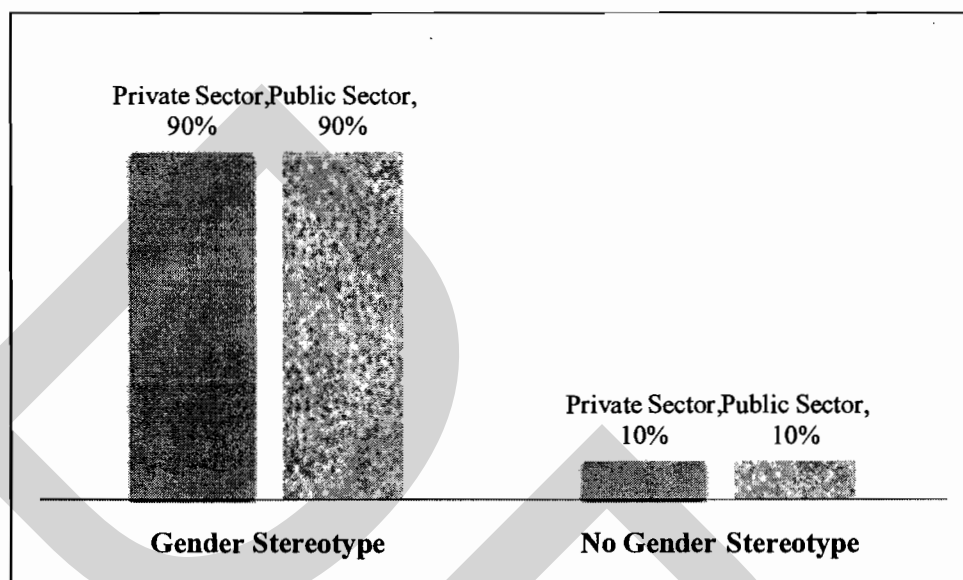
“When I start my own business: a consulting company, clients usually asked me: did you do the job yourself, do you have any male consultants?”

This sub-section illustrates that participants experienced different gender discrimination, in the promotion process and were frequently questioned of their competence. Although women leaders showed high outstanding performance, women still perceived themselves as being treated differently to men in both sectors. Consequently, leadership succession is still a traumatic event in both sectors.

4.5.4 Gender Stereotype

This sub-sector discusses gender stereotype, the interviewing process asked participants whether they believed that stereotypes of men and women exist in Thai culture. The results were derived by inductive procedures (from data) as described in Figure 4.14.

Figure 4.14: Gender stereotype



Source: Developed for this research

As Figure 4.14 indicates that, almost all participants (90%) in both sectors felt that there are stereotypes of men and women exist in Thai culture. Many participants considered gender stereotype is not taken to mean gender equality by Thai culture acceptance. This is shown in the quotation from a participant:

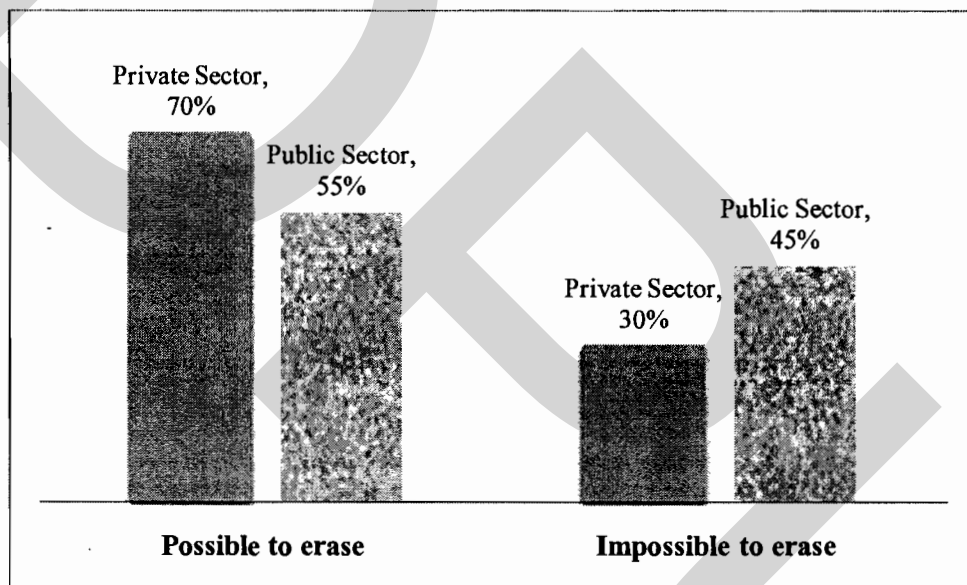
“Thai society adopted multi-cultural identity that roots deeply in Thai citizen. The stereotypes were accepted by society. Laws, religions, made unfair discrimination against women.”

Thai culture stereotypes Thai women in more nurturing and caring roles. These stereotypes adversely affect woman when they seek in leadership advancement. In Thai culture, women are expected to be neat and polite. If they are willing to challenge male dominated careers, they are condemned by colleagues, as one participant stated:

“When I act assertively, focus on the task at hand, display ambition, and strive for achievement, my behaviour can be judged as too tough and unfeminine. My male colleagues dislike me, then, they call me a bitch.”

In addition, participants were also asked: “Do you think it is possible to erase them?” the result shown in the Figure 4.15.

Figure 4.15: The percentage of possibility to erase gender stereotype by sectors



Source: Developed for this research

This data reveals that 70 percent of participants in the private sector believed that gender stereotype is possible to eliminate as compared to 55 percent of participants in public sectors. The biggest obstacle to overcome is the belief that Thai men are leaders while women are followers. This stereotype is especially true with older generations. However, some participants in both sectors suggested the way to erase gender stereotype might use the same techniques, as shown in the following quotation:

“Erasing gender stereotypes in the workplace have been made gradually. Women could gain skill and knowledge for their economic and career advancement. Furthermore, women do not really need special care. What we need is an even playing field. If we are given the same opportunities, we can compete openly with men. If men give extra care, they have admitted that women are in need of protection and attention, and that's the very source of inequality.”

“It's not what women can do that matters. It's what women do that makes all the difference. Women in leadership today believe strongly in themselves. We know we accomplish anything we set our mind to.”

In summary, this sub-section found that almost all participants in both sectors believed that gender stereotypes still persist in Thai culture and continue to influence women in leadership advancement. Moreover, some participants in both sectors also believe that gender stereotype is possible to erase gradually by women themselves.

4.5.5 Main Barriers

The aim of this sub-section is to identify real or perceived barriers for female leaders as they progress progression in the private and the public sectors. To achieve this objective, participants were asked to put forward ideas about what they consider to be the main barriers for female leaders to reach higher positions. The barriers were defined by the use of inductive and deductive means. Key factors were derived by deductive proceeding/ conform to the conceptual framework, and the sub-factors were derived by inductive proceedings (from data). Responses to interview questions are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 The percentage of key factors that participants consider as the main barriers by sectors

Key Factors	Private Sectors		Public Sectors	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Individual Factor	18	90%	11	55%
Sub Factors				
Indecisive Decision Making	6	30%	6	30%
Being Fussy	6	30%	4	20%
Quick Tempered	6	30%	1	5%
Thin-Skinned	6	30%	2	10%
Female Physical	7	35%	2	15%
Gender Role	6	30%	0	0%
Organisational Practice	2	12%	5	25%
-Gender stereotype; Think-leader-think-male, Gender discrimination				
Thai Social and Culture	4	20%	7	35%
- Patriarchy (father-rule)				

Source: Developed for this research

This table shows that majority of participants (90%) in the private sector considered individual factors to be the most influence key factor as the main barriers required for women to reach high positions, whereas 55 % of participants in the public sector considered this factor. The results emerge from a content analysis by inductive procedures (from data), share some similarity of individual sub-factors in both the private and the public sectors. The rising sub-factors are Indecisive Decision Making, Being Fussy, Quick Tempered, Thin-Skinned, Female Physical, and Gender Role. Typical answers to support this idea of participants in both sectors:

"Many people believe that women are unstable, emotional, fussy, and quick tempered. Stigma is attached to women as emotional beings and not logical

thinkers, protecting them from getting exposed to decision-making situations, looks like a main barrier that prevent women from progressing to leadership position and acceptance from counterparts.”

Organisational Practice factors were considered by 12% of participants in the private sector, and 25% in public sector. Participants felt that gender stereotype or “think-leader-think-male” was the main barrier. As one participant in the public sector mentioned:

“In the public sector, the decision making power is in the authority of the male boss, because there are more men than women in high level management. Then, think leader think male stereotype was a strongly held belief among males. There tends to be mistrust about the transparency of systems for promotion and opportunity. It tends to happen for expediency or there is a view that ‘Politician support or political network’ not for work performance.”

Another female leader in public sector identified indicated that corruption or the “good old boy systems” was another constraint to woman advancement:

“The level of corruption in the country is another constraint as people lobby their way into leadership positions. These positions are male-dominated, making it difficult for women to thrive or access.”

There seems to be different organisational practices in both sectors. Participants in the private sectors didn’t believe the same as participants in the public sector. They believed they can reach the top of the organisational hierarchy because of their work performance. Especially, equal opportunities in multinational company are more existent. One participant who works for a multinational company stated:

“I work in a multinational company. It practices equal opportunities for women as well as men. For me gender issue is not a problem. Both women and men have strengths and weaknesses. Then women have to find out our strengths then use it

to achieve high performance, and don't let weaknesses be an obstacle. My colleagues didn't consider me as a woman or a man. They considered me as Managing Director, in regard to my performance”

Thai social and culture factors were considered by 20 percent of participants in the private sector, and 35 percent in the public sector. Nowadays there is the rise of more female leaders in different areas, especially in the private sector. Unfortunately, there has not been an equal increase in women's participation at leadership levels in both sector, owing to patriarchy and male dominance. As a result, participants felt that patriarchy culture is the main barrier as one participant mentioned during her interview:

“Thai culture believes that women are “hind legs” of organisations and have been expected to follow the leadership of men. Although there is a robust public policy framework and legislation, as well as an increasing presence of women in leadership roles in numerous sectors; there is not yet practical equality between men and women. As a result, legislation to promote gender equality for women remains very difficult to achieve.”

“Patriarchy (father-rule) in Thailand has a long history. There are many evidences showing that patriarchy leads to gender inequality affecting women. Because of male dominant culture, men are also jealous to see strong women attained to the top level”.

On the other hand, participants in the private sector had a positive attitude to Thai social and culture. Such as this opinion:

“Nowadays, in the social world as well as in Thai, there seem to be more opportunities for women in the workplace, in many ways top leadership opportunities for women are increasing.”

This sub-section, the data found that individual factors are the most influential barriers preventing women from advancing in leadership position. This view was derived consistently from the private and public sectors however there were percentage differences. In the private sector individual factors are the main barrier for women. However, organisational practice is not considered as a main barrier in the private sector. On the other hand, in the public sector, although the individual is most considered, other factors also consider as well.

In summary, this section focuses on gender based organisation practice. It consists of the following five sub-sections:

- (1) Gender based organisational practice;
- (2) Development program;
- (3) Gender discrimination;
- (4) Gender stereotype;
- (5) Main barriers.

The majority of participants from both sectors believed they had support from their colleagues. Results show a lack of specific development programs for women as effective leaders. Participants from both sectors also experienced different gender discrimination, in the promotion process as well as men question their competences. While gender stereotypes still persist in Thai culture and continue to influence women in leadership advancement. The interesting data reveals that individual factors are the most influential main barriers to women progression in leadership position.

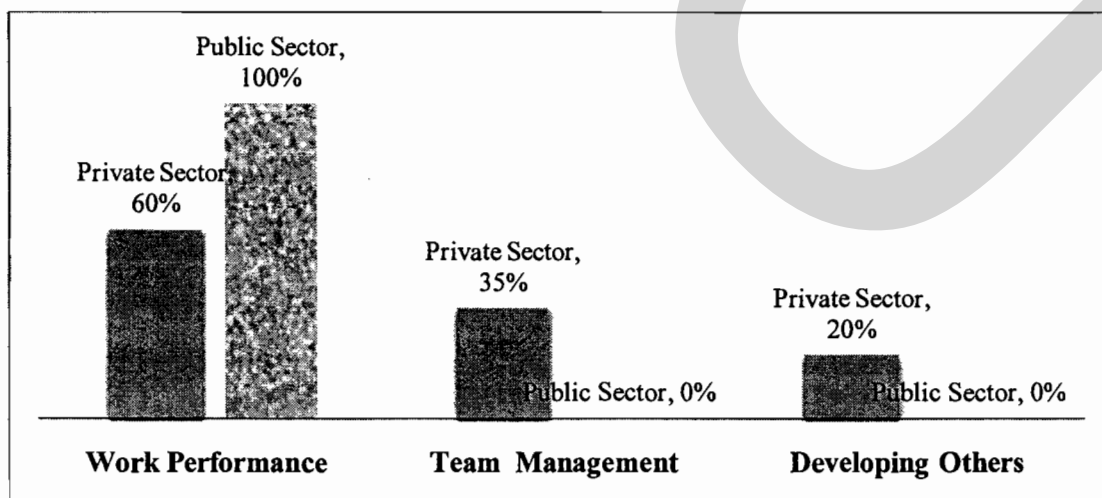
4.6 Description of the cases 3: Research Proposition 3

Research Proposition 3 evaluates the type of female leadership strategies present in Thai culture. Successful female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders within a gender-based organisational practice. From interviews and data collection, a number of findings have emerged. There is an understanding how these conditions affects successful females in leading positions in both the private and the public sectors. This section is divided in to three parts, personal powers, relationship behaviours, and supportive factors.

4.6.1 Personal Powers

To begin considering the personal powers associated with successful female leaders in Thailand, participants were asked to answer the interview question “What have you performed or done as an individual to reach your present position?” The categories were derived by inductive procedures (from data) into three categories, work performance, team management, and developing others. The responses to the interview questions are presented in Figure 4.16.

Figure 4.16 The percentage of personal powers of participants perform to reach high position by sectors



Source: Developed for this research

According to results in Figure 4.16, responses to this question were substantially different when comparing in both sectors. Participants in the private sector employed all three strategies: work performance, team management, and developing others to reach their present position. In contrast, all the participants (100%) in the public sector reached their present position based on only one strategy: work performance. Additionally, the results show that work performance is the key factor that participants in both sectors considered as the actual strategy used. As one participant in the private sector stated:

“People want to be guided by those they respect. For me, it is very important to make employees respect me for my work performance, not just as a business owner. Make them respect that I have more supplementary knowledge and skill. Especially, I do the right thing based on moral grounds.”

The second strategy is team management. It was determined that 35% of the private sector and 0% of the public sector used this strategy to reach a leadership position. It was interesting that participants in the public sector did not mention this. As many participants stated:

“Teamwork is obviously a high priority; I want to work with energetic employees, who take initiative, in a positive working environment. I provide a sense of participation and let my staff be informed of the whole task even though each of them is responsible for only part of it.”

“Internal communications create a harmonious workplace to bring out the best in my people, maintain high morale and encourage the team to innovate while helping them stay positive in tough times.”

In regards to the final strategy, developing others, 20% of the participants in the private sector utilise this strategy to reach a leadership position while participants in the public sector did not utilize this strategy. As one participant in the private sector stated:

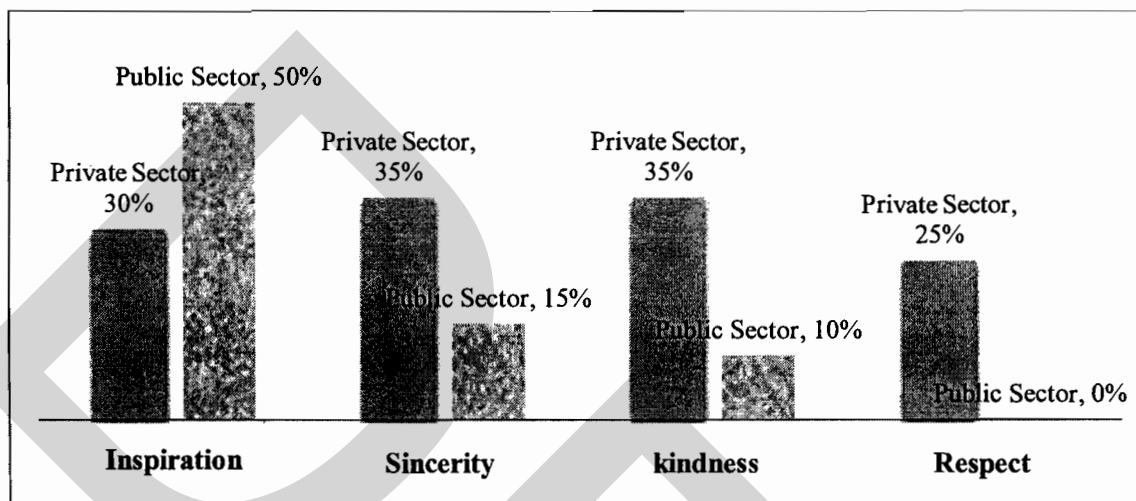
“I like to develop and train my human resources to have knowledge and skill at all levels. I give people vision and then get them energised to figure out how they can best use their talents to reach that vision, My special strength is to bring people together and persuade them to do things differently from what they have done before while making them feel they are part of something greater than themselves”

It can be concluded that participants in the private sector utilized work performance, team management, and developing other as strategies to reach their present positions. Whereas, participants in the public sector utilized only work performance. This means that team management and developing other only work in the private sector.

4.6.2 Relationship behaviours

This part aims to find the relationship behaviours of participants in achieving a leadership role. They were asked to answer the interview question “What relationships with others have helped you advance and develop professionally?” The relationships behaviours were derived by inductive procedure (from data) in four categories, Inspiration, Sincerity, Kindness, and Respect. The response to the interview questions are presented in Figure 4.17.

Figure 4.17 The percentage of relationship behaviours of participants as leader by sectors



Source: Developed for this research

Figure 4.1 illustrates considerably different results for each sector. Participants in the private sector used all four relationship behaviours: Inspiration, Sincerity, Kindness, and Respect. The result also showed similar score. However, the participant in the public sector only used three relationship behaviours: Inspiration, Sincerity, and Kindness. Additionally, 50 percent of participants in the public sector identified Inspiration as the relationship behaviour used. The other relationship behaviours were smaller amounts (10-15%).

The first relationship behaviour identified as Inspiration was used by 30 percent of participants in the private sector, and 50 percent of participants in the public sector. Quotations about Inspiration relationship behaviour from both sectors are:-

"I am very empathic and caring. I try to focus on the positive aspects of someone's skills and personality and use that as a motivating force."

"I am collaborative, inclusive, passionate, and communicative. I believe in leading with heart. The rational side needs to be present, but a leader needs to

inspire. The difference between management and leadership is that a manager oversees the different functions that keep business healthy, while leaders move others to follow them. We need to nurture each other within the company the same way we expect our teachers to nurture children."

The second relationship behaviour is Sincerity employed by 35 percent of participants in the private sector, and 15 percent of participants in the public sector use this relationship style. One participant from the private sectors state about Sincerity relationship behaviour:-

"I speak truly about my own feelings, thoughts, and desires, won't lie to people or disguise my emotions and significant direct relationships"

Alternately, Sincerity does not a relationship style for participants in the public sector. A participant in the public sector commented:-

"I have a strong direct relationship with others, sincerity is a great virtue However, and my field experience tells me there's a direct relationship may not be appropriate in the public sector"

The third relationship behaviour is kindness. Data analysis showed that 35 percent of participants in the private sector, and 10 percent of participants in the public sector considered this approach. Participants use kindness to motivate their employees, recognize unique talents while nurturing all employees and establish a supportive and productive work environment. Quotations about Kindness relationship styles from both sectors include:

"I practice kindness in my everyday work. I like to communicate with my people, trying to figure out what makes a person tick and how to make a person perform better. I will lead people in such a way that we not only achieve the needed results but I do it through the kindness of my heart."

The final relationship behaviour is Respect. The data shows that some 25 percent of participants in the private sector used this type of relationship style. It is an interesting finding, since no participants in the public sector considered. Quotations about respect relationship behaviour from the private sector:

"I get the very best person for each job, so I usually have a group of people whom I trust and who trust each other. Then I have to make sure they all see the same vision and generate their enthusiasm and feeling that this is something they want to be a part of it"

"Giving respect to employees is one of the most important aspects of relationship. Employees must be encouraged to make suggestions for improvement. Management should listen to staff's opinions and accept constructive criticism. This follows the leaders" strategy is a matter of the past."

"I believe in other power. When I look at my staff, figure out their strengths and appreciate them. People have both strengths and weaknesses, and they feel good when other sees their strengths."

In addition to the use of interviews, a search was conducted to collect magazines and biographies of executive females. One well known female leader, who is an Executive Vice President of big company, gave her idea as:

"Leaders should turn the hierarchy upside down and hold open discussion with employees who give valuable feedback. They must remove boundaries and listen to people who actually do the work."

This section showed that relationship behaviours of participants can be categorised into four relationship behaviours: Inspiration, Sincerity, Kindness, and Respect. Participants in the private sector indicate using all relationship behaviours as their leadership strategy. On the other hand, participants in the public sector adopted

only three relationship behaviours: Inspiration, Sincerity, and Kindness. The Respect relationship behaviour is not mentioned in the public sector.

4.6.3 The role of home, education and social environment

This part sought to find the supportive role of home, education and social environment for women when developing into a leader. During their interview, participants in both sectors were asked to answer the interview question “What is the role of home, education and social environment in growing to be a leader?” Data analysis was derived by inductive procedures (from data) is presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19 The percentage contribution of the supportive role of home, education and social environment by sector

Factors	Private Sector		Public Sector	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Supportive Family	16	80%	16	80%
<i>Sub-factors</i>				
- <i>Supportive Husband</i>	11	55%	12	60%
- <i>Supportive Parents</i>	8	40%	4	20%
Supportive Education	18	90%	14	70%
Supportive Social	10	50%	5	25%

Source: Developed for this research

Table 4.19 reveals interesting findings. The interviews revealed that major groups of participants (70-90%) in both sectors believed that supportive family and supportive education are extremely important for women to grow in leadership positions. Additionally, 25-50 percent believed that a supportive social environment is an important factor.

The first factor: Supportive Family

From interviewing data, the majority of participants (80%) in both sectors indicated that having a supportive husband and supportive parents were strongly influential factors. One such view is:-

“Balancing motherhood and a demanding job has been a challenge. It helps to have a very supportive husband who does not expect me to cook every day. My children are independent. They know which problems they can take care of themselves and which they should bring to me. On the weekends we would do everything together, and that keep me involved in my life”

Participants' childhood and family life mostly imply collectivistic thoughts, where the family is very important. They have supportive parents (both father and mother) and equal treatment with their male siblings.

“I have good relationship with my parents. Family gives me a background, some kind of a value platform. My parents provide me a good education. My mother is my role model. She was a great leader. She told me how important it was to do that which is right. She focused on instilling in me the belief that I should always strive for excellence. She was a woman of grace.”

The second factor: Supportive Education

The interviewees indicated that female leaders' educational levels and backgrounds have the greatest influence on their development. Most participant leaders have obtained high educational levels, high positions and strong academic backgrounds. However, they understand that “knowledge is only potential power”, and that “action is true power.” Here are some participant suggestions:-

“It is important to develop technical skills such as computer competence and English, because those skills open up different paths in getting to the top.”

“Education is important, but mostly it is about making people believe in you, and that comes from your showing love and patience toward their problems.”

“Women must learn and put that knowledge into practice. Every day brings new lessons. It makes a lot of sense to learn from masters and periodically practice.”

The third factor: Supportive Social

This factor is the least considered by the participants. In fact, many participants considered the social factor as a barrier more than support. Participants faced the most resistance to their leadership and influence in roles that are male-dominated and characterized as masculine.

“Thai social should become normal to perceive women holding leadership roles. The significant transform in women’s access to leadership positions over the past few decades are essential, but still inadequate.”

The data revealed found that participants believed supportive family and supportive education are extremely important for women to grow in leadership positions. In contrast, social factor seem to be more of a barrier rather than beneficial.

In summary, this section presented the data relating to Research Proposition 3. The findings reveal how Thai culture influences female leadership strategies. This section was divided into three parts, leader powers, relationships behaviours, and supportive factors. Participants in the private sector utilized work performance, team management, and developing others as leadership strategies to reach their leadership positions. While participants in the public sector employed only work performance. The female leaders’ relationship behaviours were summarised in four behaviours, Inspiration, Sincerity, Kindness, and Respect. Participants in the private sector used all relationship behaviours as their leadership strategy. On the other hand, participants in the public sector adopted only three relationship behaviours, Inspiration, Sincerity, and Kindness. Additionally, supportive family and supportive education are extremely important for females to achieve leadership positions. While social aspects seem to be a barrier.

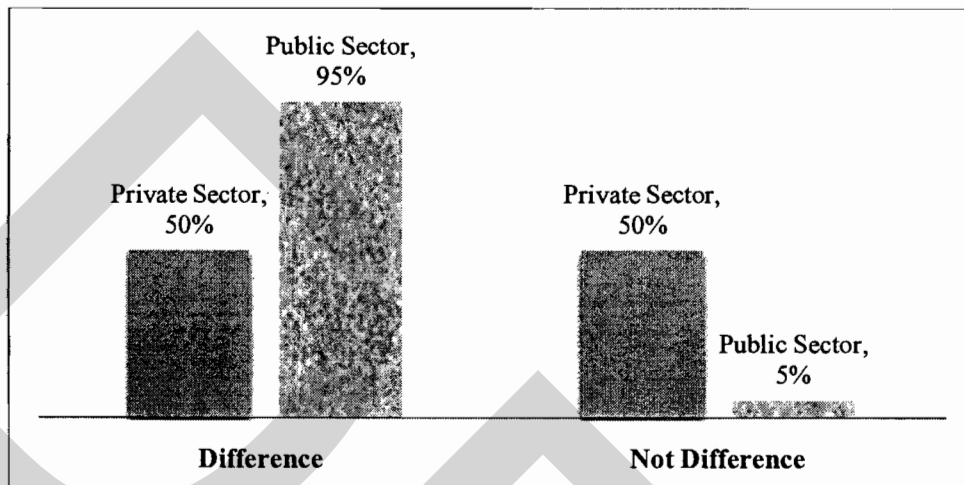
4.7 Description of the cases 4: Research Proposition 4

The aims of this research proposition were to identify the underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society and how they can be matched with an ideal type of leadership profile, because no real- life leaders perfectly match the ideal type. When female leaders have a profile that is off-target, the way that they compensate becomes interesting. In order to determine this issue, the interview question asked participants to identify the behavioural difference between successful female leaders and male leaders in Thailand. Additionally, participants were asked to answer the question “Do you think there are leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles?”

4.7.1 Behavioural difference between successful female leaders and male leaders in Thailand

The differences between successful female and male leaders lie in the optional aspects of behaviour, because all managers have to carry out basic tasks required by their roles. Participants were, therefore, asked to consider what the behavioural difference between successful female leaders and male leaders. The results were derived by inductive procedures (from data) as described in Figure 4.18.

Figure 4.18 The percentage of behavioural differences between successful female leaders and male leaders by sectors



Source: Developed for this research

According to Figure 4.18, the interesting finding demonstrate almost all participants (95%) in the public sector felt that women are better leaders than men because women find it easier to discuss and take care of other people. The interesting finding is the traditional picture of the roles of the sexes in society. Another interesting finding is participants' focus on relations meaning that this is what women are especially good at; maybe this is a general characteristic for women in leadership. Participants, who hold opinions that there is a behaviour difference between successful female and male leaders, as follows:

"I think that women bring different leadership behaviours because they have been socialised differently. People get personalities that are conditioned by how they grew up. Female still take care of things in the workplace that need taking care of. This does not mean that women are more caring, less hierarchical, or more cooperative when they get into positions of power. What really matters is having numerical balance and giving women power and opportunity."

"I feel women do extremely well in producing. They are better able to organise and nurture people. Women rise to the top level because of their performance, and work harder than males"

Additionally, 50 percent of participants in the private sector supported this opinion as mentioned:

"I believe women are more talented at relationships and perceived shades of gray and look at issues from different viewpoints. Men are adjusted toward power and making quick decisions. They come to the negotiating table in full battle armour. Woman's nature is not aggressive, rude or abrupt."

On the other hand, 50 percent of the participants in the private sector believed there is no behaviour difference between successful female and male leaders. One participant explained a theme also felt by others of this group:

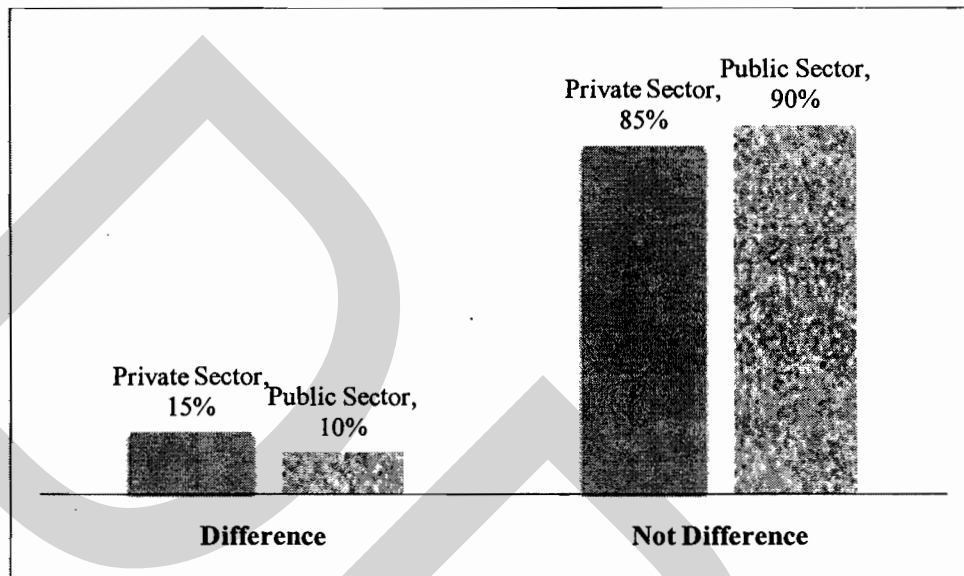
"I don't really believe that men and women manage differently.... People might expect women to be more sensitive so they see what they expect to see. As female bosses, Women can be as tough as men, and well, as sensitive as women. I saw no difference in behaviour and the ability to lead and get the job done."

In brief, the majority of participants (90%) in the public sector believed that female leaders showed good leadership behaviour and work harder than male leaders, while 50% of female leaders in the private sector believe there are no differences in behaviour to lead and execute by both genders.

4.7.2 Female leadership Profile & Ideal Type Difference

This part considers the issue of Female Leadership Profile and Ideal Type Difference. During interviewing, participants were asked to give their ideas about leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles. The finding emerged shown in Figure 4.19.

Figure 4.19 Leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles



Source: Developed for this research

As shown in the Figure 4.19, the majority of participants (90%) in both sectors believed there are no leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles. This is summarised as follows:

“I don’t think gender has anything to do with it. Some people are just better at certain things than others. Male or female, Thai, Asian, American, etc, if you have confidence, good upbringing, a sufficient education, and are dedicated to be a life time learner, and have emotional intelligence, you have a better chance of being an effective boss and leader”

The traditional picture of the role of women taking care of the household and the children, compared to today’s picture where women have other work and the same chance for education and leaders’ positions as men, evolved as a natural development. As a result, participants from both sectors strongly believed that there are no differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles.

In summary, this section found that the majority of participants believed female leaders are subjected to higher standards than men, good leader relationship behaviour, and have to work harder to have others accept the same level of competence as their male peers. While, there are no difference in leading execution. Additionally, participant in both sectors strongly believed that there are no differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles.

4.8 Conclusions

This chapter has provided an analysis of data collected from the private and the public sectors in Thailand. The case analysis strategy adopted a general analytic strategy relying on theoretical propositions and applying three specific analytic techniques for analysing this case study: pattern-matching, explanation building and cross case synthesis. It provided a profile of research participants including their gender, age and education and analysed the research propositions in forms of quotations, descriptions, tables and figures to ensure a multi-faceted approach. The quotations contained the direct thoughts of participants, derived from extensive interviewing. The descriptions drew relevant data from documentation and applied archival record methods to provide a picture of the scenes observed by the researcher. The tables and figures exhibited relevant data through graphic presentations.

The interviewees were located in two sectors; the Private Sector (PV) and the Public Sector (PB). There were a total of 40 participants, including 20 executive female leaders in the private sector and 20 executive female leaders in the public sector.

Inductive and deductive data analyses were used to find answers to the four research propositions. The interesting findings demonstrated the individual factor be the most influential key factors for women to reach high positions. At the same time, the individual factor is the most influential barriers to hinder women's progression.

Participants in both sectors possess the same personality profiles but the most important personality that makes them successful leaders is different. They also have the same competency profiles, while Achievement Orientation competency is the

most influential competency that makes females successful leaders in both sectors. Additionally, the results illustrate that female leaders in both sectors have a positive self image. They have the combination of low power motivation, high affiliation motivation, and high Achievement Motive. They all believed that the strength of gender role is 'Feminine Values' and the weakness is 'Gender-leader role incongruity'.

The finding on gender based organisation practice shows the majority of participants from both sectors believed they have the support of their colleagues. However, there was lack of specific development programs for them. Gender discrimination and gender stereotype still persist in Thai culture.

The findings reveal leadership strategies, where participants in the private sector utilised work performance, team management, and developing others as the leadership strategies. While participants in the public sector employed only work performance as the leadership strategy. Participants in the private sector used Inspiration, Sincerity, Kindness, and Respect as their leadership strategy, while participants in the public sector adopted only three relationship styles, Inspiration, Sincerity, and Kindness. Additionally, supportive family and supportive education are found to be extremely important for them.

Finally, the majority of participants believed female leaders possess good leader relationship behaviour, and have to work harder than their male peers. But there is no difference in leading execution. It is strongly believed that there are no differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles.

In brief, this chapter raises interesting findings supplied by within case analysis and cross case analysis method. Additionally, participants provided valuable suggestions for females to attain leadership position necessary in the implementation phase. The next chapter will seek to derive conclusions from cross case conclusion methods to modify theory and suggest implementation recommendations. The issues involved the female leadership model, linking leadership personalities to competencies, the factors that influence development of females in leadership, female leadership strategies, and benchmarking ideal profiles of leadership.

CHAPTER 5

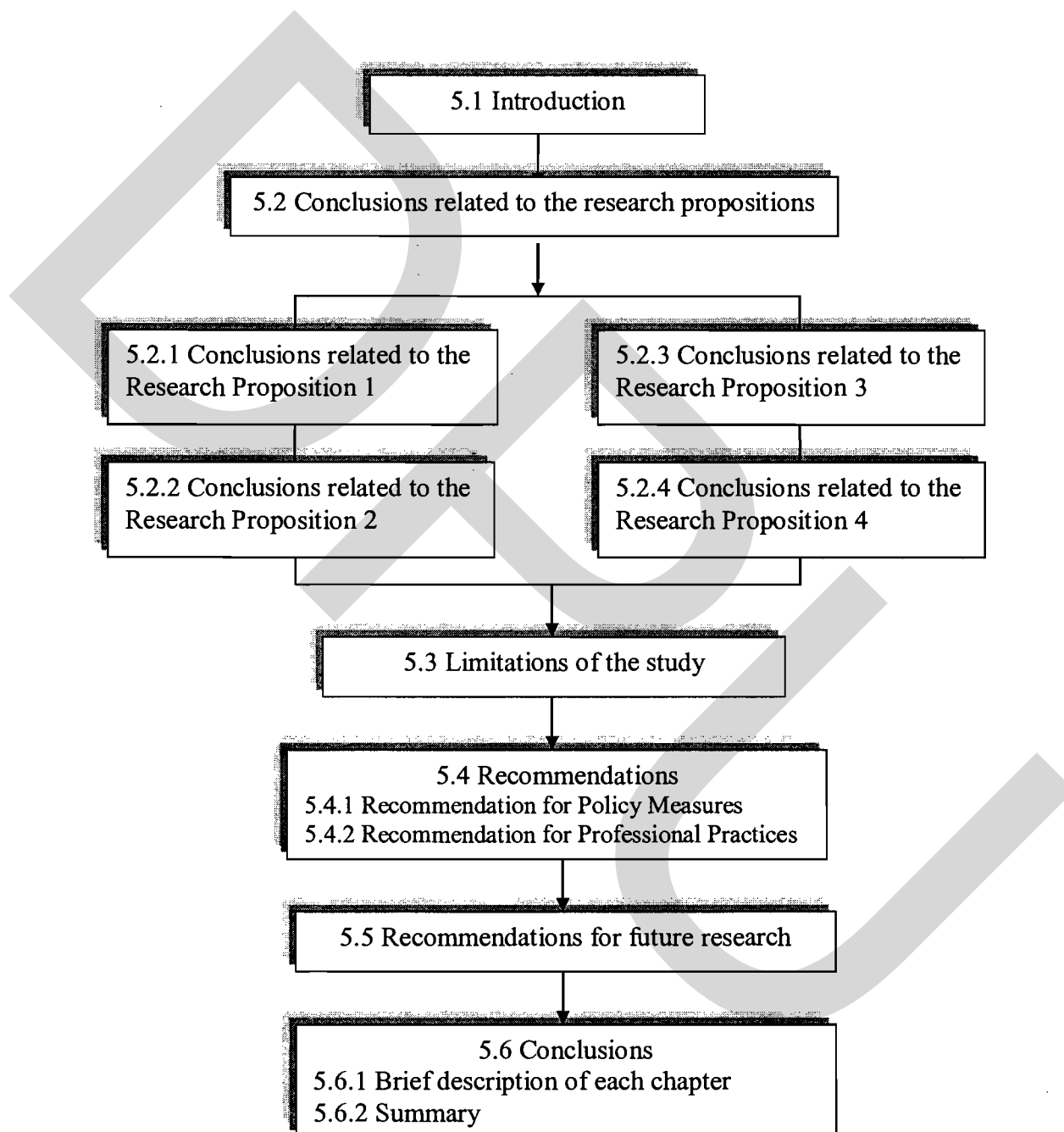
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The previous Chapter 4 set out the key findings obtained from the case study and an analysis of the data was presented. In this chapter, the conclusion of the study will be discussed in relation to the previous literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

The chapter is presented in six sections. First, the structural map of the chapter sections is outlined to provide a guide for the reader (Section 5.1). The conclusions will deal with the finding in relation to the four research propositions (Section 5.2). The third section will discuss the limitations of the study (Section 5.3). Section four presents recommendations for policy measures, professional practice and implementation (Section 5.4). The chapter then moves on to discuss suggestions for further possible future research (Section 5.5). Finally, the chapter concludes with a brief description of each chapter and a research summary (Section 5.6). This structure is outlined in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Outline of Chapter 5 with section numbers and their inter-relationships



Source: Developed for this research

5.2 Conclusion related to the research propositions

This section presents the findings derived from the four research propositions presented in Chapter 4 and compares them with the literature review discussed in Chapter 2.

This thesis aims to achieve four research objectives; (1) to build a model for successful female leadership that is appropriate for both the private and the public sectors; (2) to examine the factors influencing the development of females in leadership; (3) to examine the strategies for becoming effective leaders that successful female leaders use break through gender-biases in the workplace; and (4) to examine and compare successful gender and female leadership globally, which is considered the final product of the thesis.

To achieve the research objectives, the four established research propositions tested by means of the data analysis procedures discussed in Chapter 3. The following sub-sections discuss the conclusions drawn concerning each proposition. The study findings will agree with, reject, or amend previous literature on the subject to be discussed with appropriate explanations accounting for any divergence to previous writings.

5.2.1 Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 1

Research Proposition 1: *“That the underlying factors such as certain kinds of personality and competencies possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement ”*

The literature review section in Chapter 2 confirmed that the two underlying factors were requisite for females to become successful leaders:-

- (1) Female Leadership Talents: Are hidden and difficult to change (example: personality traits, motive and attitude); and
2. Female Leadership Competencies: Are easy to see and are easy to change through leadership development.

These conditions appear to be under the control of each individual. A combination of the above two requisites seems to be required to improve the productivity of the organisation. Female leaders need to assess their talents and competencies, so that the most qualified and interested women put themselves forward for promotion to higher positions (Marie Col et al., 2001) (see Section 2.7.1.1 in Chapter 2).

According to the data analysis section in Chapter 4, the interesting result emerges that the individual factors are the most influential key factors for women to reach high positions; while, at the same time, they are also the most influential principal barriers preventing women progressing to leadership positions.

All participants in both the private and the public sectors considered individual factors to be the most influential key factors required for women to reach high positions. (see Table 4.9, page 177 and Figure 4.4, page 179). Additionally, the large majority of participants (90%) in the private and more than half (55%) of participants in the public sector considered individual factors as the most influential main barriers preventing women reaching high positions (see Table 4.18, page 216). The results share some similar individual sub-factors, as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 The individual factors as both influential key factors and main barriers affecting females striving to reach high positions.

Female Leadership Individual Factors	
Influential Key Supportive Factors	Influential Main Barriers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement Drive • Human Relation • Competence • Neat & Careful • Self Control • Communication skill • Integrity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indecisive Decision Making • Being Fussy • Quick Tempered • Thin-Skinned • Female Physical • Gender Role

Source: Developed for this research

Table 5.1 illustrates the cross case conclusion of the individual sub-factors as supportive factors and main barriers for women to reach high positions in both the private and the public sectors. They consist of (1) achievement drive, (2) human relation, (2) competence, (4) neat & careful, (5) self control, (6) communication skill and (7) integrity. It was determined that the achievement drive is the most important factor in the private sector, whereas the competence is the most important factor in the public sector. The results from the data analysis in Chapter 4 found that main barriers include (1) indecisive decision making, (2) being fussy, (3) quick tempered, (4) thin-skinned, (5) female physical, and (6) gender role.

5.2.1.1 The Female Leadership Personality Model

To build a model for successful female leadership appropriate for both the private and the public sectors in Thailand, the relationships of Parent Disciplines I, II, and III, provide individual factors of female leaders. This review commences with leadership theories linked to personality traits and competencies that relate to female leadership. The Theoretical Framework 2 in Chapter 2 provides the personality traits defined as inborn talent that relate to this study as an individual factor of female leadership. There are many personality and leadership studies. Unfortunately, they do not directly address female leadership; especially when considering the Thai cultural environment (see Section 2.7.1.1 in Chapter 2).

Human personality traits may be important factors in discovering the characteristics of female as a successful leader. The personality attributes of the female leaders' study was undertaken to identify the following two factors:

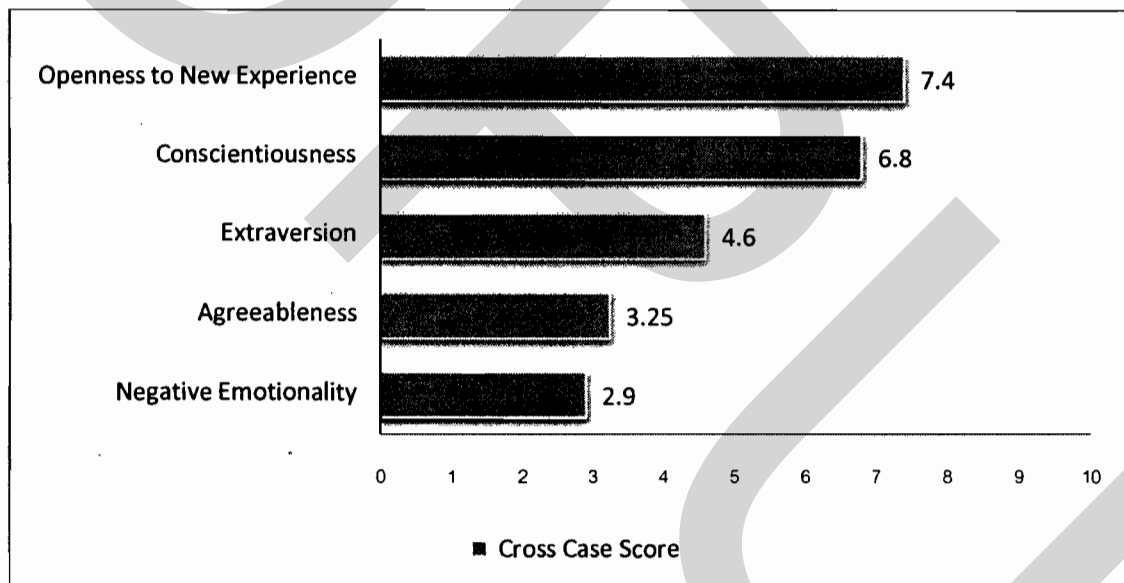
- (1) Whether female leaders possess common qualities that distinguish them in Thailand; and
- (2) To identify personality traits of these females to create a leadership personality profile (see Section 2.7.1.1 in Chapter 2).

The personality research suggests that an individual's core personality is formed early in the life of an individual and once acquired is rather immutable (Srivastava, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2003). Hogan et al.,(1994) posited that personality predicts leadership—who we are is how we lead—and this information can be used to select future leaders or improve the performance of current

incumbents. Personality is also predictive of emergent leadership - that is, early identification of leadership potential. Generally, it has been demonstrated that, in terms of the Five-Factor Model of personality traits (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994).

Through the personality traits self assessment analysis of the data collected in Chapter 4, the results of the Thai female leadership Five Factor Model personality profiles show that average sample means were quite similar in both the private and the public sectors. It seems that certain personality trait improve female's chances for leadership. The cross case conclusion of Thai female leaders personality model is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Thai female leadership personality model: cross case conclusion



Source: Developed for this research

The Thai female leadership personality model demonstrates a high score in openness to new experience (O+). This means Thai female leaders fall within the "Explorer" trait. The model also shows greater conscientiousness(C+) meaning that female leaders are commonly "Focused" on the goal. The results show average scores in extraversion (E=). This means they are in generally "Ambivert". Additionally, they are moderate on the factor Agreeableness (A=). This refers to

“Negotiator” as well. The final factor, registers a low in negative emotionality (N-). This demonstrates that female leaders are “Resilient”.

(1) High Openness to new experience (O+)

The Openness to the new experience factor is related to being willing to change and try new things. People strong in Openness to new experience (O+) seek change and trying new things, while those with a weak Openness dimension (O-) avoid change and new thing (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The Thai female leadership model show female leaders in this study can be generally labelled “Explorer” (O+). This means that successful female leaders in both sectors have greater openness to experience. They tend to have many broad interests and like to be at the cutting-edge or forefront in creativity, resourcefulness, taking some risks and able to imagine the future of an organisation. “Explorer” may espouse a vision, but they must be practical and efficient so that people don’t think them out of touch with reality (Howard & Howard, 2001).

(2) High Conscientiousness (C+)

The Conscientiousness personality factor is related to achievement. Conscientiousness is also on a continuum between responsible/dependable (C+) to irresponsible/undependable (C-) (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The model shows Thai female leaders to be high conscientiousness (C+) leaders. This means that they are responsible and persistent, are likely to plan for the monitoring and follow-up necessary to bring a project to a successful conclusion. Although they are generally considered to be focused on the end-goal, they must occasionally be spontaneous and playful, or others may conclude that they’re headed for breakdown (Howard & Howard, 2001).

(3) Moderated Extraversion (E=)

The Extraversion personality factor is on a continuum between extravert and introvert. Extraverts (E+) are outgoing, spend considerable time with people, and willing to confront others, whereas introverts (E-) are more withdrawn and shy (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The model shows Thai female leaders are generally “Ambivert” (E=) meaning that participants exhibit warmth, sociability and positive emotions, and are friendly and sociable. They tend to move easily from working with

others to working alone. “Ambivert” has a moderate threshold for sensory stimulation but may tire of it after a while (Howard & Howard, 2001).

(4) Moderated Agreeableness (A=)

The Agreeableness personality factor relates to getting along with people. Agreeable personality behaviour is strong (A+) when a person is called warm, easy going, compassionate, friendly, and sociable; it is weak (A-) when a person is called cold, difficult, uncompassionate, unfriendly, and unsociable (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Female leaders in this study display moderate agreeableness or “Negotiator” (A=). This means that they are good at adopting a win-win approaches, sufficiently tough, but also able to show understanding of others’ needs and interest. They can shift between competitive and cooperative situations (Howard & Howard, 2001).

(5) Negative emotionality (N-)

A Negative emotionality personality factor relates to emotional stability. Negative emotionality lies on a continuum between being emotionally stable (N-) and unstable (N+) (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The model shows Thai female leaders are “Resilient” (N-). This means that they generally act in a calm, secure and rational way. Typically they are stress-free, guilt-free and urge-resistant. People who are often show that they are “Resilient” capable of showing excitement so that people don’t regard them as unfeeling, insensitive or unaware of problems (Howard & Howard, 2001).

The Thai female leadership personality model derived from the self-assessment questionnaires was verified by interviewing participants. The interviewing process helps to make up stories about real life which have sufficient levels of detail to provide “codable” personality data. The content analysis in Chapter 4 was derived by inductive procedures. The six personality traits that participants in both sectors feel made them successful leaders, were Explorer (O+), Focused(C+), Ambivert (E=), Negotiator (A=), Challenger(A-), and Resilient(N-). The finding shows the same personality traits as showed in the Thai female leadership personality model, excluding Challenger (A-).

Additionally, the interesting finding showed almost all participants (85%) in the private sector who were interviewed in this study identified “Focused” (C+) as the most important personality trait that made them successful

leaders. In contrast, 55% of the participants in the public sector indicated that being “Resilient” (N-) was the most important personality trait that made them successful leaders.

In conclusion, one of the most important data runs of the cross case analysis was to determine if there are differences in personality traits demonstrated by Thai female leaders in the private and the public sectors. The data analysis found that there are the same certain personality traits of female leadership personality profiles in both sectors. However, the participants in each sector considered that different personality traits made them successful leaders.

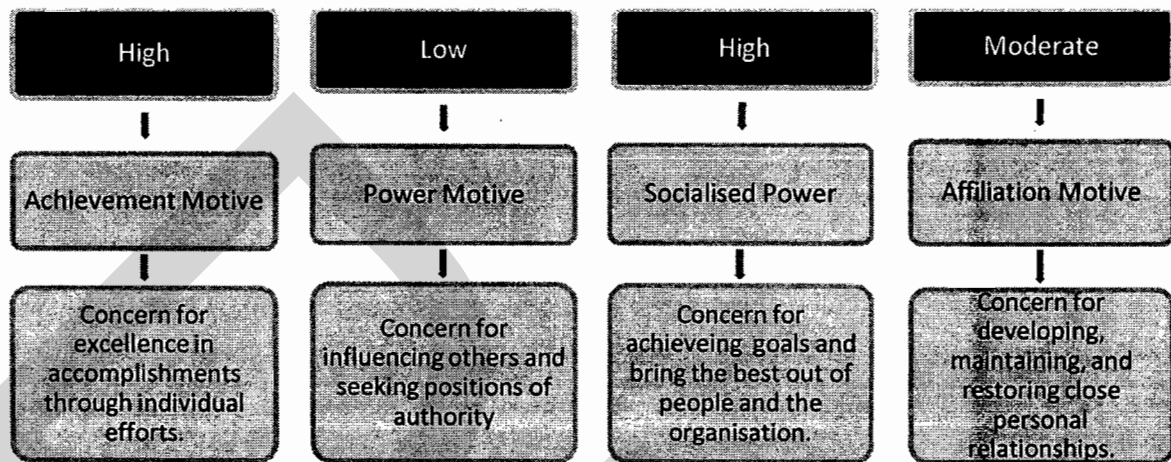
5.2.1.2 Female Motive, Leader Self Image, and Gender Role

Although the literature review highlighted female leadership personality traits and female leadership competencies, other influential individual factors for females to become successful leaders include: motive, self image, and gender role.

(1) Female Leader Motive

Motive is the thing a person consistently thinks about, or wants, that causes them to take action. Motives “drive, direct, and select” behaviour toward certain actions or goals and steer away from others (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Knowing a female leadership motive profile is useful, since it can explain and predict behaviour and performance (Lussier & Achua, 2007). This study attempts to explain and predict female leadership success based on a person’s need for achievement, power, and Affiliation Motive profile. The data analysis showed participants in both the private and the public sectors possessed high Achievement Motive, low Power Motive, high Socialised Power and moderate Affiliation Motive that is illustrated in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3 Thai Female leader Motive profile and Socialised Power



Source: Developed for this research

The Achievement Motive (need for achievement: n-Ach) is the unconscious concern for excellence in accomplishment through individual effort (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The data analysis showed female leaders in this study had high Achievement Motive and focussed on both individual and organisational achievement. People with a high Achievement Motive think about ways to do a better job, how to accomplish something unusual or important and foster career progression (Lussier & Achua, 2007). This means that female leaders in this study tend to have openness to new experience, self-confidence, and high energy. They are goal oriented, seek challenge, strive for excellence, desire concrete feedback on their performance and work hard.

The Power Motive (need for Power: n-Pow) is defined as a desire for strong action such as to attack, support, advise or control others, and influence others' emotions (McClelland, 1985). Power is essential to leaders because it is means of influencing followers. Without power, there is no leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 40). Figure 5.4 illustrated that female leaders in this study had low Power Motive. Data analysis found that 75% of participant in the private sector and 50% of participants in the public never applied for senior positions. This means that female leaders in this study view power in terms of influence, not position. Thai female

leaders tend to direct their Power Motives at influencing others for the common good. They are not concerned about the position or for power that motivates them to seeking the highest leadership positions. Thai female leaders are trying to find balance in their lives and need Socialised Power to help themselves and others. Socialised Power (need for Socialised power: n-Soc pow) can be used for personal gain and at the expense of others (McClelland, 1985). Thai female leaders' value power as instrumental in benefiting the organisation and meeting the needs of others, and is used to achieve goals and to bring out the best in people and the organisation.

The Affiliation Motive (need for Affiliation: n-Aff) is the unconscious concern for developing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The data analysis showed female leaders in this study had moderate Affiliation Motive and focus on their family and social affairs rather than focus only on business objectives. They help employees to feel as comfortable at work as at home. However, they did not show too close a relationship with others, and did not enjoy a munificence of social activities. Thai female leaders tend to enjoy developing and helping others.

Successful female leaders in this study are high on the Achievement Motive, categorised as high Conscientiousness in the Five Factor Model. They are low on the Power Motive in seeking position of authority that is related to moderate Extraversion Factor. At the same time, they use Socialised Power to influence others that is related to low Negative Emotional Factor. They have a moderate affiliation motive, related to moderate Agreeableness Factor. As a result, the combination of Thai female leadership personality profile and motives can be illustrated in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Combined Thai female leadership personality profiles and motives

The Five Factor Model of Personality	Personality Traits	Motives
High Openness to new experience (O+)	→ Explorer	→ Include with other motives
High Conscientiousness (C+)	→ Focused	→ High Achievement Motive
Moderate Extraversion (E=)	→ Ambivert	→ Low Power Motive
Moderate Agreeableness (A=)	→ Negotiator	→ Moderate Affiliation Motive
Low Negative Emotion (N-)	→ Resilient	→ High Socialised Power Motive

Source: Developed for this research

(2) Female Leaders Self Image

Self image is a person's attitudes, values, or self-concept. While a person's values show respond to or react to motives, that predict what they will do in the short term and in situations where others are in charge (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Self image refers to the positive or negative attitudes people have about themselves. Data analysis found that female leaders in both the private and the public sectors have a positive self-image. They value being a leader associated with feminine leadership and do not copy the masculine leadership model. Thai female leaders are more likely to exhibit feminine leadership behaviour. They are nice, good-looking leaders with good manners possessing a well dressed personality. Their self image performs the roles of female leader. Thai female leaders stay focused and mark out a clear path for success. They do not waste time being sufferers when they can realise their own vision of becoming a successful leader.

This means that Thai female leaders have a positive view of themselves as capable leaders, believing in their own capability to perform in leading

situation position. Successful Thai female leaders have a positive attitude with a strong self-image, are optimistic, and believe they can be successful employing a feminine leadership style. They typically give and accept positive feedback, expect others to succeed, and let others get on with the job in their own way.

(3) Gender role

The literature review highlighted some of the potential issues that female leaders may face associated with their gender-role. Gender-role incongruity is the perception that a female is not effectively performing their leadership role. Gender-role stereotyping can cause negative performance evaluations. Although the data analysis supported gender-leader role incongruity is a weakness of Thai female leaders. At the same time, Thai female leaders have positive attitude towards their gender role. They believe in the strength of the gender role that emphasises 'Feminine Values' such as caring, compassion, empathy, and non violence. Thai female leaders do understand that they must play to their strengths and manage their weakness to become and effective leaders.

To sum up, the self-image and gender role analysis presented the overall female leadership attitudes. Attitudes are positive or negative feeling about people, things, and issues (Lussier & Achua, 2007). People having a high self image, tend to lead in doing what the person believes are right and not follow the crowd's unethical behaviours (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The results of this study showed that female leaders in this study are optimistic. They have positive attitudes about their self-image and gender role. Consequently, Thai female leaders tend to be ethical leaders.

5.2.1.3 The Female Leadership Competency Model

The parent discipline III reviewed the literature defining competency and the linkage between competency and leadership that leads to a relatively prescribed approach to leadership development. Current trends indicate that identifying competencies is valuable when understanding the leadership development puzzle (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004). The concept of a competency-based approach helps believe that one can be learned leadership skills. The focus on behaviour competencies, however, implies that many people can become better leaders, by

gaining new knowledge and skills that will make them better leaders (Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

It is necessary to find an appropriate model for female leadership in Thailand, because leader selection and leadership skill development are both important for female leadership. The literature is relevant to this study in relation to competency as a factor that allows the possibility for females to attain and maintain leadership positions.

Through Competency Self-Assessment, based on the generic competencies of Spencer and Spencer (1993) in Chapter 4, the cross case conclusion of female competency profiles shows participants share a leadership competency profile across sectors. The data analysis showed competency items quite similarly, with a few differences. It demonstrates that the top three competencies are (1) Developing Others, (2) Initiative, and (3) Achievement Orientation. Although Technical competency and Team leadership competency are the two uppermost competencies found in the public sector, these two competencies are located only at the midpoint of the female leader competency profile in the private sector.

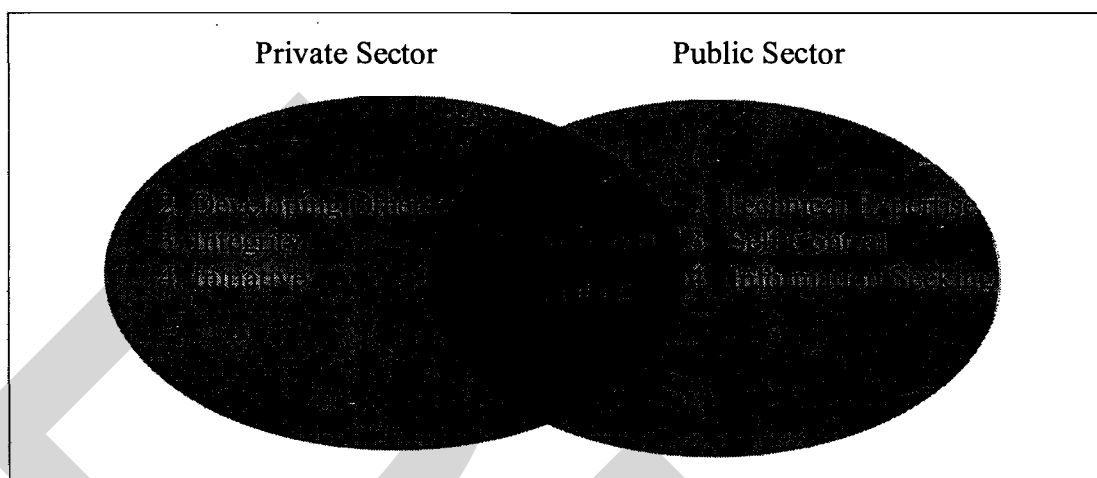
Thai female leadership competency derived from the self-assessment questionnaires was verified by interviewing participants. The aim was to identify the most powerful competencies considered to make females successful leaders. Female leaders in the private sector consider certain competencies somewhat differently to female leaders in the public sector.

- Private Sector: The finding showed that the top four competencies in the private sector are (1) Developing Others, (2) Achievement Orientation, (3) Integrity, and (4) Initiative.

- Public sector: The top four competencies in the public sector are (1) Technical / Managerial Expertise, (2) Achievement Orientation, (3) Self Control, and (4) Information Seeking.

The cross case conclusion of Thai female leaders competency model is illustrated in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4 Thai female leadership competency model cross case conclusion



Source: Developed for this research

The cross case conclusion shows the Achievement and Action clusters are the primary factor in both the private and the public sectors. This competency cluster is a bias toward action, directed more to task accomplishment than to impact on other people (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). For this cluster, “Achievement Orientation” placed quite high on the lists for both sectors. This means that the female leaders in this study are concern for working well or for competing against a standard of excellence. The standard may be the individual’s own past performance (striving for improvement); and objective measure (results orientation); the performance of others (competitiveness); Challenging goals set by the individual; or even what anyone has never done (innovation) (Spencer & Spencer, 1993, p. 25).

The effective use of achievement orientation usually implies the related use of other competencies, such as Initiative, Information Seeking, Analytical or Conceptual Thinking and Flexibility (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The data analysis show Female leaders Achievement Orientation is not combined with the same competencies in both sectors. In the private sector, Achievement Orientation combines with Initiative competency. While in the public sector, Achievement Orientation combines with Information Seeking competency. Achievement related

themes pervade the successful female leaders' discussion about how they influence, develop and lead others.

In the private sector, another competency in the Achievement and Action cluster is Initiative competency. It is a preference for taking action. This means that Thai female leaders in private sector are doing more than is required or expected in their jobs, doing things that no one has requested to improve or enhance job results and avoid problems, or finding or creating new opportunities (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Initiative supports achievement Orientation and Developing Others competencies.

Developing Others appears in the model of the private sectors female leaders, categorised in the Managerial cluster. Developing Others is a special version of Impact and Influence, in which the intent is to teach or to foster the learning or development of the others and an appropriate level of need analysis are implied in each positive level of Developing Others (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This means that Thai female leaders in the private sector mostly focus on the individual coaching end of the scale, with particular emphasis on providing encouragement and rewards and reassuring by offering helpful suggestions for future improvement.

The last competency model in the private sector is Integrity. Integrity is not included in the generic competency of Spencer and Spencer (1993). Integrity refer to behaviour that is honest and ethical, making a person trustworthy (Ford, 2002). This means that Thai female leaders in private sector influence their followers based on integrity. Unless female leaders are perceived to be trustworthy, it is difficult to retain the loyalty of followers or to obtain cooperation and support from peers and superiors.

The Personal Effective cluster identifies by Spencer and Spencer (1993) explains that competencies in this cluster share common characteristics that reflect some aspects of an individual's maturity in relation to others and to work. These competencies control the effectiveness of an individual's performance when dealing with immediate environment pressures and difficulties. As a result Integrity competency can be categorised in the Personal Effective cluster.

In the public sector, the female leadership competency model indicated that Information Seeking was the other competency in the Achievement and

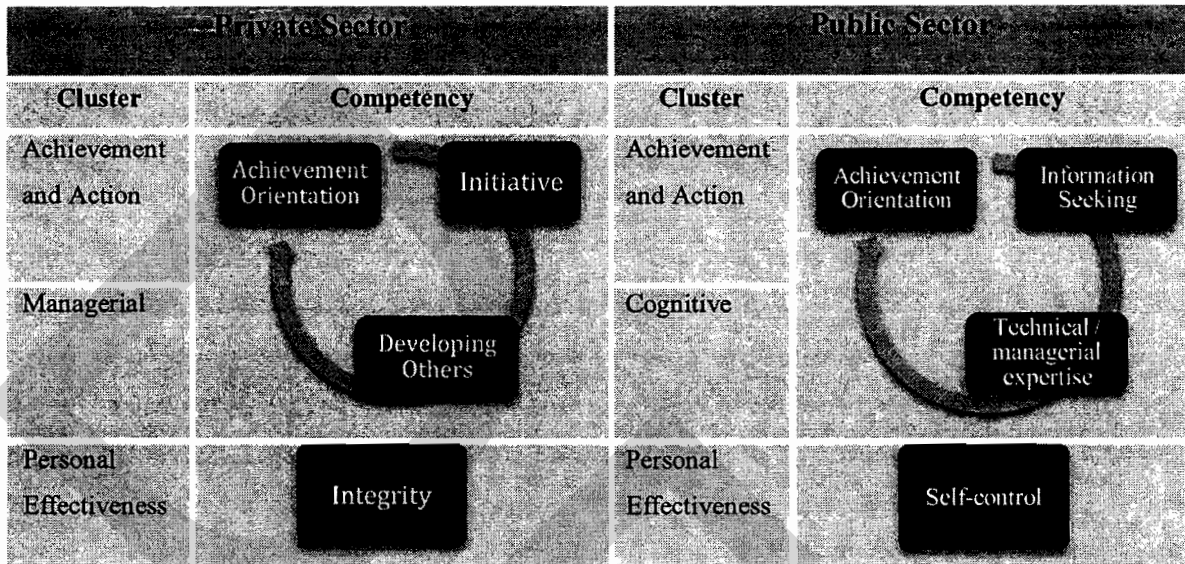
Action cluster. Information Seeking is an underlying curiosity indicating a desire to know more about things, people, or issues (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This means that Thai female leaders in the public sector imply making an effort to get more information and not accepting situations “at face value.” Information Seeking is a prerequisite or first step for Technical Expertise competency that is one of competency in model of the public sector.

Technical Expertise can be categorised in the Cognitive cluster. It includes both the mastery of a body of job-related knowledge, and also motivation to expand, use, and distribute work-related knowledge to others (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This means that Thai female leaders in the public sector generally possess above-average intelligence. Acquisition of Expertise is actually a special case of Information Seeking, supporting a higher level of Achievement Orientation.

The last competency in this model is Self Control, which is categorised in the Personal Effectiveness cluster. Self Control is the ability to keep emotions under control and to restrain negative actions when tempted or faced with opposition or hostility from others, or when working under conditions of stress (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). This means that Thai female leaders in the private sector can maintain performance under stressful or hostile conditions. Self Control is linked more strongly to the situation rather than to other competencies (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

According to the Thai female leadership competency model, both sectors show connection between each other, as illustrated in Figure 5.5.

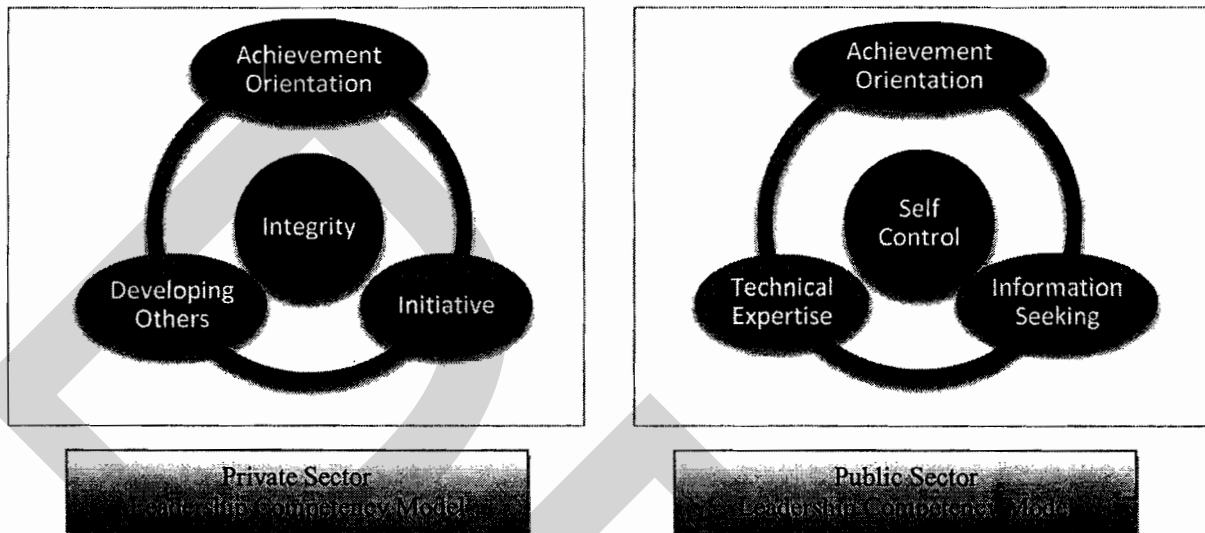
Figure 5.5 The linking of competencies in the private and the public sectors



Source: Developed for this research

In summary, the cross case conclusion shows that the most influential competencies making females successful leaders in the private and the public sectors are not the same, with the exception of “Achievement Orientation” which registers very high on both lists for each sector. These mean that the good competency models have to be tailored to organisational practice. Additionally, the findings showed each competency usually implies a relationship supporting each other as illustrated in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6 Thai female leadership competency models in the private and the public sector



Source: Developed for this research

5.2.1.4 The Relation of Personality and Competency

The literature review conducted in Chapter 2 concluded that the combination of leadership personality trait and leadership competency can provide value and complement each other, where configuration of traits should be linked to leadership competencies, and the context in which they emerge to be used to predict emerging leadership. The deep and enduring part of a person's personality is to provide underlying characteristics that can predict behaviour in a wide variety of situations and job tasks (Spencer & Spencer, 1993 and Tubbs & Schulz, 2006).

In performance analysis, one of the steps when analysing a performance problem is to determine whether or not the performer's personality possesses the appropriate infrastructure for the underperformed competency (Howard & Howard, 2001). One's personality can relate to a given competency in one of three ways: (1) A traits equals a competency, (2) Several traits equal a competency, (3) Traits are necessary, but not sufficient, to produce a competency (Howard & Howard, 2001). Female leaders' leadership personality traits demonstrate positive relationship to competencies compared with the competencies profile associated with the Five

Factor Model trait infrastructure and research references listed by Howard & Howard, (2001), as shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Relation of Thai female leaders' personality traits and leadership competencies

Female Leadership Competency model		Female Leadership Personality model					Research References (Howard & Howard, 2001)	
Sector	Competency	O+	C+	E+	A+	N-	Research	Competency Title
Private and public sector	Achievement Orientation	-	C+	E+	-	-	Piedmont and Weinstein (1994)	<i>Performance Focus</i>
		-	C+	-	-	-	Johnson and Ostendorf (1993)	<i>Organisation</i>
Private sector	Developing Others	O+	C+	E+	A+	N-	Kyl-heku and Buss (1990); Howard (2000 a)	<i>Development of personnel</i>
	Integrity	O+	C+	-	A+	N-	Johnson and Ostendorf (1993); Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt, (1995) and Howard (2000a, 2000b)	<i>Integrity and trust</i>
	Initiative	O+	C+	E+	A+	-	Howard(2000 b)	<i>Future orientation/ visionary</i>
Public sector	Technical/ Managerial Expertise	O-	C+	E+	-	N-	Howard (2000a, 2000b)	<i>Technical learning</i>
	Self Control	O-	C+	E-	A-	N-	Johnson and Ostendorf (1993)	<i>Self Control</i>
	Information Seeking	O+	-	E+	-	-	Furnham, Crump, and Whelan (1997)	<i>Range of perspective and interest</i>

Source: Developed for this research

The female leader personality model shows high conscientiousness (Focused: C+) as one of certain personality traits. The majority of participants (80%) in both sectors are located in Focused (C+) (see Table 4.9 and

Table 4.10). Additionally, participants in the private sector considered Focused (C+) as the most important personality trait making them successful leaders. People with this trait are characterised as willing to work hard and put in extra time and effort to accomplish their goals to achieve success (Lussier & Achua, 2007). This means that Thai female leaders tend to work toward their goals, in a disciplined and dependable fashion. Their mind is like a serial processor, proceeding in a linear, sequential manner. They probably have a strong will to achieve and do so with hard work, good preparation and much organisation. Thai female leaders typically consolidate their time, energy, and resources in pursuit of their goals (Howard & Howard, 2001).

A finding in the competency model (Figure 5.3) shows Achievement Orientation competency placed high on both lists in each sector. Achievement Orientation is the most frequent single competency for executives. Top performing executives also show a higher scale level (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The data analysis in Chapter 4 demonstrates that Thai female leaders in this study are high achievers. They obtain satisfaction from successfully completing challenging tasks, set challenging goals for others as well as for themselves. They also use cost-benefit arguments to convince others to make their own decision. They like to attain standards of excellence, support new ventures or ideas and develop better ways to do things (Howard & Howard, 2001; Lussier & Achua, 2007). As a result, a Focused (C+) personality trait is related to leader effectiveness through Achievement (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

As illustrated in Figure 5.3, people with high conscientiousness (Focused: C+) traits relate to six of seven competencies in the finding competency model, (1) Achievement Orientation, (2) Developing Others, (3) Integrity and (4) Initiative competencies of female leader competency model in the private sector, and related to (5) Technical/ Managerial Expertise and (6) Self Control competencies of female leadership competency in the public sector as well.

The low Negative Emotionality or Resilient (N-) is another considered personality trait of female leaders in this study. The majority of participants (70%) in both sectors are classified as Resilient (N-) (see Table 4.9, page 181 and Table 4.10, page 182). additionally, Thai female leaders in the public sector considered Resilient(N-) as the most important personality trait making for successful

leaders. This means that female leaders tend to respond to stressful situation in a calm, secure, steady and rational way. They can usually manage without too many difficulties even when stress occurs around them. As problems arise, they typically move into a problem-solving mode rather rapidly and proceed in a rational, analytic way until the problem or the source of the stress has been handled (Howard & Howard, 2001). People with low Negative Emotionality (Resilient-) refer to self-control, being calm-good under pressure, relaxed, secure, and positive-praising others (Lussier & Achua, 2007). As shown in Table 5.3, Resilient (N-) relates to four competencies, (1) Developing Others, (2) Integrity, (3) Self Control and (4) Technical/ Managerial Expertise.

The high Openness to new experience dimension (O+) or Explorer is the last certain personality trait of female leaders relating to the female leadership competency model. The majority of participants (80%) in both sectors fall in the Explorer (O+) segment (see Table 4.9 and Table 4.10). This means Thai female leaders tend to have a broad range of interests and like to be at the cutting edge of new technologies and ideas. They are often curious, introspective, and reflective, seeking new and varied experiences and thinking about the future (Howard & Howard, 2001). Table 5.3 illustrates that Explorer (O+) relates to four competencies, (1) Developing Others, (2) Integrity, (3) Initiative of the private sector competency model, and also related to (4) Information seeking of the public sector competency model.

In conclusion, female leaders' personality traits demonstrate a positive relationship to leadership effectiveness through leadership competencies in both sectors. Among personality traits in female leadership personality model, Focused (C+), Resilient (N-) and Explorer (O+) show the highest impact. While the other two certain personality traits, Ambivert (E=) and Negotiator (A=), do not show a direct relation to the female leadership competency model in this study. The foregoing means the more Focused (C+), Resilient (N-) and Explorer (O+) a Thai female leader is, the more easily the Thai female leader can lead and coordinate her team to accomplish organisational tasks and organisational goals. The better the leadership competence, the better the operational performance, consequently the Thai female leadership personality model and Thai female leadership competency model should be

considered when Thai female leaders undertake to promote and develop action to be discussed later in Section 5.4 Recommendation.

In summary, a female leader individual's core personality demonstrates a certain strong influence on behavioural competency. A female leader's motive, attitude to self image and her gender role also strongly shapes her leadership behaviour. Female leaders in this study show that they are born with some leadership ability and are able to develop it meaning that effective female leaders are both born and made. Knowing individual factors such as personalities, motives and attitudes help to explain and predict leadership competencies and job performance. The research findings show Thai female leaders display relatively little ambition (low Power Motive); even though internally they are high achievers. The natural ability of Thai female leaders offers both advantages and disadvantages whereby the underlying factors possessing specific bundle by successful female leaders contribute significantly to the prediction of leadership effectiveness, emergence, and advancement.

5.2.2 Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 2

Research Proposition 2: *“That successful female leadership development depends on organizational practices that will differ depending on the context of the private and the public sector”*

The external factors showed an association between Parent Discipline IV (gender-based leadership), and the Immediate Discipline (female, gender, and leadership in Thailand) that provides gender based organisational practices and Thailand contextual influence. The literature review searched for conditions that explain arguments for and against female leaders in organisational practices in Thailand. Research Proposition 2 seeks to gain an understanding of gender based organisation practice influencing female leadership development.

The data analysis in Chapter 4 demonstrated how organisational practices affects successful females in gaining leading positions in both private and public sectors, that can be categorised in three groups:- (1) organisational practice endorsement (2) organisational practice bias and (3) main barriers.

5.2.2.1 Organisational Practice Endorsement

Understanding gender based organisational practice is important to promote female leaders' development in both private and public sectors. Thai female leaders from both the private and the public sectors believed they had support from their colleagues more than from organisational practices. Results also showed a lack of specific development programs for women to be effective leaders.

The results showed organisational practice demonstrated little support for Thai female leaders in their career advancement. In real life, female leaders in both sectors have been supported by their colleagues. In the private sector, boss, co-worker, and subordinates were equally important supporting factors for female leaders. In contrast, within the public sector, the boss is the most influential supporting factor and there appears to be negative attitudes concerning political issues.

The data analysis in Chapter 4 also found that there are mainstream development programs, such as typical leadership skills, supporting female leadership development in both sectors. This means that there is a lack of

specific development programs which directly supports women to become effective leaders.

5.2.2.2 Organisational Practice Bias

Organisational practice showed different organisational bias in both sectors. In the private sector, women accounted for 30% of the supervisors in Thai firms, while there were two or three times as many women in upper management than in multinational companies (Yukongdi, 2005). Equal opportunities in multinational companies are more real (Picavet, 2005), whereas in the public sector, women have been considered the 'hind legs' of the civil service and have been expected to follow the leadership of men (Marie Col, Meksawan, & Sopchokchai, 2001). As Thai proverb states "The rooster is louder than the hen" that mean men are the leader and women are the follower.

Although women have penetrated the middle management ranks of many businesses, women continue to lag far behind men in appointment to top leadership positions. Data analysis concludes many disadvantages exist and explanations pointing to organisational bias, due to gender stereotypes and gender discrimination in the workplace. The results show how gender stereotypical thinking leads to subtle forms of gender discrimination toward female leaders.

(1) Gender stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are generalised beliefs that one associates with either females or males. In other words, stereotypes refer to thoughts about a social group; which may not correspond to reality (Matlin, 2008, p.37). Female leaders are especially likely to be downgraded when they act in a traditionally masculine fashion and when they are rated by traditionally masculine males (Matlin, 2008).

According to the data analysis in Chapter 4, gender stereotypes still persist in Thai culture and continue to influence women in leadership advancement in both sectors. Gender stereotypes are not taken to mean gender equality by Thai culture acceptance. The persistent stereotype of Thai women is that more nurturing and caring roles will continue to influence women in leadership advancement. In Thai culture, women are expected to be neat and polite. Thais still

believe that men are leaders whom women should follow, a belief that is still followed by the older Thai generations. If Thai females are willing to challenge male dominated careers, they are condemned by their colleagues.

However, the interesting finding demonstrated that a majority of Thai female leaders (70% of participants in the private sector and 55% of participants in public sectors) believed that it is possible for women themselves to gradually erase the gender stereotype.

(2) Gender discrimination

Data analyses in Chapter 4 explored gender discrimination that female leaders face in their workplace. The result showed that gender discrimination typically occurs more often in the public than the private sector. The majority of Thai female leaders (90%) in the public sector experienced or felt disregard or discrimination in the promotion process. At the same time, 50% of Thai female leaders in the private sector also experienced discrimination, when questioned about their competence. Although women leaders displayed high outstanding performance, they still perceived themselves as being treated differently by men in both the private and the public sectors. Consequently, leadership succession is still a traumatic event in both sectors.

5.2.2.3 Main barriers

The literature review in Chapter 2 confirmed that female leaders tend to be more transformational than male leaders, and score somewhat higher than males on an assessment of leadership effectiveness, that also correlates with high business profit margins. Surprisingly, most research suggests that more people say they would prefer to work for a male than a female (Eagly & Carli, 2003, and Eagly & Karau, 2002). The data analysis showed strongly support for this evidence. Thai female leaders in both sectors considered individual factors are the most influential main barriers to Thai women progression in leadership position, That are Indecisive Decision Making, Being Fussy, Quick Tempered , and Thin-skinned.

Organisational practice is not considered a main barrier in the private sector. A majority of female leaders in this sector believed they can reach the top of the organisational hierarchy because of their work performance. In particular,

equal opportunities in multinational companies are more frequent existent. On the other hand, in the public sector, 25% of female leaders felt that gender stereotype or think-leader-think-male is the main barrier.

Thai social and culture factors were considered drawbacks by only 20% of participants in the private sector, where a majority of female leaders had a positive attitude to Thai social and culture values, while 35% of female leaders in the public sector felt that patriarchy (Father-rule) culture is the main barrier.

In conclusion, successful female leadership development depends on the context of female leaders' interaction in both the private and the public sectors. Nevertheless, results showed Thai female leaders in this study have no good organisational support. Gender stereotypes still persist in Thai culture and continue to hinder advancement for women in leadership, leading them to experience gender discrimination in the promotion process and to question their competence. Thai female leaders still believe that women themselves are the most influential main barriers to become successful female leaders. In fact, they do not think their barriers are associated with organisational practice or social and cultural issues.

5.2.3 Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 3

Research Proposition 3: *“Successful female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders within gender-based organisational practice”*

According to the data obtained in respect of Research Proposition 3, Gender stereotypes still persist in Thai culture and continue to influence women in leadership advancement, leading them to experience gender discrimination. The literature review provided many explanations why the glass ceiling exists, but few theories offer suggestions how might women break through this ceiling. Research Proposition 3 seeks to gain an understanding of the strategies Thai female leaders could adopt to deal with constraints posed by gender-based organisational practices, in both the private and the public sectors. According to the data analysis in Chapter 4, the findings reveal leadership strategies of female leaders in Thai culture to be sourced in three parts, (1) sources of leader powers, (2) relationships behaviours and (3) supportive factors.

5.2.3.1 Sources of Leader Powers

Power and leadership are related because both involve a process of influence. In organisations, power can be distinguished between positional power and personal power. Position power comes from a leader's formal function in the organisation. Personal power is rooted in the specific character, knowledge, skills and relationship of leaders. (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004). Personal power is derived from the follower based on the leader's behaviours. Charismatic leaders have personal power (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

According to data analysis, the strategy Thai female leaders utilised depends on their organisational context where results showed major differences in each sector. In the private sector, Thai female leaders employed work performance (60%), team management (35%), and developing others (20%) to reach their present position. By contrast, in the public sector, all female leaders rely solely on work performance (100%) to reach their present position. As a result, work performance is note as the key factor that Thai female leaders, in both sectors, used as their actual strategy.

Thai female leaders use work performance as expert power to make people respect them, not just as bosses. They make other respect that they have more supplementary knowledge and skill. Expert power is based on their skill and knowledge (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Being an expert makes others depend on them and provides respect where the fewer who possess expertise, provides more power to be female leader. Experts commonly use the rational persuasion influencing tactic, because people believe they know what they are saying is correct.

Female leaders in this study utilised personal power to reach leadership position in both sectors. True leadership tends to rely on power arising from relationships and a desire for followers to be led. The real source of leaders' power is personal power, their own knowledge and skill and the strength of their own personalities and not just the authority conferred on them by their positions (Livingston, 1971).

Additionally, information from Research Proposition 1 concluded that female leaders in this study have a High conscientiousness personality that is related to a high Achievement Motive (see Table 5.4). This means that female leaders tend to have clear goals and work hard to get what they want, which often requires influencing others to help them. Moreover, they have a low Negative Emotionally personality factor related to high Socialised Power Motive (see Table 5.4) which means that they don't want position power for its own sake, only to get what they want. However, they do like to play by the rules and tend to use rational persuasion frequently. Socialised Power is exercised in serving higher goals to others, or organisations, and often involves self-sacrifice to achieve those ends (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2006). As a result, female leaders' personalities and motives affect the ways female leaders attempt to influence others using their personal power.

Table 5.4 Personalities and motives related to Thai female leaders powers.

Personalities	Traits	Motives	Personal Powers
High Consciousness (C+)	Focused	High Achievement Motive	Work Performance
Moderate Agreeableness (A=)	Negotiator	Moderate Affiliation Motive	Developing Others
Low Negative Emotion (N-)	Resilient	High Socialised Power Motive	Team Management

Source: Developed for this research

5.2.3.2 Relationship behaviours

Leadership is an ongoing relationship between the leader and superiors, colleague, clients and especially followers. According to data analysis, the finding showed relationship behaviours were employed by female leaders as a successful strategy in achieving a leadership role. The results showed different relationship behaviours used in each sector. In the private sector, Thai female leaders use four relationship behaviours, (1) Inspiration, (2) Sincerity, (3) Kindness, and (4) Respect relationship behaviours as their leadership strategies. On the other hand, in the public sector, Thai female leaders adopted only three relationship behaviours, (1) Inspiration, (2) Sincerity, and (3) Kindness. Thai female leaders utilised these relationship behaviours as influence tactics to motivate others.

(1) Inspiration relationship behaviour

Inspiration is the relationship behaviour most frequently used by Thai female leadership in both sectors. Female leaders in this study are empathic, caring collaborative, inclusive, passionate, and communicative. They focus on the positive aspects of follower's skills and personality and use that as a motivating force and find ways to help them do it better. Thai female leaders focus on Inspiration, not on niceness or likeability.

(2) Sincerity relationship behaviour

Sincerity is employed by 35% of female leaders in the private sector, and 15% of participants in the public sector. Female leaders have strong direct relationship with others, speak truly about their own feelings, thoughts, and desires, and won't lie to people. At the same time, Sincerity does not work for female leaders in the public sector.

(3) Kindness relationship behaviour

Kindness is employed by 35% of female leaders in the private sector, but only 10% of female leaders in the public sector. Thai female leaders use Kindness to motivate their employees, recognise unique talents while nurturing all employees and establish a supportive and productive work environment. They like to communicate people, trying to figure out what makes people tick and how to make them perform better.

(4) Respect relationship behaviour

Only 25% of female leaders in the private sector used Respect relationship behaviour. It is not considered for the public sector. Female leaders in the private sector provide trust, respect to people, and believe in power. They listen to staff's opinions and accept constructive criticism, looking for strengths in people and appreciate them.

In conclusion, successful female leaders in this study utilise relationship behaviours to motivate and inspire people. Thai female leaders focus on the performance of group members, helping them see the importance and higher good of the task that create the synergy that drives organisations. Thai female leaders want each person to fulfil their potential and do a better job. Inspiration, Kindness, and Respect relationship behaviours verify that female leaders employ transformational leadership, particularly to develop and mentor followers. Sincerity relationship behaviour confirms female leaders have high ethical and moral standards.

Information from Research Proposition 1 concludes that female leaders in this study have a moderate Extraversion personality (E=) and Low Power Motive (see Table 5.3). This means that Thai female leader are friendly, approachable, gregarious, assertive, enthusiastic, natural communicators face-to-face and comfortable taking charge. They don't like to control or confront others, nor

seeking positions of authority and status. As a result, this profile seems related to a Respect and Sincerity relationship style. Furthermore, Thai female leaders have a moderate Agreeableness Personality (A=) and moderate Affiliation Motive (see Table 5.3). This means that female leaders are good negotiators, good for the win-win approach, sufficiently tough, but also able to show an understanding of others' needs and interest and can wheel and deal without either caving in or crushing others. Thai female leaders tend to enjoy developing and helping others that can be related to Inspiration and Kindness relationship behaviours. Table 5.5 Table 5.5 briefly describes how female leaders' personalities and motives affect female leaders' relationship behaviours.

Table 5.5 Personalities and Motives related to Thai Female Leadership Relationship Behaviours

Personalities	Traits	Benefits	Motives	Relationship Behaviours
Moderate Extraversion	Ambivert (E=)	→ Approachable, natural face-to-face communicator; is comfortable taking charge.	→ Moderate Power Motive	→ Respect & Sincerity
Moderate Agreeableness	Negotiator (A=)	→ Good for the win-win approach; is sufficiently tough, but able also to show understanding of others' needs and interest.	→ Moderate Affiliation Motive	→ Inspiration & Kindness

Source: Developed for this research

5.2.3.3 The role of home, education and social environment

Data analysis found that that supportive family and supportive education are extremely important for females to achieve leadership positions. While social aspects seem to be a barrier for women working to be leaders.

- Supportive Family

Family is very important. A supportive husband and supportive parents were strong influential factors aiding female leaders reach high positions. The majority of female leaders in this study were married with one to two children. The biggest challenge for female leaders is balancing gender roles between motherhood and a demanding job therefore, dealing with the guilt of not always being there is very difficult. While a supportive husband is an important influential factor for this status, a sourced family background also gives female leaders a value platform, drawing on a good education and good role model.

- Supportive Education

Most successful leaders have high educational levels, held high positions and possess strong academic backgrounds. The majority of female leaders in both sectors had Masters' Degrees. Moreover, some (20 to 30%) obtained a Doctoral Degree. They believe educational levels and backgrounds were the greatest influence on their development. However, they recognise that academic backgrounds provide only potential power and that accomplishment is real power.

- Supportive Social

Social factor seems to be a barrier more than support. Female leaders faced most resistance to their leadership and influence in roles that are male-dominated and characterised as masculine. Thai social culture should understand it normal to perceive women holding leadership roles. The significant transform obtain with women's access to leadership positions over the past few decades has been essential, but remains inadequate.

In conclusion, successful Thai female leaders are able to maintain harmony between their roles as women in Thai culture and their roles as leaders by utilising their personal power, knowledge and skill, and the strength of their own personalities. Thai female leaders utilise their relationship behaviours, Inspiration, Kindness, Respect, and Sincerity to motivate and inspire people. The foregoing verifies that

Thai female leaders employ transformational leadership and often have high ethical and moral standards. However, the strategies Thai female leaders utilise depend on their organisational context since the results showed major differences between the private and the public sectors. At the same time, they have good supportive family and supportive education to help them achieve leadership positions.

5.2.4 Conclusions related to the Research Proposition 4

Research Proposition 4: *“That underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society can be matched with an ideal type of leadership profile, because no real-life leaders perfectly match the ideal type. When female leaders have a profile that is off-target, the way that they compensate is interesting”*

In today’s global world, organisations do not seem to make enough effort in developing and taking advantage of the expanding pool of female leadership talent (McCracken, 2000; and Werhane, 2007). Within the Thai context, Thai female leaders need to maintain world competitiveness and ensure that they are prepared to conquer the economic challenges of the present global world. This study develops ideal profiles for leadership to see how well observable female leadership phenomena match up to the ideal types. Ideal types are not explanations because they do not necessarily tell why or how something occurs. A question to be answered is how similar or different are these attributes of effective global leadership.

The differences between successful female and male leaders lie in the optional aspects of behaviour. According to data analysis, females bring different leadership behaviours because they have been socialised differently. They are better able to organise and nurture people. They find it easier to discuss and take care of other people. At the same time, similar behaviour of successful female and male leaders is the ability to lead and get the job done. This means that Thai female leaders can be as tough as men, but also gentle as women.

Female leaders in this study believed there are no leadership profile differences between Thai female leaders and ideal type of leadership profiles. The traditional picture of the role of Thai women taking care of the household and the children, compared to today’s picture where Thai women have other work and the

same chance for education and leaders' positions as men, evolved as a natural development.

5.2.4.1 Ideal type of leadership personality profile

Recent studies support the relationship between the Five-Factor Model and successful leadership. The ideal type of natural leader defined in Five-Factor Model terms is high Openness to new experience (O+: Explorer); high Conscientiousness (C+: Focused); high Extravert (E+: Extravert); low Agreeableness (A-: Challenger); and low Negative Emotionality (N-: Resilient) (Howard and Howard, 2001).

Conclusions evaluating from the Research Proposition 1 demonstrated that Thai female leadership personality model defined in Five-Factor Model terms is high Openness to new experience (O+:Explorer); high Conscientiousness (C+:Focused); moderate Extravert (E=:Ambivert); moderate Agreeableness (A=:Negotiator); and low Negative Emotionality (N-:Resilient). This means that personality profiles of successful female leaders in Thai society are not perfectly matched with an ideal type of leadership profile. The result showed only three traits, (1) high Openness to new experience (O+: Explorer); (2) high Conscientiousness (C+: Focused); and (3) low Negative Emotionality (N-: Resilient) that match the ideal type. There are two traits that were off target: (1) moderate Extravert (E=: Ambivert); and (2) moderate Agreeableness (A=: Negotiator), as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 The personality profile matching of leadership ideal profile and Thai female leader personality profile

Five Factor Model Personality	Natural Leader Ideal Profile	Female leadership profiles	Pattern Matching
O: Openness to new experience	O+: Explorer	O+: Explorer	✓ perfect match
C: Conscientiousness	C+: Focused	C+: Focused	✓ perfect match
E: Extravert	E+: Extravert	E=: Ambivert	✗ out of target
A: Agreeableness	A-: Challenger	A=: Negotiator	✗ out of target
N: Negative Emotionality	N-: Resilient	N-: Resilient	✓ perfect match

Source: Developed for this research

The ideal profile of leader demonstrated that successful leader also show greater Openness to new experience (Explorer), creativity, resourcefulness, think out of the box, take some risk, and can imagine the future of an organisation. High Conscientiousness (Focused) leaders are dependable and persistent, and more likely to plan for the monitoring and follow-up that are necessary to seeing a project to successful conclusion. Leaders are often high extraversion (extraverts) who tend to have optimistic view of future and are likely to be energetic, outgoing and persuasive. Low Agreeableness (competitive) leaders tend to be tough minded, independent, thick skinned and enjoy good competition. Low Negative Emotionality (Resilient) leaders are perceived as eternally calm and unflappable, extremely difficult to unnerve, and inspire high confidence (Howard & Howard, 2001).

Table 5.6 showed that Thai female leaders in this study possess a leadership personality profile that is partially off-target. Although, there has been substantial research over the last two decades on the Five-Factor Model profile of an ideal leader, The finding do not mean Thai female leaders in this study, who fail to fit

the ideal profile, are unable to lead. The Five-Factor Model profiles the typical leader's personality, based on organisational studies (Howard & Howard, 2001).

Thai female leaders match the ideal leadership profile on three personality traits (O+: Explorer, C+: Focused, and N-: Resilient). Additionally, that showed strongly related to leadership competencies (see Table 5.2 and Table 5.3). Although the Five Factor Model has universal application across cultures, some cultures do place varying importance on different personality factors. Overall, the best predictor of job success on a global basis is the Conscientiousness factor (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Whereas, two personality traits (E=: Ambivert and A=: Negotiator) are off target. They are not directly related to Thai female leaders' competencies. Alternatively, these personalities of issues relate to Thai female leaders' motives and relationship behaviours (see Table 5.5) meaning that Thai female leaders compensate with relationship behaviours such as Inspiration, Kindness, Respect and Sincerity. As moderate Extravert (E=: Ambivert) leaders, they tend to approachable, natural face-to-face communicators, and are comfortable taking charge. As Moderate Agreeableness (negotiator) leaders, they are good for the win-win approach being sufficiently tough, but able to show an understanding of others' needs and interest. Table 5.7 compares the benefit of Thai female leaders' personality traits that off target an ideal profile.

Table 5.7 The benefit comparison of Thai female leaders personality traits that off target

Five Factor Model Personality	Natural Leader Ideal Profile	Female leadership profiles
E: Extravert	E+: Extravert	E=: Ambivert
	Have optimistic view of future and are likely to be energetic, outgoing and persuasive.	Approachable natural ability to like communication and to make links. They are comfortable taking change.
A: Agreeableness	A-: Challenger	A=: Negotiator
	Tough mind, independent, thick skinned, and enjoy a good competition.	Good for the win-win approach, is sufficiently tough but able also to show understanding of others' needs and interest.

Source: Developed for this research

Ames and Flynn (2007) argue that individuals seen either as markedly low in Extraversion or as high in Extraversion are generally appraised as less effective leaders. The leader weakness lay in poor human relations skills where they did not treat people as valuable assets (Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Thai female leaders in this study show moderate Extravert, moderate Agreeableness, combined with high and greater Openness to new experience. These personality traits are associated with greater preferences for participative management styles (Stevens and Ash, 2001). Thai female leaders demonstrated their relationship behaviours such as Inspiration, Kindness, Respect and Sincerity. In today's global economy, companies need people-centred leaders, because financial success is increasingly being based on a commitment to management practices that treat people as valuable asset (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 36). Therefore, the result shows females are very effective leaders and appropriate in today's marketplace.

5.2.4.2 Ideal type of leader motive profile

Leader Motive Profiles Theory attempts to explain and predict leadership success based on a person's need for achievement, power, and Affiliation Motive profile (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 431). McClelland found that effective leaders consistently have the same motive profile, and that leader motive profile (LMP) has been found to be a reliable predictor of leader effectiveness (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982). The Leaders Motive Profile includes a high Power Motive, which is Socialised Power that is greater than the Affiliation Motive and with a moderate Achievement Motive. As the result showed female Leaders Motive Profile in this study possessed of high achievements motive, low Power Motive, high socialised power, and moderate Affiliation Motive. Thus, Ideal Leader Motive Profile can compare with female Leader Motive Profile, as shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Ideal Leader Motive Profile matching with Thai female Leader Motive Profile

Motive	Ideal Leader Motive Profile	Female Leader Motive Profile	Pattern Matching
Achievement Motive	Moderate	High	✗ out of target
Power Motive	High	Low	✗ out of target
Socialised Power	High	High	✓ perfect match
Affiliation Motive	Moderate	Moderate	✓ perfect match

Source: Developed for this research

Table 5.8 showed Thai Female Leader Motive Profile not to be a perfect match with Leader Motive Profile. To be successful, leaders generally need to have a moderate Achievement Motive (Lussier & Achua, 2007). While Thai female leaders are people with high achiever motive, they tend to seek individual achievement. If they are not interested in being a leader, there is the chance for personalised power and derailment. Successful leaders also need to want to be in

charge and enjoy the leadership role. Leaders need to have high Power Motive to influence others (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Thai female leaders have low Power Motive and not concerned about the position or the power that motivates them to seeking the highest leadership positions. In addition, successful leaders need to have high Socialised Power (Lussier & Achua, 2007) and Thai female leaders possess this high socialised power. Thai female leaders value power as instrumental in benefiting the organisation and meeting the needs of others. Finally, successful leaders need to have moderate Affiliation Motive (Lussier & Achua, 2007) a quality that Thai female leaders also possess. Thai female leaders have moderate Affiliation Motive, thus, relationships don't get in the way of influencing followers.

5.2.4.3 Ideal type of leadership competency profile

Leadership competency study reviewed in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.4.2.1) concluded that leadership competencies associated with leadership effectiveness are those most likely to be changed through leadership development efforts. Leadership competency models contain lists of attributes that are broader than skills expected of successful leaders that identify competencies. The similarity or difference of these attributes for effective global leadership from female leadership development priorities in Thailand is interesting. The Literature review also showed clearly related results of numerous studies of leadership competency.

The literature review showed that the leadership competency model falls in three clusters, Achievement & action cluster, Impact & influence cluster and Managerial cluster. (1) Achievement & action cluster which consists of Achievement Orientation competency. (2) Impact & influence cluster or Social Competence which consists of Relationship Building and Organisational Awareness and (3) Managerial cluster which consists of Directiveness: Assertiveness and the use of position power (see Section 2.4.2.1 Leadership Competencies Model).

The research findings demonstrated that Thai female leaders' competencies fall into four clusters (1) Achievement and Action cluster which emphasises on both the private and the public sectors, (2) Managerial cluster and (3) Cognitive cluster and (4) Personal Effectiveness cluster. Achievement & action cluster consist of achievement orientation competency which placed very high on

both lists in both sectors. The other competencies are Initiative competency in the private sector and Information Seeking competency in the public sector. The Managerial cluster consists of Developing Others competency that occurs only in the private sector. The Cognitive cluster consists of Technical/ Managerial Expertise competency that is emphasised only in the public sector. The Personal Effectiveness cluster consists of Integrity competency in the private sector and Self Control competency in the public sector. As a result, leadership competency model can be compared with the Thai female leader competency model, as shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Ideal leadership competency model matching with Thai female leader competency model

Competency Cluster	Executive Competency Ideal Profile	Female Leader Competency Profile		Pattern Matching
		Private sector	Public sector	
Achievement and Action	Achievement Orientation	Achievement Orientation	Achievement Orientation	✓ perfect match
	-	Initiative	Information seeking	✗ out of target
Impact and Influence	-Relationship Building -Organisational Awareness	-	-	✗ out of target
Managerial	Directiveness	Developing Others		✗ out of target
Cognitive			Technical and Managerial Expertise	✗ out of target
Personal Effectiveness		Integrity	Self-Control	✗ out of target

Source: Developed for this research

Table 5.9 showed that Thai female leaders in this study have a leadership competency that is off-target. Achievement Orientation is the only competency that matches the ideal leadership competency model. There are no

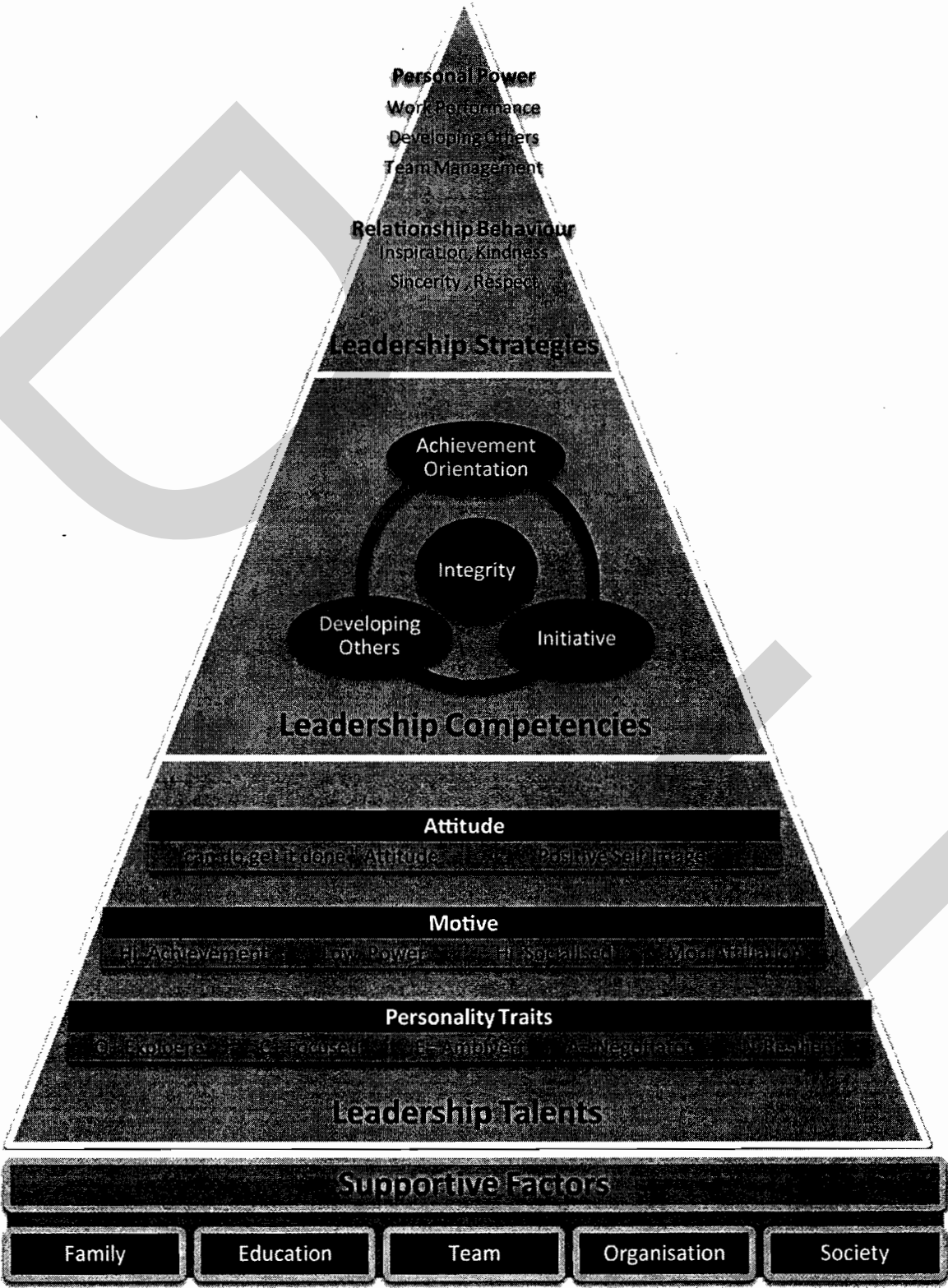
Relationship Building and Organisational Awareness competency and Directiveness competency.

The compensation to replace the competency that is off-target, Thai female leaders in the private sector use Initiative competency to support Achievement Orientation competency, and use Developing Others and Integrity competencies as a special version of Impact and Influence, to influence others. Thai female leaders in the public sector use Information Seeking competency as a prerequisite for Technical Expertise competency. The Acquisition of Expertise is actually a special case of Information Seeking and supports higher level of Achievement Orientation. They also use Self Control competency to maintain performance under stressful or hostile conditions. This means that Thai female leaders employ transformational leadership, emotional intelligence and ability to build trust. As many scholars have indicated, females have better social skills and are described as interested in other people (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, and Werhane, 2007).

In conclusion, the underlying factors such as Personality Profile, Leader Motive Profile, and Leadership Competency Model, associated with successful female leaders in Thai society are not a perfect match with the ideal type of leadership profile. Thai female leaders utilise many ways to compensate this, such as participative management styles, emotional intelligence and ability to build trust.

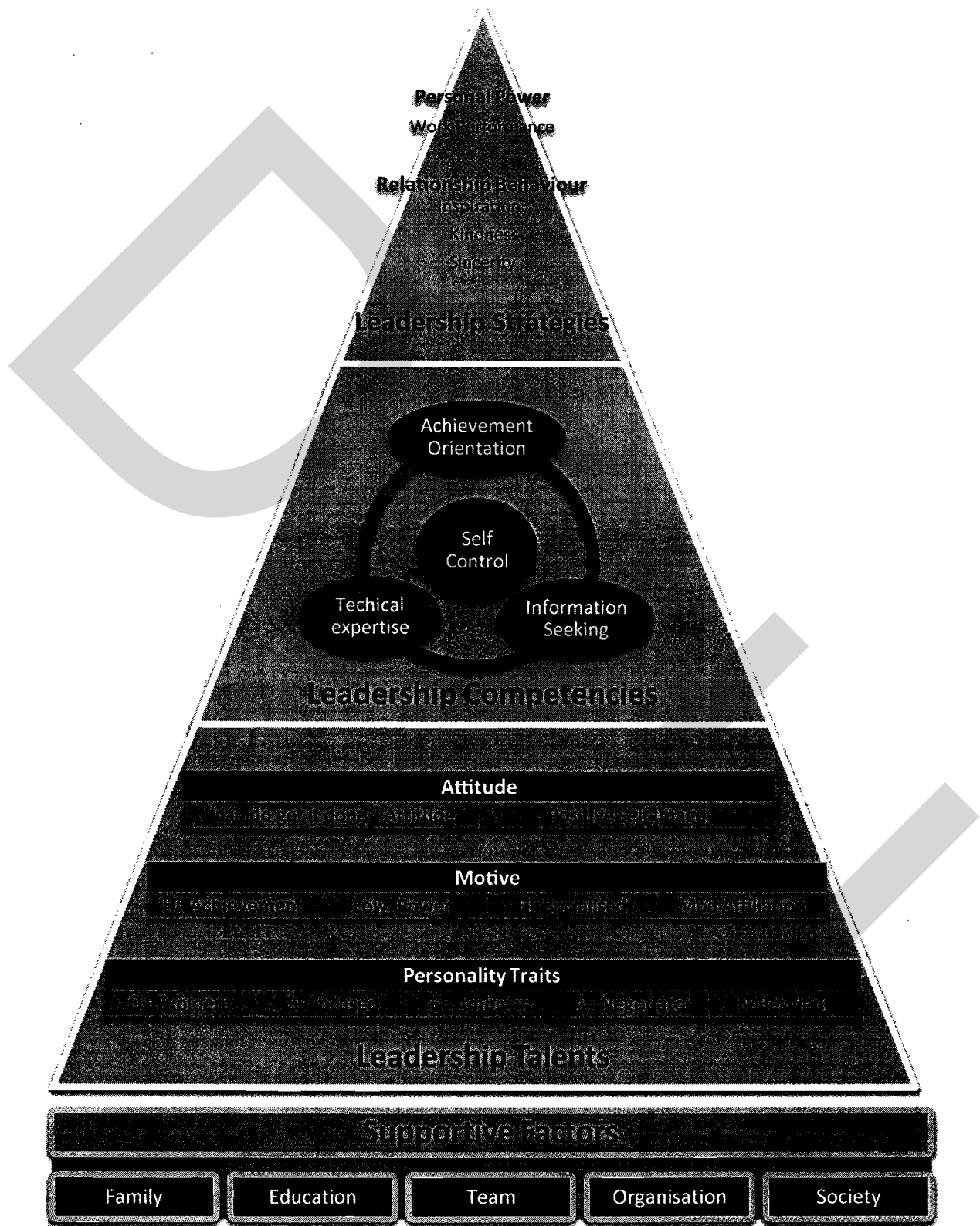
Finally, the conclusion related to all research proposition in this study summarises all the factors that allow the possibility for Thai females to attain leadership positions in Thai society, that are shown in Figures 5.7 and 5.8 for both the private and public sectors.

Figure 5.7 Thai Female Leadership Model; Private Sector



Source: Developed for this research

Figure 5.8 Thai Female Leadership Model: Public Sector



Source: Developed for this research

5.3 Limitations of the study

Every research design and investigation has limitations (Yin, 2003). This thesis also has limitations to its research potential.

First, it may be that a different participant group of 40 interviewees might have provided different answers to the questions. However, the composition of the group was arguably representative of those female leaders who experienced the particular management education under discussion. Therefore, this limitation is not seen as particularly significant. The interview questions themselves were developed from the literature review. Their content and form were potentially a limitation, and as such, should be kept in mind, even if not viewed as a major constraint.

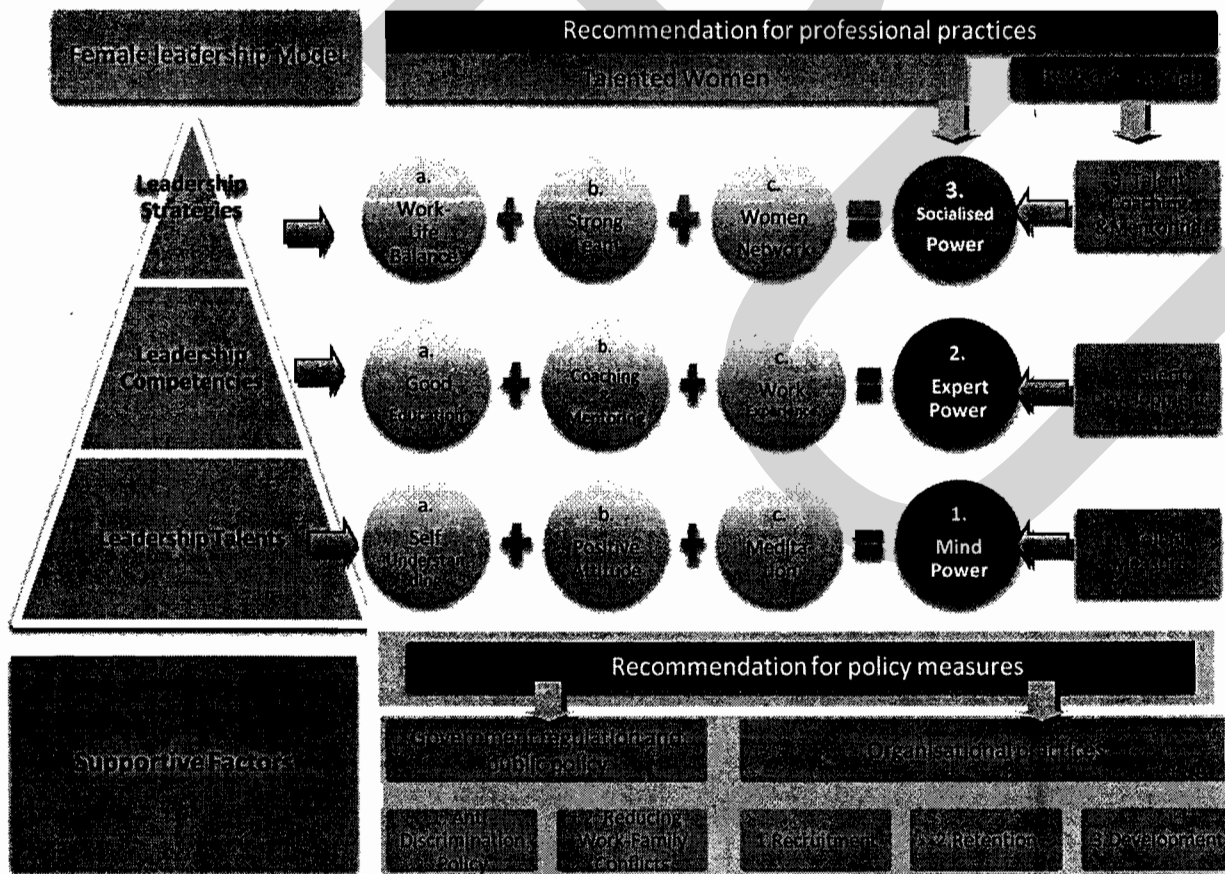
Second, in regards to the relationship between case studies, large samples, and discoveries, 40 cases of female leader participants in both the private and the public sectors look like small samples. This does not mean that the case study is always appropriate or relevant as a research method or that large random samples are without value. The advantage of large samples is breadth, whereas their problem is one of depth. For the case study, the situation is the reverse. Both approaches are necessary for a sound development of social science. The choice of method should clearly depend on the problem under study and its circumstances.

Third, the data collected for this thesis was appropriate as at collection time. Changes in the organisational practice policy and social culture in Thailand may affect the utility of the research output in the future. Similarly, the findings are considered valid for organisation in Thailand in the present and immediate future, but are likely to become dated and possibly less useful as time progresses. Moreover, although the research is not so specific to be relevant to other countries, it is important to note that the research was not designed to investigate questions across countries but merely within the Thailand.

5.4 Recommendations

The research findings provide rich perspective and insights into Thai female leader’s current status in both the private and the public sector. Thai women today have achieved educational levels and are economic force with buying power of their own. But, in Thailand, women’s progression into leadership roles has been an evolution, not revolution. The progress on modernising gender approaches is clearest in countries and companies which recognise that “women” issues are crucial political and economic subjects. Countries and companies that are women-friendly will be better placed to benefit from these demographic and social trends. Based on the concept of a female leadership model, the implications of findings contribute for policy measures and for professional practice in female leadership are shown in Figure 5. 9.

Figure 5.9 Recommendations for policy measure and professional practice



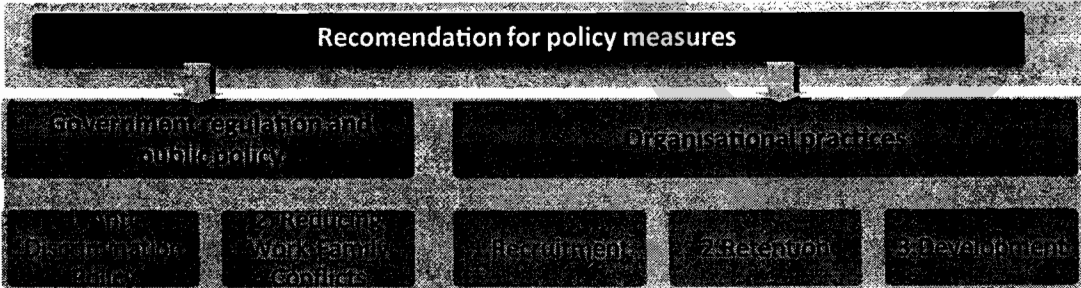
Sources: Developed for this research

5.4.1 Recommendation for Policy Measures

The future of female leadership in Thailand cannot just rest on the issue on the ambitions of the female population or not the desire for organisations to create competitive advantage. In Thailand, little change would have occurred without the legislative and public policy initiatives that started to gather momentum in late 20th Century. The critical changes in legislation to promote gender equality in employment and educational opportunities for women have been implemented. Although, the positive effect of legislation is acknowledged, the elimination of the embedded socio-cultural beliefs from organisational practices remains difficult to achieve.

As illustrated in the Thai female leadership model (see Figure 5.7), Thai society is one of the supportive factors assisting females to reach to the top in both the private and the public sectors. However, as research results showed, social factor and organisational practice factor seem to be more a barrier than a support. Such issues as patriarchy (Father Rule) culture and gender stereotype are the main barriers to female leaders providing greatest faced the most resistance to their leadership. The significant transformation in women’s access to leadership positions over the past few decades has been essential, but still inadequate (see Section 5.2.2.3). There is much to be done in the areas of Thai government regulation and Organisational practices, as illustrated in Figure 5.10.

Figure 5.10 Recommendations for policy measures



Sources: Developed for this research

5.4.1.1 Government regulation and public policy

(1) *Anti-Discrimination Policy*

Thai culture is characterised by low masculinity having the lowest masculinity ranking among the Asian countries listed at 34, compared to the Asian average of 53 and the World average of 50 (Hofstede, 1980). This situation also reinforces traditional male and female roles within the population. The perception that leadership is a man's role creates a barrier for women to move up the organisational hierarchy into the managerial ranks (Hofstede, 1980, 2007; Picavet, 2005; Yukongdi, 2005). The research results showed gender discrimination typically occurs, and that leadership succession is still a traumatic event in both the private and the public sectors. As a result, women's representation could be strengthened by expanding enforcement of equal employment opportunity requirements and anti-discrimination enforcement. If Thailand becomes a women-friendly country, it will be better placed to benefit from these demographic and social trends.

(2) *Reducing Work-Family Conflicts*

The challenge associated with maintaining the dual roles as leaders and mothers is a relatively recent phenomenon, affecting increasing numbers of women in organisations over the past twenty years. Moreover, with the younger generations, men increasingly share domestic responsibilities for housework and childcare. Child care is no longer just "women's work," and many men want to be more involved, spending time with their families. It seems that work-life integration is now shared by men, women, and their families. As a result, it is no longer a women issue, it is a development issue.

In the 21st century, if forced to choose between working and having a family, women may choose for work. Women don't want to stay at home. They want to go to work. If Thailand does not wish to face falling birth rate problems, as now occurs in industrialised countries, Thailand needs to enable women to combine dual careers with parenthood and help women combine their womanhood with strong leadership, such as investing in day-care and all-day schools rather than paying parents to stay home. As a result, policies related to child-care, elders-care, and parental leave may need revision to increase women's labour force participation and reduce work-family conflicts. However, many unanswered questions remain about

how work-family practices and policies can best integrate overall business strategy and human resources practices of organisations.

5.4.1.2 Organisational Practices

In recent years, the number one issue has been talent management and talented people are the most valuable asset. The most progressive companies are realising that women represent a critical, and still largely available, source of talent for current and future generations of leadership. Multinational company practices provide more equal opportunities for women than local companies in the private sector and the corporate in the public sector.

Thai women want to make to leader level, but are reluctant to engage in the process of “impression management”. They feel uncomfortable with it. They don’t like promoting themselves. It’s difficult to network. As a result, inspiring women is not simply about increasing the number of women, but rather supporting and developing women across the entire span of their career. It is not simply to recruit more women, how to keep them and promote them into power. All this areas of recruitment, retention and development require specific executive adjustments.

CEO and Human Resource Executives are the chief directors of an organisation’s mission and strategy filling a unique role in building the organisation’s capacity. Recommendations for organisational practices provide an initial corporate guide to make adjustments through a better appreciation of talented women and provide insights as to what has been successfully achieved as organisational practices in talented women recruitment, retention and development.

(1) Recruitment: Employer Choice for women

While first generation (Baby Boomer) of women was willing to play pioneer in relatively unfriendly contexts, the current generation (Generation X and Y) is more discerning. Generation X and Generation Y individuals are more likely to be family-centric. Today’s women have more choice and are better informed. Money alone is not enough to attract talented women, nor is the evidence of simply having more women present in the organisation. It is fair to conclude Generation X, Generation Y and the women in these generations can remain highly committed so long as their employer can provide the environment they are seeking.

CEO and Human Resource Executives need to develop strategies such as positioning the firm as the professional services firm of choice for women, reviewing how to present attractive companies to women. Reviewing recruitment ads is a quick and effective way of checking whether companies understand how women think and feel.

(2) Retention: Building an appropriate environment to retain talented women

Many women leave for a more attractive workforce, for greater control over their lives, or for the renewed meaning and motivation offered by alternative careers like entrepreneurship. Men and women have different career life-cycles, however women tend to leave at different stages, and with different consequences, compared to men (Hewlett & Luce, 2005). Women may sometimes be pulled out of corporate jobs by personal aspirations and family commitments; more often it is the many cumulative factors inside companies themselves which force them out. They are looking for fulfilment and a way to integrate their life and their work. Flexible working might be aimed primarily at women. Building a flexible workplace needs to be rethought, taken out of the gender issue and made a priority tool for attracting and retaining all kinds of employees.

(3) Development: Empowerment, equal but different development program

Research results show there is not yet any development program that resembles an effective strategy for female leaders. Many programmes send women off for assertiveness training, to try to teach them to behave more like men. Additionally, women are not fully familiar with the organisational politics, culture and rules of male corporate game, especially in the public sector. They may lack the networks which provide informal guidance about the right choice to make.

The company can empower women, in many ways, For example, making the corporate rules of career progression and promotion more transparent. Increasing the number of female leaders by promote talented women. Establish and extend professional networks internally and externally. Provide external coaches for high-potential women. Provide formal and informal opportunities for mentoring. And create tailored development program for female leaders.

5.4.2 Recommendation for Professional Practices

5.4.2.1 Female leaders and women in professional careers

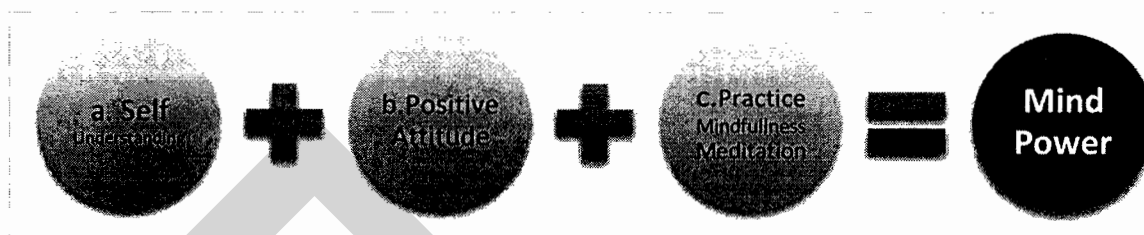
Fortunately, with the increasing numbers of women in business and the talent needs of organisations today, there will continue to be an increasing number of women required in senior management in Thailand, though female leaders will still face the pressure of being the only women in boardroom. Moreover, women can't suppose that bosses and organisations will always know the best actions to support them. Women must strive to excel in their work and take responsibility for their career advancement and the necessary actions to improve their self-awareness and self-management, the foundations for effective leadership.

Based on the concept of the female leadership model, the implications of findings will provide insights on how female leaders take responsibility for their own development; advance their own career and that of other talented women. The research findings showed female leaders utilised their personal powers to achieve leadership position. To build personal power themselves, the recommendation for female leaders and women in professional career are divided into three powers, (1) mind power development, (2) expert power development, (3) socialised power.

(1) Mind Power Development

Mind Power is the most powerful tool for female leaders. It is labelled as part of the normal individual's personality in which mental processes function without consciousness under normal waking conditions. Talented women need to develop all their mind power using the three efforts: a. in-depth self understanding, b. positive attitude and c. mindfulness meditation, as shown in Figure 5.11.

Figure 5.11 Mind power developments



Source: Developed for this research

a. In-depth self understanding

Research results show that relationship of female leader individual's core personality exerts a certain strong influence on leadership motives, leadership competencies, and leadership power. Female leaders are born with some leadership ability and develop it. In order to develop themselves to be successful leaders, women must first learn about themselves. Even though, the underlying factors are difficult to access, and often hard to develop, underlying core personalities can be understood as manifestations of how a person views oneself, how they typically behave, or and their motives.

Today, personality theorists conclude that personality traits developed based on genetic and environmental factors tend to occur together in the same person. The genetic path is usually referred to as temperament, and the environmental part is usually called personality. The genes persons received before they were born influence their temperament. Their family, friends, school, work, and social culture also influence their personality (Howard & Howard, 2001 and Lussier & Achua, 2007).

Talent is the natural recurring patterns of thought, feeling and behaviour that can be productively by applied (Buckingham & Clifton, 2001, p. 48). Talented people are those who consistently deliver outstanding performance that is the key result of their roles. Personality profiles identify an individual's stronger and weaker traits. In general, personality profiles are used to categorise people as a means of predicting job success. Knowing personalities help people to explain and predict performance (Howard & Howard, 2001).

According to the research results, female leaders in this study appear to be very clear about who they are and what they believe in. Female leaders know that to become effective they must know themselves and how to play to their strengths and manage their weaknesses. What distinguishes the best leaders is their ability to focus on what they do well. Therefore, Female leaders or women who want to advance their own careers need to complete a Five-Factor Model personality assessment, or other reliable and validated psychosomatic test, to find their own talent – then strengthen their talents to become the best leaders.

The Thai female leadership model illustrated the perfect portrait of a female leader's personality profile in Thai society, according to these research results. Although it is possible to succeed as a successful leader with a different profile, the natural female leader defined in the Five-Factor Model terms is Explorer (O+); Focused(C+); Ambivert(E=); Negotiator(A=); Resilient (N-). For leaders, knowing themselves is not just about looking inward, knowing themselves means knowing how they affect other people. The impact of a female leader is talents and strengths which may have become weaknesses, together with suggested remedies based on the Five-Factor Model female leadership personality profiles are shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 The Strengths, Weaknesses and Remedies of female leaders' personality models

Personality Traits	Strengths	Weaknesses	Remedies
O+ Explorer	Explorer; naturally creative and imaginative; comfortable focusing on theory, complex problems, and the future; see opportunities for change as enjoyable	May enjoy change for change's sake; many resist spending sufficient time on the details; may probably get bored if management responsibilities don't challenge the imagination.	Have an assistant or close associate who has permission to ride herd on you with respect to being practical and meeting stated objectives.
C+ Focused	Focussed; very ambitious; highly disciplined and difficult, if not impossible, to distract from the task or goal at hand; strong preference for finishing one project before beginning another; a perfectionist who maintains very high standards.	Often is a workaholic who causes associates lower in C to resent having to match the leader's long hours; untiring drive, and will to achieve; has difficulty flexing when the goal changes or is put on hold.	Understand that your associates do not typically have your high comfort level for long hours and dedication to goals; occasionally take yourself with a grain of salt to show associates that you are aware of your excesses; make a point of being playful or spontaneous to appear more human to your associates and family when it won't jeopardize your goal attainment.
E= Ambivert	Friendly, approachable, gregarious, assertive, enthusiastic; natural face-to-face communicator; is comfortable taking charge.	None.	No need.
A= Negotiator	Good negotiator; good for the win-win approach; is sufficiently tough, but able also to show understanding of others' needs and interest; can wheel and deal without either caving or crushing in others.	None.	No need.
N- Resilient	Perceived as eternally calm and unflappable; extremely difficult to unnerve; inspires high confidence.	On occasion, can communicate coolness or indifference.	Make it a point to communicate, in speech or in writing, all positive and negative feedback to your followers.

Source: Adapted from Howard and Howard (2001). *The owner's Manual for Personality at Work*.

An excess or deficiency in a particular dimension can be offset, or moderated, by compensating scores in related dimensions. For example, O+ can be tamed by C+, A- can be smoothed over by E+ and N- can be made expressive by E+ and either A+ or A- and the coolness of E- can be warmed up by the nurturing quality of A+ (Howard & Howard, 2001).

In conclusion, as leaders, women need to understand their own personal style and the style of the person they are working with. If they know these two things, they have a chance of knowing how to influence the other person more effectively. All leaders must examine their own strengths and challenge and determine their own development, improve their self-knowledge and discover personal qualities that support their work as leaders.

b. Developing a More Positive Attitude and Strong Self-Image

Leader behaviour and performance will be consistent with the way people see themselves. Female leaders must have a positive attitude and strong self image. If women don't believe they can be a successful, they probably won't be. The environment influence people attitudes. Even though people cannot control their environment, they can control their attitude (Lussier & Achua, 2007). The following are some suggestion for women to help women change their attitudes and develop a more positive self-image.

- Set and achieve goal with a "can do, get it done" attitude.

Nothing builds a picture of success more than achievement. When followers see that their leader can lead and direct, has a clear vision and attainable goals, then that person's credibility increases throughout the organisation. When the female leader is seen as someone who works to attain increasingly higher goals, followers will be impressed and more willing to mirror that behaviour. Moreover, achieving specific goals will improve women's self-image, helping women to view themselves as successful.

- Build and maintain a positive, optimistic attitude.

If women don't have a positive attitude, it may be caused by their unconscious thoughts and behaviour. If a leader has a positive attitude, the followers usually do too. Nevertheless, there are times when many followers need leaders to inspire them by word or action. They need someone to look up to, admire, and follow.

Scientific evidence suggests that peoples' thoughts affect every cell in the human body. Every time people think positive thoughts, their body, mind and spirit respond and feel more motivated and energetic. Avoid negative attitudes and avoid negative people and associate with people who have a positive self-concept.

- Having a good looking personality

It is actually a disadvantage for women to be physically attractive when applying for leader roles. Women with extremely feminine manners may receive lower ratings, apparently, because people stereotyped as female are considered unsuited for a job as a boss. Conversely, women with extremely masculine manners may lose their feminine power that allows women to get certain things based on their physical assets. Thus, women in a professional career need to be nice possess good manners and a well dressed personality. Moderate dresses draw more positive evaluations than extremely feminine or masculine clothing. Female leaders need to take care of themselves to be good looking personality, healthy and nice shape. Good character achieves the roles of female leaders.

c. Practice Mindfulness Meditation

Leadership is exceptionally difficult and challenging, especially female leaders. Results show women's emotions and thoughts such as Indecisive Decision Making, Being Fussy, Quick Tempered, and Thin-skinned, are the main barriers preventing females reaching the top. In Thai culture, female leaders must be both mindful of and benefit their own feminine value such as being caring, compassion, empathic, and non violent, don't adopt a masculine leadership style. Female leaders in Thai culture are able to celebrate their femininity and gain the advantages that come with it. They accept that being female is part of who they are and how they engage with others.

To achieve self-improvement, a woman has to know herself and be in control of her emotions and thoughts. Female leaders in this study are good religious adherents, either Buddhist, Islamic, or Christian. This suggests that in a leadership position, the importance of mindfulness meditation could be helpful as a tool for developing social and emotional skills for dealing with the challenges of female leadership (see Section 4.4.4: Female leadership motive).

Mindfulness meditation practice was first taught in India by the Buddha, a title that means "awakened one." Buddhists and others seeking greater calm and peace of mind have long practiced this (Carroll, 2008). Recent research highlights the many benefits of mindfulness meditation (Carroll, 2008), such as:

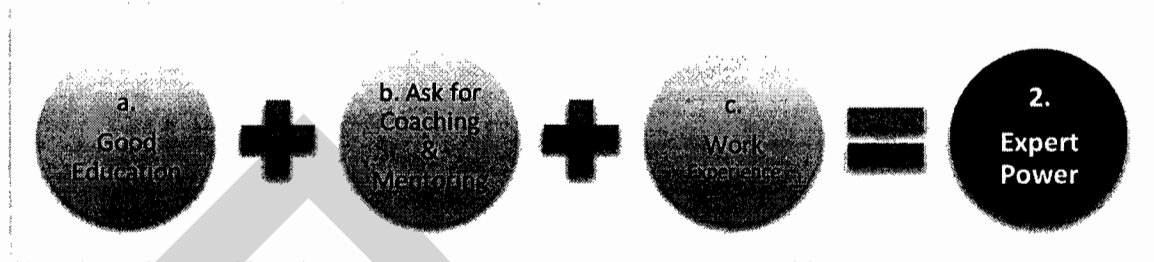
- Repaired immune systems
- Heightened emotional intelligence
- Reduced anxiety and depression
- Sustained levels of joy and satisfaction
- Greater career resilience
- Improved cardiovascular health
- Fewer days lost to illness and stress

As a result, mindfulness meditation allows people to be at peace, relax, focus on the present moment and give people a better understanding of themselves. If women can put their focus and attention to the present moment, they will be on the path to self-improvement and success. When Mindfulness is strong, women can respond to difficulties in a less reactive, more conscious and accepting manner. It is a good way to improve women's mind power and develop female innate leadership talents.

(2)Expert Power Development

Female leaders must be seen by their bosses, peers and followers as being experts in their field or experts in leadership. Unless others see female leaders as highly credentialed, either by academic degree or with specialised experience and capable of leading their company to success, it will be difficult for female leaders to be as respected, admired, or followed. As a result, female leaders need to develop their expert power. Figure 5.12 illustrates three recommendations: a. good educations, b. ask for coaching and mentoring and c. work experience.

Figure 5.12 Expert power developments



Source: Developed for this research

a. Good Education: Attend both internal and external development programs

Although, leaders learn along the way due to hard work, as crises and challenges arise they have key opportunities to demonstrate that they are, in fact, qualified to be leaders. In actuality, greater competency can be achieved as a leader gains more on-the-job experiences. Unfortunately, this way alone is not enough for female leaders to increase their competencies.

Female leaders in this study succeed by performing exceptionally well. Because women's excellent performance can be overlooked, successful female leaders need to make sure that they have sharpened their skills and abilities. The majority of female leaders in this study had obtained Masters Degrees. Moreover, some of them (30%) obtained a Doctoral Degree.

As a result, women need to attend both internal and external development programs, not only technical expertise programs, but also leadership development programs that can provide the leadership concepts and frameworks that help them understand how to be a more effective leader. Additionally, they need to obtain skill training in communication, influencing and negotiation that is necessary to be able to demonstrate women's competence. Female leaders need to feel confident in their own competence and demonstrate authority when they know they have sufficient information.

b. Ask for coaching and mentoring

Coaching has emerged as the preferred “just in time” learning to help leaders leverage the areas that have the greatest impact on business results (Valerio, 2009). Coaching can have a profound influence by assisting both male and female leaders in building self-awareness and managing themselves and others. It allows leaders to improve their at soft skill competencies, such as interpersonal skill, communicating and emotional self management.

Mentoring serves as an important source of information exchange and helps foster a sense of belonging to the organisation (Valerio, 2009). Mentors can provide female leaders with career advice keep them informed about the availability of exceptional assignments and provide opportunities for visibility with senior management. Mentors may offer friendship and personal support, acceptance, a sense of belonging and serve as role models to function in an organisation. Having multiple mentors, who are both internal and external to organisation, can be even more advantageous because of the deferent perspectives, network, and help (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; Valerio, 2009).

Surprisingly, female leaders in this study never mentioned coaching and mentoring as supportive factors that help them to grow as leaders. Additionally, there has been less systematic research on coaching than other leadership development methods, available evidence indicates that it is an important tool for helping men and women develop new behaviours that enable them to grow as leaders (Peterson, 2002). Both coaching and mentoring are a necessity in helping women to overcome barriers to advancement in organisations. If female leaders receive feedback that they are very assertive or tend to be intimidating to others, they may want to consider softening their approach by adopting more communal behaviours. Women may be able to solicit the help of a friend, peer, or boss who can observe their behaviours and provide them feedback. Doing the work required developing self awareness and self-management is not easy for women. Sometimes women are reluctant to ask for help, while many consider it a sign of weakness or deficiency (Valerio, 2009). Talented women need to overcome this barrier.

c. Work Experience: Challenging job assignments

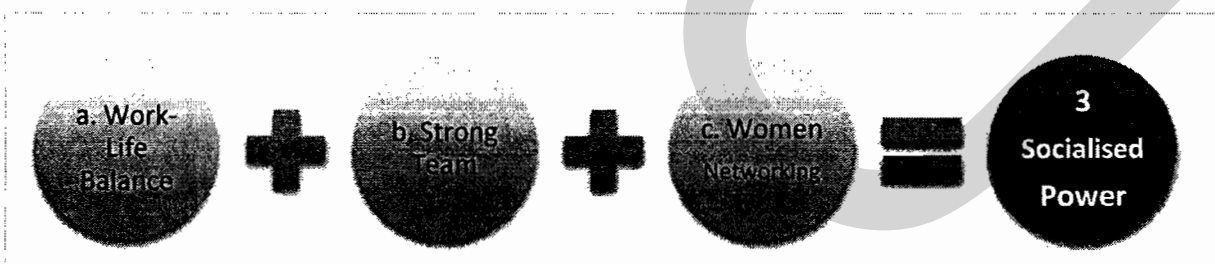
Job assignments are job experiences that stretch people out of their comfort zone to do something new or different. These assignments are full of problems to solve, obstacles to overcome and choices filled with risk and uncertainty. Women need to find out which assignments in their organisation and the type of preparation are necessary for success in leadership position.

(3) Socialised Power Development

This study finds that mind power and expert power alone will not guarantee women leadership positions in corporate Thailand. Women need greater space to exercise socialize power, since strategy to adapt is a skill many successful leaders in both the private and private sectors in Thai culture share. Women who reach leadership positions do so through co-operation and support from their colleagues even bosses, co-workers or subordinates.

Female leaders need more than just a seat at the executive table. They need to command respect and loyalty from their colleagues to achieve corporate goals. To this end, three efforts to improve Socialised Power are needed, a. work-life balance, b. building a strong team and c. joining women in networking, as shown in Figure 5.13.

Figure 5.13 Socialised Power developments



Source: Developed for this research

a. Work-life balance

Female leaders in this study always work hard. Time spent in the workplace continues to be a powerful indicator of commitment. If women spend more

time with people at work, than with people at home, it may lead to family problems and place pressure on their marriage status. The requirement for long hours of work can interfere with health and family and affects both men and women at work. Moreover, gender-leader role incongruity makes for incompatible expectations for women in leadership roles. The study finds a number of successful female leaders attribute their professional advancement to the support of their husbands. Maintaining work-life balance in successful careers and leadership roles is important and the greatest challenge for female leaders.

Time management: Women need to manage their priorities appropriately, which demands good time management. Consequently, they should not spend unnecessary time at work or on less important tasks, nor neglect the time that they should spend at home or having fun. Women exercising sound time management do not waste time worrying and arguing about small matters that may decrease their efficiency levels. Without a balanced life, it may affect women's emotions thus, affecting how they lead and how the team reacts to them. In fact, having a work-life balance is the key to success in life and at work.

b. Building a strong team

Successful female leaders, especially in the private sector, assemble effective teams of experienced, credentialed, and capable individuals who can supplement the skills required in the team. Female leaders require strong teams and to focus on team effort. This ability is what sets successful leaders apart from others. Moreover, a leader needs to be willing to admit a lack of certain abilities and go about finding trusted colleagues to complement those deficiencies.

Female leaders need to adjust to their own feelings and use their understanding to enhance the organisation. Female leader require emotional intelligence to align personal and subordinate goals to accomplish organizational goals. An organisation relies upon its leaders, thus it is up to the leaders to develop their skills and potential to lead followers to a successful future.

In this respect, the relationship behaviours, Inspiration, Kindness, Sincerity, and Respect utilised by female leaders in this study. Women can adopt these relationship behaviours to build a strong team, as follows:-

- **Inspiration:** Female Leadership should employ Inspiration. To be a leader, women need followers. Focus to be on Inspiration, not “niceness” or likeability. Respect staff commitment to what they do, and find ways to help them do it better.

- **Kindness:** Women can become strong leaders by practising kindness in all their work. Kindness doesn't mean being a sissy. Kindness is value at work. Female leaders shared practice kindness and create workplaces that people want to work in and become productive.

- **Sincerity:** leaders need to act genuinely instead of listing facts to show sincerity. Sincere people reveal their feelings directly and frankly. It is part honesty and part candidness. Leaders who act sincerely have the ability to avoid duplicity and embrace honesty. It doesn't mean women have to embrace everybody, and it doesn't mean they have to tell everyone their secrets.

- **Respect:** Female leaders, especially in the private sector, should use respect in their leadership approach so that they will not only successfully motivate people to accomplish the mission, but they will distinguish themselves as persons with greater maturity as a true leader.

c. Joining Women in Networking

Female leaders need to consider simply getting together regularly with groups of other women with whom they can share experiences. Joining women's professional organizations and attending conferences for networking purposes, such as the Business and Professional Woman's Association of Thailand (BPW), and the Thai women SMEs Association (TWO SA). There are many benefits to this activity. The shared experience of these women is incredibly powerful. Women may feel less isolated and learn how other women manage to be successful and overcome obstacles in their lives. They may find friends and role models. The networks being developed among women are proving to be wonderful.

5.4.2.2 Professional practice for females' bosses and Human Resource professionals

The critical role of females' bosses and Human Resource professionals is to develop the talent in the organisation and help staff solve performance problems and develop their individual potential. The female leadership competency model confirms that female leaders are born with some leadership ability and develop it. This model provides the incited what bosses can do to contribute to the successful performance of females who report to them and provide the impetus for creating or enhancing talent management programs for talented women. The recommendation is divided into three parts (1) Talent measures for recruitment and selection, (2) Talent development, (3) Talent coaching and mentoring.

(1) Talent Measures for Recruitment and Selection

Selection is the process of matching people and jobs, either with people outside the organisation (recruiting and new hire selection) or inside (placement and promotion). Performance is first based on choosing the right people. Talent measures intended to identify "natural" personal characteristics, predict two kinds of performance, what people can do and what a person will do. Talent measures, when appropriate to the job, are the best predictors of superior job performance. There are many assessments sufficient to make hiring decisions for example, personality assessment and competency assessment.

- Personality assessment

As the research results show, a female leaders' individual core personality, motive and attitude strongly shape leader behaviour competencies. Knowing these individual factors help to explain and predict leadership competencies and job performance and contributes significantly to predicting leader effectiveness, leader emergence and leader advancement.

Leadership personality and motive are associated with success in certain jobs. The first step in solving a performance problem is to determine whether or not the performer's personality possesses the appropriate infrastructure for the underperformed competency. Core personality and motive are more difficult to assess and develop. It is most cost-effective to select appropriately to accommodate for these characteristics. The primary value of studying personality in the workplace rests in the

degree to which it will result in improved performance (Howard & Howard, 2001, p. 195).

- Competency Assessment

Female leadership competencies model in this study may provide the foundation for an entire human resource system including selection and assessment, development, performance management and training. As the research results show a difference competency model for both sectors, where the only exception “Achievement Orientation”, that is placed high on the lists in both sectors.

Identification, of which competencies are Cost-Effective in deciding to train versus to select, is the first step in competency assessment. Core competencies and traits like achievement motivation and initiative can be trained, but it may be more effective to hire a person who already has these competencies than try to instil achievement motivation to someone who does not have it. The rule is: selection is pre-potent over training (or, more colloquially, you can teach a turkey to climb a tree-but it is easier to hire a squirrel) (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Competencies that are likely to predict candidates’ long-run career successes are hard to develop through employer training or job experience. These include master competencies such as achievement orientation that is more cost-effective to select than develop. Achievement Orientation is the competency of a female leadership model that matches an ideal leadership competency model.

(2) Talent Development

Competencies can be taught. Even core motive competencies such as achievement orientation can be modified (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Knowledge and skill are relatively easy to develop: training is the most cost-effective way to secure these abilities.

Before developing talented women, self directed change should first be considered. People change only if they feel it is in their own best interests to do so, are personally clear about what their own goals for competence and personally clear about how to use new competency behaviours (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). A person’s motivation cannot be changed unless the person really sees it in his or her self-interest to change.

The following are some recommendation for developing talented women competency-based training program:-

- Develop a leadership competency model. A good female leadership competency model should be tailored to the organisational culture. It must specify the competencies needed for superior performance in a present or future job.
- Identification of competencies that are more cost-effectiveness to train versus to select for. Core competency like achievement motivation is hard to train; it may be more cost-effective to hire people already possessing this quality.
- Identify gaps between actual and ideal performance. For each gap, assess the fit between the individual and the ideal infrastructure. If the fit is close, develop or train the individual. If the fit is poor, compensate or work around the gap with other strategies. If the fit is somewhere in between, support or coach the individual in adapting to some situations with extra help and incentive.
- Select the most cost-effective development options, such as a competency-based training program and developing job assignments for hi-potential women.

(3) Talent coaching and mentoring

Mentoring is the process of shaping competencies or behaviour by providing feedback about how to achieve the best in life (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Mentors may work with managers and supervisors at all levels. The mentor is slightly better off to blend politically deft observations with frankness that will help the talented women develop a capacity to lead people and personally excel. Talented leaders should be assigned to work with senior managers who are widely acknowledged masters of a competence the learner needs to develop.

A performance based approach depends on choosing the right coaching for talented women who need to improve leadership ability. Executive coaches provide female leaders with work behaviours that will increase their success for the job. The executive coaches typically work exclusively with those who have potential to be high-flyer and offer total confidentiality. The female leadership model can help executive coaches to better manage the coaching engagement and help Thai female leaders manage the requirements of their jobs in a proactive, productive way.

5.5 Recommendations for future research

There are several aspects of this investigation that provide suggestions for future research. The following suggestions are made for further research based upon the conclusions of this study:-

Follow-up studies using similar methodology may be valuable. A case study methodology was used in this research.

Future research could use quantitative methods to survey a larger sample to evaluate the correlation of female leadership personality traits, motive, attitude and competencies.

Such future research may be expanded to take into account more than two sectors. In the private sector, future research could include multinational companies, Thai large enterprises, small and medium enterprises, and family business. In the public sector, future research could study state owned enterprises, governmental organisations, so as to broaden the scope of the findings.

Entrepreneurship is a special kind of leadership. Women entrepreneur provide very interesting opportunities to explore considering such their personality traits, motive, and leadership style. What is the influential factor supporting them to start their own business? What are the major problems faced by women entrepreneurs in Thai culture? How should they overcome these barriers?

The research finding indicates that women in both sectors deploy little tolerance of unethical behaviour. Future research could study if an increased prevalence of women in leadership roles will decrease fraud in top management.

These research findings did not indicate that coaching, mentoring and women's networking groups to be supporting factors for Thai female leaders. Future research should study, what have been the effects of these types of development programs for Thai female leaders and what appropriate development and advancement of female leaders should be developed.

5.6 Conclusions

5.6.1 Brief description of each chapter

This thesis was primarily designed to address the research problem: *“The need to identify and define the factors that allow the possibility for females to attain leadership positions in Thai society.”*

Chapter 1 described the overview of this thesis. The importance of this research was established and the background to this research was addressed. The research problem and propositions, including the research questions and objectives were also identified. In addition, the thesis was justified and its methodology was briefly discussed.

Chapter 2, extensive literature coverage was reviewed and gaps in the current theories were identified. This literature review clearly demonstrates a connection between the four parent disciplines underpinning the present study relating to the immediate discipline, which focuses on the emergence and development of female leadership in Thailand. Each individual discipline is presented along in three paths:- (1) A review of the major developments that have taken place in respect of the topic; a listing and commentary of the various schools of thought; an historical review of key developments; notes on special areas of influence, and similar. (2) An up-to-date statement of the current progressive and present status of the discipline. (3) An identified "gap" in the literature that this research is going to fill. The four parent disciplines and immediate discipline describe as follow:-

- Parent discipline one described the concept of leadership, the leadership theory paradigm, the history of leadership research. This was followed by a summary of the leadership theory related to the research problem.
- Parent discipline two described the concept of leadership personality trait, the concept of personality, personality trait and leadership, personality and leadership studies follow by the natural leadership talents of women.
- Parent discipline three involved a description of the concept of leadership competencies. It included of the concept of competency, leadership competencies model and female leadership competencies.

- Parent discipline four proceeded with gender-based leadership. This final discipline integrated the concept of gender based leadership, gender stereotyping, gender prejudice, and gender discriminations.

- The Immediate discipline reviewed female, gender, and leadership in Thailand. The key conditions that influence female leadership in Thailand Economic and female leadership study in Thailand were critically reviewed.

Finally, Chapter 2 identified and revised the conceptual dimensions presented in the literature to define the research issues. It concluded with a discussion of the research gaps relating to female leadership in Thai culture, and addressed the need to form a new theoretical framework that dealt with in discussion of the methodology.

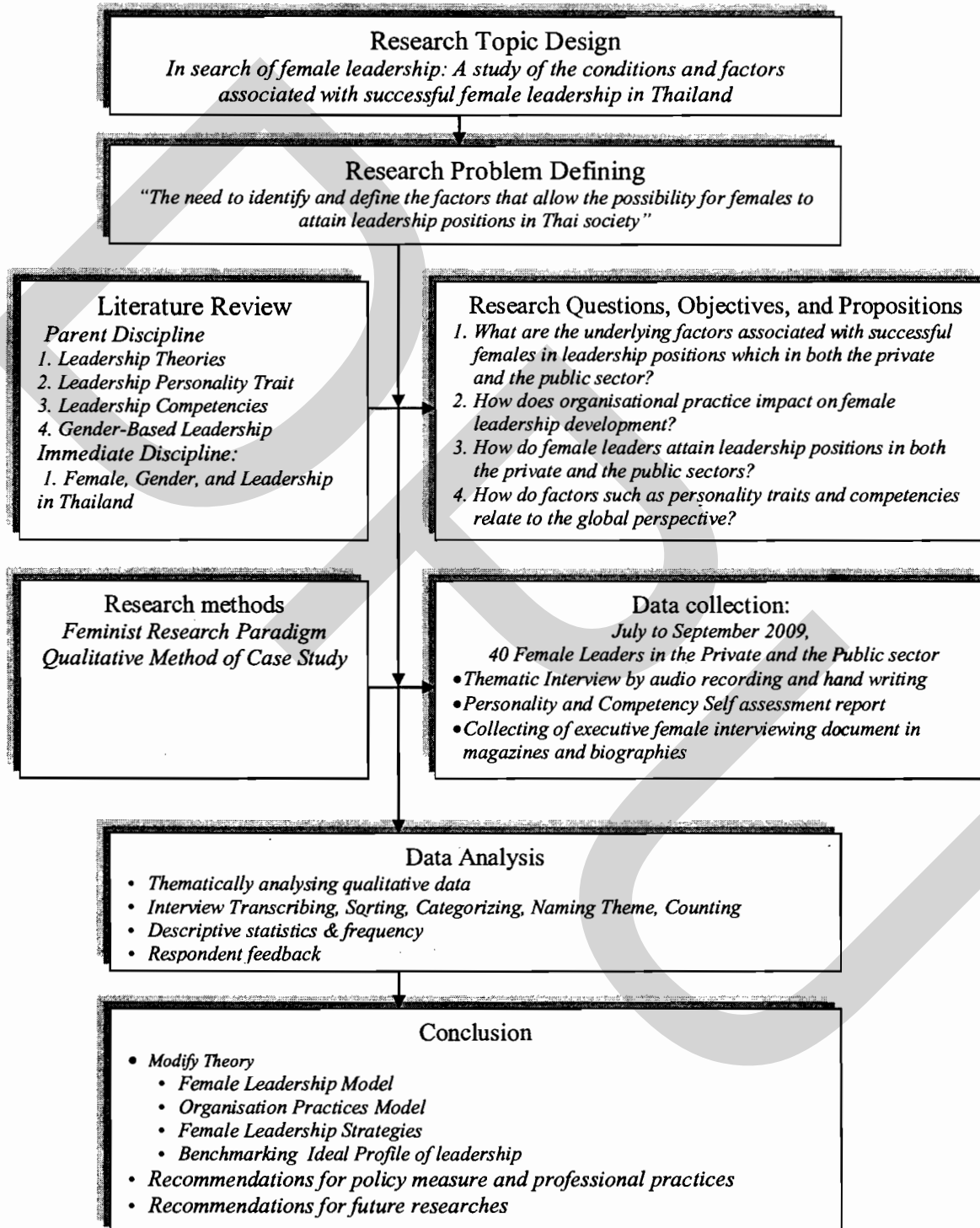
Chapter 3 established the methodology that was used to conduct this research. This section outlined the characteristics of qualitative approaches, including the predominant methodology used in this thesis, being exploratory research. The chapter moved into a justification for the paradigm, being a feminist research paradigm and provided reasons why the proposed research methodology was appropriate for this case study. This was followed by a discussion of why the private sector and the public sector were chosen to be the focus of this research. This flowed into a discussion of the foremost processes for collecting optimal data, employing thematic interview by audio recording and handwriting, personality and competency self assessment report, and collecting executive female interviewing documents in magazines and biographies. Then followed a discussion of the analytical techniques used to ensure data validity and reliability in the research. The chapter concluded with reflections on the limitations encountered in the case study research and the ethical considerations factored into the thesis.

In Chapter 4, the data collected from the private and the public sectors in Thailand was analysed and the profile of all participants was explained. Analysis of the data from the 40 in-depth interviews was presented, revealing a group including 20 female leaders in the private sector and 20 female leaders in the private sector. Qualitative content analysis involved thematically analysing qualitative data, interview transcribing, sorting, categorizing, naming theme, and counting, descriptive

statistics & frequency, and participant feedback. Quotations, descriptions, tables and figures were used to illustrate the results, ensuring a multi-faceted approach.

The final chapter presented the conclusions and recommendations to be made regarding each of the research proposition. Modifying the theory of a female leadership model, organisational practices model, female leadership strategies and benchmarking ideal profile of leadership. The findings from Chapter 4 were to be compared to the literature review outlined in Chapter 2. Particular reference was made to the contribution of this research to the understanding of the research problem. The chapter discussed on the limitations of the study. To conclude, recommendations were made for policy measure, professional practices and future researches. Figure 5.14 illustrated the overall brief description of this research.

Figure 5.14 An illustration of the overall brief description this research



Source: Developed for this research

5.6.2 Summary

Female leadership is not simply the subject of a management consulting report supporting the worthwhile notion that women have a right to be located in leadership positions. It is possible to say that the positive results achieved from female leadership prove that the world needs new vision and innovations initiated by females. Female leaders have demonstrated strong leadership skills while still retaining their female talents. This research explores the conditions and factors associated with successful female leadership in Thailand and provide a guide to companies' decisions in selecting, developing and retaining future female leaders.

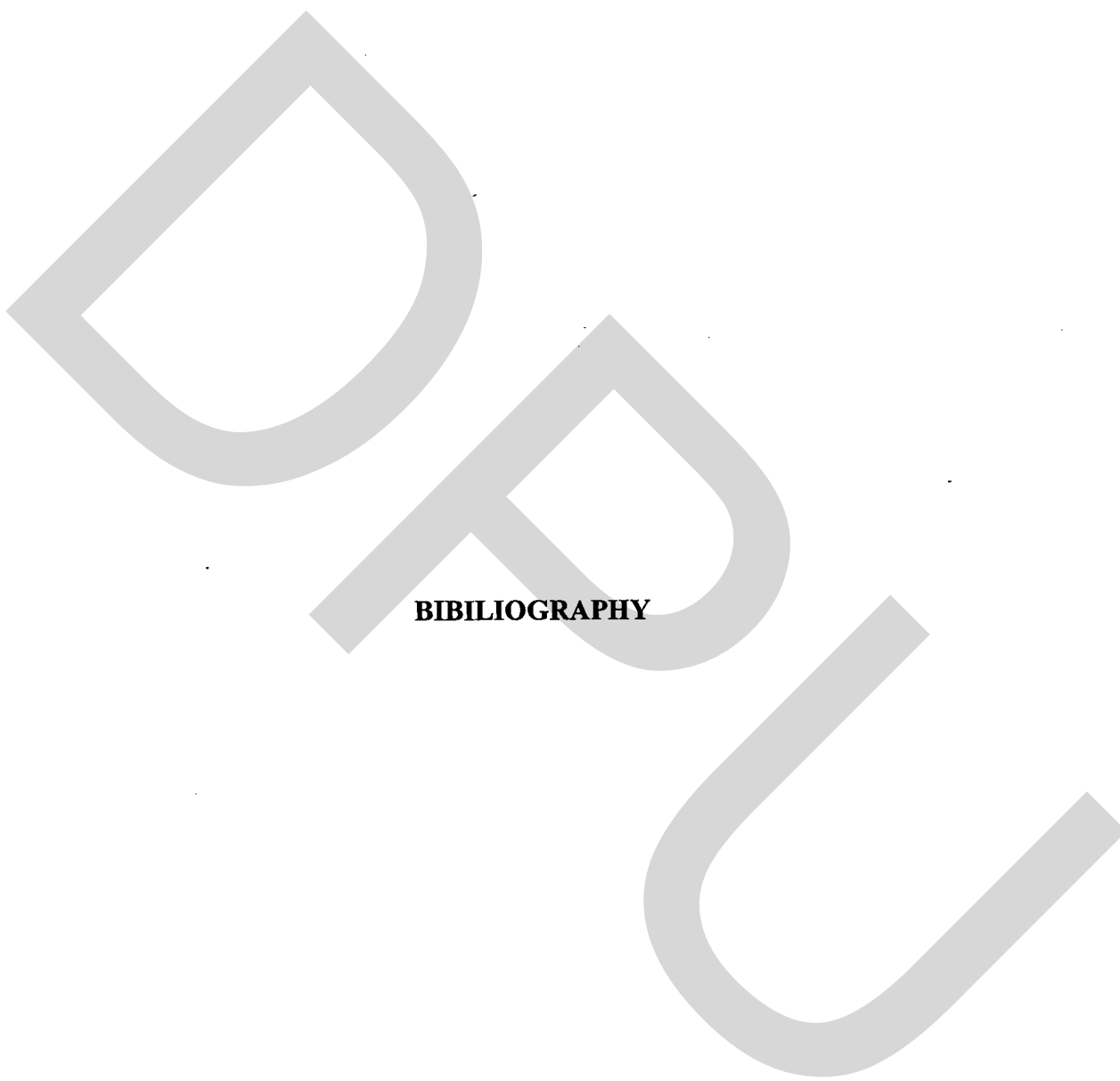
This research develops a conceptual model linking the conditions and factors associated with female leadership in Thailand. It proposes a theoretical basis made on three levels: (1) the macro-level: involving policy, economic, social and technological issues, (2) the meso-level: at industry levels, focusing on gender-based organisational practice in all sectors, (3) the micro-level: at the level of the individual, concerning female leaders' characteristics such as their personalities and competencies. It also critically evaluates the relationship among different theories and show how they relate to this study and what variables are involved. Thus a conceptual framework and four research questions were developed. (1) What are the underlying factors associated with successful females in leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors? (2) How does organisational practice impact on female leadership development? (3) How do female leaders ascend to leadership positions in both the private and the public sectors? (4) How do factors such as personality traits and competencies relate to the global perspective?

To investigate these research questions a qualitative study was conducted within the feminist research paradigm. Then two case studies, the private sector and the public sector were used to investigate the condition and factors associated with successful female leaders. In-depth interviews were then conducted with 40 female leaders in both sectors. Triangulating data was obtained from observations during interviews, self-assessments, and theories in literature. Subsequently, within case analysis was undertaken followed by in-depth, cross case analysis.

The relationship of all the research findings provided a female leadership model (see Figure 5.7 and 5.8) in both sectors. The first findings were the individual

factors such as leadership personality profiles, leadership motive profile, leadership attitude and leadership competency model. Female leaders are born with some leadership ability and develop it. Knowing these individual factors helps to explain and predict leadership competencies and job performance. The second finding shows female leaders in this study have little support from organisational aspects. Successful female leaders believe that the most influential main barriers are females themselves, not organisational practice or social and culture aspects. The third are female leadership strategies that showed major differences between the private and the public sector. At the same time they have good supportive family and education to help them achieve leadership positions. The last finding demonstrated that the underlying factors associated with successful female leaders in Thai society are not a perfect match with an ideal type of leadership profile.

Based on the concept of the female leadership model, the implications of findings contribute to policy measures for Thai government regulations and organisational practices to build a supportive environment for talented women. Additionally, provide recommendations for talented women to build their own powers and to provide talent management recommendation for females' bosses and Human Resources Professional. Finally, comments on contribution to knowledge, research limitations and key aspects of the investigation provide suggestions for future research based upon the conclusions of this study.



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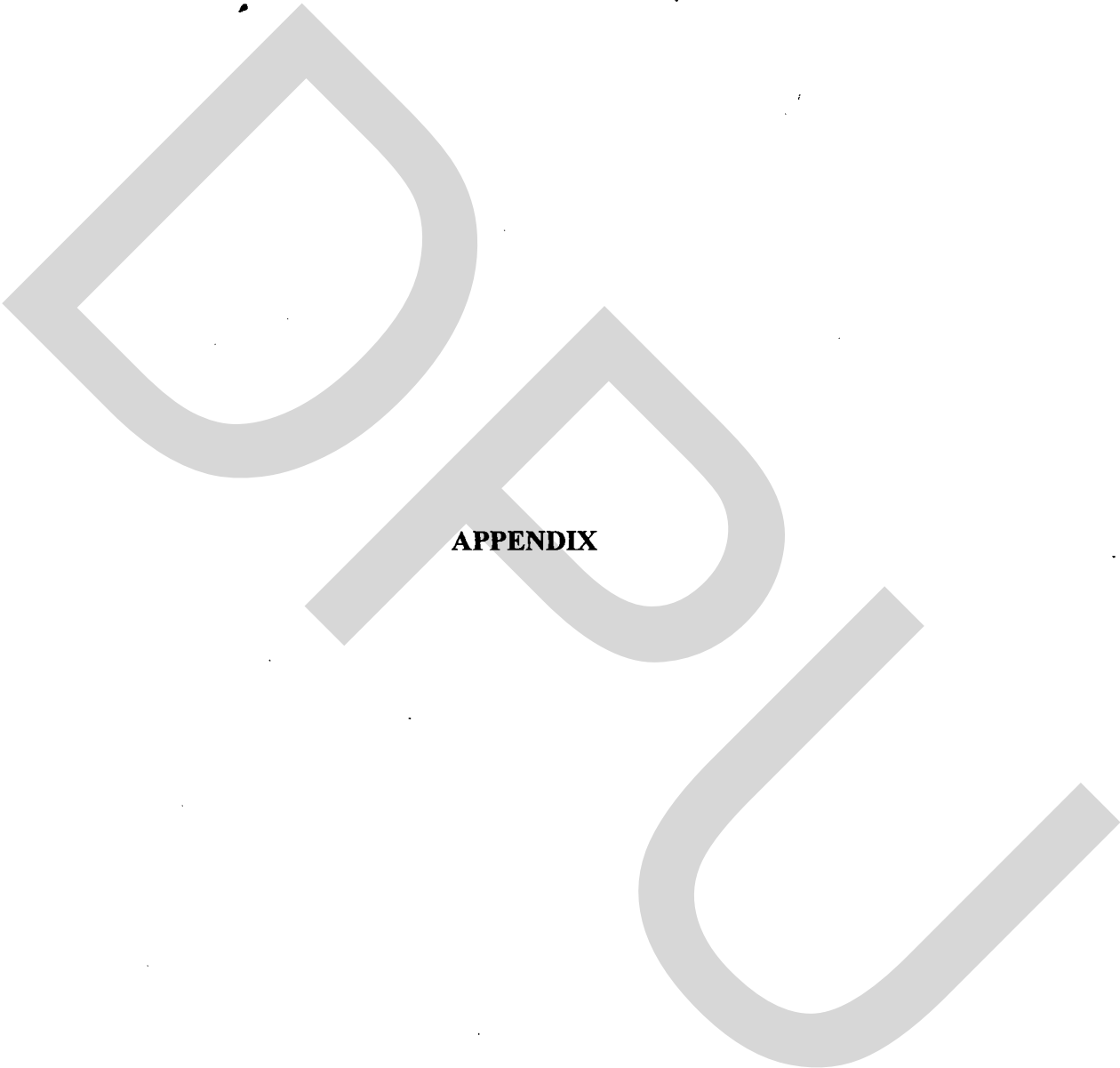
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APPENDIX

Appendix A: An introductory letter concerning this research

Dear

This research is about “In search of female leadership: A study of the conditions and factors associated with successful female leadership in Thailand”. The purpose of the research is to understand the impact of multiple influences on the present leadership status of Thai women.

This research requires a cross-section of high profile executive female leaders to be selectively drawn from both private and public sectors. The criterion for selecting participants for interview is successful female leaders who have been effective in their leadership roles to date. The researcher will keep the names of participants confidential, and will not release information, that permits linking individuals to specific responses. The results will be publicly presented only in an aggregate form.

The research process will be divided into two sessions.

1. The First session is focused on self assessment, if you agree to participate please fill in the material and return in the self addressed envelope.

1. A curriculum vitae of a leader (appendix B)
2. The Professional Personality Questionnaire (PPQ)
3. A Generic Managerial Competency self-assessment questionnaire

The participant will give a copy of the personality test, competency test finding as private property.

2. The second session will consist of an interview to be conducted in July-September 2009. The interview is expected to be no longer than one and half hours. The interview deals with three main themes: - Female leadership talent themes; Female leadership competencies themes; and Female leadership contextual themes.

Do you agree to take part in the interview session?

Yes

No

If you agree to take part in the interview session, please provide the name and phone number or contact details so that arrangements can be used to conduct the interview .

Name

Phone number.....

Contact details

.....

It is hoped you can participate in this project to help provide a role model for other women. The global business community has taken too long to recognise the power and potential to be achieved in unleashing the intellectual capital of female in leadership positions. Thus, this research should prove valuable for corporations based in Thailand about how to acquire, cultivate, and retain female senior executives.

This research is a partial contribution to a doctoral dissertation at DPU International College, Dhurakijpundit University. The mentors of dissertation at the University are Professor Dr. Charles Newton, Professor Dr. Philip Neck, and Dr.Akkapong Kittisarn.

With warm regards,

.....

(Mrs. Wanida Phondej)

DBA Candidate

.....

(Dr. Akkapong Kittisarn)

Research Supervisor

.....

(Dr. Leela Tiangsoongnern)

Director of DBA/MBA Program

If you need more detail, please contact:

Mrs. Wanida Phondej

Phone number: 081-8354676

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Appendix B: Personal details of a participant (Demographic Questionnaires)

Name:

Managerial Status.....

Age:years

Work experience:years

Marital status: Single Married

Children:

Highest level of education: Bachelor degree Master Degree
 Doctoral Degree Etc

Appendix C: The Professional Personality Questionnaire (PPQ)

Instructions

In this test there are a number of statements which complete the unfinished sentence *“Ideally, I would like to work in a job setting where.....”* You should respond to each statement by circulating Yes, if you agree with the statement or No, if you disagree. There are no right or wrong answers- be as honest as you can, do not simply provide an answer because it seems the right to say.

There is no time limit; however you should work as quickly as you can without pondering over any one question at length.

There are 50 questions in this questionnaire. Please ensure that you complete ALL the questions.

<i>Ideally, I would like to work in a job setting where.....</i>		
1. More liberal methods are favoured over traditional ones.	Yes	No
2. People with the necessary abilities are taken on even if they are not punctual.	Yes	No
3. It is easier to get ahead by plodding on deliberately than taking chances.	Yes	No
4. People believe they should be effective first, supportive second.	Yes	No
5. Unexpected situations, both good and bad, often occur.	Yes	No
6. Deadlines are rarely set –They are seen as limiting.	Yes	No
7. It's important to everyone that shelves are dusted and floors vacuumed and/or dusted every week.	Yes	No
8. The atmosphere is calm and steady as opposed to fast and pressured.	Yes	No
9. The work requires me to be more empathetic than logical.	Yes	No
10. The impression that I make on people is not that important to my success.	Yes	No
11. The methods I am dealing with could be described as more novel than established.	Yes	No
12. Attending to minute detail is not considered the only way to do an acceptable job.	Yes	No
13. It's generally accepted that to get ahead you have to break a few rules.	Yes	No
14. It if had to be one of the other I would be considered well-liked as	Yes	No

opposed to the best in my field.		
15. I am rarely called upon to inspire confidence in others.	Yes	No
16. The work requires me to be more imaginative than pragmatic.	Yes	No
17. Moderation, discipline and self-control are three of the emphasized values at work.	Yes	No
18. I am often the centre of attention.	Yes	No
19. Colleagues would describe me as more tough than sensitive.	Yes	No
20. I am often making decisions that are crucial to the company.	Yes	No
21. Employees are more concerned with expression individuality than identifying with one another.	Yes	No
22. Employees are expected to maintain a particularly high standard of order and tidiness in their own personal workplace.	Yes	No
23. The job involves more high profile activity than activity taking place behind the scenes.	Yes	No
24. Colleagues would describe me as more firm than compliant.	Yes	No
25. Employees avoid pushing ideas that require stepping on few toes.	Yes	No
26. I am directly answerable to someone who offers advice and keeps track of my progress as opposed to being a free agent.	Yes	No
27. Waste not want not is one of the main rules emphasized at work.	Yes	No
28. Most of the work involves long term projects requiring a steady pace as opposed to short term projects requiring rapid action.	Yes	No
29. If a choice had to be made, I'd associate more frequently with powerful people as opposed to people I'm close to who have little influence.	Yes	No
30. I am often expected to take and/or offer advice.	Yes	No
31. Employees could be described as more creative than practical.	Yes	No
32. It's mandatory that employees check general files and /or supplies every week to make sure that they're arranged categorically.	Yes	No
33. Quick decision making is favoured over taking time to contemplate issues.	Yes	No
34. Colleagues would describe me as more sensitive than tough.	Yes	No
35. I am frequently in a position where I am asked for my opinion.	Yes	No
36. If a choice had to be made, I'd be developing new ways of doing things as opposed to improving standard methods.	Yes	No
37. The hierarchy is strictly defined- I'm expected to treat superiors with greater respect than I would colleagues and people in lower status positions are expected to do the same for me.	Yes	No
38. Competitive people get ahead more quickly.	Yes	No

39. The work requires me to be more subjective than objective.	Yes	No
40. I am required to present my ideas face-to-face more often than in writing.	Yes	No
41. The general approach to work could be described as more conventional than progressive.	Yes	No
42. A place for everything and everything in its place is a rule that everyone must follow.	Yes	No
43. If a choice had to be made, I'd rather have high job security with a mediocre income rather than low job security with a higher income.	Yes	No
44. Most of my work involved independent as opposed to group projects.	Yes	No
45. I can maintain a daily routine that is rarely broken.	Yes	No
46. I rarely go into work knowing exactly what I'll be doing every hour, I just have a general idea and take things as they come.	Yes	No
47. Lateness is intolerable.	Yes	No
48. At times the atmosphere is hectic and rushed.	Yes	No
49. The work requires me to be more demanding than consenting.	Yes	No
50. I am in a lower status position where mistakes have little impact as opposed to a higher status position where mistakes can have serious consequences.	Yes	No

Appendix D: The Behavioural Description Index Questionnaire (BDI)

Direction: Please rate how well each statement describe you on the five point scale from “very well” to “not at all”

Behaviours	Level				
1. I stay calm and objective in situations of stress or conflict.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I don't like talking in front of people.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I carefully match my behavior to the organisation's expectation.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I don't like changing the way I do things.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I am good at anticipating problems and planning ways to deal with them.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I have difficulty seeing connections or patterns in complex situations.	5	4	3	2	1
7. I enjoy technical work and shares expertise	5	4	3	2	1
8. I check several source of information before making up my mind.	5	4	3	2	1
9. I don't bother keeping details records for minimizing errors and maintaining high standards for quality of work	5	4	3	2	1
10. I have a tendency to give up when I meet difficult problems.	5	4	3	2	1
11. I like to set challenging goals for myself and then measure my performance against related standards.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I have difficulty understanding the unspoken concerns or feeling of others.	5	4	3	2	1
13. I like to work together with customers in solving their problem.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I try to influence other by anticipating their reactions and preparing relevant arguments.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I don't spend time trying to understand political relationship in the organization.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I don't like to socialize too much with people I work with.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I don't hesitate to confront those who fail to “do” or “behave” as I expect.	5	4	3	2	1
18. I don't spend much time involving lots of people in making group plans or decision.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I often encourage people in order to improve their motivation or performance.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I am not good at communicating a goal or objective that motivates others.	5	4	3	2	1