Women, throughout the world, were assigned lower positions than that of men. Similarly, the activities which were associated with prestige, power and authority were allocated to menfolk. Social Scientists have advanced different explanations for this division of labour based on sex. A few of them basing their theories on the differences in physical strength are of the opinion that occupations which required greater physical strength came under the domain of men and activities which could be performed in or around the house were allocated to the women (Smith - Rosenberg, 1973; Beck, 1980). Further, keeping in view the biology of human body, women were given the responsibility of bearing and rearing of the children as well as the management of the household. It is not implicit in this perspective that women were not required to play any economic role but what it maintains, is that women had to give 'priority' to household work and to show 'allegiance' to their family (Coser and Rekoff, 1971). It was perhaps for this reason that they worked under the guidance, supervision and control of the men of the family. They were not required to seek independent economic status even though they were capable of doing so. It clearly indicates that the division of labour was not based purely on the biology and physical strength of the sex but was the outcome of cultural definitions.
The psychologists feel that men and women differ in their attitudes, aptitudes, and personality. In addition to their different psyche, their interests, capabilities, and characteristics paved the way for creating a dividing line between 'masculine' and 'feminine' duties (Maccoby, 1963; Brown, 1965; Hornor, 1972). The activities demanding mechanical aptitude attracted the men. Similarly, the exercise of authority came under the domain of men. Women were shy, insecure, and docile and as such could not assume the role of a leader, because they lacked the qualities of the leadership. This type of explanation does not fit in the historical reality. Secondly, this perspective undermines the role of socialization and life situations.

Let us now take the perspective of socialization. According to this school men and women differ because they are trained differently (Hochschild, 1973). Children are required to play different games. As adolescents they are trained to take up different types of adult roles. This perspective gives too much importance to socialization.

There are certain biological constraints and impossibilities which cannot be removed with the help of socialization. Secondly, we must bear in mind that it is not the process of socialization which makes the difference but it is the content of socialization which is determined by cultural definitions. It is difficult for us to reconcile with these divergent views but it is obvious from the above discussion that if men and
Women play different roles, it is because of a number of factors and these factors differ from one culture to another.

**Women in Thai Society**

Women, in the earlier periods of the Thai history, were considered inferior to man. Though Thailand has its own independent history nevertheless Thai society came under the influence of Indian culture particularly with regard to the religious beliefs and practices which accorded lower status to the women. In marriage it was the husband who had the right to choose the place of residence. A woman on her marriage acquired the domicile of her husband. Polygyny was allowed, although it was limited to rich persons. The Thai woman was accordingly assigned the role of child bearing, rearing and managing the household. She was expected to remain faithful and devoted to her husband. In case she failed in any of these duties she was not only condemned by the society but could also be divorced by the husband. A married woman could not set up a trade or business of her own without her husband's consent (Dharmasakti, 1972).

In contrast with life in rural area the married women in the urban area played an active role in business and family affairs taking a share in all kinds of work. She had a strong voice in community affairs and marketing activities as well as in her own household. She also controlled the family finances.
As a rule Thai men have treated women with courtesy and kindness but Thai culture assigned the highest value to motherhood. Implicitly women were expected to play the traditional role of child bearing, rearing and managing the household.

Social Change is a natural phenomenon. Thai culture could not remain immune to the foreign influence. Reliable recorded history of the Thai people begins around the 13th century A.D. Before this period all the foreign cultures that Thailand imbibed in religion, art, science and literature were predominantly Chinese and Indian in origin. In early 16th century the Portuguese came to Thailand for trade, some of them settling in Ayuthaya. Then came the Dutch in 1604, the English eight years later and the French in 1662 (Costa, 1982).

Thailand alone among the Southeast Asian countries remained free of European rule and here modernisation was introduced as a conscious revolution from the top. Rama IV, King Mongkut employed an English governess to teach his children, both boys and girls. His grandson, Rama VI began conscious emancipation of women by denouncing polygamy, the king himself set an example in monogamy. At the instance of Rama VI, women reformed their dress and later-on adopted western dress.

On the economic front over the past few decades there has been an increasing number of firms producing construction materials, like iron and steel, electrical goods, petroleum,
chemicals, plastics and canned fruit and assembling automobiles. The industrial growth both local and foreign has opened up new job opportunities for women not only as workers but also at the top management level.

This change is brought about largely by the Industrial Investment Act, under which special privileges are granted to foreign investors including exemption from import duties, income taxes and business taxes on raw material for five years, freedom to bring in foreign technicians and remit profits abroad and the right to own land. Certificates have been granted to the enterprises engaged in construction work, the textile industry, hotels and restaurants, automobile and bicycle assembling and manufacture of various types of machinery, equipment and electrical appliances.

The government policy for economic growth in the country helped in the creation of new job opportunities for the women to equip them with requisite training, both academic and vocational. The government spends 20.7 per cent (1980) of its total budget on education. The Thai government introduced compulsory universal education in 1920 which had a dramatic impact on women's education. As scholarships and opportunities were made available, women entered into professions like teaching, nursing, medicine and civil service. Many women of royal rank opened schools and became teachers. On a competitive basis women did very well in schools and universities. With the
introduction of suffrage in 1938, women also entered in politics. A few women have also been elected to parliament.

During recent years (1947-1971) due to government efforts, the literacy rate among the women has almost doubled.

Table 1.1 The percentage of literacy rate of Male and Female.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>67.4</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>89.9</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is quite clear from the figures that women are not now lagging behind as they were in 1947. If we take into account the percentage of men and women in Thailand who possess graduation and higher educational qualifications, we find that 43% of women have such higher degrees in education in the total population of those holding graduation and higher educational qualifications.

What percentage of women are in labour force in Thailand. The answer to this question would give us a clear idea about women participation in economic activities in Thailand.

*In recent years the gap has been further reduced in 1986 literacy rate among male was 91.1%; it was 56.1% among the females.*
Table 1.2 Comparison between the total population and the percentage of Male and Female in Labour Force (Age 15-64) in 1970-1980.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th></th>
<th>Percentage in Labour Force</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>50.20</td>
<td>49.80</td>
<td>49.92</td>
<td>50.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>50.25</td>
<td>49.75</td>
<td>50.13</td>
<td>49.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


It is quite clear that women have been accepted in Thailand as equal partners not only in the field of education but also with regard to work participation. In the recent years an increasing number of women have started accepting occupational roles of varied types. They are no more confined to agriculture or family business, although majority of them still remain in these occupations. The educated young girls and married women are now competing for different positions with men. They work not because they have to, but because they like to.

Although women in Thailand were in the labour force but most of them were working in the family business and agriculture under the supervision and guidance of their menfolk. In such a situation they continued to play both the family and economic roles. They were not expected to play the roles of leadership or occupy the positions of authority.
In spite of the above noted changes taking place, Thai culture still values seniority in age and sex of the individual as two dominant characteristics entitling a person to demand respect and occupy the position of prestige and authority. Irrespective of occupational status the juniors are expected to address seniors with respect. Similarly the men command more respect than the women. The married woman's status is determined by the status of her husband. Under these situations if women occupy position of authority in formal organizations, different types of readjustments in the family are needed.

The position of the executive/manager came under the domain of the male sex, because it was vested with prestige, power and authority. The executives were required to exhibit leadership qualities and men were considered as most suitable for such positions. For a considerable long time, even in the western societies, men were considered as the natural incumbents of such positions.

It is perhaps for this reason that certain occupations are labelled as 'masculine' or 'feminine'. The 'sex-typing' of certain occupations has left consequences for the persons who possess the 'wrong sex' for role assuming and role performance. It is in this context that Hughes maintained: "Society by its nature, consists in part of both allowing and expecting some people to do things which other people are not allowed or expected to do and if those who men such
occupations have any sense of identity and solidarity, they will also claim a mandate to define (not merely for themselves but for others as well) proper conduct with respect to the matters concerning their work (Hughes, 1968: 447).

Due to techno-social changes the nature of work in 'male-occupation' has undergone drastic changes blurring the boundaries created by the cultural definitions. The separation of work from home, the introduction of push-button technology, the economic needs, the opportunity to learn formal and technical education, the changes in the nature and structure of work, the changes in the orientation to work, the constitutional provisions and various other factors helped women not only to accept gainful employment in 'feminine' occupations but also to enter into occupations and professions previously monopolised by men. The entry of women into male professions attracted the attention of social scientists and a number of studies were conducted to analyse the problems faced by women in such professions (Mattfeld and Carol, 1966; Koss and Coker, 1965; Bock, 1967; Epstein, 1970; Theodore, 1971; Loring and Well, 1972; Quadagno, 1976; Singh, 1977; Mahajan, 1982). The women professional studies were the academicians, scientists, physicians, clergy, lawyers etc. who faced the problems of time-scheduling between their traditional role and new occupational roles as well as confronted strong resistance from the male incumbents.
Further, most of these studies were conducted in the western countries, as such, neither their theoretical framework nor their findings are applicable to the situations prevalent in Thailand.

No conceptual framework would be helpful in understanding the occupational choice for women unless an attempt is made to find out (i) the social class to which the women job seekers belong, (ii) occupational market, (iii) formal demands of the employers and (iv) the compatibility between nature and structure of the occupational roles and (v) culturally defined sex roles (Mahajan, 1982). In short, we can appreciate and understand the phenomenon of working women in the cultural context only.

Historically, the position of executive or manager has been under the domain of menfolk even in the western society. Similar were the conditions in traditional societies like those of India, Thailand etc. The position of an executive is vested with prestige, power and authority and men were considered as the natural incumbent of such a position. Under the changing conditions if women are required to take up the position of an executive or manager which has primacy of 'instrumental' interests will the new demand lead to ambiguity between traditional Thai feminine role and new role of the manager? There is hardly any study on women executives in Thailand which deals with the followings. Firstly, the
inconsistency between the nature and the structure of the new occupational role of women manager and the traditional Thai cultural values. Secondly, as to how do the women play their role as executives with reference to their interactions with subordinates, colleagues and superordinates? Thirdly, to what extent women executives have been successful in their new position? An attempt is made in this study to fill in the gap in the available literature on Thai executives.

Studies on Executives

In the formal organizational hierarchy, the worker is at the bottom and at the top it is the director, chairman or the entrepreneur. The executive is that person who gets the decisions of the board of directors executed. He is an expert who keeps in mind the interests of both the owner as well as the worker. How effectively and efficiently he gets the work done depends upon his capability and training. Yoder (1980) while tracing out the history of the executives contends that 'executives' were distinguished from the 'administrators'. Administrators were required to determine the policy whereas the executives were those who executed the orders of the administrators. Administrators in this sense of the term enjoyed highest authority and formed the most powerful group. The executive was the expert in getting the work done. However, this distinction is now not being maintained. Executive is regarded as the top level manager of an organization. The
tern executive has been given a broader meaning to include top manager, middle manager and even supervisor (Reigel, 1962; Heimann, 1966; Newman et al., 1973).

**Traits of the Executives**

Most of the studies concerning executives define the term with reference to the expected qualities or characteristics of the person holding such a position. The executive/manager should be innovative, alert, risk taking, progressive, tactful, impressive and must possess leadership qualities (Argyris, 1961; Reigel, 1962; Terry, 1960; Cilms, 1964; Carlberg, 1967; Usha Kumar, 1970; Schull, 1975; Handy, 1976).

Dochar and Marquis (1982) who undertook a study of the executives for the American Management Association came to the conclusion that seven qualities were essential for a successful executive. They were: a complete understanding of the basic principles governing his industry; ability to evaluate data submitted as a guide for action; a sense of social as well as economic responsibility which is a talent for developing both the business and its employees; courage to carry out his plans; continuing insistence on research and ability to judge his own values by comparison with past, present and future objectives.

The executives/managers have selective and unique characteristics which are the products of the responsibilities they hold. These special characteristics of managers are a
compound of personality traits and the role expectations of the organisational offices they fill. It is meaningful to describe executives as possessing self-confidence, aggressiveness, assurance and equanimity in waiting for and confronting results of the past decisions. These are personality characteristics of the successful executives. There is, however, other side of the coin. What is there about the organisational office of the executive that demands these personality characteristics for successful performance? When we examine, what is that the executives do, how they do it and the consequences of their performance for the future of the organisation they direct.

We can see that the demands of the positions they hold select certain personality characteristics. Self-confidence may be important in supporting the exercise of authority by an executive; aggressiveness may be necessary in ferreting out incipient problems and anticipating their solutions; assurance may be essential in making decisions about an imperfectly understood future and equanimity may be required for taking chances about such decisions anticipating exceptionally high pay-offs but not overlooking potential failure (Wald and Dutty, 1954; Murray and Henry, 1957; Schults, 1978).

Successful executives are not 'born' or 'made' in the colleges, but are the products of their social environments. Compared to low level supervisors, they have much more ability, initiative, personality, human understanding and motivation. They have different attitudes and values and different definitions
of the organizational and personal success. Low level men simply lack the 'inner determination' to climb further up the executive ladder. Most executives conceived of themselves as possessing several of the dynamic personal attributes revealed in Henry's (1949) well known study of 100 executives in the Chicago business community. Among these were: strong achievement desire, high mobility drive, sympathetic conception of authority, considerable ability to organize, firm decisiveness, strong self-structure, much aggressive activity and direct orientation toward reality. Mention of these executive attributes was to be expected, but of more interest were the main distinctions that executives made between themselves, their associates, and first line supervisors they had known through the years. These comparative self and other appraisals usually began with a statement of qualities that executives possess and that supervisors either lack or possess to a lesser degree. Among the distinctions most frequently made by executives between themselves and supervisors were more energy, alertness and initiative, aggressiveness as opposed to submissive attitudes, more understanding and greater ability to get along with and to manipulate people, greater willingness to assume responsibilities and make decisions, greater ability to deal with and impress superiors, better judgement and foresight, more magnetic, well-rounded, projective personalities, more tact and poise, better problem-solving ability, more adaptability to changing situations, more determination and strength of personal character; different definitions
of the meaning of success, greater ability to sell themselves and their ideas, and to get things done through group effort; more education and training, different occupational and social contacts and opportunities; different loyalties and job interests (Bernard, 1938; Heyry, 1949; Shartle, 1958; Likert, 1961; Wachs, 1967; Loumen, 1977; Elgood, 1981).

**Tasks of the Executives**

In the above noted studies it is implicit that only those executives possess the aforementioned traits, qualities or characteristics would be able to perform their role effectively and efficiently. In case they lack these personality traits they must cultivate them. A few scholars are of the opinion that instead of depending upon the traits we should look at the type of tasks they are expected to perform and how effectively they perform them. The role of the executive is to make proper use of all the resources at his disposal, that is talent, people, time, money, machinery etc. for the fulfilment of the goals of the organization. Bordie (1967) argued that for an enterprise to be soundly constituted and its goals effectively attained there are five determining factors which an executive must bear in mind. They are: planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Others, through extensive interviews came to the conclusion that in addition to these five determining factors there are the other activities which an executive must perform to attain
the desired goals. The activities outlined by them were: investigation, preparation of the procedures and methods, evaluation, interpretation of the plans and procedures; supervision of the technical operations, personal activities, public relations, negotiations, scheduling and professional consultation (Shurtle, 1988; Gilmes, 1959).

Donaldson and Cowler (1975) were of the view that one of the most critical functions of a manager was his supervision of the other people's work. How efficiently and effectively he did the job and with ability he would manipulate the resources would determine his success. Handy (1976) felt that importance of the executive lay in his ability to contemplate strategies for improving the health of the organisation.

According to Collis the executive/manager is no more required to work inside the organisation. He is required to do a lot of liaison work. According to many business experts the executive/manager today may be spending as much as 40 per cent of his time in external activities as compared to only 10 per cent ten years ago. Interdependence between the company and outside political, social and economic forces coupled with the climate of participation and co-determination within the company have profoundly affected the nature and scope of his job. The executive/manager has far less freedom of action than in the past. The notion of the leader working by consensus through a team has largely replaced that of the traditional
power figure. It is for this reason that the executive has become a diplomat as well as a manager, a communicator and a decision maker (Collis, 1980).

The executive/manager is not required to be expert in one narrow field of specialization. He is required to act as a generalist. Clarkson observes that there is a need for the executive to deal with finance, personnel, marketing, production and technical know-how, not as specializations in separate compartments but as inter-related aspects of the single management task (Clarkson, 1980).

Interpersonal relationships

Efficient role performance by the executive/manager is no more associated with the attainment of the organizational goals only. He is now supposed to be concerned equally with the quality of work life and the well being of the workers (Mintz, 1977).

Behavioural scientists have long suggested that good relationships between the members of a work group are the central factors in the individual and organizational health (Cooper, 1981). Nevertheless, very little research work has been done in this area either to support or disprove the hypothesis. French and Caplan (1973) define poor relations as those "which include low trust, low supportiveness and low interest in listening to and trying to deal with the problems
that confront the members of the organization. The most notable studies in the area are by Kahn et al. (1964); and Buck (1972) and French and Caplan (1973). Both Kahn et al. and French and Caplan studies have come to roughly the same conclusions, that is, mistrust of persons one worked with was positively related to high role ambiguity, which led to inadequate communication between people and to psychological strain in the form of low job satisfaction.

Buck (1972) focused on the attitudes and relationship of workers and managers to their immediate boss, using Fleishman's leadership questionnaire in which consideration factor was associated with behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and a certain warmth between the boss and the subordinates. He found that those managers who felt that their boss was low on 'consideration' said that they experienced more job pressure. Managers who were under pressure reported that their boss did not meet out criticism in a helpful way, played favourites with subordinates, 'pulled rank' and took advantage of them whenever they had a chance. Buck concluded: "Considerate behaviour of the superior appears to have contributed significantly inversely to the feelings of job pressure."

Relationship with the subordinates, officially one of the most critical functions of a manager, is his supervision of the other people's work. It has long been accepted that 'inability to delegate' might be a problem. But now a new potential source
of stress is being introduced in the manager's interpersonal skill - he must learn to 'manage by participation' (Donaldson and Cowler, 1975).

The above studies while discussing the functions of the executive/manager emphasise the importance of inter-personal relationships at the subordinate, colleagues and superordinate levels. It is implicit in these studies that there should be cordial relationships. Lack of cordiality leads to stresses and strains which ultimately adversely affect the organisational health as well as the performance of the executive. These studies are, however, silent on the question 'What should be the quality of relationships when women as executives interact with their subordinates, colleagues and superordinates, further, to what extent the guidelines are universally applicable irrespective of the type of organisation and cultural milieu?

The organisational structure

The 'situational' approach emphasises the importance of interaction between an individual's personal traits and the nature of the situation in which he is expected to perform his role. According to this approach leadership is not a passive phenomenon which automatically emerges out of a given bundle of personal traits, but is the result of the interaction between the nature of the organisational position to be filled and the particular characteristics of the persons asked to fill it.
(Fielder, 1969, 1974, 1976; Fielder and Mahar, 1979). Tagiuri (1968) had earlier contended that the performance of an individual depends on what the man is, what the job is and what the situation is.

In the modern industrial-management the executive/manager is required to have a broad grasp of the purposes of the company and the ability to see the problem from different perspectives. This involves some measure of knowledge and understanding of the economic, political, cultural and psychological forces which are shaping the conditions of work. The executive must take into consideration all these forces in order to operate successfully (Mant, 1977). When the situational approach fails to account for the cultural values and norms under which people acquire the position, cultivate the desired traits, have specific nature of interpersonal relations and perform their functions.

**Women Executive:*

What is it that keeps all but a handful of women out of the position of manager/executive, leaving men in control of working lives? One of the handicaps is that most women do not understand what on earth management is? What does a manager do, we wonder. What qualifications does he possess? Management is presented as a branch of science, with rules to be swotted up, a vocabulary to be learnt, and strange, heavy burdens called responsibility and stress to be borne (Hall and Hall, 1980).
Recent studies reveal that the stereotype of notion regarding women, that they lack in the abilities and personality traits, required of managers, is widely held and has contributed much to the lack of progress in this area of employment (Dipboya, 1973). Additionally, traditional women were reported in the ancient literature to suffer from several things including the anti-success syndrome (Smith & Smith, 1970), the feminine mystique (Friedan, 1963), fear of success (Horner, 1978) and fear of failure (Hoffman, 1974).

To the question, "Are women significantly different from men in important ways" - psychologically and socially, the answer of the organizations has been generally 'yes', which is the outcome of a wide variety of assumptions and myths about the abilities of the women managers (Ellman, 1963; McClelland, 1967; Gommer, 1971; Crowley et al., 1973; Lirtman and Wahba, 1973). Are women managers different from their male counterparts in ways that affect job performance and therefore their ability to contribute to the achievement of organizational goals? Are there any substantial reasons for excluding them from managerial position to the extent they are excluded? Many organizations have taken the position that special training and development programmes are required to prepare women for management positions (Reif et al. 1975). In an article entitled "Management Development for women" Brenner presents a set of recommendations for setting up effective programmes to prepare women for management. One of his four underlying assumptions is that "women require special
programmes because 'in general' they have different skills and different attitudes towards the managerial role than men do" (Bremer, 1972: 166).

Differential treatment of women has been reported in selection (Fidel, 1970; Shaw, 1972; Dipboya et al., 1975), monetary remuneration (Levitin et al., 1971; Tarborg and Ilgen, 1975), promotion policies (Dey and Stogdill, 1972; Rosen and Jerdee, 1974), employee utilization (Koots, 1970; Rosen and Jerdee, 1974 b), and employee development (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974 a).

One explanation for this differential treatment of women stems from the assumption that women lack the aggressiveness, leadership ability etc. often required of management positions (Bond and Vinaoke, 1961; Megaree, 1969; Meier, 1970). However, a considerable body of research scholars also exists which indicates that women do possess the qualifications required of management level positions. Women have been reported as being similar to men on leadership behaviour (Dey and Stogdill, 1972; Hansen, 1974) problem solving (Matthews, 1972), cooperation and competition (Litman and Wahbe, 1972) and potential managerial capability (Bass, Frussell and Alexander, 1971). Given these later results, it appears untenable to conclude that differential treatment of women vis-a-vis management positions is justified using behavioural criteria.
McClelland (1967) opined that women were more interdependent, more interested in people than things, less analytical and less manipulative of things than men, implicitly advocating that they were unsuited to the position of authority.

The study conducted by Virginia Schein of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 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 in most of these traits (Schein, 1973). In another survey of male and female executives conducted by the Harvard Business Review, majority of the male respondents believed women to be unsuited for management because of their 'unstable temperament' (Bowman et al., 1965). A recent survey of the executives revealed that females were perceived to be unfit as managers because of their purported lack of dependability (Stead, 1978).

The findings of these studies confirm Douglas McGeorge's observation that the model of the successful manager in our culture is a masculine one. The good manager is aggressive, competitive, firm and just (Stead, 1978).

Since a successful manager is seen as assertive and self-reliant, a failure to fulfil this role would cause the women
executive's subordinates and peers to perceive her as weak and passive, more capable of being led than leading. However, on the other hand if she demonstrates assertiveness, initiative or ambition, many men and women will see her as hostile, maladjusted and over-controlling. Too often leadership qualities in a man are judged as traits of hostility and aggressive in a woman (Dipboye, 1973).

Vimala Patil (1972) in her impressionistic essay advances a theory that a successful woman executive destroys her husband. Having an extraordinary career success for a woman is said to be dangerous for married life. The husband of such a woman may be holding an extremely well paid job or engaged in a work which brings him power and fame yet he is an object of universal sympathy. Such a husband loses his ego. Such an explanation is not, however, true or valid. There are several efficient women executives who are enjoying an immensely interesting and happy married life (Kala Rani, 1976).

Marion M. Wood (1975) interviewed nearly 100 women holding positions ranging from management trainees to president of a company in Los Angeles (USA) and found that of the many traits identified, ten were essential for them if they wanted to succeed in management. They were: competence, education, realism, aggressiveness, self-confidence, career mindedness, femininity, strategy, support of an influential male and uniqueness.
To succeed in management, women have to be all things to all people. Assuming she is competent and providing she has the support of her subordinates, colleagues, superordinates and or another influential person she is cautioned to be realistic in her expectations to exert self-confidence even when she does not have it at times; to develop strategies both for assuring management that she is career minded and for pushing her way ahead and to act like a man but stay feminine (Wood, 1975; Higginson and Quick, 1975; Daftary, 1976; Stewart, 1978).

Since management is a science, it does not recognise sex. In fact a female child is trained from birth to be an efficient manager. She is the builder of the family and has to be efficient in handling finance, personal management and public relations in the form of entertainment. Being a man or a woman does not really matter because one deals with situations according to one's intelligence. Women officers in administrative services today are holding responsible positions. There is no doubt that entry to these jobs is extremely competitive. There is little doubt that girls with ambitions of reaching company ranks are also increasing. Women have entered the portals of premier institutions alongside their male colleagues to pursue a career in professional management. They are intelligent, capable and competent. They are willing to work hard, eager to work harder, eager to learn and struggle
to find a meaningful role in the society. In fact, today's society women have an added advantage. Management conscience, the need for a competent manager in a fast-moving and competitive world, and pressures from government have all provided a special edge for the woman with the will and the intelligence to succeed. The woman manager must master—to show her ability to cope with the four R's—role, risks, relationships and results. So the trick is to get women to put their natural organizing ability to work in management since the rewards are substantial in hard cash and in job satisfaction (Higginson and Quick, 1975; Daftary, 1976; Stewart, 1978).

All executives/managers, men and women, do the same sort of work. They supervise staff and decide what work to delegate to them, and how and when it should be done. They decide whom to promote and how to train them. They calculate which new products to introduce, where to sell and promote them, whether to expand or contract. Some of it is everyday administration, some of it is rather a long-term planning, involving considerable judgement on the part of the executive/manager (Brown, 1973; Diphey, 1973; Fruts and Hayman, 1973).

When women do make it into management jobs, what are they like? If the day ever dawns when half the top jobs in management and unions are held by women, will we notice any difference? Eleanor Macdonald and Terry Nye (1981) perceived positive consequences: One: There would be a greater realization
of the practicalities of situations and the second there would be more understanding of the needs of subordinates. Although most of the successful women will argue that there is not that much difference between the sexes when it comes to doing the same job, they do seem convinced that women have a more constructive approach to human relationships (Brenda, 1981).

Nancy Paul (1981) sees another important difference. "Women who get to the top in Britain are not from upper class, these women don't need to work. But the men at the top often are. So the women may be less restrictive in their attitudes to the rest of the staff." What sort of person is this new woman manager? It is maintained that there have been three generations of women executives. "The first were the real dragons, who had to fight for every step forward. The second generation didn't have such a struggle, because of the battle fought by the first generation, so perhaps we are nicer. And the new graduates take it all for granted and are much more relaxed" (Brenda, 1981).

The new women in management are plainly demonstrating that it is not only possible to get to the top as a woman, but by bringing feminine talents and attitudes to the stale industrial scene and being womanly is actually an asset (Eugenia, 1984).

Davidson and Cooper (1981) found that majority of the women in management appear to cope very well with the pressures
of their work. Earlier Wood (1976) had also come to the same conclusion after interviewing 100 male and female managers. According to the results of the survey, women managers were proving their competence and winning increasing acceptance.

Jerelyn Lyle and Jane L. Ross compared the leadership styles of 70 male and 70 female managers matched on occupation level, tenure and other relevant characteristics. They found that most of the women adopted more active, effective leadership styles than the men (Lyle and Ross, 1974). Heller is of the view that as leadership comes properly to be seen as a process of leaders engaging and mobilising the human needs of the followers, women will be more readily recognised as leaders and men will change their own leadership styles (Heller, 1982). In a few studies however, no significant correlations between leadership style and demographic variables for either males or females were found (Fielder, 1967; Sadler, 1970).

In the latest survey it has been found that top women executives are found mainly in the media, fashion and cosmetics industries. It seems that newly acquired position tallies with their femininity. Bra Odehmal, manager of United Women Entrepreneurs, a professional association said: "If a woman does make it to the top, she is expected to look like a young woman, act like a lady, think like a man and work like a horse" (Newsweek, May 21, 1984).
Meyer et al. studies on Europe's Women Executives found that women executives in Europe have not reached the upper echelons of an entrenched business world - but they are gradually getting there. These are, however, the exceptions that prove the rule. European women are simply not on the fast track to top executives jobs - a situation that is in sharp contrast to the United States, where women now hold more than a third of all management, professional and administrative jobs. One reason for the lag in Europe is that the feminist movement began much later than it did in America. West European countries have enacted laws protecting women from sexual discrimination, but few have enacted the sweeping affirmative-action programmes found in the United States. Since European companies are not legally obligated to promote women to managerial positions or even hire women - the dearth of women executives is in many ways self perpetuating. As a result women have been relatively invisible at the top (Meyer et al., 1984).

The purpose of citing studies on women executives was not to highlight the negative or positive consequences of inducting women in the management. The brief review helps us to conclude that as in the case of men executives the studies on women executives also revolve around traits, tasks, behaviour pattern and efficiency of role-performance.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness in the field of management has been viewed
with reference to the attainment of goals through efficient functioning. Persons belonging to different disciplines view effectiveness differently. The effectiveness is viewed by an economist or a financial analyst in terms of profit or return on investment. To a production manager effectiveness often means quality and quantity of goods or service output. To a social scientist, effectiveness is often viewed in terms of quality of working life and to a research scientist, effectiveness is viewed as the number of patents, inventions or new products of an organisation (Likert, 1966; Yuill, 1977; Drucker, 1973; Sathe, 1979; Narwaha, 1984).

Any judgement of effectiveness becomes a commentary on the organizational situation as well as on the people being judged. Organisational determinants direct attention to enterprise policies, especially to values and reward system, the general management system, the physical and social characteristics of the working environment, the nature and purpose of particular tasks, the design of each task, the nature and quality of immediate supervision. For the individual manager, significant determinants involve previous education and experience for given tasks, as well as the values and motives which govern personal choices, behaviour and aspiration (Riggs et al., 1979; Narwaha, 1984).

The literature on managerial work, behaviour and effectiveness underlines this diversity of potential determinants.
as well as the problems of establishing a comprehensive framework. Mott comments that when he started his research to develop measures of organizational effectiveness, the variety and inadequacy of definitions was an immediate problem (Mott, 1972). So also was their sometimes conflicting nature because of differing assumptions and values. A review of different approaches to managerial work reminds us of how little we know about it (Stewart, 1978). Campbell et al. work on managerial effectiveness carried the same message. They contended that the meaning of effectiveness was based on speculation in the absence of too little research or empirical knowledge (Campbell et al., 1970).

There are things that most managers do, but doing them does not by itself make the manager effective - unless he achieves the richer results within the constraints and opportunities of the culture and environment of the organization. Bill Reddin (1971) for example, contends that there are three different kinds of effectiveness: (i) real effectiveness, defined as the extent to which the executives meet the output requirement of the job, (ii) apparent effectiveness, sometimes known as efficiency, which refers to inputs, (iii) personal effectiveness, namely the pursuit of self-centred goals rather than organizational objectives. In an organizational setting and for most practical purposes, executives/managers can only perceive themselves as effective if they are seen to be
effective in the judgement of others. Effectiveness depends crucially on evaluation by others.

Gardner (1968) and Drucker (1967) offer advice to managers on becoming more effective. For Gardner the key elements of effectiveness are time, delegation, planning, decision-making and management control. For Drucker, effectiveness can be learned by managing time, establishing priorities, building on strengths and making 'good' decisions.

Many others have written and argued over the same question. For Reddin managerial effectiveness is concerned with - or determined by - the relationship between behaviour, task and situation and will increasingly be influenced by personal qualities of intellect and behavioral flexibility (Reddin, 1971).

The theory of leadership effectiveness propounded by Fiedler (1967) suggests a broader set of contingent relationships on the proposition that effectiveness in management is more than the possession of personal qualities or specialised skills and techniques. Cummings and Schwab (1973) set out to demonstrate that by focusing on determinants, organizational productivity and performance can be improved. However, they narrowed their perspective on the proposition that performance ultimately was an individual's phenomenon and therefore primarily a matter of personal ability and motivation. That led to them to the major premise that improvement can best be attained by
operating through self appraisal system on the behavioural determinants.

The model of managerial behaviour proposed by Campbell et al. (1970) portrays a network of relationships with personal, job and organisational dimensions. A similar standpoint is well presented by Burgoyne (1976) who inter alia stresses that a proper consideration of managerial effectiveness pre-supposes an adequate account of the organisational and cultural context in which the judgements are being made.

Theoretical Approach to the Study of Role Effectiveness of the Executive

Studies on the role effectiveness of the executives help us to conclude that different explanations can broadly be grouped into three approaches:

1. Trait theories.
2. Behavioral theories.
3. Situational (contingency) theories.

The three major approaches to effectiveness indicate a trend from simple one factor theories to complex, multi-factor theories. The earliest approaches, associated with "trait theories" of effectiveness, simply sought to identify outstanding traits or qualities such as achievement orientation, dominance etc. Later behavioral researchers emphasized tasks and functions associated with the position and how efficiently they were performed. They also took into account the inter-
personal relationships through which the executives could attain the desired goals. Both the trait and behavioral approaches found only slender evidence that the factors they studied led to organizational/individual effectiveness. Many contemporary scholars have rejected generalized theories of effectiveness in favour of contingency theories, which link particular leadership behavior to particular social and organizational settings. The transition from 'trait' through 'behavioral' to 'contingency' theories is outlined below, followed by a conclusion which summarizes what practical lessons may be derived by the practicing executive/manager from the researches (Stewart and Carson, 1969).

**Trait Theories**

The trait approach to effectiveness of the executive is the most direct. Effective executive is defined in terms of his traits, thought to exemplify good leadership. This circular method is sometimes labelled the "attitudinal approach to leadership" because most of the traits studied are attitudes and values, such as, integrity or sociability. In addition, the learned abilities, such as expertise, may be included in this approach. It is possible to compile a long list of desirable characteristics. Agencies may then screen managerial candidates by these criteria (e.g. in psychological tests at entrance), train existing managers to be more in conformity with prescribed executive traits or provide role models to
encourage the imitation of these traits. Some of the traits identified by researchers are:

- Achievement drive (Stogdill, 1974; Mills and Bohannon, 1980).
- Ascendancy/dominance (Stogdill, 1974; Mills and Bohannon, 1980).
- Consistency (Straw and Ren, 1980).
- Emotional balance (Stogdill, 1974).
- Expectancy of high standards (Scanlon, 1979).
- Fairness (Sank, 1974).
- Independence (Hornaday and Banker, 1970).
- Inner direction (Zalesnike, 1977).
- Integrity (Argyris, 1955).
- Political awareness (Radin, 1980).
- Self-confidence (Argyris, 1955; Motowidlo, 1980).
- Sociability (Stogdill, 1974).
- Understanding (Sank, 1974).

In addition, researchers have found correlations between executive effectiveness and certain traits, abilities and characteristics, e.g., verbal fluency (Stogdill, 1974); height, (Stogdill, 1948); intelligence (Stogdill, 1974; Mills and Bohannon, 1980); expertise (Sank, 1974; Kabanoff and O'Brien, 1974; Knight and Weiss, 1980). Throughout the 1980s and 1990s psychologists sought to determine the traits distinguishing the effective executive from the ineffective executive. After exhaustive research no trait, personality characteristics or
aptitude was found to distinguish consistently the effective from the ineffective ones.

It is interesting and important to note here that despite the severe criticism of the trait theory, Mahoney, Jarder and Nash (1960) present data which indicate a partial success in predicting managerial effectiveness with personality and demographic data. They validated 98 different measures based upon:

1. Intelligence test.
2. Empathy test.
3. Vocational interest test.
4. Personality test.
5. Personal history questionnaire.

The Behavioural Theories:

Behavioural theories focus on actual behaviour of the executive and attempt to identify behaviour pattern which leads to effectiveness. Broadly, they identified two types of behaviour: 'task-oriented' and 'group-oriented'. The task oriented behaviour pertains to the net results the executives obtain keeping in view the goals of the organization. The group oriented behaviour is concerned with the nature and quality of interactions maintained with the subordinates, colleagues and superordinates. It is believed that it is through the cordial relations that the executives would be able to function effectively and efficiently.
The major criticism of the functional theorists is that they have ignored the nature of specific organisation and the impact of cultural definitions on executive effectiveness. The question, why an executive behaves as he/she does, remain unanswered. There is no evidence to show, how the cohesiveness of the group, the nature and structure of an organisation influence executive effectiveness. From the methodological point of view also the measurement of effective executive behaviour poses the problem of who should describe and evaluate the behaviour of the executive-subordinates, colleagues, superordinates or the executive themselves.

To sum up, research on successful executives started with a concern for identification of traits, so that this might be used as a basis for management selection and training. When correlation of such traits to executive effectiveness proved weak, research sought to emphasise specific executive behaviours, starting with task oriented to group oriented. The later behavioural research on task and social behaviours, revealed the complexity of the problem and showed the futility of simple answers. By the 1960's and 1970's students of executive effectiveness came to the view that behavioural theories must take specific management situations into account. Thus the earlier interest in trait and behaviour was rejected in favour of theories tying particular behaviours to particular contingencies - hence the name 'contingency theory'.
The Contingency Theories

They are also called 'situational' theories which are unified by little other than a common rejection of the notion that effectiveness is a direct result of possessing specified desirable traits or a set behaviour pattern. Contingency theories examine a wide range of dimensions, seeking to develop relatively complex theories showing which type of management is appropriate for a given cluster of situational factors.

The best known contingency theory of executive effectiveness is that which is popularised in the writings of Fiedler (1965, 1967, 1969, 1974, 1976; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Fiedler and Mahar, 1979). Fiedler's research (1967) has resulted in the development of the well known 'contingency model of leadership effectiveness'. The three critical dimensions (in order of importance) of 'leadership effectiveness', suggested in this model are:

1. The personal relations of a leader with his group members.
2. The structure of the tasks which the group must perform.
3. The power and authority inherent in the leadership position.

The situations are favourable to the leader, if all the above three dimensions are high, that is, if the leader is generally accepted by his followers, if the task is very much structured and if a great deal of authority and power is formally attributed to the leader's position (Pathak, 1983). Fiedler
examined the effect on organisational productivity of three situational variables - leader-member relations, degree of task structuring and strength of leader authority. Productivity was measured objectively by the members of games won by sports teams, profits of business or accuracy of bombing run by Air Force teams. Fiedler found that task-centered styles (high structure) were associated with organisational effectiveness when these three variables were very favourable (good relations, structured tasks, strong authority). For others middle-favourability contingencies, a relationship-centered style (high concern), were more effective. The study of House (1971; 1974) concentrates on nature of relationships of individuals in group.

The situational theories fail to account for the cultural values under which the organisations promote a specific quality of human interactions and define the tasks and the way in which they are to be performed.

It has been noticed that several factors, like social and demographic background, methods of role acquisition, nature of organisation, working conditions and tasks influence the executives’ role performance. The studies, however, fail to account for the cultural context in which these factors are given different meanings. It is therefore, desirable to conduct researches in different societies to find out the impact of the culture on these factors.
Successful role performance is not the outcome of only personal traits, ascribed and achieved, but also depends upon the physical and social conditions prevailing in the organization and the social definitions regulating the interactions between the members of the work group. It is therefore, essential to divide the organizations based on their structure to understand their influence on role-performance.

The most significant problem is the evaluation of performance. It would be unrealistic to work out universally acceptable criteria for evaluating performance. Performance has to be evaluated in a specific social milieu. Therefore, the standards of evaluating performance, have to be cultural specific. Effective performance may be viewed in terms of attainment of organizational tasks, cultivation of cordial working relations etc. It is, thus, required that research on executive performance should specify the criteria and method of evaluation in a given social setting, which can be explained with the help of role theory.

Statement of the Problem

While reviewing the literature on the executives it was noted that identification of traits, tasks oriented behaviour and situational variables were considered important in finding out effectiveness. The organizational structure and cultural values under which specific quality of human interactions and
work standards are promoted, remained neglected. The industrial growth, government policies, education and social systems have helped the women in Thailand to occupy position at the top management level. The quantitative increase in their number does not tell us anything about the quality of their role performance particularly when the criteria and method of evaluating role-performance of the women executives have not been evolved and empirically verified in the Thai society.

Under these circumstances evaluation of the women executives’ role performance would not only help the top bosses, government and women executives themselves but would also dispel myths and notions regarding the capabilities of women to occupy the position of prestige, power and authority. As stated earlier neither the available literature on the executives (and on women executives) provides us with a universally acceptable criteria and method of evaluating role effectiveness nor any specific model is applicable to the Thai society which could be used for the purpose of analysis and evaluation of the woman executive role in Thailand. It is for these reasons that the present study intends to find out: (i) the socio-economic background of the women who occupy the position of executive, (ii) the process and factors affecting role acquisitions, (iii) the quality of working conditions and interpersonal relationships prevailing in the public and private sectors, (iv) job satisfaction, (v) attempt is also made in specifying the standards of role effectiveness and (vi) evaluation of role-effectiveness.
Design of the study

The present study is designed to find out the criteria and methods of evaluating role effectiveness of the women executives in Thailand. It has been stated in the preceding discussion of this chapter that evaluation of the women executives' role performance in countries like Thailand, where their number is increasing every year, is of great significance. For the evaluation of their performance the explication of the evaluative criteria is a pre-requisite, but it is very difficult task particularly when no study has been conducted on the issue undertaken. In spite of such difficulties an attempt has been made in the present study to devise criteria of evaluating performance and methodology which can be used for the evaluation of the role performance of the women executives in Thailand.

The 'standards' for evaluation of women executives' role performance can be understood with the help of the concept of role. There are, however, number of problems which emerge in explication of the evaluative standards in terms of the concept of role. The foremost problem concerns the concept of role itself.

The concept of role has been defined in a number of ways. Daivinson (1959: 70) concludes: "the concept of role remains one of the most overworked and underdeveloped in social sciences." Similarly, on the basis of their review of the literature on role, Nieman and Hughes (1961: 149) came to the conclusion that
the concept of role is "vague, nebulous and non-definitive." Attempts to clarify the concept have led to a number of different role concepts and sub-concepts (Rushing, 1964). Since the first explicit formulation of role concept by Mead (1934) and Linton (1936) it has been widely used by anthropologists, psychologists and sociologists. Various definitions and shades of meanings can broadly be grouped into three main categories (Sharma, 1975).

In the first category are those who define role as the property of a person occupying a particular position in the society. According to this perspective role refers to the actual behaviour of a person not to the normatively pattern behaviour expected of him. The role is the manner in which a person actually carries out the requirements of his position (Sharma, 1975: 23). In the second category fall those who define role in terms of cognition of the focal person, that is, in terms of the perception of the focal person regarding his situation and other positions. The third perspective treats role and its inter-relationships as primary components of social structure. The role is the property of social system. According to the advocates of this approach role can be defined in terms of the 'normative behaviour' as expected of or ascribed to the focal person by the society.

Definitions of the three types have their significance depending upon the nature of inquiry e.g., the first two give
much importance to the actor while the last ignores the involvement of the actor as if he/she is a puppet of the normative expectations. In order to make use of role as the basis for evaluating performance of the women executives under study it was decided that the concept of role should be taken in a multiple sense. The normative expectations of Thailand should act as the criteria of evaluation and performance by the women executives should be the frame of reference to determine the effectiveness of the women executives keeping in view the normative expectations.

Being an effective executive/manager can be looked at from three possible perspectives. First is the organisational perspective, according to which the fulfilment of the external managerial blueprint criteria is taken. In other words, it is seen the extent to which the person concerned is able to achieve the goals which he/she was supposed to attain. Secondly, effectiveness has been measured taking into account the subjective judgements the boss, the colleagues and/or the subordinates make about the executive/manager. If we depend upon the subjective judgement of the subordinates, they are not likely to take into consideration the organisational goals but are likely to give greater importance to group oriented behaviour pattern. Further, whenever the subordinates think about the executive/manager they take in a vast array of data, the quality and quantity of work, appearance, manner, personality, tidiness, ability to speak and
communicate coherently, sense of humour, political and ethical views and so on. Some of these they may consider trivial and may play little part in evaluation but they perform a useful supporting role, reinforcing the impression generated by the superiors' assessment of these factors. Further, effectiveness in the eyes of the subordinates may be interpreted as dangerously or grossly ineffectiveness by the bosses. Similarly, the judgement of the colleagues is bound to be coloured by their prejudices, likes and dislikes. Another group/persons whose judgement is critical in the evaluation of performance is the superordinates or bosses. The inherent difficulties for depending upon their standards and method of evaluation have been discussed under the organizational perspectives. Further a boss can evaluate the performance of only those executives working under him/her only but cannot work out the criteria which could be applied for evaluating the performance of the executives working in other types of organizations.

Sharma has tried to solve these difficulties by considering all the three role partners as role definers. By role definers he means "the persons who are dependent upon the focal person (the role incumbent), have capacity to encourage, persuade and exercise sanctions on the focal persons and are perceived by the focal persons as their role partners in an interactional situation" (Sharma, 1975: 30). The theoretical explanations advanced by him have some methodological problems. Firstly, expectations and orientations of the subordinates, colleagues and superordinates...
may differ to such an extent that it would be difficult to find out common standards. Secondly, the standards of work-evaluation would differ from one type of organization to another, and thirdly, the 'role definers' may envisage different standards for the male and female executives.

'Self-appraisal' is the third perspective which is based on personal interviews and questionnaires (Warner and Abegglen, 1956). The success stories of the top level business and industrial executives have been popularised as an 'ideal type' of the successful American executives. From such self-appraisals by outstanding executives so many generalisations have been made about 'how to become successful' that it is erroneously assumed that the means of achieving executive success have universal applicability. What is usually overlooked is that executive's success, like leadership and success in other occupational fields, is subject to the situational and environmental variability. Further, 'self-appraisal' approach may depict one sided picture and/or may not highlight the subterranean features which were responsible for the success or failure.

Considering the requirements of the present study on the women executives in Thailand it was decided to depend upon the 'top bosses' of both the public and private sectors and were treated as 'role-definers'. They were asked to identify the traits, tasks oriented and group oriented behaviour expected from the successful women executives in Thailand. The expectations
of these top bosses on the special traits, functions and inter-
personal relationships of the women executives with the role-
partners (subordinates, colleagues and superordinates) were

treated as the criteria of evaluating the effectiveness of women
executives performance. Role effectiveness was seen from the
performance of the women executives as perceived by them keeping
in view the 'criteria' laid down by the role-definers. The
subject matter of social role is social behaviour, behaviour
which individuals display as they take into account the
expectations of others (Rushing, 1964). Taking this as a
guide the performance of the women executives was evaluated
keeping in view the criteria given by the role-definers. Only
those women executives were designated as 'successful' whose
performance approximated to the expectations of the role
definers. The effective and successful words have been used
synonymously.

Objectives of the study:

In view of the discussion on the theoretical explanations
advanced for the study of role-effectiveness of the women
executives the main objectives of the study may be specified
as under:

1) delineation of role structure of the women-executives
working in the private and public sectors;

2) delineation the areas on which the women executives of the
private sectors differ from the women executives of the
public sectors and the areas on which they donot differ;
evaluation of the trait and situational theories;
identification of the traits, tasks and group oriented behaviour which can be used as evaluative standards;
evaluation of the performance of the women-executives, and
explication the extent to which the women-executives in Thailand have been granted recognition.

Hypotheses:

Keeping in view the theoretical explanations and the objectives of the present study it is intended to examine the following hypotheses:

I. In addition to formal qualifications the social networks help in the role acquisition.

II. The women executives come from upper-middle classes.

III. The women executives of the private sectors are more satisfied with their working conditions and promotion channels than the women executives of the public sectors.

IV. The women executives of the private sectors have higher degree of job satisfaction.

V. The private sectors give greater importance to cordial relations with the role partners than the public sectors.

VI. The personal traits of the successful executives are cultural specific.

VII. The women executives are more successful in the performance of their job related tasks than their inter-personal relationships with their role partners.
The Universe

For an analysis and evaluation of the women executives' role-performance it was decided to conduct the study in the city of Bangkok which is a centre of all the government activities and a place where different industrial units are located. In spite of my best efforts I could not get a complete list of the women executives/managers (treated synonymously) working in Bangkok. In the absence of any frame of sampling the universe was defined on the following bases:

1) All the thirteen ministries of the Government of Thailand including the ministry of the Prime-Minister were contacted to find out the number of women-executives/managers (occupying sixth and higher occupational positions in the official occupational hierarchy of 16 points).

ii) The labour department of the Government of Thailand and Thailand National Commission on Women's Affairs were also contacted to find out the number of women executives/managers working in different autonomous bodies and government managed corporations and industries.

iii) For the private sectors different women organisations were contacted to get the list of those women who were occupying the position of executive/manager.

iv) Telephone directory of Bangkok was also made use of to get the names of different private firms/industries/organisations which were subsequently contacted on phone, to find out the names of the women executives/managers.
v) Magazines, newspapers, radio and television were the other sources from where the names of the organisations and women executives/managers were procured.

vi) A comprehensive list of only those organisations (Government, Semi-government and private) was prepared which had women executives/managers and at least 50 persons were working under them.

vii) This exercise to delineate the universe was continued for a period of six months keeping in view the limited man power, money and time at the disposal of the investigator.

The Sample:

After having prepared the list of the women executives/managers organisation wise it was decided to select one woman executive/manager from one organisation/department to give greater representation to different organisations and departments. In those enterprises and departments where there was only one woman executive/manager under whom more 50 subordinates were working she was included in the sample. In case there were more than one in a specific organisation the list of the women executives/managers was prepared and one person was randomly selected to be included in the sample. Thus the sample was selected based on quasi-random sampling technique. It was decided to contact the women executives/managers who were included in the list so
prepared and if they were not available, (having fixed the appointment with the investigator) after three such attempts they were to be excluded from the sample. Taking into account the non-availability, refusals and time (six months were fixed for interviews). I could interview 200 women executives only out of the list prepared containing 278 names. In short, the present study covers 200 different government and semi-government departments, industries and private organisations. There are broadly three types of organisations in Thailand, which have not only different organisational structure but the rules, pay scales, perks, working conditions etc. also differ. It was for this reason that it was decided to give representation to the three types. It was, subsequently, found that all the government rules were not only applicable to the government departments but also to the semi-government corporations and industries. It was therefore, decided to merge them into government or public sectors. The words government organisation and public sector have been used synonymously. Similarly, private organisations and private sectors have been used synonymously.

For the purpose of selecting role definers' a list of 100 top bosses of the government, semi-government organisations and private enterprises was prepared and equal representation was given to all the three type of organisations. These persons, irrespective of their sex, were sent a questionnaire, requesting them to return within a month. After the non-receipt of the
filled in questionnaires they were sent reminders, this process continued for two months more. Out of the one hundred top persons contacted only 42 sent the desired information. After scrutiny of the returned questionnaires it was found that three persons filled in the questionnaire partially hence were not considered, leaving the balance of 39 role-definers.

**Techniques of Data Collection:**

Different research techniques of data collection have their own merit and limitations. Keeping in mind the nature of study it was decided to make use of a semi-structured questionnaire for the role definers and a structured interview schedule for the women executives which was prepared after the receipt of the questionnaires from the role definers. The questionnaire and interview schedule were pre-tested and necessary modifications were made in the final drafts which were written in Thai language. The use of Thai language was motivated by the following reasons: It is not considered good for a Thai person to speak in English to another Thai person even though both know the language, secondly there were a few Thai women executives who were not quite comfortable in speaking English and thirdly to establish rapport with the respondents and to understand the subterranean feature of their work situation the use of the local language proved quite helpful. After having identified the women executives to be interviewed the investigator
arranged
used-to-fix-up an appointment with the respondents. Every
time before the investigator actually went to the women
executives for interview they were contacted again on phone
in to reaffirm their availability. In most of the cases the
executives were quite cooperative and kept their appointment.
In certain cases due to the emergent exigencies of work the
interview was to be terminated in between. In such cases
fresh appointments were fixed and the interviews were completed.

The description of the Sample

The sample of 200 women executives worked in different
analysis. According to the nature of their activities they
can be grouped as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Government Administrative offices</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Sale</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Banking and other financial organisations</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Service oriented</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Airlines</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Consultancy</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The women executives working in the private sectors were younger in comparison with their counterparts in the government sectors. The mean age (at the time of inquiry) of the women executives in the private sectors was 40.39 years whereas it was 42.49 years for the women executives in the government organizations.

The sample was selected based on the condition that there must be at least 50 subordinates working under the woman executive only then she was considered for the present study. The women executives in the private organizations were supervising the work of more subordinates in comparison with those in the public organizations. In case of the public sectors 76.27 per cent of the women executives had up to 100 subordinates under them whereas 56.10 per cent of the women executives in the private sectors had more than 100 subordinates under them.

Similarly, 63.56 per cent of the women executives in the public sectors had more than ten bosses over and above whereas approximately eight per cent of the women executives in the private sectors had ten or more bosses. All other details of the assigned and achieved attributes of the women executives under study will be discussed in the chapter on socio-demographic background.