CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
This chapter gives an overview of all previous researches on various dimensions of male and female differences and then the transformation into masculine and feminine individualities. It concentrates on Gender-role Orientation, Communication Style, and Executive Performance. Studies are spread in specialties like Gender studies, Sociology, and Management. Now it moves to analyse factors like male-female differences, brain structure, gender role development, parental influence, gender role theories and gender role orientation. It also focuses on communication, Communication Styles, Communication Styles in the Management context and interpersonal aspects of Communication Style. Previous studies concerning Executive Performance and Biosocial Profile are also described in this part.

**MALE –FEMALE DIFFERENCE**

The term ‘Male-Female difference’ literally reveals genetic sex differences. Male-female difference as a term has diverse meanings. It is the major subject matter of a lot of researchers. Studies have unveiled newer and newer dimensions: Men have four billion more brain cells than women (Beagle, 1997; Vazsonyi, 1997), men are more intelligent because they have larger brains (Siddiqui, 1996), that women talk more because the areas of the brain that control language are larger in women. (Hall, 1997), are a few to mention. Other articles tell us that because of their brains, the sexes are ‘at war’ (Beagle, 1997). Brain structure researches on male female difference are yet to reach a clear conclusion.

Bem (1993) discusses the implications of such beliefs and discusses biological essentialism and closely related concepts which, she calls gender polarisation, and androcentrism.
GENDER POLARISATION

Quoting Hippocrates, early scientists accounted for sex differences by complexion and the balance of the qualities like being hot, cold, moist, and dry. This view has changed, but the arguments remain. Those who assume biological essentialism often use gender polarisation to divide humanity into two mutually exclusive classes. As Bem (1993) defines it by pointing out that, gender polarisation establishes “a cultural connection between sex and virtually every other aspect of human experience,” including those that have nothing to do with sex. Bem (1993) also explains how biological essentialism has long been used to explain why women cannot perform some basic tasks and activities that men do. Bem has explicitly mentioned about the cultural dimension of sex differences and transformations into gender-wise variation.

Scott (1988) describes how gender polarization works: In effect, this duality draws one line of difference, invests it with biological explanations, and then treats each side of the opposition as a unitary phenomenon. Everything in each category (male/female) is assumed to be same; hence, differences within either category are often suppressed.

Underlying both biological essentialism and gender polarisation, androcentrism stipulates males to be the norm, explaining females and female behavior in reference to this norm. Although the details have differed in different eras, the above three concepts have a long history of excluding women and racial minorities from education and positions of public responsibility. Since the human nervous system was believed to have a fixed amount of vital force, any energy
spent in the development of a woman's brain would be diverted from her reproductive organs, endangering her primary role as mother. (Bem 1993).

THE BRAIN AND BIOLOGICAL ESSENTIALISM

Most people no longer believe that women's wombs suffer when they use their brains, but women are still being informed by researchers and the media that men's and women's brains are essentially different. The media seeks new ways to ask "How are men and women different?". Claims based on brain research have been used to distance privileged groups from those judged to be less worthy.

Gould's (1980) findings reveal the "scientific truth" women, like it or not, had smaller brains than men and therefore, could not equal them in intelligence." Not only were women's brains different; they were considered deficient too.

Fausto-Sterling (1985) describes the relationship between brain-size and intelligence. If size were the dominant determinant of intelligence, then elephants and whales ought to be in command. Attempts to remedy this by claiming special importance for the number obtained by dividing brain size by body weight were abandoned when it was discovered that females came out ahead in such measurements.

However, other research exploring differences between male and female brains, such as that of Bennett and Sally Shaywitz and their colleagues (1995), were widely reported and discussed in the media. They claimed to have found clear
evidence for a sex difference in the functional organisation of the brain for language.

Doreen Kimura (1992), claim that "the effects of sex hormones on brain organisation is responsible for differently wired brains in girls and boys" and that different hormones are directly related to different potentials in almost every aspect of experience. Kimura (1992) says, "The hormonal effects are not limited to sexual or reproductive behaviors: they appear to extend to all known behaviors in which males and females differ."

Kimura (1992) speculates about social roles: The finding of consistent and, in some cases, quite substantial sex differences suggest that men and women may have different occupational interests and capabilities, independent of societal influences. Kimura has attributed these differences in career related factors such as occupational interests and capabilities to the difference in male and female representation in professions. From the findings of Kimura, it can be inferred that lower representation of females in managerial profession may be due to the variation sex hormones.

Several studies have established a clear link between environmental enrichment or impoverishment and brain development of traumatized children (Perry, 1995; Perry et al, 1995; Perry and Pollard, 1997). Orphans who are deprived of human touch later develop alarmingly smaller brains and lower intelligence than comparable infants who had normal nurturing (Blakeslee, 1995). As researchers
such as Perry and his colleagues have noted, the effect of the environment on young children is profound, both in the emotional and cognitive domains. These findings suggest that environmental and social factors are responsible for the development of the human brain.

Fausto-Sterling’s studies (1985) revealed that there are no sex-related differences in spatial abilities in Eskimo males and females, possibly because Eskimo girls are allowed considerable autonomy.

Men are different from women. This would seem to be self-evident. They are different in aptitude, skill and behavior, but then, so is every individual person. It does not seem unreasonable to suggest that the sexes are different because their brains are different, but then no two human brains are exactly the same. It is suggested that our culture is in trouble because many women have been brought up to believe they should be as good as men.

Jerry (1983) found that girls have a more highly developed left hemisphere of the brain than boys. Left hemisphere of the brain is responsible for skills in language, logical and mathematical skills. Organisation, speech/verbal, linear/detailed, sequential, controlled, intellectual, analytic, reading/writing, dominant and related activities. The right hemisphere of the brain is responsible for inventive/creative thinking, intuitive, challenges conformity, metaphoric, artistic, symbolic, spiritual, emotional, musical perception of the abstract, receptive, synthetic, holistic-tends to see things as a whole rather than in a fragmented fashion. The difference in
brain structure is thought to be influencing physical and mental functions of human beings.

As per the findings of Fausto-Sterling (1993), differences between men and women can be divided into biological, or sex linked differences, on the one hand, and everything else, variously constructed as psychological, social and / or cultural differences, on the other hand.

Brain structure related research is still in the process of identifying relationship between brain difference, human behavior and individual difference. In the absence of a clearly established relationship between brain difference and behavioral variations, there is a very remote chance for a possible relationship between brain structure of an individual and formulation of gender roles. There is no specific study in such ways to eliminate possibilities of brain difference and gender difference. This leads to other factors that are responsible for gender-wise variations.

The second part of the difference, due to the interaction with the living world is the major subject matter of several researchers. The remaining part of literature-search is focused on the gender-role development, and its relationship with human behavior with special emphasis on executive performance.

GENDER ROLE DEVELOPMENT AND PARENTAL INFLUENCE

Gender roles are socially and culturally defined prescriptions and beliefs about the behavior and emotions of men and women. (Anselmi & Law, 1998).
Gender is built into social life by means of socialisation, interactional processes, and institutional organisation (Risman, 1998). Just as social structures shape individuals, individuals in turn shape their social structure (Lorber, 1994; Risman). Because gender is an endless looping process of social productions of gendered norms and expectations, there is room for modifications and variations by individuals and groups (Lorber). In other words, as individuals and families negotiate new ways of interacting, new gender structures evolve. The construct gender is defined as a socially created entity, constructed and reconstructed by everyday interactions of cultural expectations and standards and legitimized through regulations and laws of the land. This finding suggests that the term gender itself is a development of a particular geographical region having specific social structure.

Rubin (1974) found that parents have differential expectations of sons and daughters as early as 24 hours after birth. A child's earliest exposure to what it means to be male or female comes from parents. From the time, their children are babies, parents treat sons and daughters differently, dressing infants in gender specific colors, giving gender differentiated toys and expecting different behavior from boys and girls (Thorne, 1993).

Perry and Bussey (1984) defined gender-role development as "the process whereby children come to acquire the behaviors, attitudes, interests, emotional reactions, and motives that are culturally defined as appropriate for members of their sex" (p. 262). This definition suggests that gender roles include behavioral, attitudinal, and personality aspects. It also assumes that these gender aspects are closely related to each other because they are expected to be consistent.
Susan (1997) has described that the strongest influence on gender role development seems to occur within the family setting, with parents passing on, both overtly and covertly, to their children their own beliefs about gender. As kids move through childhood and into teenage, they are exposed to many factors, which influence their attitudes and behaviors regarding gender roles. These attitudes and behaviors are generally learned first in the home and are then reinforced by the child's peers and school experience.

Children's toy preferences have been found to be significantly related to parental sex typing (Etaugh & Liss, 1992; Henshaw, Kelly, & Gratton, 1992; Paretti & Sydney, 1984), with parents providing gender-differentiated toys and rewarding behavior that is gender stereotyped. While both mothers and fathers contribute to the gender stereotyping of their children, fathers have been found to reinforce gender stereotypes more often than mothers (Ruble, 1988). Ideologies and beliefs of parents regarding gender difference may have instrumental role in patterns of upbringing of children and ultimately on children's gender formation. When a kid comes out from the protection and care of parental world, the role of parental influence gradually decreases and the influence of friends, teachers and others with whom they get in touch frequently will increase.

Socialisation is the process, through which the child becomes an individual respecting his or her environment's laws, norms and customs. Gender socialisation is a more focused form of socialisation, it is how children of different sexes are socialised into their gender roles and taught what it means to be male or female.
Children learn at a very early age what it means to be a boy or a girl in our society. It is difficult for a child to grow to adulthood without experiencing some form of gender bias or stereotyping, whether it be the idea that only females can nurture children. As children grow and develop, the gender stereotypes they are exposed to at home are reinforced by other elements in their surroundings and are thus perpetuated throughout childhood and on into adolescence (Martin, Wood, & Little, 1990). These differences in socialisation pattern based on the sex of the child may reflect on their personality and future behavior.

As children move into the larger world of friends and school, many of their ideas and beliefs are reinforced by those around them. A further reinforcement of acceptable and appropriate behavior is shown to children through the media like newspaper television and internet. Through all these socialisation agents, children learn gender stereotyped behavior (Santrock, 1994). As children develop, these stereotypes become firmly entrenched beliefs and thus, are a part of the child's self-concept. Socialisation is one of the factors having decisive influence on development of gender.

Kalpan (1997) has described that parents are the primary influence on gender role development in early years of life. Studies of Arliss (1991) emphasized about parental messages to children on what they think is acceptable for each gender. Children normally notice the differences between sexes by observing adults. Men are supposed to be tough and aggressive, while women are expected to be submissive and more emotionally expressive than men are. It can also be observed that women and men have different kind of jobs, men going out to work, while women often work as unpaid housewives, so children's future goals
are being restricted from very early on. In the domestic chores, parents sometimes expect children of different gender perform different kind of tasks; boys are assigned to do maintenance chores, such as moving the lawn and girls are assigned to do the cooking or doing the laundry (Basow 1992). This segregation of tasks by gender lead children to think that some tasks are for males and some are for more females (Susan, 1997).

Children whose mothers work outside home are not as traditional in sex role orientation as those whose mothers stay at home (Weinraub, 1988). It has been noted that preschool children whose mothers work outside home acknowledge that they can make choices, which are not hindered by gender (Davies, 1992). And as mothers go to work, fathers have to become more active in child rearing, best solution being that both mother and father work outside home and share household duties. This way rigid gender roles are hindered already at home and children learn that there are no specific jobs for different genders, but the options are open for everyone.

After all this is said about the way we are brought up, there is still the question about biological differences? Often gender stereotypes are defended by biological differences of sexes, and it is true that differences exist. As for the future, the traditional gender roles seem to be changing. As a whole, there is no question whether boys and girls are treated differently since their birth, because they are, and that contributes to how the child feels about his or her gender in the future. Many times the children also see the people around them acting according to the traditional gender roles, which they observe and imitate. In addition to that,
schools and media pose an image how people of different sexes are supposed to act and peers might reinforce this image. Thus, finally the child learns through reinforcement and imitation to act according to the norms he or she is presented, which are often gender stereotypes. In short, the children are socialised to think that there are certain expectations and limitations for both genders. However in the past years there has been slight changes towards a non-sexist environment, at least in the western culture, where children are brought up to believe that their gender should not be a barrier or limitation to any kind of activity or way of life. Furthermore, as more mothers go to work outside home and fathers start doing duties at home, children will be socialised to think that gender is not a restricting variable for any kind of job or duty. Also media and schools have started to change their attitudes, slowly, but steadily. In conclusion, it could be hypothesised that in the future, the gender stereotypes would hinder as the result of non-sexist child rearing and environments that are favored today.

Gender role conceptions still prevailing in India and unlike in western countries the non-sexist environment is only a dream in the minds of authors. In our culture the influence of social factors on gender role formation may be high as compared to western countries. There may be greater possibilities of relationship between family background, parental education, parental occupation, marital status, dual career family and educational qualification of individuals.

GENDER ROLE DEVELOPMENT AND GENDER ROLE THEORIES

Perry and Bussey (1984) defined gender-role development as "the process whereby children come to acquire the behaviors, attitudes, interests, emotional reactions, and motives that are culturally defined as appropriate for members of
their sex" (p. 262). This definition suggests that gender roles include behavioral, attitudinal, and personality aspects. It also assumes that these gender aspects are closely related to each other because they are expected to be consistent.

Both Bem (1974) and Spence (Spence 1975) adopt the trait approach to measure an individual's masculinity and femininity. They also agree on the conception that masculinity and femininity are two independent unidimensional properties (Spence, 1984). However, with respect to the interrelatedness of gender phenomena, they have different perspectives. According to the gender schema theory (Bem, 1981), people's gender typing is the result of gender-schematic processing. Gender-schematic persons tend to process information, including information about themselves, according to the culture's definitions of masculinity and femininity (Bem, 1985). The gender schema theory suggests the interrelatedness of gender-related phenomena: gender-personality type, gender attitudes, and gender-related behaviors.

On the other hand, Spence (1984) proposed the multifactorial model of gender identity; she suggested that gender-related personality, attitudes, and behaviors are relatively independent. She stated, "at the level of the individual these different kinds of gender-related attributes, attitudes, and behaviors do not necessarily have common developmental histories".

Thus, the two conflicting perspectives (i.e., Bem's schema theory and Spence's multifactorial gender identity theory) have some empirical support. However, overall empirical support seems to be inclined toward Bem's theory. A majority of
previous studies indicated that there was a certain degree of interrelatedness among gender phenomena. These studies suggest consistency between gender-role identity and gender-related attitudes, although the magnitude of the cohesion might be weak.

Those who have studied gender schema theory and are concerned that divisions along gender lines are negative for children suggest that society would be a better place if children were raised to be astigmatic (Bem, 1981; Bem, 1983). Thus, the outcome for children within the gender schema theoretical framework is that children will recognize certain attitudes and behaviors as being gender related and will perpetuate gender stereotyped roles because society is structured that way. While each theory takes a different path in explaining the socialisation of children, there are some similarities between the theories. For example, cognitive developmental theories are a stage theory, with children completing one stage of development before moving on to the next.

Social learning, symbolic interaction and gender schema theories offer the view that development is a continuous process, with information constantly being made available to children, who are steadily internalizing and making the information fit into their growing body of knowledge. Children are seen as active participants in the socialisation process within cognitive developmental and gender schema theories because children construct knowledge, building on previously understood schemas, thus they have an active role in their own development.
Gender schema theory also has elements of social learning because children are observing gender related behaviors and imitating them, trying them on for size, so to speak. Symbolic interaction theory focuses on the learning of language and other symbols commonly used in society and developing a sense of self and a sense of how to get along in society based on these symbols. Children determine their self-concept by passively accepting the view of others and also by taking the role of others. This indicates that children are both passive receptors of their culture, and active participants in their socialisation. The view of children as receivers of environmental stimuli rather than creators of knowledge is the perspective of psychoanalytic theory (Freud, 1969). Social learning theory describes children in a passive way - as observers and imitators of behavior (Bandura and Walters, 1963). This would indicate that children act as receivers of information in order to come to understand their place in the society in which they live. However, as children are observing and imitating behaviors, attitudes, preferences, etc., they are also interpreting and making judgments about them, indicating an active involvement in learning. Thus, child development is a processes closely associated with the changes in the society.

Gender role socialisation, which almost always includes some degree of gender role stereotyping, begins at birth. As children grow and develop, the gender stereotypes they are exposed to at home are reinforced by other things in their environment and are thus perpetuated throughout childhood (Martin, Wood, & Little, 1990). The child's burgeoning sense of self, or self-concept, is a result of the multitude of ideas, attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs that he or she is exposed to. The information that surrounds the child and which the child internalizes comes to the child within the family arena through parent-child interactions, role modeling, reinforcement for desired behavior, and parental approval or
disapproval (Santrock, 1994). As children move into the larger world of friends and school, many of their ideas and beliefs are reinforced by those around them. A further reinforcement of acceptable and appropriate behavior is shown to children through the media. Through all these socialisation agents, children learn gender stereotyped behavior.

As children develop, these gender stereotypes become firmly entrenched beliefs. It has been suggested that children develop gender stereotypes in two stages:

1. Learning what types of things are associated with each sex (i.e., boys play with cars, girls play with dolls). Learning associations for what is relevant to their own sex but not the opposite sex.

2. Learning the associations relevant to the opposite sex. (Martin, Wood, & Little, 1990). The learning of these associations is accompanied by a change in the quality of associations, as the child gets older, as indicated by more stereotypic judgments being made by older children.

GENDER ROLE IDENTITY AND GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATION

Gender-role Identity has been the central theme of a series of studies as one of the major dimensions of personality. There was considerable interest in the developmental correlates of gender-role identity, that is, an individual's basic sense of femininity and masculinity (Bem, 1974, 1981b; Cook, 1985; Hetherington, 1965; Huston, 1983; Lewis & Weinraub, 1979). Traditionally, femininity and masculinity were viewed unidimensionally and thought to be inversely correlated (Bem, 1974; Spence, 1984).
In 1974, a Stanford University psychologist, Sandra Bem, developed the concept of androgyny. "Andro-" means "man," and "gyn-" refers to "woman." Bem does not view femininity and masculinity at opposite poles of a continuum. In other words, if you are high in masculine traits, you are not automatically low in feminine traits. The androgynous person is high in both masculine and feminine traits. Androgynous people can be aggressive or yielding, forceful or gentle, sensitive or assertive-as the particular situation requires.

Bem (1974) challenged the assumption and beliefs of other researchers regarding masculinity and femininity. According to her, those who are relatively high in both masculine and feminine qualities will be referred to as androgynous, those who are high in masculine and low in feminine qualities as masculine and those low in masculine and high in feminine qualities as feminine, as those low in both sets of qualities as undifferentiated.

Bem has established a model for the classification of individuals in terms of four Gender-role orientations, namely masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated orientations. With the development of an Inventory-Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), for the identification of four Gender-role Orientations, Bem (1974) has triggered a new era in gender-role research.

Bem's celebrity work on the development of androgyny as a gender-role ideal provided research impetus within a two-dimensional model postulating that individuals can manifest both feminine and masculine attributes (Bem, 1974). At that time an instrumental-expressive continuum was adopted to distinguish the
concepts of femininity and masculinity since they were no longer construed as polar opposites. These constructs have come to be viewed as the complex interaction between biological, psychological, and situational determinants (Bem, 1981b; Deaux & Major, 1987; Spence, 1984). In order to provide a theoretical framework for gender-role research, Bem's (1981) gender schema theory posits that gender-role identity originates within a developing network of gender-related cognitive associations. As children perceive gender-related information they select and organize this information into a cognitive schema which then regulates behavior in accordance with cultural definitions of femininity and masculinity (Bem, 1981).

According to Bem, androgyny is intended to represent the best of both the worlds; both highly valued feminine behaviors and highly valued masculine behaviors. In her studies, beyond the traditional beliefs, Bem analysed the masculine behaviors in term of the presence of masculine qualities among females and vice versa. In her studies, Bem had identified the influence of opposite sex traits associated with males and females and the corresponding changes in behaviors. Androgyny was quickly assumed to be the ideal, since early findings were in support of greater flexibility, adaptability, social competence, and psychological adjustment (Lubinski et al., 1981; Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987; Spence et al., 1975). However, as researchers began to question the independent contributions of femininity and masculinity, masculinity consistently accounted for higher positive relationships (Bassoff & Glass, 1982; Markstrom-Adams, 1989). The assumption was that masculine behaviors were
more socially desirable than feminine behaviors, and this phenomenon has been referred to as the "masculinity effect" (Taylor & Hall, 1982).

Generally, the female gender role has been that of homemaker and childrearer, and the male gender role has been that of income provider for the family. In society, the traits dominant in the roles prescribed for females primarily relate to and facilitate social concerns and interpersonal warmth, for females the traits are basically related to personal competence and achievement (Brovrman et al 1972 Rosenkrantz et al 1968). Men are excepted to be self confident, independent and ambitions, women are supposed to be feminine men are supposed to be masculine in the way each sex roles prescribes (Donelson & Gullaboom – 1977)

Fausto (1993) defined sex characteristics as attributes of men and women that are created by their biological characteristics, and gender characteristics as attributes that the culturally associated with being male and female. Feminine persons look and act in ways that lead observers to classify them as women without directly observing their chromosome pattern, the same assumption is true for masculine persons. This classification can vary across cultures, and there may be ambiguity in determining a person’s gender while there is no ambiguity in determining his or her sex.

Sangamitra (1999) described that the process of sex role orientation describes the ways in which biological gender and associated cultural differentials are incorporated into an individual’s self perception and behavior. In other words, it is the process by which the culture transforms male and female into masculine and
feminine adults. The terms sex role and gender role can be used as synonyms though sex basically indicates biological differences whereas gender is socially constructed perception of an individuals based on expected behavior and specific roles assigned to him/her by the society.

From the above referred studies, it can be inferred that it will be difficult for an androgynous person (male/female) to perform his/her roles as per the societal expectations. As per the societal expectations, a female or male need to behave according to the socially agreed norms. The behavior of the androgynous person (male/female) may not match the societal norms.

Researchers have not reached a consensus in identifying an ideal Gender-role Orientation. It is desirable to identify Gender-role orientations with reference to the characteristics of different cultures.

GENDER COMMUNICATION

Following a literature review with regard to the influence of sex differences in the area of interpersonal relations, Montgomery and Norton (1981) concluded that a large but fragmented body of findings suggests that men and women differ significantly in the area of interpersonal communication. The difference lies in the area of perception, how the male and female perceive each other to be intellectual and aggressive. However, following the analysis of data from two samples, Montgomery and Norton (1981) stated "Men and women sampled for
these studies differed relatively little in their perceptions of their own Communication Style." (Montgomery and Norton 1981, pp. 132-200).

Gender communication is a unique, fascinating subject of the larger phenomenon known as communication. Some of the researchers believe that gender is an all-encompassing designation; communication cannot escape the effects of gender. In this view, all communication is gendered (Spender 1985).

Gender communication is instructive because we are all interested in how we are perceived, how we communicative with other human beings, and how others respond to us. Diana (1994) described gender communication as communication about and between men and women. The first part of the statement on the 'about' aspect involves how the sexes are discussed, referred to, or depicted, both verbally and non verbally. The second part of the definition on the 'between' aspect is the interpersonal dimension of gender communication.

Gender communication is pervasive, meaning that interaction with women and men occurs frequently, every day, every hour. Because of the sheer number of contacts we have with opposite sex, interest in the effects of gender on the communication process becomes heightened. When those contacts affect us in profound ways, such as in work relationships and career opportunities, or in committed, romantic relationships and the pervasiveness of our interactions with significant people further necessitates a greater understanding of gender communication.

Diana (1994) narrated that racial, regional, ethnic, cultural, religious, gender and
age adds a degree of complexity to communication. One of the most basic forms of diversity is gender, thus gender is a definite point of complication. Samter (1969) has analysed gender related variations in Communication Style and found that factors that vary with sex are responsible for the variation in human Communication Style and Gender-role Orientation is one of the factors that influence Communication Style.

From the findings of Diana, it is clear that communication between individuals can have positive influence on behavioral actions especially in career related situations. Thus, it is possible to expect a relationship between socio cultural environment of individuals and communication.

The above mentioned finding leads to think that factors like age, rural-urban backgrounds and Gender-role Orientation may affect one's communication ability and style.

Gender construction occurs against a backdrop of cultural practices, shared understandings, and language (Laird, 1998) Culture is the medium through which women and men understand their world and make sense of it (Hoechklin, 1995). Culture as a social construct is situational, flexible, and responsive to the pressing needs of the world that individuals confront (Laird, 1998). Thus, culture may be modified as collectivistic cultural norms intersect with time and societal changes. In collectivism, belonging to groups is an important factor. Group goals take precedence over individual goals. As collectivist norms evolve, however, collectivism is manifested in unique ways in each culture. In other collectivist
cultures (e.g., India), members are also expected to fit into the group, but at the same time, they are allowed to try to stand out in the group (Gudykunst & Matsumoto, 1996).

Gender refers to psychological and emotional characteristics of individuals and sex, the biological and physiological characteristics that differentiates human beings as male or female.

Throne (1983) has narrated that gender includes such aspects as personality traits but also involves psychological make up, attitudes, beliefs and value orientation and gender – role identify. Gender is constructed meaning that one’s maleness of femaleness is more extensive than the fact of being born anatomically female or male. What is attached or related to that anatomy is taught through culture; virtually from the time one is born.

Thorne and Henley (1993) explain, Gender is not a unitary, or natural fact but takes shape in concrete, historically changing social relationships. Culture with its involving customs, rules, and expectations for behavior, has the power to affect the perception of gender. That is the reason behind the difference between individuals who were raised in India and United States.

The development of gender-role concepts is a factor having influence on individual behavior. This role concept development may be instrumental in human action (physical and psychological) in all walks of life, including communication and its goal.
External influence is largely responsible for the difference between males and females. The external influence consists in the interaction with other human beings. Communication is the medium through a human being interacts with the surrounding world. At the time of birth, the major difference between a male and a female child is predominantly genetical. In the case of adults, the structure of the difference is not exactly the same as that at the time of birth. That structural difference is due to the social and environmental conditioning during various stages of development.

It is evident that there may be relationship between gender and Communication Style. This indicates that gender difference may reflect on Communication Style.

Fausto's (1993) research demonstrated that an individual's interaction with the human beings can change his/her behavior and that determines his or her gender. Interaction with other human beings involves communication of ideas, messages or concepts with them.

Human beings spend 70 per cent of their awake time communicating and 30 percent of it is talking. Due to the interrelationship between communication and gender, individual's gender characteristics may influence the end product of communication – the objective to be fulfilled through communication. The above findings lead to think that there may be relationship between Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style
As far as this study is concerned, communication between individuals in an organisation is intended for the attainment of individual and organisational objectives. It is evident that, development of gender role identify of individuals may influence communication.

Executives' need to communicate with subordinates, colleagues, and superiors in order to fulfill organisational objectives indicating that the differences in Communication Style may reflect on executive performance.

MANAGEMENT COMMUNICATION

Management communication refers to the communication within the organisation, between executives and executives, between executives and subordinates, and the communication of executives with outsiders such as government departments, customers and society as a whole.

Ratnaswamy (1995) has underlined that communication between various management layers among related other establishments and departments is essential for the functioning of organisations. Lack of effective management communication is responsible for the inferior performance of some of the public sector undertakings in India. Right decision at the right moment is the activating force of management. Proper and effective communication alone can provide sufficient inputs and information to have right decisions and effective implementation of the same. Inadequate information to a worker affects only his job and few others, but poor information to a manager may affect the work of hundreds of persons and in turn the organisation and its success. With a view to
enabling good span of control, proper motivation and suitable guidance to workers, the management communication is essential for management functioning.

COMMUNICATION STYLES IN THE MANAGEMENT CONTEXT

Drucker (1974) refers to an old story of three stone cutters who were asked the same question 'what do you do these days' one stone cutter said. 'I am making a living, cutting stones'. The second one said 'I am doing the best stone cutting job in the area'. But the third man said. "I am engaged in the building of a cathedral. The third man was the true manager, says Drucker.

The true manager is one who has a total vision of what he is doing. He is not satisfied with routine and mundane matters. Drucker's story, incidentally, explains the basic difference between the jobber (the first stone cutter) and the professional (the third stone cutter). The second cutter is good management material as he is proud of what he is doing although he lacks the vision of the third. All three were cutting stones for the building of a cathedral but only one could present the whole picture.

All the carpenters replied to the same question and their answers were centered on the core concept of their job-stone cutting. First stone cutter clearly communicated that his livelihood is the primary purpose of stone cutting. The second stone cutter mentioned about his concern about quality of stone cutting work. The third stonecutter's way of conversation made all the difference. His words indicate that the core objective is building a cathedral. This story highlights
Drucker's view of an ideal manager. The implied meaning is that a manager should have the ability to communicate a holistic perspective rather than a narrow outlook. A real manager's communication should be styled in such a way that receiver should get the proper idea about the main objective to be fulfilled. An ideal management Communication Style needs to possess the essential impulses to initiate desired behavior. If an executive is communicating ideas in an ambiguous way, it is impossible to expect the required action by the concerned persons. An executive's performance is nothing but sum total of subordinate's performance. Communication Style of an executive may have deciding influence on the performance of subordinates and that in turn can have positive reflections on executive performance.

In a large organisation, with thousands of people working in different departments, the objectives may not be known to all. In order to motivate everyone to work towards the objectives of the firm, communication across levels is very essential. An executive need to communicate ideas to persons in various levels in organisational hierarchy with different range of knowledge and intelligence. An executive's IQ level and expertise may not produce results unless he or she is capable of utilising that for the attainment of the common goal of the organisation by way of pooling efforts of all concerned. An executive's Communication Style should be flexible enough to get the proper message to receiver's with varying understanding capacities.

Communication is the lubricant that makes management tasks smooth and pleasant to perform under adverse circumstances. Management is the proper
personal development techniques based on a proper assessment of individual capabilities, motivation, integrity and commitment. Communication is the basis of all personal development efforts (Vilanilam, 2000).

Management is the proper use of the analytical tools provided by the management sciences. But the results of such analysis have to be conveyed to all those who are responsible for the development of the appropriate communication technologies and practices. In today's organisations, communication is technology intensive unlike in traditional communication patterns. Executives need to be competent enough to blend such technology with his or her Communication Style.

Management is communication within and outside the organisation. Management is the ability to make effective decisions and convey them to everyone connected with their implementation as well as affected by them. And communication is what helps this conveying possible and productive. Communication may have instrumental influence on implementation of decisions.

Paul (1979) found that the major task of executives is attainment of his/her objectives and in turn the organisational objectives through channeling resources, including human assets. In order to channelise subordinates efforts, executives have to communicate their ideas or decisions to subordinates. Success of an executive depends on how effectively he or she is communicating ideas to subordinates and also conveying proper feedback to colleagues and superiors. There are individual differences in the way of executive communication having
deciding influence on communication outcomes. The same idea or concept communicated by different executives may produce varied perceptions and resulted in such reflection on outcomes. This is the concept of executive Communication Style.

Findings of Paul and Vilanilam pinpoint the importance of executive Communication Style in molding the organisational objectives through proper dissemination of information to various groups.

Today leadership is more and more viewed as a communicative achievement. Leaders are thought to be “managers of meaning” who invite others to share in defining and building a shared vision of the group or corporate future. Many organisations have redefined the role of managers, moving away from the notion of a manager as one who controls, supervises, or tells others what to do. In today’s “team based” organisations, a manager is more often thought of as a resource person-someone who has the responsibility of locating and providing support knowledge and materials so that employees can perform their jobs at a higher level of excellence (Mark Snyder, 1985). Max De Pree (1992) describes the role of leader as a ‘Servant’ whose only success is the performance of followers. It can be achieved only through communicating the success plan to the employees in a proper way.

Developing a shared vision of management and employees is a difficult task. An executive should communicate the required information to the employees in such way to persuade them to perform their work in the desired manner. In order to
Influence the employee’s work in a positive way, an executive should have the proper Communication Style.

The concept of communication has been defined by Rober Norton (1983) as the way one verbally, nonverbally and paraverbally interacts to signal, how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered or understood. The more he/she uses one particular style, the more likely it is that others will associate it with his/her personality.

Norton narrates about ‘Communication Style profile’- a combination of style variables. Once person may tend to communicate by blending a dominant style with other styles. While analysing the Communication Style of persons, styles other than the dominant style can be ignored.

A different management style implies changes in language and behavior in business communication. Communication is more than just a matter of passing on information. Communication involves seeking and working together at a productive relationship.

Powell (1988) found that a blending of masculine and feminine traits involving strategic thinking and communication skills is essential for making individual and organisational performance.

From the above findings, it can be inferred that there may be a relationship between Communication Style and executive performance.
INTERPERSONAL ASPECTS OF COMMUNICATION STYLE

Nina’s (1997) studies detected that eye contact is an influencing factor in the communication between human beings irrespective of their social position and status. Conclusion indicates gender-based differences in nonverbal Communication Style. The reasons for the located differences are linked with socio-cultural and individual factors and not due to biological factors. Nina has unveiled the influence of social factors on Communication Style.

According to Johnson (1976), Interpersonal power is the ability to influence others. Ability – to get another person to do or to believe something she or he would not necessarily have done or believed spontaneously. People exert interpersonal power primarily through the communication of their status. They can influence others verbally by the words they say, with an articulate argument or through the use of an assertive vocabulary. They can influence others proverbially; by the way they talk, by tone of voice, the loudness or depth of their voices, or even with their ability to interrupt or they can influence others nonverbally, without words, with gestures, with body posture or with the use of personal space. According to Aria L. Day (1997), male and female Communication Styles differ in many ways. Women and men use different languages – that they employ different verbal communications – and men’s language is considered more powerful than women’s language. Above mentioned findings indicate that men and women tend to use different preverbal communications and that men are more likely to exert interpersonal power by dominating mixed-sex interactions.
Pilania (1990) described executive as a performer. Success of an executive to execute his/her plans depends upon the ability to communicate more than upon any other ability. The communicating aspect of an executive consumes more time than performing any other aspects of his/her job. An executive with skill in communication can keep his/her responsibility at a much lower level than they could otherwise be. The Communication Style of an executive is a factor that can influence his/her performance level. The executive’s personal and social lives are vitally affected by the relationships with others which are built up through communication. An executive derives vocational, professional and social benefits only by way of excellent communication skills. Effective leadership needs effective communication. An effective leader must read, listen, speak, think and communicate and it goes on to say that planning is communication as it involves not only the process of thinking but also jotting down ideas discussing, reading, informing and helping in decision. Bridsall (1980) had detected that male and female executives used basically the same set of broadly defined communicative behaviors to accomplish managerial tasks.

The above findings quite convincingly suggest that there is interrelationship between Communication Style and executive performance.

Ramaswamy (1993) stated that executive communication is effective communication. Executive communication is more than interpersonal communication. It is characterized by status role. Effective communication is the ability of the communicator to bring about the desired changes in the behavior of the listener. Effective communication is the process whereby the listener
understands the communication in the manner in which the communicator wants it to be understood. These findings on communication leads to think that if an executive is said to be effective only if he/she has such a Communication Style in order to attain the objectives and overall performance. In essence, executive performance may thought to be function of Communication Style.

Ineffective Communication Style may decrease executive effectiveness. From the above studies, it can be inferred that manager gender may influence his/her Communication Style and that in turn executive performance. Thus we can analyze the executive performance by measuring the executive Communication Style.

EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

The success of manufacturing and service sector industries is dominantly instrumental in dicting the progress of a country. Growth of different strata of economy depends on the attainment of objectives of individual units. Quality of any enterprises depends upon the quality of its executives. The industry all over the world is delightedly vague on this issue which even touches their bread and butter.

Hall (1979) found that executive performance is a vehicle for judging the effectiveness of individual managers. When performance in high, the executive is judged to be effective.

Managing Human Resources is very essential in the present times in all organisations regardless of their place of origin, nature and type of work. Despite
its crucial importance, high visibility and versatility and spectacular rise, it is really surprising that the role of human element is the least known and least understood almost everywhere. Even the people in the business, frequently do not know what they are doing at their work place. Assessment of managerial potential, in this context, is a very significant area of work for the stability and growth of business. More precisely, the concept of “Managerial Effectiveness” is one of the priority areas which differs from organisation to organisation and even from job to job. In every organisation, there are quite a few managers who are highly effective, some are less effective and the remaining ones are ineffective. It is quite important to know which factor under which circumstance enables a person to be effective and successful in his work. Alternatively, it is equally important to learn the causes of failure in one's work too.

The task to assess executive performance is a challenging one, as effectiveness is based upon the configuration of individual differences and task demands. It also includes management activities, which ultimately have its impact upon job behavior, job performance and output of managers.

Considerable research has been conducted on gender stereotypes as they pertain to management as well as on style or behavior differences between men and women. The majority of past research on the topic of gender and management has addressed the following.

Numerous studies have been done on the behavior or styles of men and women in management positions. Overall, these studies have shown very few
differences (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Kolb, 1997; Powell, 1990). Heimovics and Herman (1988) found that there were no gender-related differences in the case of successful and unsuccessful performance of executives. However, the results of Deaux (1976) suggest that some gender effects do carry over to the organisational context.

Bass (1990) notes that leadership has been traditionally viewed as a masculine activity. The connection between leadership and masculinity has been on the track of change. (Kent & Moss, 1994). Research that has looked at the differences between male and female leaders suggests that there are more similarities than differences, and that both genders are equally effective (Shimanoff & Jenkins, 1991, cited in Kolb, 1997). However, a meta-analysis conducted by Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) found that this equality of effectiveness disappeared when the role they played was gender typed.

Kolb (1997) used self reports and group assessments to explore the relationship between leader emergence and gender role. Individuals displaying either masculine or androgynous characteristics were more likely to emerge as leaders than those who were feminine in their orientation. Kolb (1997) also found that leadership was not attributable to the gender of a person but to their Gender-role Orientation. Consistent with this, masculinity scores for female managers have been found to be significantly higher than those for females in lower level occupations. (Fagenson, 1990, cited in Kolb, 1997).

When women assume managerial positions that require them to enact masculine or male-dominated roles, they may suffer negative consequences. The theory of
gender-role spillover suggests that behaviors expected of men and women outside the workplace carry over to the workplace (Gutek & Cohen, 1987). Women are supposed to be nurturing and helpful; men are supposed to be assertive and dominant. These gender expectations hold within and outside the work environment. When men and women behave in ways that are inconsistent with their gender expectations their behavior is considered inappropriate or incongruent, and they are viewed negatively (Rudman & Glick, 1999). Thus, if, in general, management is seen as masculine, women may be reacted to negatively regardless of what role they are performing. However, if managerial roles vary in their gender typing, then the perception of women's and men's managerial effectiveness may depend on the gender congruency of their roles. Thus, women engaging in managerial roles perceived as feminine would not be seen as behaving out of role. However, women would likely be viewed negatively when they engage in managerial roles that are stereotypically masculine. Similarly, male managers may be viewed negatively when they engage in stereotypically feminine roles.

According to Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995), level of effectiveness of male and female managers are different with respect to the type of managerial roles involved in the particular profession. Male managers were more effective in leadership roles which were defined as more masculine. In contrast, female managers were more effective in leadership roles which were defined as less masculine. Given that the policing profession would be considered a masculine gender-typed organisation, it may be expected that male managers are perceived to be more effective than female managers.
Above mentioned findings hint that Executive performance can be analysed in terms of variations in Gender-role Orientation.

Bansal (1982) has narrated the relationship between individual differences, managerial activities and performance. He has proved that role of individual differences on factors affecting managerial performance. He has highlighted the effect of interpersonal relations and communication on performance and output standards.

Variations in the gender role identify and Gender-role Orientation of individuals are capable of producing changes in the Communication Style of executives and in turn executive performance levels.

Bansal also (1982) investigated some correlates of performance. He based his study of Lewin’s field theory that explicit (overt) behavior is a function of individual; environment; and the interaction between those two variables. Bansal’s attempt was primarily to find out the organizational, individual and demographic variables that accounted for executive performance as seen by their superiors. His study further aimed at finding out the various personal characteristics of managers in terms of their ability, personally, motivation and personal values. The main findings of this study were as follows.

The managers wanted smooth communication, better coordination, more say, in decision-making, responsibility complied with authority and feedback from the appraisal system.
It was concluded from the interview data that successful job performance demanded job knowledge, decision-making, good human relations, coordination, leadership, cooperation, communication and patience.

Output, professional knowledge, proficiency in work, punctually, human relations, initiative, innovation and creativity are the factors which ought to be kept in mind while judging performance.

It appears that managerial effectiveness is a tough nut to crack when he says: The term has to be studied in depth. There may be other variables that affect managerial performance such as logistic aspect, environmental factors: social, political and economic outside the organisation, training and prior experience of managers; and changing technology to knew a few.

There is a great deal of scope of conceptualizing other possible organisational and managerial determinants of performance.

'Personal Values' and 'Individual Variables' may have deciding influence in the formulation of Gender-role Orientation and the corresponding effect on executive performance.

Indrajeeet (1980) found that personality of an individual is dependent on his or her gender role concepts.
Efforts required for the performance of executives are not physical but psychological. As far as executives are concerned, they are responsible for converting stimuli from organisation into results. The stimuli is linked to organisational objectives. Transformation of stimuli to outcomes can termed as executive performance.

Given the information so far mentioned, it can be held that gender role concepts of the society may influence the behavioral patterns of individuals, their interaction with others. Communication is a medium through which individuals interact with others. Gender related reinforcements also may be a factor capable of influencing the behavior related performance of managerial tasks. Connecting the above-mentioned ideologies of gender theories, Communication Style and executive performance it can be inferred that gender role orientation and Communication Style have a link with executive performance.

EFFECTS OF BIOSOCIAL PROFILE

In a series of studies researchers have linked biological factors and all facets of human behavior. Sociological correlates have also been identified as factors for behavioral variations.

Brenner (1982) found instrumental effect of factors such as sex and educational qualification on managerial performance.
Bansal (1982) has studied some correlates of executive performance. Executive performance can be analysed in terms of contribution of organisational, individual and demographic variables.

Findings of Martin, Wood, & Little (1990) indicate that gender stereotypes they are exposed to at home are reinforced by other elements in their surroundings and are thus perpetuated throughout childhood and on into adolescence. Gender role formulation at home is dependent mainly on the characteristics of parents. It can be inferred that mothers education, fathers education, mothers occupation, fathers occupation may influence the gender role formulation of the child and the future adolescent. Nature of surroundings such as rural-urban background also may influence the gender role formulation of the child.

These differences in socialisation pattern based on the sex of the child may reflect on their personality and future behavior.

There is a widespread belief that executive performance declines with increasing age. According to Porter (1973), older employees are less likely to quit the job. In the case of younger employees, high turnover rate is negatively correlated with job performance. There is a tendency to assure that age is also inversely related to absenteeism. Rhodes (1990) has analysed age – absence relationship with an emphasis on avoidable and unavoidable absence. Findings indicate that older employees have lower rates of avoidable absence than younger employees. This tendency is due to the poorer health associated with old age and the higher chances for diseases. Findings of Beath (2000) revealed that poorer executive
performance was associated with increasing age due to the deficiencies in information processing and Communication Style.

Normally there is a tendency to relate low productivity and old age. This may be because of the belief that an individual's skills — particularly speed, agility, strength, coordination decay over time, and that prolonged job boredom and lack of intellectual stimulation all contribute to reduced productivity. Studies contradict these beliefs and assumptions.

Mc Evoy (1989) has conducted a meta-analysis and concluded that age and job performance are unrelated. This finding leads to think that aged executives will perform their managerial tasks more effectively than others, because of their experience in doing the similar job for years. Most studies indicate a positive association between age and satisfaction, at least up to age sixty (Kalleberg – 1983, Lee – 1985).

Kacmar (1989) and Zeitz (1990) have analysed age and job satisfaction of professionals and concluded that satisfaction tends to continually increase among professionals as they age, whereas it falls among non-professionals during middle age and then rises again in the later years. This finding leads to think that age is a factor capable of increasing performance and satisfaction of professionals. Connecting the above-referred studies leads to postulate a relationship between biosocial variables and Gender-role Orientation.
MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS AND EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

Let us now mention some definitions of managerial effectiveness from literature and, in the process clarify this concept as we go along in this exercise:

'It is the extent to which a manager achieves the output requirements of his position' (Reddin, 1988)

'It is doing the right things. It is reflected in the extent to which the desired result is determined' (Drucker, 1977)

It is the ability of manager to carry out the activities required of his position while achieving the results both current and the future in terms of developing further potential (Seeta Gupta, 1986)

From Ducker's (1977) definition of managerial effectiveness, determination of desired result is the essence of managerial effectiveness.

Seetha Gupta (1986) has found that doing the activities required of executives position in order to achieve the results is effectiveness. It is impossible to analyse executive performance without considering managerial effectiveness. Hall (1979) narrated that executive performance is nothing but effectiveness of executives. These studies leads to think that executive performance can be measured in terms of their effectiveness.

Considering the interrelationship of Managerial performance with the performance and co-operation of subordinates and colleagues, the performance of an androgynous executive(male /female) may be affected by the gender role expectations of the other human beings (employees) in
the organisation. Alison (1997) named the above mentioned influence on executive performance as gender role congruence pressure. According to her, while females and males are subjected identical managerial situations, there will be variations in performance due to the influence of gender role congruence. This is due to the mismatch between the expected roles of female and male executives and their real role performance attempts. The influence of subordinates attitude towards executive’s performance style and resulting variations in his/ her (subordinates) performance will affect the effectiveness of the executive’s performance.

Schein (1973) asked 300 middle level managers to describe ‘women in general’, ‘men in general’ and ‘the successful manager’. According to her findings, the successful manager was perceived to possess the traits of aggressiveness, emotional stability, vigor and self-reliance. Men in general, were believed to possess almost the same attributes ascribed to the successful manager, whereas the women were rated as deficient of these traits.

The above findings indicate that, the women manager’s successful performance is against societal expectations. This situation may create problems to her social and professional life.

But, Susan Vinnicomb (1997) argued that female managers possess all the traits necessary for the effective performance of executive tasks. But she narrated significant variations due to the influence of socio-cultural
variations from one country to another. She has indirectly indicated that sex is a factor capable of influencing executive performance.

The above findings indicate that variables described in relation to executive performance in western countries may not hold good in Indian situation due to the difference in socio-cultural factors.

Traditionally, the female gender role has been that of housewife and the male gender role has been that of bread winner. Model of a successful manager in Indian culture is a masculine one.

According to Eagly (1987), gender role may be defined as those shared expectations (about appropriate qualities and behavior) that apply to individuals on the basis of their socially defined gender, or sets of norms that communicate what is generally appropriate for each sex.

Sydner (1994) identified that women conduct more childcare than men and men are more likely to be in the labor force full time than women. This indicate that traditional sex role expectations influence behavior.

Twenge (1997) described that performance of executive roles are influenced by the interference of Gender-role Orientation. According to the conclusions of Twenge, female executive's managerial performance is more affected by Gender-role Orientation than male executives. Females are traditionally expected to perform the housewives role and the caring of the children and other domestic responsibilities. While she is performing the executive role, she is performing against the role expectations of the
society, her male and female subordinates, colleagues and family members etc.

The findings of Sydner and Twenge showed that, effect of Gender-role Orientation on executive performance is different for male and female executives.

According to Dibenedetto (1990), male and female role performance at adulthood differ not due to their genetical difference but due to their gender characteristics. Their masculine and feminine traits will influence their role performance. Debenedeto's findings indicate that a female with more masculine qualities always perform their career related responsibilities in a better way than other female colleagues with more feminine qualities. This is true in the case of male executives also.

Considering Bem's argument of more effective behavior associated with androgynous characteristics, it is expected to have a relationship between effective executive performance and androgynous qualities.

Based on the theoretical findings reviewed, the following propositions have been arrived at:

1. There is a possible relationship between Bio-social variables and Communication Style, Gender-role Orientation and executive performance.
2. There is a connection between Communication Style and executive performance.

3. It is possible to analyse executive performance from the measurement of managerial effectiveness.

4. Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style have deciding influence on executive performance.