EFFECT OF GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATIONS AND COMMUNICATION STYLES ON EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE



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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "Effect of Gender-role Orientations and Communication Styles on Executive Performance" is the record of bonafide research work done by Mr. Vincent Varghese (Reg. No.1806) under my supervision. It is further certified that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or any other title of recognition. This thesis is worth submitting for the award of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences.

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DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis entitled "Effect of Gender-role Orientations and Communication Styles on Executive Performance" is the record of bonafide research work done by me under the supervision of Dr. Sebastian Rupert Mampilly, Reader, School of Management Studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology. I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or any other title of recognition.

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CONTENTS

	ACKNOWLEDGMENTS Pag	ge No.
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	2
CHAPTER 2	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	9
	Male-Female difference	10
	Gender Polarisation	11
	The Brain and Biological Essentialism	12
	Gender-Role Development and Parental Influence	15
	Gender-Role Development and Gender Role Theories	20
	Gender-Role Identity and Gender-Role Orientation	24
	Gender Communication	28
	Management Communication	33
	Communication Styles in the Management Context	34
	Interpersonal Aspects of Communication Style	39
	Executive Performance	41
	Effects of Biosocial Profile	47
	Managerial Effectiveness and Executive Performance	50
CHAPTER 3	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	55
	Theoretical Framework	56
	Gender-Role Orientation	65
	Communication Style	67
	Funnel	69
	Autocrat	69
	Interviewer	70
	Compromiser	70

	Open Communicator	70
	Executive Performance	71
	Biosocial Profile	72
CHAPTER 4	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	73
	Objectives	74
	Hypotheses	75
	Universe	76
	Sample	78
	Pilot Study	78
	Tools of Data Collection	79
	Bem Sex Role Inventory	79
	Fully Effective Executive Self Test	81
	Communication Style Inventory	82
	Data Collection	83
	Statistical Methods Used	83
	Limitations	83
CHAPTER 5	BIOSOCIAL PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS	85
	Sex	86
	Educational Qualification	87
	Age	88
	Years of Service	89
	Salary	90
	Marital Status	91
	Number of Children	91
	Dual Career Family	92
	Family Background	93
	Parental Education	94
	Parental Occupation	95

CHAPTER 6	GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATION	98
	Sex	102
	Educational Qualification	103
	Age	105
	Years of Service	106
	Salary	107
	Marital Status	108
	Number of Children	109
	Dual Career Family	110
	Family Background	111
	Fathers Education	112
	Mothers Education	113
	Fathers Occupation	115
	Mothers Occupation	116
CHAPTER 7	COMMUNICATION STYLE	119
	Sex	123
	Educational Qualification	123
	Age	124
	Years of Service	125
	Salary	126
	Marital Status	127
	Number of Children	128
	Dual Career Family	129
	Family Background	130
	Fathers Education	131
	Mothers Education	132
	Fathers Occupation	133
	Mothers Occupation	135
CHAPER 8	EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE	139

CHAPTER 9	CONCLUSION AND FINDINGS	157
	Findings	158
	Conclusion	166
	Implications for Managerial Practice	167
	Scope for Further Research	168
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	169
	APPENDICES	191
	Appendix- A	192
	Appendix- B	194
	Appendix- C	197
	Appendix- D	200

LIST OF TABLES

SL.	Table	Description	Page
No.	No.		No.
1	4.1	Universe	77
2	6.1	Sex Vs. Gender-Role Orientation	102
3	6.2	Educational Qualification Vs. Gender-role Orientation	104
4	6.3	Age Vs. Gender-role Orientation	105
5	6.4	Years of service Vs. Gender-role Orientation	106
6	6.5	Salary Vs. Gender-role Orientation	107
7	6.6	Marital Status Vs. Gender-role Orientation	108
8	6.7	Number of Children Vs. Gender-role Orientation	109
9	6.8	Dual Career Vs. Gender-role Orientation	111
10	6.9	Family background Vs. Gender-role Orientation	112
11	6.10	Fathers Education Vs. Gender-role Orientation	113
12	6.11	Mothers education Vs. Gender-role Orientation	114
13	6.12	Fathers Occupation Vs. Gender-role Orientation	115
14	6.13	Mothers Occupation Vs. Gender-role Orientation	116
15	6.14	X ² Values Between Bio Social Variables and	
		Gender-Role Orientation	117
16	7.1	Two Way ANOVA : Sex Vs. Communication Style	122
17	7.2	Two Way ANOVA : Educational Qualification Vs	
		Communication Style	123
18	7.3	Two Way ANOVA: Age Vs. Communication Style	124
19	7.4	Two way ANOVA: Years of service Vs. Communication Style	125
20	7.5	Two Way ANOVA: Salary Vs. Communication Style	127
21	7.6	Two Way ANOVA :Marital Status Vs. Communication Style	128
22	7 .7	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Number of Children Vs. Communication Style	129
23	7.8	Two Way ANOVA :	
		Dual Career Family Vs. Communication Style	130
24	7.9	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Family Background Vs. Communication Style	131

25	7.10	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Fathers Education Vs. Communication Style	132
26	7.11	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Mothers Education Vs. Communication Style	133
27	7.12	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Fathers Occupation Vs. Communication Style	134
28	7.13	Two Way ANOVA:	
		Mothers Occupation Vs. Communication Style	135
29	7.14	Two Way ANOVA Results : Bio Social Profile Vs	
		Communication Style	136
30	8.1	Classification of Executives according to their	
		Communication Style and Executive Performance	143
31	8.2	Mean and Standard Deviation: Gender-role Orientation Vs.	
		Executive Performance	144
32	8.3	ANOVA: Gender-Role Orientation Vs. Executive Performance	145
3 3	8.4	Mean and Standard Deviation: Influence of	
		Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style	
		on Executive Performance	145
34	8.5	Correlation between Gender- role Orientation,	
		Communication Style and Executive Performance	146
35	8.6	Regression- Model Summary	147
36	8.7	Regression –ANOVA	147
37	8.8	Regression-Coefficients	148
38	8.9	Correlation coefficients -Dependent Variable	
		: Executive Performance	150
39	8.10	Regression Table: Executive Performance with respect to	
		Gender-role orientation and Communication style	155

LIST OF FIGURES

SL.	Figure	Description	Page
No.	No.		No.
1	3 .1	Diagrammatic representation of theoretical framework	65
2	4.1	Pictorial representation of relationships	75
3	5.1	Pie Chart showing sex composition of the respondents	87
4	5.2	Pie Chart showing educational qualification of the respondents	87
5	5.3	Pie Chart showing age of the respondents	88
6	5.4	Pie Chart showing years of service of the respondents	89
7	5.5	Pie Chart showing salary level of the respondents	90
8	5.6	Column Chart showing marital status of the respondents	91
9	5.7	Column Chart showing number of children respondents	92
10	5.8	Column Chart showing dual career family status of the respondents	92
11	5.9	Column Chart showing family background of the respondents	93
12	5.10	Pie Chart showing fathers education of the respondents	94
13	5.11	Column showing mothers education of the respondents	95
14	5.12	Column showing fathers occupation of the respondents	96
15	5.13	Column Chart showing mothers occupation of the respondents	96
16	6.1	Gender-Role Orientation of Executives	99
17	7.1	Column chart showing Communication Style of Respondents	120
18	8.1	Column chart showing percentage wise representation of	
		various levels of executive performance of respondents	140
19	8.2	Actual and Predicted Regression Line Diagram:	
		Gender-Role Orientation , Communication style	
		Vs Executive Performance	149

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The world of today is far different from what it used to be, just a few decades ago. Our world economies are becoming interdependent and interlinked as never before. Even with all the weakness and instability that mark the socio-political scenario in our country, low level of efficiency, and productivity, bedevil our economic arena, and performance in core areas. But India is now trying to pull its weight to be in step with the major economies of all developing and developed countries.

The government's private-sector-friendly policies have triggered a new era in Indian Industry. The academic background of Top Leadership has helped all policy formulation stages at Delhi administration and has accelerated the growth of Indian economy.

Our organisations are waking up to its competitive disadvantage with the opening up of markets. As globalisation becomes a fact of life in the business world, Indian management will have to change its mindset to face challenges from multinationals rather than reformulate outdated ideologies. Indian industry will have to take care of obsolescence of its management and technology, and also take effective steps to rewrite old business equations. Revamping the Indian corporate world to global standard is not an easy task. But our executives will need to fulfill this mission in the coming years.

Savitha (2000) has analysed the performance management system in India. In terms of resources, we are as good as the best in the world or even better. The

reason seems to be that most of Indian organisations are unable to tap this potential and translate it into organisational performance. In spite of the increasing rate of non-utilisation of highly educated professionals in India, organisations around the globe prefer such talents from India. Management policy makers may show inefficiency in designing appropriate performance-generating techniques to derive maximum results. Our organisations are underestimating the capabilities of executives or unable to fully understand its worth.

Executive performance has paramount importance due to pivotal role in creating success in organisations. The impact of executive performance may produce corresponding changes in the performance of the workforce, even the organisation's own survival. Decision-making is one of the key functions of an executive. An executive need to take decisions concerning the day to day functioning of his organisation, utilisation of resources and strategy formulation for designing the organisation's future performance.

Searching the factors influencing executive performance is a never-ending task. Newer and newer dimensions of executive performance are being explored. An executive's value system, personality correlates, mindset, social well being and a whole host of other factors are thought to influence the quality of the decisions and in turn, the performance of the executive.

In order to portrait executive performance on a broader frame, an analysis of human element behind is inevitable. It is only reasonable to start our study with the birth of human beings, and possibilities of the impact of various inborn and other factors, on executive performance.

What is clear through the study of biology is that within this cosmic frame, within this order of time and space and material being, we have been formed and fashioned by the forces of the earth. And this is the root meaning of the word human—derived from the Latin for "earth" or "soil": we are "creatures of the earth.

Human beings differ among themselves in terms of very many facets and dimensions. They differ in terms of physical, psychological, social and cultural facets of their existence. Of all the factors that account for differences among individuals, gender may be taken to be a very powerful one that colours one's perspectives and practices.

According to Stoller (1968) sex is biological; gender is psychological, and therefore cultural. Gender is a term that has psychological or cultural rather than biological connotations. If the proper terms for sex are male and female, the corresponding terms for gender are masculine and feminine; these letters may be quite independent of (biological) sex.

The transformation of male- female difference at the time of birth to masculine - feminine categorisation at adulthood, is due to the influence of diverse elements

like genitical, social and cultural factors. There is a growing support to the view **that gender** is a factor capable of influencing the performance of executives (**Sargent**, 1983).

Occupational segregation by sex occurs every where, causing labor market rigidity and economic inefficiency, wasting human resources, preventing change, disadvantaging women and perpetuating gender inequalities. (Richard Anker, 2001). The interaction of biological and social factors on human beings may be partly instrumental in the development of gender identity.

The mismatch between male and female executive participation is prevalent in all countries including India. This disparity between executive participation of males and females is high at the upper end of the organisational hierarchy. (Susan Vinnicomb–1997). The representation of women in managerial and professional positions has increased from 32% in 1983 to almost 50% in 2000 (Barr, 1996; Bureau of Labor Statistics [BLS], 2001). In 2002, women comprised 15.7% percent of all corporate officers in the Fortune 500, up from 8.7% in 1996 (Catalyst, 2002). Indian situation is entairly different from the global senario. As per 2001 census reports, only 22.7% of females are employed against 51.7% of males. The corresponding figures in Kerala are 15.3% and 50.4% respectively. The male – female break up of executive participation is much less than this. In India females are clustered in clerical jobs, teaching, nursing, etc.

Socio cultural factors are instrumental in creating changes in sex-wise executive representation. Executive career prospects for women are significantly lower in

India than to men (Sangamithra, 1999). According to Webb (1991), stereotyped notion regarding women, for example, that they lack in abilities and personality traits required from managers, has contributed to lower the representation of women executives worldwide.

Schein (1973) and Vinmicomb (1997) have narrated reasons for the sex-wise inequality in executive positions biased towards males and females respectively. Schein (1973) has detected positive correlation between male traits and managerial success whereas women were rated deficient in these traits. Susan Vinnicomb contradicted the findings of Schein and argued that female managers possess all the traits necessary for the effective performance of executive tasks. She argued that increased female executive participation is essential for managerial success. No researcher has established any conclusive reason for gender related differences in performance. In most of the studies where gender is the prime concern, emphasis was on the discrimination of females. Dominance of female researchers may be a reason for the bias towards female side. Due to the overemphasis of sex based disparity, dimensions of managerial performance were ignored or not explored in researches.

If sex is considered a determining parameter in the managerial recruitments or promotions, it may reduce the weightage to real performance-related factors. The low weightage to factors deriving managerial performance may produce adverse impact on overall performance level of executives and in turn the organisational success. Sandra Bern (1974) has unveiled the concept of

androgyny and argued that beyond traditional sex differences, masculine and feminine orientations can occur in males and females.

Traditionally, gender role socialisation is thought to lead men and women to distinctly different interpersonal orientations and priorities that may influence behavior. Women are usually expected to assume the role of the caring nurturer focused on interpersonal relationships while independence, individualism, instrumental behaviors, and self-advancement are valued in men (Chodorow, 1989; Gilligan, 1982). Bem (1987) has defined the concepts of masculinity and femininity based on these societal conceptualizations of gender role.

In a country like India, with its executive work force, it is high time to identify a model for the effective utilisation of this potential. The lack of balance between male and female executive participation due to various reasons may result in positive or negative bias toward executives belonging to the two categories. If sex is not a determining factor in analysing managerial capabilities of individuals, this research posits that Gender-role Orientation may be a more valid parameter. Research literature is inadequate in this domain particularly in India.

The prime task of an executive is nothing but attainment of the organisational objectives through effective utilisation of resources. In order to materialise this goal; executives need to communicate the organisation's vision blended with his or her ideas to subordinates, colleagues and outsiders. Apart from the theoretical knowledge acquired from education, executives' ability to communicate appropriately can influence the executives' success in realising organisational

objectives. Communication Styles consciously developed and utilised by **executives** can determine their persuasiveness while dealing with subordinates **and others** and hence can be deemed to be an important variable in explaining **Executive** Performance.

This study is an attempt to analyse Gender-role Orientations and Communication Styles of executives with a view to bring out the effect of these two sociocultural variables on the occupational performance of executives. It is also in the interest of the present study to explain the influence of biosocial characteristics of executives on their Gender-role Orientation.

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. lt concentrates Gender-role on 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 genderwise 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 literaturesearch 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 socilisation 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 news paper 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 decicive 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 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:

- 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, feminity, 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 vise 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 & Gullaboorn – 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 allencompassing 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 (1989) 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 individuals 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 indented 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 manger. The implied meaning is that a manger should have the ability to communicate a holistic perspective rather than a narrow outlook. A real manager's communication should be styled in such way that receiver should get the proper idea about the main objective to be fulfilled. An ideal management Communication Style needs to posses 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 diciding 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

surprising that the role of human element is the least known and least understood almost every where. 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 inter personal 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 organisational, 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

mangers; 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.

Indrajeet (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 orientaion 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 charactesistics of parents. It can be inferred that mothers education, fathers education, mothers occupation, fathers occupation may influence the gender role formulatuion of the child and the future adolasent. 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 individuals 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, where as 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 mangers 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:

 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.

CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter two presented a broad view of the literature on biosocial profile, Genderrole Orientation, Communication Style and executive performance. In order to
extract a research path, a clear research model based on the located theoretical
findings is essential. This chapter presents a framework connecting the three
independent variables such as biosocial profile, Communication Style, Genderrole Orientation and the dependent variable executive performance.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

One of the major characteristics of human society is occupational sex segregation. The division of labor along sex lines has been the most minuscule form of differentiation in almost all societies. Women constitute more than half of the world's population, yet there is considerable difference between male and female labor-force participation.

In the case of managerial occupations, male-female difference is very high. Gender differences appear more deeply embedded in Asian countries than in western countries. As far as India is concerned, there is a wide gap between the executive participation by men and women.

In the Indian scenario, prevalence of caste system (Bhatnagar and Nair, 1988) in work organisations which consider male and female managers as two separate classes are based on the centrality and superiority of men. Occupational segregation by sex occurs everywhere, causing labor market rigidity and economic inefficiency, waste human resources, preventions of change, then disadvantaging women and perpetuating gender inequalities. Findings of Richard

Anker (2001) indicate that occupational segregation by sex without any factual evidence is one of the reasons for labor market rigidity, economic inefficiency and wastage of human resources.

Policy makers and researchers around the globe have been in the processes of developing innovative ideas for maximum utilisation of available resources, including human resources. Minute defects in the utilisation of human resources are obstacles towards progress of a nation. In order to attain the objective of maximizing the utilisation of human resources, newer and newer dimensions of executive performance need to be explored.

According to Sangamitra (1999), the stereotypical perspectives of women's traits are inferior, hence unsuitable for leadership, restricts women's entry to executive positions. The cultural constraints on women's access to managerial positions can be traced to deep-rooted images of traditional women's roles.

Susan (1997) detected significant difference between males and females in terms of executive characteristics. Females are equally competent in performing managerial tasks. As per her findings, executive talent deficiency is not the reason for the female's lower level of executive participation. She found that elimination of females from higher level occupations due to biased decisions by males dominated top management teams. Sargent (1983) found that the proper blending of masculine and feminine polarities (Androgynous management) is essential for effective functioning of executive tasks. The study is rooted in the belief that performance of our organisations can be revamped, if the performance

level of the executive crew controlling cockpits of organisations is superior to what we have today.

Earlier studies on management and gender have not differentiated effective performance of executive functions by males and females. No researcher has clearly proved that male executives are superior or female executives are inferior, as far as managerial performance is concerned.

Bem (1974) argued that gender roles and related factors influence human behavior due to differences in Gender-role Orientation. Sargent's (1981) study was a pioneering effort in connecting androgynous Gender-role Orientation and managerial roles. The present study is intended to analyze executive performance with respect to Gender-role Orientations of executives.

The study purports to sharpen the methods to improve executive performance by increasing the potential of executives. Unlike in several other studies, the central theme of the study is to figure out a method to minimise the possibilities of wastage of some strata of individuals due to gender related segregations. The exaggerated importance given to variable biological sex in other studies is eliminated here.

Our gender roles affect almost every aspect of our lives. If a man cries at times, is he then less masculine? If a woman tries to assert herself, is she then less feminine? There are distinct roles for men and women in most cultures. However, these roles vary from culture to culture. Societal categorisation of male and

female roles is called stereotypes. The traits in these stereotypes fall into two separate groups. The first expresses competence and independence, while the second focuses on warmth and expressiveness. Men are seen as having competence traits, while women are seen as more expressive. Competency (masculine) traits are valued more in almost all societies. In contrast, expressive (feminine) traits are viewed negatively.

In order to analyse Gender-role Orientation in our culture, the biosocial dimension of Gender-role Orientation need to be explored. According to Stoller (1968) sex is biological, gender psychological, therefore it is cultural. Gender-role Orientation in one culture may not be like what it is in another culture. The term Gender-role Orientation itself is coined with a socio cultural element. Bem (1981), Deaux & Major (1987) and Spence (1984) have mentioned about the biological and psychological determinants that determine Gender-role Orientation. The possibilities of relationship between biosocial variables and Gender-role Orientation are postulated in hypothesis 1 (H1).

Culture is also defined as an enduring pattern of thought, value and behavior that characterize a given group of people (Morreale, Spitzberg and Barse cited in Samovar and Porter, 2001). However, Morreale, Spitzberg and Barse (2001) had come out with their own definition of culture, it is more specific. To them, culture consists of the beliefs of people, their attitudes about the world, spirituality, sense of status and hierarchy, their use of time, physical space and relationship of people to one another. Zaharna (1996) found that difference in individual's Communication Style is due to their perspective on the roles of language and the

way it designs a message. Diana (1984) found relationship between racial, regional, ethnic, cultural, religious and age related factors influence communication. Montgomery and Norton (1981) stated that human beings perceive others in different ways and in turn this leads to variations in communication between individuals.

Studies of Zaharna, Diana, and Montgomery, leads to the framing relationship between Biosocial profile and Communication Style (H2).

Susan (1997) has narrated the relationship between family setting, parental background and socio cultural elements on Gender-role Orientation. Eagly (1991) coined socio-cultural factors with Gender-role Orientation and highlighted the relationship between Gender-role Orientation and behavior of individuals. When talking about culture, one might think about certain rules, customs, norms and lifestyle of a society, which shape them and draw the uniqueness about them. Besides thinking of the rules, customs, norms and lifestyle of that society, Communication Style also should be concerned. In fact, Communication Style is one of the aspects that are shaped by culture. Therefore, it is different from one society to another society based on culture that they are bound with. Variations to individual's biological uniqueness can happen due to the interaction with other human beings. Communication is one of the mediums of interaction with other human beings. Over a period of time, males and females at birth will be transformed into masculine and feminine with specific Gender-role Orientations. (Fausto's —1993). Spender (1985) has mentioned the gender dimension of

communication. The socio cultural factors that constitute Gender-role Orientation may have instrumental role in producing variations on Communication Style (H3).

Das Gupta (1983) is of the view that, from the management point of view, communication is the means by which an executive gets his/her job done. An executive needs to communicate the organisational objectives in terms of the individual's performance targets. This communication should be styled in such a way that members of the team from different socio cultural background can grasp it in the proper way. Lack of proper management Communication Style was detected as the core reason for inferior performance of certain public sector undertakings in India (Ratnaswamy-1995). Communication Style can ensure employee performance and in turn of executives as well. Hence, variations in Communication Style may influence executive performance (H4)

Until the early years of seventies, masculinity and femininity were believed to be opposites. If a person was high in masculinity, he or she was regarded as low in femininity and vice versa.

Bem (1974) triggered a new era in gender related researches with the identification of Gender-role Orientations such as androgyny, masculine, feminine and undiffertiated. Bem has coined some of the qualities related with Gender-role Orientation with success. Masculine indicators such items as independence, assertiveness, leadership, and aggressiveness, which may be more related to success in the occupational realm than the feminine indicators such as gentleness, compassion, and sensitivity (Bem). The presence of these factors may produce positive influence on career success.

Chow (1987) examined the extent to which Gender-role Orientation is related to occupational attainment and found that Gender-role Orientation was significantly related to occupational attainment. Bem and Chow's studies were more centered on Gender-role Orientation and they hinted about the relation ship between Gender-role Orientation and occupational attainment. Executives are responsible for occupational attainment. Sargent (1983) argues that a proper blending of masculine and feminine orientation is desirable for the performance of managerial tasks in an effective way. Sargent specifically analysed relationship between androgynous Gender-role Orientation and managerial performance. She has categorically stated about relationship between androgynous Gender-role Orientation and effective managerial performance. Fagenson (1989) also found similar relationship. Several other researchers like Eagly, Karu and Makhijaai (1995) established relationship between gender and leadership effectiveness. Twenge (1997) described that performance of executive roles are influenced by interference of Gender-role Orientation. Female executives' managerial performance is more affected by Gender-role Orientation than that of male executives. It can be observed from the study of Twenge that Gender-role Orientation is a socially constructed factor that limits the career growth of female executives. This finding leads to infer the role of Gender-role Orientation on executive career particularly biased toward male and against females.

Researchers like Bem (1974, 1977), Putnam (1976), Sargent (1981), Blanchard (1982) and Naisbit (1985) have established relationship between effective performance of managerial functions and androgynous Gender-role Orientation.

Powell (1977) and Schein (1976) have investigated effective managerial

performance and found positive association with masculinity. Kolb (1997) also found that leadership was not attributable to the gender of a person but to their Gender-role Orientation. In a series of studies, Gender-role Orientation was projected as a dominant variable having influence on managerial performance related factors.

Shimanoff & Jenkins (1991) (cited in Kolb, 1997) found that a particular gender orientation is not a parameter in deciding managerial performance. 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 are more likely to emerge as leaders than those who are feminine in their orientation.

Sichein (1973) and Susan Vinnicomb (1997) have narrated reasons for the sexwise inequality in executive positions biased towards males and females respectively. Schein (1973) has detected positive correlation between male traits and managerial success whereas women were rated deficient in these traits. Susan Vinnicomb (1997) contradicted the findings of Schein and argued that female managers possess all the traits necessary for the effective performance of executive tasks. Inconsistent ideologies still prevail regarding the relationship between Gender-role Orientation and Executive performance.

According to Dibenedetto (1990), male and female role performance at adulthood differs not because of their genitical difference, but due to gender characteristics. Dibenedetto (1990) found that masculine and feminine traits would influence their

Itole performance. Debenedeto's findings indicate that a female with more imasculine qualities always perform their career related responsibilities in a better way than their other female colleagues with more feminine qualities, and the reverse is also true.

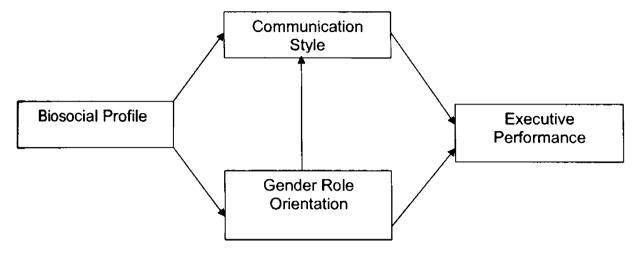
Heimovics and Herman (1988) found that there were no gender-related differences in the case of successful and unsuccessful performance of executives. However, the results of Deaux (1976) suggest that some gender effects do carry over to the organisational context. Several researchers have analised Gender-role Orientation with respect to managerial performance and found contradicting findings. Inconsistent ideologies still prevailing regarding the relationship between Gender-role Orientation and executive performance. Considering the dominance of male factor in managerial occupations in our culture, a relationship may exist between Gender-role Orientation and Executive performance (H5).

From the findings of Bansal (1982), Brenner (1982), Martin (1990) and Rhodes (1990), it can be derived that Biological and Social factors may have instrumental influence on Communication Style, Gender-role Orientation and Executive performance. These findings lead to think that there is a probable relationship between Biosocial Profile, Gender-role Orientation, Communication Style and Executive Performance.

The theoretical framework is conceptulised as plotted in figure 3.1

Figure 3 .1

Diagrammatic Representation of Theoretical framework



The variables used in this study are

- 1. Gender role orientation
- 2. Communication Style
- 3. Executive performance
- 4. Biosocial Profile

GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATION

Gender-role Orientation refers to the way that individuals perceive and evaluate the appropriateness of the attitudes and behaviors of men and women (Leslie & Clossick, 1996; Stevens-Smith, 1995).

Diana (1994) defined that gender includes such aspects as personality traits and also involves psychological make up, attitudes, beliefs and values as well as sexual orientation and gender – role identity. Gender is not a unitary or natural

fact but takes shape in concrete, historically changing social relationships (Throne-1983).

Gender roles may be defined as 'those shared expectations (about normative qualities and behaviors) that apply to individuals as the basis of their socially defined gender (Eagly 1987) or sets of norms that communicate what is generally appropriate for each sex (Burn 1995). Goff man (1977) referred 'gender as a social construct' whereas sex is the term used to indicate biological difference, gender is the term used to indicate psychological, social and cultural difference. Goff man speaks of "genderism" as a sex class linked individual behavioral practice — a practice linked to gender as a class. Gender identify thus emerges from rearing patterns, and is not determined by the hormones. Gender is determined by social practice and its patterns specifically social. Social structure is not pre ordained but is historically composed, thus feminity and masculinity should be seen as historically mutable. According to Harding (1986), the concept of gender applies at different levels. It is a dimension of personal identity, a psychic process of experiencing self.

Stoller (1968) narrated that sex is biological, gender psychological and therefore cultural. Dinana Trilling (1970) pointed out that individual behavioral pattern and even the thinking tenor are greatly influenced by socio-cultural factors. This traditionally developed and socially prescribed behavioral pattern is termed as 'gender role'.

Bem (1972) argued that these characteristics are not opposite ends of a single continuum but that individuals should be assessed in terms both of their

masculine – assertive and instrumental dispositions and their feminine – expressive and yielding nature.

Bem (1972) has described about Gender-role Orientation. According to Bem, those who are (relatively) high in both masculine and feminine qualities as Androgynous, those who are high in masculine and low in feminine qualities as masculine, high in feminine and low in masculine qualities as feminine and those low in both sets of qualities as undifferentiated.

Eagly (1991) defined Gender-role Orientation as the 'traditionally developed culturally designed and socially described behavioral patterns specifically assigned for males and females.

Gender-role Orientation has been **operationalised** in terms of the response to the questions in the Indian adaptation of Bem sex role inventory (BSRI), modified by Rao (1982)

COMMUNICATION STYLE

Norton (1983) has indicated that an important aspect of communication process is the way individuals communicate with each other. This aspect of communicating is referred to as communicator style.

Samovar and Porter (2001) had given more simple definition of Communication Style in which it is defined as the way in which people prefer to interact with one another. Communication Style is defined as the preferred way of individual for both communicating with and interpreting the communication from other (Centre for Educational Development and Assessment, 2002).

However, more specific and detailed definition had been given by Barker and Gaut (1996). To them, Communication Style is the way of an individual giving meaning through his or her verbal expression of words and delivery, it includes the choice of words, language, sentence structure and the characteristic of delivery.

In sum, it can be concluded that Communication Style is the preferable means or ways of an individual to interact with other people including the way he or she choose the words, language, sentence structure and the way the message is delivered which is influenced by the culture of the people.

Patton (1977) described Communication Style as the mode of influencing others action or work by passing of information or instructions.

The concept of Communication Style has been defined by Robert Norton (1983) as the way one verbally, nonverbally, and paravarbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood.

Das Gupta (1983) is of the view that, from the management point of view, communication is the means by which an executive gets his/her job done.

In this study Communication Style is **operationalised** as style exhibited by an **executive** as identified by Communication Style Inventory developed by Don (1981).

According to Chartier (1974), there are five typical Communication Styles using different amounts of telling and asking (transmission of messages, ideas) for information.

FUNNEL

Executives with this style are not aware of much about others, nor do others know much about them. This style is achieved by giving and asking for information in very small amounts. This style is labeled the funnel because the person directs the communications he receives from above to the proper people below, and in turn passes up information from employees to the proper people. He/she however adds very little of self to the communication. An executive with this style is often found to be operating with safety needs, delaying important decisions and avoiding people in sensitive situations. Withdrawal and avoidance are major dynamic forces associated with this style.

AUTOCRAT

This configuration does not represent executives who are not aware of much about others, nor do the others know much about them. This style is achieved by executives who tell a lot, always let others know what their opinions are, what their feelings are, but ask others very little. They tend to be insensitive to the feedback given to them in return to their communication. Either they may be poor

listeners or they may respond to the information in such a way that others are reluctant to tell them anything. Consequently, they do not know how they are coming across, or what their impact on others. The result of this one way communication is that they persist in behaving ineffectively executives of this type are often aware there is a problem somewhere in the organisation, but because they do not solicit information, they are totally unaware that they are, at least in part, a cause of that problem.

INTERVIEWER

Executions with this style is characterized by asking questions to find out what others think and feel about various situations, but not to give information or feedback about what they are thinking or feeling. Since they do not commit themselves in the eyes of others, it is hard to know where they stand on issues. The low use of telling can be interpreted as a sign of basic mistrust of others.

COMPROMISER

This style in often seen in relatively new managers who have not yet settled into a style. Executives with compromiser style usually give and ask information and ready to compromise on issues intended for promoting a harmonious work atmosphere. Executives with this style can easily get the support from colleagues and subordinates

OPEN COMMUNICATOR

It is generally considered the most effective executive Communication Style.

Much of the executive's behavior straightforward to others with whom he

Interacts. As a result, there are fewer tendencies for others to misinterpret or project different meaning to the executive's behavior.

EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

Richard (1975) defined executive performance as 'attainment of the organisational objectives by integrating the individual and organisational goals.

According to Karter (1977), executive performance is the effectiveness in managerial decisions having influence on his/her subordinates or colleagues work and the functioning of the organisation as a social system.

Executive performance can be defined as the role of executive in blending resources into desired outcomes. (Stewart – 1967)

Executive performance is the effort of the executive intended for the attainment of the organisational objectives by way of blending of resources including human assets.

For the purpose of this study an 'Executive is one who is involved in the core activity of the organisation where she or he is attached subject to the following conditions.

The work of one or more subordinate staff is under his or her control.

Should have power and authority to take decisions having direct impact on the performance of the organisation.

Responsible for the profitability of the organisation and excludes a Management Trainee.

For the purpose of this study, Executive performance is **operationalised** in terms of the fully effective executive as measured by Fully Effective Executive Self Test, developed by Gerald Kushd (1996)

BIOSOCIAL PROFILE

Researchers have anilysed biological and social factors responsible for behavioral variations of human beings.

From the findings of Bansal (1982), Brenner (1982), Martin (1990) and Rhodes (1990), it can be derived that Biological and Social factors may have instrumental influence on Communication Style, Gender-role Orientation and Executive performance.

Bio- Social profile of an individual refers to the 'biological and social factors that denotes an individual's ancestry, parental background, educational qualifications, financial position and social and personal identities'.

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the objectives, hypothesis, pilot study, sampling, tools of data collection, scope, statistical methods used and limitations. Details of the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments are also explained in this section.

As has already been pointed out in the introductory chapter, this study has the predominant purpose of establishing the contribution of two sociocultural factors namely Gender-role Orientations and Communication Styles of the executives in deciding their levels of performance. This overall objective has been proposed to be realised by pursuing the specific objectives indicated below.

OBJECTIVES

- To locate executives with respect to their Gender-role Orientations of androgyny, feminity, masculinity and undifferentiated orientations.
- To identify the Communication Style of executives in terms of the patterns such as Funnel, Autocrat, Interviewer, Compromiser and open Communication Styles.
- To detect the implications of biosocial profile of executives on Gender-role
 Orientation and Communication Style.
- 4. To locate the inter association, if any, between the Gender-role orientation and Communication Style of executives.
- 5. To measure the executive performance of the respondents and to categorise it into low, medium and high levels.
- To establish the influence of Gender-role Orientation and Communication
 Style on the executive performance

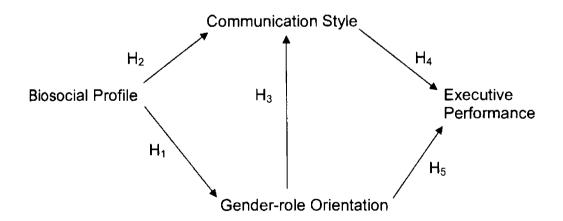
HYPOTHESES

- H1. There exists significant association between the biosocial profile and the Gender-role Orientation of executives.
- H2. Communication Styles of executives are significantly associated with the factors of their biosocial profile.
- H3. There exists a significant association between Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style of executives.
- H4. Executive performance levels vary among executives as they differ in their Communication Styles.
- H5. Executive performance levels of executives vary as a function of their Gender-role Orientation.

The hypothesised relationships sought through this study has been visualised as indicated hereunder

Figure 4.1

Pictorial representation of Relationships



UNIVERSE

After the economic reforms implemented in nineties, Indian banking industry has flourishing to new heights. Overall growth of Indian economy accelerated the progress of banking sector. With the support of new generation technology and related improvements, our banking industry is on the forward track with a greater momentum. Bank Officers are involved in the core activity of banks such as deposit collection, advances, and tie up services with Insurance companies etc. The supervision of subordinate staff is also involved in their day-to-day work. In essence, success and profitability of a bank is directly related to the performance of executives. The whole profile of a bank executive as explained in the conceptual framework has been subsumed as 'executive' for the analysis of Executive performance of this study.

Banks functioning in the state of Kerala can be classified into different categories based on their constitutional structure. Banks fully owned by Government of India such as State Bank of India and its subsidiaries, nationalised banks, new generation private sector banks, Kerala based traditional private sector banks and co-operative banks. State Bank of India and nationalised banks have an all India network. They have to follow government rules and regulations for employee recruitment. New generation banks usually recruit executives directly and no promotions from clerical cadre to executive level is envisaged. These high tech banks are functioning only in major cities. Co-operative banks are functioning with regional preferences mainly within their home districts.

Kerala based traditional private sector banks have a statewide network. They have recruitment mix of internal promotions and direct selection to the executive

cadre. These bank branches are located at large and medium cities, small towns and even rural villages in Kerala. Newly recruited officers in these banks are professionals from all areas of specialization. Existing senior executives are backed with years of experience. Core business activities of these banks are centered within the state of Kerala. It is possible to analyse the success of these traditional private banks from the performance of executives within the state of Kerala in a better way than other categories of banks. Hence, for the analysis of the performance of executives it was decided to limit the universe as executives employed in Kerala based traditional private sector bank branches within the geographical boundaries of Kerala.

Table 4.1
Universe

Bank	No. of executives (As on 31.03.02)
Federal Bank Ltd	1634
South Indian Bank Ltd	1241
Catholic Syrian Bank Ltd	1078
Dhanalakshmi Bank Ltd	411
Lord Krishna Bank Ltd	396
Nedungadi Bank Ltd	369
Total	5129

There are six Kerala based traditional private sector banks excluding North Malabar Gramin Bank and South Malabar Gramin Bank. The branches of these two banks are mainly concentrated in rural areas. These two banks do not have a

statewide network of branches. That is why these two banks are excluded from the purview of the study.

Executives employed in the six traditional private sector banks within the state of Kerala constitute the universe of the study.

SAMPLE

Sampling was effected using the procedure of cluster sampling. The possibilities of a wide geographical scatter of the potential respondents prompted the researcher to resort to the procedure of cluster formation and sampling from among the cluster elements.

The first cluster comprised of administrative districts within the state of Kerala. Of the 14 districts, 3 districts were chosen randomly (approximately ¼ the larger pool). Palakkad, Kozhikod and Kottayam were the randomly selected districts.

The second cluster was formed of 211 locations where at least one branch of the specified private scheduled banks were found to be functional. 60 locations were again randomly drawn from a sampling frame of 211 locations categorised. This processes resulted in a list of 157 bank branches that had a total of 561 executives. Having generated the third level cluster of 561 executives, census approach was used to cover them exhaustively.

PILOT STUDY

Pilot study is essential to collect first hand information about the method of questionnaire distribution and collection from the selected respondents. Effort and time can be minimised by incorporating the expertise that can be gathered from pilot study. Data need to be collected from branches of 6 banks in this study. Administration structure of banks may differ. In order to overcome the possibilities of difficulties a pilot study was conducted.

A pilot study was conducted among 23 executives from six branches. The six branches were selected randomly by taking one each from a bank. It was intended for studying the feasibility in conducting the study among bank executives. The pilot study helped the researcher in finalising the procedures in collecting data from bank executives scattered in three districts.

TOOLS OF DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was done primarily adopting prepared and standardised tools developed by others. The details of the tools used have been given in the following paragraphs. Question items on bio-social profile were prepared by the researcher and incorporated in the tool of data collection along with the adopted inventories.

The measuring instruments used in the present study are Bem Sex-Role Inventory, Fully Effective Self Test and Communication Style Inventory.

BEM SEX ROLE INVENTORY

The Bem Sex – Role inventory (BSRI-1974) was designed to implement empirical research on psychological androgyny.

The scale used in the present study is the Indian adaptation of the BSRI by Rao, Gupta and Rao (1982). The scale has been constructed following Bem's procedure. It consisted of 30 statement items of which fifteen measured feminine characteristics and the other fifteen were for masculine characteristics. The items were arranged with the statements on masculine characteristics alternating with feminine ones.

While using the scale, a person is asked to indicate on a 7 point scale, how well each of the 30 characteristics described herself or himself. The anchor points in scale ranged from 1(never or almost never true) to 7 (always or almost always true) and are labeled at each point. The subjects were then classified into the four categories- androgynous, masculine, feminine and undifferentiated, using the median split method. Those respondents who scored above the median on the masculine scale and below the median on the feminine scale were classified as masculine. Respondents who scored above the median on the feminine and below the median on the masculine were rated as feminine. Those who scored above median on both the scales have been defined as androgynous. Those who scored below the median on both the scales were defined as undifferentiated.

The inventory was validated by Rao, Gupta and Murthy (1982) with reported Cronbach's alpha level of 0.87. The test-retest reliability of the inventory with an intermission of ten days was 0.80 for masculine and 0.80 for feminine items. Split half reliability of the inventory was 0.45 and 0.55 both significant at the 1 percent level (p=0.01).

FULLY EFFECTIVE EXECUTIVE SELF TEST

This is a measure to analyse executive performance from the self-evaluation of

executives. Statements are focused on personal and professional life of

executives. It is designed in such a way to infer an idea about the ways in which

an executive is performing his or her responsibilities for the fulfillment of

organisational as well as personal goals.

Fully effective executive self test was designed by Gerald Kushd (1996). It is

intended for analysing effective executive performance. It contained 26

statements on a 5 point scale. The items are positively keyed where the scoring

system followed strongly agree - 5, agree -4, undivided -3, disagree -2, and

strongly disagree -1. The total score ranges from 26-130.

The categorisation of respondents into low, medium and high levels of executive

performance is as follows:

High

:>Mean + \$.D

Medium

: Mean ± SD

Low

: <Mean - S.D

The test- retest reliability was found to be 0.41, which was significant at 0.05

level split half reliability of the scores, was found to be 0.75. Validity of the test

was established by Gerald (1996). The inventory was administered to control

and experimental groups. 't' value was found to be significant at 0.001 level

indicating high validity of the scale.

81

COMMUNICATION STYLE INVENTORY

Communication Style inventory was developed by Don Michalk (1981). The scale measured five styles of communication, the styles being:

Open communicator

Funnel

Compromiser

Interviewer

Autocrat

The inventory had five styles, each being represented by 4 items on the scale.

The tool had thus 20 items. It was a 5 point scale with the scores assigned as follows.

Not like me at all -1, somewhat like use -2, undivided -3, quite like me -4, and exactly like one -5.

By adding the scores across 4 items of a style gives the total score in that style.

The score of each communications style dimension may range from 4-20.

Respondents scoring 16 and above total points from the 4 items specified for that particular style were categorized having that style of communication.

Respondents scoring same total points (above 16) in two styles, were classified as having no specific Communication Styles.

Stability of instrument, giving similar results for the same subjects on different occasions (test- retest), was found out by retest correlations of a sample of 25 who responded on the test on two occasions with a gap of 1 month. Most

correlations were significant at 0.01 level. Content Validity of the scale was reported by Don Michalk (r =0.38, p=0.01)(1981)

DATA COLLECTION

Questionnaires comprising the scales mentioned were distributed to all the executives employed in the bank branches located in the selected locations. 561 executives were employed in the bank branches as per the sampling frame. Questionnaires were distributed to only 543 executives who were available in the braches during the two visits by the researcher. Out of the 543 distributed, 537 questionnaires were returned. 17 questionnaires received were incomplete. 520 filled in questionnaires from bank the respondents constituted the data base of the study used for analysis.

STATISTICAL METHODS USED

The data was edited and processed by using electronic spreadsheet and was subjected for univariate, bi-variate and multivariate analysis. The statistical concepts and tests used for the analysis of data include Mean, Standard Deviation, Chi Square Test, ANOVA and Regression analysis.

LIMITATTIONS

The conceptual and methodological limitations identified and left unaddressed during the course of this study are :

 Executive's contribution to financial performance of the organisation in terms of balance sheet figures was not considered in this study. Therefore the scores generated in the course of this study for ascertaining levels of Executive Performance does not reflect the objective, financial parameters that can be argued to be a dimension of the performance levels of executives in banking organisations.

2. As the units of organisations used in the study have come from a population confined to the geographical boundaries of Kerala, the findings may not be generalised as such to the executives within the state.

CHAPTER 5 BIOSOCIAL PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

The term Biosocial profile itself denotes biological and social dimensions of individuals. Biological elements refer to inherent factors like sex, parental education and occupation. Individuals cannot change these factors after their birth, and beyond their control. An individual's interaction with the living world differs due to education, occupation, income level and marriage. These factors play an important role in shaping a person's basic attitudes, values, behavior and work habits. It is therefore relevant to analyse the biosocial profiles of executives.

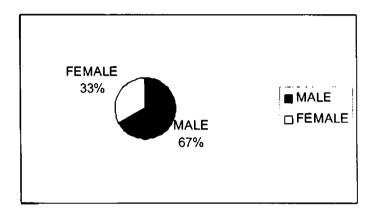
SEX

Sex is considered as an important factor in the analysis of organisational success. Figure 5.1 reveal that 67.12% of executives were males compared to 32.88% females. It indicates that female's executive participation is low in the field of banking. Irrespective of almost equal proportion of males and females in population and educational enrolment, presence of females in executive jobs is less in comparison with males. In India, female representation is still far below the world average. Elimination of females due to unreal factors may be a reason for this difference. In the case of executive recruitments, female sex may be a factor having decisive negative influence.

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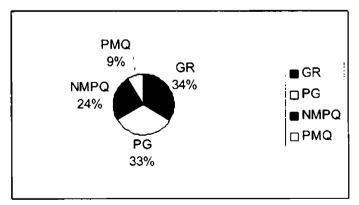
FIGURE 5.1
PIE CHART SHOWING SEX COMPOSITION OF RESPONDENTS



EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Educational qualifications of respondents were analysed and it was found that 34% of executives were graduates, 33% post graduates, 24% with non management professional qualification and 9% with professional management qualifications.

PIE CHART SHOWING EDUCATIOANAL QUALIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS



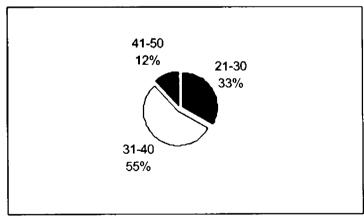
GR- Graduate, PG- Post Graduate, NMPQ- Non Management Professional Qualification, PMQ- Professional Management Qualification

This indicate that the number of executives with professional management education is less in sectors studied. This may be due to the presence of aged employees, recruitment policies of these organisations and the low salary structure. Human Relations departments of these organisations seem to be give only low weigtage to professional management qualifications while recruiting executives. Business school products may not find the salary structure of the banking sector as attractive.

AGE

Analysis of data reveals that 32. 7% of respondents were in the age group of 21-30, 55.8 % in 31-40 category and 11. 5 % in the group 41-50 years. Experienced executives in the banks might have been joined new generation banks for higher salary and other benefits.

FIGURE 5.3
PIE CHART SHOWING AGE OF THE RESPONDENTS



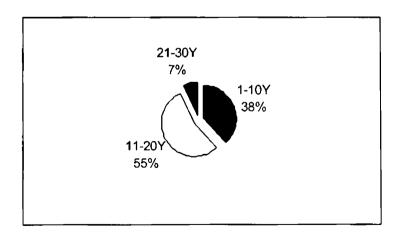
Presence of a major fraction (88.5%) the executives in the 21-40 age group indicates greater possibilities for newer ideas of younger generation. Young executives may take decisions very quickly whereas aged executives may give

much importance to probable chances of negative consequences. In a highly vibrant organisational scenario, presence of majority of young executives is advisable for higher rate of success.

YEARS OF SERVICE

Years of service may have influence on executive performance. There is a belief that an executive with longer experience can manage a situation in a better way than less experienced. Conversely, an executive with professional qualification can overcome the benefits of experience with their competence. Years of service indicate that 37.5% of executives were in the category of 1-10 years, 55.8 % in the group of 11-20 and only 6.7 % with 21-30 years category. Presence of a more than half of the executives in the group of 1-10 years of experience leads to think that these organisations prefer young executives.

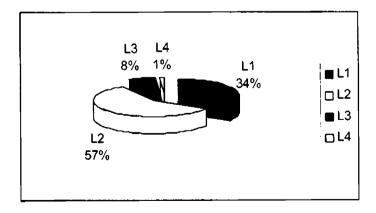
FIGURE 5.4
PIE CHART SHOWING YEARS OF SERVICE OF THE RESPONDENTS



SALARY

Salary plays an important role in the career of executives. Increase or decrease in salary may produce changes in commitment, job satisfaction and motivation of an executive. Sudden increase in salary may have direct influence on the profitability or even the existence of an organisation. If the organisation is not making profits, it may not cope up with the industry standard of salary. Salary structure of the respondents reveal that 33.7% of executives were in the salary level of 10000-15000, 57.7% in the range 15001-20000, 7.7% in the category of 20001-25000 and 1% in the 25001 and above level. Private scheduled banks have an almost uniform pattern of salary level. Human Relations departments of these organisations may have very limited freedom in fixing salary outside the prefixed salary scales for executives. New generations banks have an advantage of performance based employee-to-employee pay fixation strategies. Absence of salary differentials within the same cadre is an inadequacy of these organisations.

FIGURE 5.5
PIE CHART SHOWING SALARY LEVEL OF THE RESPONDENTS

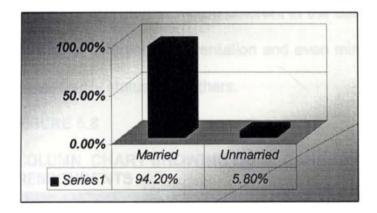


L1:Rs.10000-15000, L2: Rs.15001-20000, L3: Rs.20001-25000, L4:Rs.25000 and above

MARITAL STATUS

Marital status of an executive can influence his or her job behavior. An unmarried executive with unfulfilled desire for a life partner may have problems in attaining professional goals. Family responsibilities, financial problems, marital dissatisfaction and other family related factors might be instrumental in producing inferior performance. Data indicate that 94.2 % of the executives were married and only 5.8 % unmarried. Unmarried executives in the age group of 21-30 are natural. Possible effect of marital status on Gender-role Orientation, Communication Style and executive performance can be attributed to merits and demerits of married life and its differential impact on individuals.

FIGURE 5.6
COLUMN CHART SHOWING MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS



NUMBER OF CHILDREN

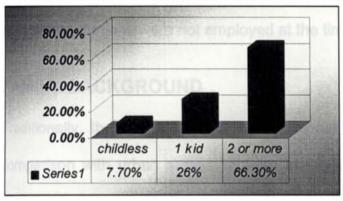
A married executive with an unfulfilled desire for a child may be in agony. An executive's behavior, relationship with colleagues and even his or her general outlook towards the society may be influenced by the childless status. Conversely, more number of kids may increase the responsibilities and additional financial needs of an executive. Data reveal that 7.7 % of the married

respondents were childless, 26% with one kid and 66.3% with 2 or more kids.

Majority of the respondents had kids at the time of data collection.

FIGURE 5.7

COLUMN CHART SHOWING NUMBER OF CHILDREN OF RESPONDENTS

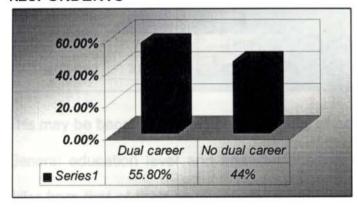


DUAL CAREER FAMILY

If husband and wife are employed, that may affect all facets of their professional and personal lives. Traditional role descriptions of a married female as a housewife and mother will be different in the case of career women. There may be a lot of difference in orientation and even mindset of an executive with a dual career family status than others.

FIGURE 5.8

COLUMN CHART SHOWING DUAL CAREER FAMILY STATUS OF RESPONDENTS



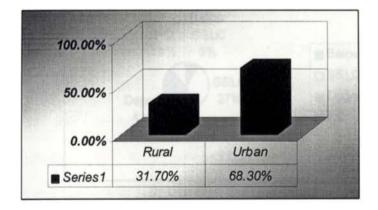
A dual career couple may need to put in additional efforts to cope up with family and career responsibilities. Dual career status may be a factor having instrumental effect on career success of an executive. Data inferred that 55.8 % of respondents belonged to the dual career family category and 44.2% of the executive's spouses were not employed at the time of data collection.

FAMILY BACKGROUND

Traditionally, there is a backlog in educational advancement in rural areas in comparison with urban areas. Agrarian economy and related characteristics of rural areas may reduce the opportunities for education than urban areas. There are differences in the socialisation patterns between rural and urban areas. It was found that 31.7% of the respondents fall in the rural and 68.3 % in the urban category.

FIGURE 5.9

COLUMN CHART SHOWING FAMILY BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS



This may be because of the non-availability of educational facilities in rural areas.

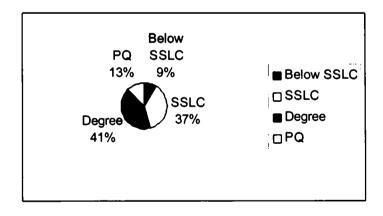
General education level and financial position of parents in urban areas may differ from that of their counterparts in rural areas. Affluent and educated urban parents normally give top priority for their children's education. This may be a

reason for the presence of larger percentage of executives from urban background.

PARENTAL EDUCATION

An educated father may be more concerned about the education of his kid. Analysis of data indicate that 9% of the respondents with a father's education of below SSLC, 37% SSLC, 41% degree and 13% with professional qualification. An executive whose father's education is below SSLC may have put in more effort to build an executive career. He or she may have received encouragement from father in education related aspects. In such a case a father with low level of education may not be in a position to guide kids regarding the right kind of educational track.

FIGURE 5.10
PIE CHART SHOWING FATHERS EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS



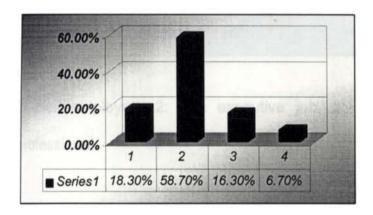
PQ: Professional Qualification

Mothers education is a factor that can influence the transformation of a kid to an adult. Figure 5.11 reveal that 18.3% of the executive's with mothers education of below SSLC, 58.7% SSLC, 16.3% degree and 6.7% with professional

qualification. Influence of a mother on various aspects of a kid right from birth is more due to the fact that presence of mother is more in a house than a father.

This may not be true in the case of mothers working outside.

FIGURE 5.11
COLUMN CHART SHOWING MOTHERS EDUCATION OF RESPONDENTS

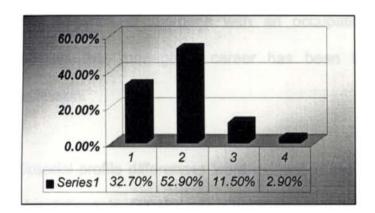


1: Below SSLC, 2: SSLC, 3: Degree, 4: Professioanl Qualification

PARENTAL OCCUPATION

Fathers role in our society has been traditionalized as a breadwinner. Occupation of a father may influence the life style of the family. Nature of fathers' occupation may be instrumental behind the social contacts of the family, education of the children and nutritious content of the food etc. There is a greater possibility of high income belonged to the category of professionals and management professionals. Analysis of data reveals that 32.7 % of the executives belonged to the father's occupation category of self employed, 52.9% with non executive job, 11.5% professionals and 2.9% management professionals. Majority of the respondents (52.9%) fathers had nominal income source from the non –executive job and may have influenced the life style and investment in childrens education.

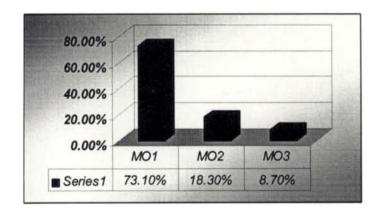
FIGURE 5.12
COLUMN CHART SHOWING FATHERS OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENTS



1: Self employed, 2: non executive job, 3: professionals, 4: management professional

Mother's occupation may have diverse impact on family life. There may be chances of additional income from occupation. At the same time the mother need to sacrifice the traditional roles of housewife and childrearing.

FIGURE 5.13
COLUMN CHART SHOWING MOTHERS OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENTS



MO1: Housewives, MO2: Non -executive job, MO3: Professional job

Data revealed that 73.1% of the respondent's mothers were belonged to the category of housewives, 18.3% non-executive jobs and 8.7% with professional jobs. Absence of mother's with an occupation of management profession indicates that managerial career has been traditionally a male dominated profession.

Biosocial profile differences were evident in the analysis. There are possibilities of variations in Gender-role Orientations and Communication Styles due the differences in biosocial profile of the respondents. These probable variations are described in the following chapters.

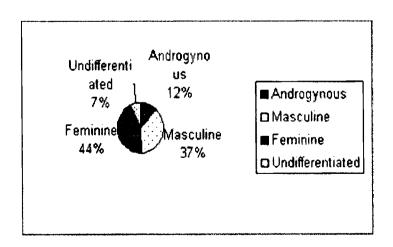
CHAPTER 6 GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATION

This chapter seems to answer the first objective of the study namely to locate executives with respect to their Gender-role Orientations of androgyny, feminity, masculinity and Undifferentiated orientations and to establish the relationship between biosocial profile and Gender-role Orientation as necessitated under third objective. Gender-role Orientation of the executives were studied and categorised using the Bem's Sex Role Inventory. Initially the Gender-role Orientations of the executives were categorised. Biosocial profile of the executives are presented and subsequently the relationship of the respondents biosocial profile with the Gender-role orientation is discussed.

It is clear from figure 6.1 that 44% of the respondents are in the category of feminine, 37% masculine, 12% androgynous and 7% undifferentiated Gender-role Orientations.

FIGURE 6.1

GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATION OF EXECUTIVES



Studies of Feather (1984) supports the view that masculine characteristics are aggressive, forceful, strong, rational, self confident, competitive and independent whereas feminine traits are warm, kind, emotional, gentle, understanding, aware of others and feeling and helpful to others. Bem(1974) highlighted androgynous traits and stated that androgyny is intended to represent the best of the both worlds; both highly valued feminine behaviors and highly valued masculine behaviors. Masculine behaviors are more socially desirable than feminine behaviors(Tayler & Hall –1982).

Traditionally, cultural norms have been categorised into organizational (male) and family (female) norms (Sangamitra-1999). Thus gender roles play a major role in social life.

Sargent (1983) argues that the typically masculine style of management usually proves to be exceedingly costly to men who abide by it, as well as women who feel pressurised towards adopting it. When men and women adhere to the usual gender stereotypes, they also face problems in their functioning. Behaviour, specific to sex-roles, limits development of effective management style in particular situations. Sex – role expectation thus underutilizes skills in both male and female. Thus for both male and female it is important to blend masculine and feminine traits. In other words, an androgynous gender role orientation is preferred.

From the studies of Bem and Sargent, it can be argued that a gender role orientation centered analysis will give newer dimensions to executive performance analysis.

In spite of the 67.12 % percentage of males, higher percentage of executives with feminine Gender-role Orientation indicates that sex factor may not be a real predictor of Gender-role Orientation.

As per the findings of Sangamitra (1999), sex basically indicates biological differences whereas gender is socially constructed perception of an individual based on expected behavior and roles assigned to him/her by the society. Findings of Thorne (1983) also reiterates that gender is the constructed meaning of one's maleness and femaleness coupled with psychological make up, attitudes, beliefs and value orientation and gender- role identity. Connecting the above theoretical formulation and the empirical findings of this study regarding sex ratio and gender —role orientation, it can be inferred that biological sex difference is not a factor having decisive influence in the formulation of gender role orientation.

In spite of the 67.12 % percentage of males, higher percentage of executives with feminine Gender-role Orientation indicates that sex factor may not be a real predictor of Gender-role Orientation.

The possibilities of interrelationship between biosocial variables and Gender-role Orientation are framed as a Hypothesis.

H1. There exists significant association between the biosocial profile and the Gender-role Orientation of executives.

Various Biosocial variables and its impact if any on Gender-role Orientation are explored in the following part.

SEX

Table 6.1 gives us information regarding the Gender-role Orientation of male and female executives. Among the male executives who constitute 67.12% of the total respondents, 10.31% showed androgynous orientation, 51.58 % masculine, and 28.94% feminine and 9.17% undifferentiated Gender-role Orientations. 32.88 % of the respondents were females among whom 15.79 % showed androgynous, 8.19% masculine, 72.51% feminine and 3.51% undifferentiated orientations.

Table 6.1 Sex Vs. Gender-role Orientation

classificati	Gender	-role Orier	ntation			
on of responden ts	And	And Mas Fe		Mas	Total	
Male	36	180	101	32	349	
	10.31*	51.58*	28.94*	9.17*	100*	
	57.14*	92.78**	44.88**	84.21**	67.12**	
Female	27	14	124	6	171	
	15.79*	8.19*	72.51*	3.51*	100*	
	42.86**	7.22**	55.12**	15.79**	32.88**	
Total	63	194	225	38	520	
	12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*	
	100*	100**	100**	100**	100**	

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine

* Figures marked with * are percentages within sex

** Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

From the chi square analysis, it was observed that there is a significant relationship between sex and Gender-role Orientation ($X^2 = 116.1461$, df = 2, p<0.001).

The analysis leads to think that females show a greater inclination to androgynous orientation. Interestingly a very high percentage (28.94) of males showed feminine orientation whereas only 8.19% females showed masculine orientation. This can be attributed to the female's tendency to move away from social role-mould prescribed by the society for females.

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

The data tabulated under Table 6.2 indicates that 32.7% of respondents are degree holders, 34.6% post graduates, 24 % professionals (Non Management) and 8.7% are management professionals. In order to verify whether there is any relationship between educational qualification and Gender-role Orientation, X² analysis was conducted.

The analysis reveals that relationship between educational qualification and Gender-role Orientation is significant (X^2 = 49.64, df= 9, p<0.001). It can be inferred that education is a factor instrumental in the development of a particular Gender-role Orientation. Education is playing the role of inculcating various socio cultural changes in individuals. Apart from learning various subjects, education is intended for the overall development of an individual.

Table 6.2

Educational Qualification Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classifi	cation	Gernder Ro	le Orientatio	n		
of respo	ondents	Androgyny	Masculine	Feminine	Undiff	Total
Ľ	Degree	16	59	85	10	170
Suc		9.4*	34.7*	50*	5.9*	100*
Educational Qualification (EQ)		25.4**	30.4**	37.8**	26.3**	32.7**
al Q	Post	25	90	43	22	180
lali	Graduation	13.9*	50*	23.9*	12.2*	100*
ficat		39.7**	46.4**	19.1**	57.9**	34.6**
ion	Professional	20	15	86	4	125
ν	Qualification	16*	12*	68.8*	3.2*	100*
	(Non Mgt)	31.7**	7. 7 **	38.2**	10.5**	24**
	Professional	2	30	11	2	45
	Qualification	4.4*	66.7*	24.4*	4.4*	100*
	(Mgt)	3.2**	15.5**	4.9**	5.3**	8.7**
		63	194	225	38	520
TOTAL	-	12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $(X^2 = 49.64, df = 9, p < 0.001)$

Influence of peer group can change the behavioral pattern of students during the educational tenure. This may produce changes on Gender-role Orientation. Various levels of education from graduation to professional management qualification are different in content as well as place, student profile, faculty background and type of institution. These variables also may influence the changes in Gender-role Orientation.

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within educational qualification

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

AGE

From table 6.3, it is evident that 32.7% of respondents belonged to the 21-30 age group, 55.8% in the 31-40 age group and 11.5% in the 41-50 age group, chi square analysis reveals that there is significant difference in Gender-role Orientation of the respondents due to the influence of age factor ($X^2 = 27.70$, df = 6, p=0.0001). The androgynous orientation of executive seems to be associated with younger age, 42.9% of androgynous executives belonged to the 21-30 age group, 49.2% from the 31-40 group and only 7.9% from 41-50 group.

Table No. 6.3

Age Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Category	wise	Gender	-role Orie	entation		
representation of respondents		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
		27	79	46	18	170
	21-30	15.9*	46.5*	27.1*	10.6*	100*
		42.9**	40.7**	20.4**	47.4**	32.7**
		31	84	156	19	290
Age	31-40	10.7*	29*	53.8*	6.6*	100*
		49.2**	43.3**	69.3**	50**	55.8**
		5	31	23	1	60
	41-50	8.3*	51.7*	38.3*	1.7*	100*
		7.9**	16**	10.2**	2.6**	11.5**
	-	63	194	225	38	520
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
	122	100**	100**	100**	100**_	100**

 $(X^2 = 27.70, df = 6, p=0.0001)$

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

Traditional beliefs about the role expectations of males and females are still prevalent in our country. Young executives are gradually crossing all these

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within age

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

reasons for the presence of higher proportion of executives with androgynous orientation at younger age.

YEARS OF SERVICE

Table 6.4 reveal that 37.5 % of the respondents had less than 10 years of experience, majority were in the 11-20 years category and 6.7% in the highly experienced 21-30 years category.

Table No. 6.4
Years of service Vs. Gender Role Orientation

Categorywise		Gender	role Orie	ntation		
representation of respondents		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
		32	80	65	18	195
	1-10	16.4*	41*	33.3*	9.2*	100*
		50.8**	41.2**	28.9**	47.4**	37.5**
Years of	1-20	31	100	139	20	290
Service		10.7*	34.5*	47.9*	6.9*	100*
Service		49.2**	51.5**	61.8**	52.6**	55.8**
			14	21		35
	21-30		40*	60*		100*
		1	7.2**	9.3**		6.7**
Total		63	194	225	38	520
		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
	·2 440	100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $(X^2 = 14.6, df = 6, p=0.0236)$

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

Chi square analysis revealed significant ($X^2 = 14.6$, p=0.026) significant difference in the Gender-role Orientation of the executives due to the changes in years of service. None of the executives belonged to 21-30 years experience was

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within years of service

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

Identified with androgynous or undifferentiated orientations. Aged executives with items years of service may not have enough flexibility to exhibit vigor in their style of behavior. This may be due to their dependence on their socially constructed role moulds.

SALARY
Table No. 6.5
Salary Vs. Gender -Role Orientation

Class	sification	Gernder Ro	le Orientatio	n		
of res	spondents	Androgyny	Masculine	Feminine	Undiff	Total
		22	72	64	17	175
	10000-15000	12.6*	41.1*	36.6*	9.7*	100*
		34.9**	37.1**	28.4**	44.7**	33.7**
		36	103	140	21	300
	15001-20000	12*	34.3*	46.7*	7*	100*
		57.1**	53.1**	62.2**	55.3**	57.7**
		5	14	21		40
	20001-25000	12.5*	35*	52.5*		100*
SALARY		7.9**	7.2**	9.3**		7.7**
SAI			5			5
	250001+		100*			100*
			2.6*			1**
		63	194	225	38	520
тот	ΓAL	12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $(X^2 = 5.91, df = 9, p=0.7489)$

And : androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem : feminine, Undiff : undifferentiated

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within salary

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

Data tabulated in table 6.5 reveal that majority of the respondents (57.7%) were in the salary range of 15001-20000, 33.7% in the range 10000-15000, 7.7% in the range 20001-25000 and only 1% in the range of 25001 above category.

It is clear from Chi square analysis that there was no significant relationship between salary and Gender-role Orientation. ($X^2 = 5.91$, p=0.7489). Gender-role Orientation is embedded in mindset. Increase or decrease in salary may change the lifestyle of persons and in turn their social status. These variations in life of an executive are not capable of influencing the Gender-role Orientations of executives. Research by Baher (1987) suggests that monetary income of professionals is not capable of creating a particular Gender-role Orientation.

MARITAL STATUS

5.8% of respondents were unmarried and 94.2 % were married at the time of data collection (Table 6.6).

Table No. 6.6

Marital Status Vs. Gender-role Orientation

	Gender-role Orientation						
Classification of respondents		And	Mas	Fem	Mas	Total	
Marital Status	Unmarried	5 16.7* 7.9**	9 30* 4.6**	15 50* 6.7**	1 3.3* 2.6**	30 100* 5.8**	
	Married	58 11.8* 92.1**	185 37.8* 95.4**	210 42.9* 93.3**	37 7.6* 97.4**	490 100* 94.2**	
Total		63 12.1* 100*	194 37.3* 100**	225 43.3* 100**	38 7.3* 100**	520 100* 100**	

 $(X^2 = 1.048, df = 3, p=0.7896)$

And : androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem : feminine, Undiff : undifferentiated

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within marital status.

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

Chi square analysis indicate that there is no significant difference in Gender-role Orientation of unmarried and married respondents ($X^2 = 1.048$, df = 3, p=0.7896. Marital status may not be a factor having decisive influence on Gender-role Orientation. Another possible explanation for this finding is that formulation of Gender-role Orientation may be happening much before marital age.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Data tabulated in table 6.7 indicate that 7.7% of the respondents were childless, 26 % with 1 kid and majority (66.3 %) have 2 kids or above.

Table No. 6.7

Number of Children Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classifica	ition of	Gender-ro	le Orient	ation		
respondents		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
			21	17	2	40
	0		52.5*	42.5*	5*	100*
			10.8**	7.6**	5.3**	7.7**
No of	1	15	71	34	15	135
Children		11.1*	52.6*	25.2*	11.1*	100*
Cililaten		23.8**	36.6**	15.1**	39.5**	26**
		48	102	174	21	345
	2/2+	13.9*	29.6*	50.4*	6.1*	100**
		76.2**	52.6**	77.3**_	55.3**	66.3**
	Total		194	225	38	520
Total			37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $(X^2 = 33.46, df = 6, p < 0.0001)$

And : androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem : feminine, Undiff : undifferentiated

Chi square analysis reveals that there was significant relationship between Gender-role Orientation of executives and their childless/ with child status ($X^2 =$

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within number of children.

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

33.46, p<0.0001). Majority of the executives with androgynous orientation have 2 or more kids. From group of childless respondents no executive was detected with androgynous orientation. If the childless condition is a panic element in an executive's married life, which may adversely affect all aspects of his or her behavior and in turn Gender-role Orientation.

DUAL CAREER FAMILY

Table 6.8 indicates that out of the 55.8% of the executives with dual career families, 11.4% with androgynous orientation, 26.9 % masculine, 58.3 % feminine and 3.4 % with undifferentiated orientation. In the case of 44.2 % of the respondents without a dual career family, 13 % with androgynous orientation, 50.4 % masculine, 24.3 % feminine and 12.2 % with undifferentiated orientation. Chi square analysis reveals that there was significant difference in the Genderrole Orientation of executives with respect to their dual career family status (X2 = 66.83, p<0.0001). Presence of an employed spouse may increase the income level of an executive's family and related changes in the lifestyle. Additional income from the salary of spouse may increase the financial security of the family. In the meantime, dual career status may create lot of problems in the family life of many of the executives due to lack of time for caring their child and parents, if they are staying with them. These problems may lead to difficulties in their life. It can be argued that these changes in life of an executive due to dual career family status are a factor capable of influencing their Gender-role Orientation.

Table No. 6.8

Dual Career Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classification of respondents		Gender	Gender-role Orientation				
		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total	
		33	78	169	10	290	
	yes	11.4*	26.9*	58.3*	3.4*	100*	
Dual Career		52.4**	40.2**	75.1**	26.3**	55.8**	
Family		30	116	56	28	230	
	no	13*	50.4*	24.3*	12.2*	100*	
		47.6**	59.8**	24.9**	73.7**	44.2**	
Total	Takak		194	225	38	520	
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*	
		100**	100**	100**	100*	100**	

 $(X^2 = 66.83, df = 3, p < 0.0001)$

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

FAMILY BACKGROUND

Data tabulated in table 6.9 reveal that 31.7 % of the respondents belonged to the rural and 68.3 in the urban categories. Out of the 31.7% executives from the rural background, 22.4% showed androgynous, 33.3% masculine, 29.7% feminine and 14.5 % undifferentiated Gender-role Orientations. Whereas in the case of executives from the urban background, which constitutes 68.3 % of the sample, 7.3% showed androgynous, 39.2% masculine, 49.6% feminine and 3.9% undifferentiated Gender-role Orientations. From Chi square analysis, it is clear that there is significant difference in the Gender-role Orientation of respondents with respect to their rural or urban background (X2 = 49.84, p<0.0001). The reason for this finding may be the difference in socialisation process in a rural or urban area.

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within dual career family

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

Table No. 6.9

Family background Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classification of respondents		Gender	Gender-role Orientation			
		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
	Rur	37	55	49	24	165
	al	22.4*	33.3*	29.7*	14.5*	100*
Family		58.7**	28.4**	21.8**	63.2**	31.7**
Background	Urb	26	139	176	14	355
		7.3*	39.2*	49.6*	3.9*	100*
	an	41.3**	71.6**	78.2**	36.8**	68.3**
			194	225	38	520
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $(X^2 = 49.84, df = 3, p < 0.0001)$

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

FATHERS EDUCATION

Table 6.10 shows that 8.7 % of respondent's fathers had an education of below SSLC, 36.5% SSLC, 42.3% degree and 12.5 % professional qualifications. There is statistically significant relationship between the Gender-role Orientation of executives and their father's education (x2 = 29.919, p< 0.000). Education level of father is a factor capable of influencing the life of his kids. Factors like education, life style, comforts in life, difference in social status and peer group etc. may vary due to the education level of his or her father and related income generating patterns. It can be inferred that these variations in the life of an executive is a factor having influence on Gender-role Orientation.

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within family background

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

Table No. 6.10

Fathers Education Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classification	n of	Gender-	role Orie	ntation		
respondents	respondents		Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
		5	20	15	5	45
	1.00	11.1*	44.4*	33.3*	11.1*	100*
		7.9**	10.3**	6.7**	13.2*	8.7**_
		25	80	81	4	190
	2.00	13.2*	42.1*	42.6*	2.1*	100*
Fathers		39.7**	41.2**	36**	10.5**	36.5**
Education	3.00	28	62	102	28	220
		12.7*	28.2*	46.4*	12.7*	100*
		44.4**	32**	45.3**	73.7**	42.3**
		5	32	27	1	65
	4.00	7.7*	49.2*	41.5*	1.5	100*
		7.9**_	16.5**	12**	2.6**	12.5**
		63	194	225	38	520
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $X^2 = 29.919$, df = 9, p < 0.001

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

* Figures marked with * are percentages within fathers education

** Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

1 : Below SSLC

2 : \$SLC

3 : Degree

4 : Professional Qualification

MOTHERS EDUCATION

Table 6.11 indicates that 18.3% of respondent's mothers had an education level of below SSLC, 58.7% SSLC, 16.3% degree and 6.7% with professional qualification. Significant difference was detected in the Gender-role Orientation of executives with different levels of mother's education ($X^2 = 55.821$, p< 0.001). The IQ level of a lady with below SSLC education and professional qualification

may be different. This difference may reflect in the support and care given by the mother to her kids. There may difference because of the genetical variations due to mother's basic education and higher qualifications. It is evident that these variations in the life of an executive have influenced the formulation of Gender-role Orientation.

Table No. 6.11

Mothers education Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Clasification	of	Gender-	role Orie	ntation		
respondents	respondents		Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
		25	50	16	4	95
	1.00	26.3*	52.6*	16.8*	4.2*	100*
		39.7**	25.8**	7.1**	10.5**	18.3**
		28	89	166	22	305
	2.00	9.2*	29.2*	54.4*	7.2*	100*
Mothers		44.4**	45.9**	73.8*	57.9**	58.7**
Education	3.00	10	32	32	11	85
		11.8*	37.6*	37.6*	12.9*	100*
		15.9**	16.5**	14.2**	28.9**	16.3**
			23	11	1	35
	4.00		65.7*	31.4*	2.9*	100*
			11.9**	4.9**	2.6**	6.7**
	<u> </u>	63	194	225	38	520
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3**	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $X^2 = 55.821$, df = 9, p < 0.001

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

* Figures marked with * are percentages within mothers education

** Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

1 : Below SSLC

2 : SSLC3 : Degree

4 : Professional Qualification

FATHERS OCCUPATION

Table 6.12 indicates that 32.7% of the respondents father's were self employed, 52.9% with non executive jobs, 11.5% professionals and 2.9% management professionals. There was no significant difference in the Gender-role Orientation of respondents based on their father's occupation ($X^2 = 11.619$, p=0.2356). Father's occupation related difference in monetary income; life style etc. might not have produced any changes in the Gender-role Orientation of the respondents.

Table No. 6.12

Fathers Occupation Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classification	of	Gender	role Orie	ntation		
respondents	respondents		Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
	1.00	20 11.8*	64 37.6*	75 44.1*	11 6.5*	170 100*
	1.00	31.7**	33**	33.3**	28.9**	32.7**
		38	88	123	26	275
	2.00	13.8*	32*	44.7*	9.5*	100*
Fathers		60.3**	45.4**	54.7**	68.4**	52.9**
Occupation	3.00	5	29	26		60
		8.3*	48.3*	43.3*		100*
		7.9**	14.9**	11.6**		11.5**
			13	1	1	15
	4.00		86.7*	6.7*	6.7*	100*
			6.7**	4**	2.6**	2.9**
		63	194	225	38	520
Total		12.1*	37.3*	43.3*	7.3*	100*
		100**	100**	100**	100**	100**

 $X^2 = 11.619$, df = 9, p=0.2356

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

- 1- Self employed
- 2- Non executive job
- 3- Professional
- 4- Management Professional

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within fathers occupation

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

MOTHERS OCCUPATION

Table 6.13 reveals that 73.1% of respondent's mothers were housewives, 18.3 % with non-executive jobs, 8.7% professionals.

Table No. 6.13

Mothers Occupation Vs. Gender-role Orientation

Classification	Gender	Gender-role Orientation				
respondents		And	Mas	Fem	Undiff	Total
	1.00	36 9.5* 57.1**	124 32.6* 63.9**	190 50* 84.4**	30 7.9* 78.9**	380 100* 73.1**
Mothers Occupation	2.00	27 28.4* 42.9**	42 44.2* 21.6**	19 20* 8.4**	7 7.4* 18.4**	95 100* 18.3**
	3.00		28 62.2* 14.4**	16 35.6* 7.1**	1 2.2* 2.6**	45 100* 8.7**
Total		63 12.1* 100**	194 37.3* 100**	225 43.3* 100**	38 7.3* 100**	520 100* 100**

 $X^2 = 31.85$, df =6, p=0.000

And: androgyny, Mas: masculine, Fem: feminine, Undiff: undifferentiated

- 1 Housewife
- 2 Non executive job
- 3 Professional
- 4 Management professional

It was found that mother's occupation was a factor that can create changes in the Gender-role Orientation of an executive. ($X^2 = 31.85$, p=0.000). There may be lot of difference between the mother's care of a housewife and a professional. The difference in Gender-role Orientation can be attributed to the variations in mother's care.

^{*} Figures marked with * are percentages within mothers occupation

^{**} Figures marked with ** are percentages within Gender-role Orientation

All the X² values are compiled in table 6.14 in order to get a precise idea about the relationship between biosocial profile and Gender-role Orientation(H1).

Table 6.14

X² Values Between Biosocial Variables and Gender-role Orientation

Variable	Value of X ² with respect to GRO	Degree of freedom	P value	Conclusion
Sex	116.1461	2	<0.001	Significant
Educational Qualification	49.64	9	<0.001	Significant
Age	27.70	6	<0.0001	Significant
Years of Service	14.6	6	0 .0236	Significant
Salary	5.91	9	0.7489	Not Significant
Marital Status	1.048	3	0.7896	Not Significant
No. of children	33.46	6	<0.0001	Significant
Dual Career	66.83	3	<0.0001	Significant
Family Background	49.84	3	<0.0001	Significant
Fathers Education	29.919	9	<0.001	Significant
Mothers Education	55.821	9	<0.001	Significant
Fathers Occupation	11.619	9	0.2356	Not Significant
Mothers Occupation	31.85	6	0.000	Significant

H1. There exists significant association between the biosocial profile and the Gender-role Orientation of executives.

It is clear from the table 6.14 that 10 out of 13 factors were identified as having significant role in the formulation of the Gender-role Orientation. Factors like salary, marital status and fathers occupation were diagnosed as independent of Gender-role Orientation.

Due to the significant relationship between most of the constituent factors of biosocial profile and Gender-role Orientation It can be concluded Hypothesis 1 is proved. This analysis leads to infer that most of the factors of biosocial profile are instrumental in the development of Gender-role Orientation.

The findings of the present study are consistent with the ideologies of Spence (1984) and Deaux & Major (1987), excluding the disagreement in the case of biosocial factors like salary, marital status and fathers occupation. The researcher could not locate any contradicting studies.

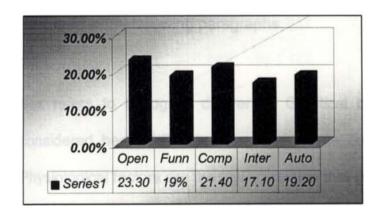
CHAPTER 7 COMMUNICATION STYLE

Human beings interact with the world through communication. Same ideas communicated by different individuals may produce various results. This may be because of the differences in verbal and non-verbal patterns of communication. As far as managerial performance is concerned, an executive need to communicate ideas to subordinates, superiors and collogues. Changes in the style of executive's communication may create differential impact on the behavior of others in the organisation. This may lead to corresponding changes in executive performance. In order to further shed light on Communication Style, it is sensible to analyse Communication Style as a function of biosocial profile.

Respondents were classified according to the five Communication Styles from Communication Style inventory. Figure 7.1 reveals that 23.3% of the respondents were having open Communication Style, 19% funnel, 21.% compromiser, 17.1% interviewer and 19.2% with autocrat style.

Figure 7.1

Column chart showing Communication Style of Respondents



Open Communicator :23.30%, Funnel :19%, Compromiser:21.4%

Interviewer :17.1%, Autocrat :19.2%

Majority of the respondents (23.3%) were having open Communication Style, 21.4% compromiser, 19.2% autocratic, 19% funnel and 17.1% with interviewer tyles. Executives with open Communication Style are having transparent nature of interaction with others in the organisation. The characteristics of compromiser style are readiness to compromise with other for better results and promotion of cordial work culture. The peculiarities of autocratic style are getting things done by way of commanding work to be performed without considering their reactions. In the case of funnel style communication is just passing out information without creative blending of information. Executives with interviewer style are those who are questioning others without giving the required information to them.

In appreciation of the possible impact of biosocial variables on the Communication Styles of executives, the same was articulated in to a hypothesis (H2). The probable variation in Communication Style of executives with different gender role orientations was formulated as Hypothesis (H3).

In order to analyse H2 and H3 Two Way ANOVA was used and the results are described in the following paragraphs.

SEX

Sex refers to biological difference. Genitical or male – female difference is considered here. Difference in chromosome configuration, brain structure and Physiological factors are the few correlates that constitute sex difference.

Analysis reveals that there was no significant difference between the Communication Style of male and female respondents(F=3.799, p=0.052).

Difference in chromosome configuration, brain structure and Physiological factors, between males and females, may not be capable of producing phenomenal variations in Communication Style. Exceptionally talented individuals may overcome the natural differences between males and females that inturn influence Communication Styles. Executives may have learned to communicate in almost similar way in order to perform their tasks effectively, irrespective of biological sex difference.

This finding is contradicting the conclusions of Samtor (1989) and consistent with the findings of Bridsall (1980).

Table 7.1

Two Way ANOVA: SEX Vs.Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Sex	1	5.786	5.786	3.799	0.052
Gender Role Orientation	3	41.514	13.838	9.086	<0.001
Interaction	3	19.085	6.362	4.177	0.006
Residual	512	779.812	1.523		
Total	519	954.423			

Significant variation in Communication Style was detected while analysing the Communication Styles of executives with different gender role orientations.(F = 9.086, P<0.001). This is consistent with the findings of Samter (1989). The variation in Communication Style is significant among males and females as separate groups of executives since the interaction is significant (F=4.177,

IP=0.006). This finding leads to think that individual differences may produce variations in Communication Style. Individual differences are due to the genetical and sociological factors.

This finding leads to think that gender role orientation is a factor that can have decisive role in of producing variations in Communication Style.

EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Education is one of the major elements in molding an individual. It is instrumental in learning languages, which is the mode of verbal communication. Children interact with peer groups during the course of education. Communication is the connecting link between children.

Table 7.2

Two Way ANOVA: Educational Qualification Vs Communication Style

Source of Variation	Df	SS	MS	F	P
Educational Qualification	3	9.273	3.091	2.034	0.108
Gender Role Orientation	3	60.867	20.289	13.354	<0.001
Interaction	9	11.154	1.239	0.816	0.602
Residual	504	765.747	1.519		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

From Table 7.2, it is evident that there is no significant variation in Communication Style of executives with different educational qualifications (F=2.034, p=0.108). It can be argued that educational qualification is not a factor capable of influencing

the Communication Style of executives. The development of a particular Communication Style may have been happened outside the educational tenure or much earlier. The processes of education may be able to teach persons how to communicate and not capable of changing their Communication Styles.

No significant variation was located between the Communication Styles of executives with same educational qualification due to lack of significant interaction (F = 0.816, p=0.602).

AGE

There may be difference between the Communication Style of a child and an adult. Difference in IQ level may reflect in the communication. Increase in age may produce differential impact on individuals due to the difference in their exposure. This impact may change their mindset, value system, behavior and Communication Style.

Table 7.3

Two Way ANOVA : Age Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Age	2	2.532	1.266	0.843	0.431
Gender Role Orientation	3	68.496	22.832	15.196	<0.001
Interaction	6	27.361	4.560	3.035	0.006
Residual	508	763.252	1.502		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

There was no significant variation in the Communication Style of executives due to the difference in age (F= 0.843, p=0.431). Significant interaction (F=3.035, P=0.006) indicates that the variation in Communication Styles of executives within same age group is significant.

This is probably due to the fact that Communication Style has been developed during the early years in life. It is not possible to expect a particular Communication Style for young executives and another style for middle aged executives.

YEARS OF SERVICE

There may be difference between the exposure of executives with rich experience in an organisation and a fresher. New comers may not have enough knowledge about the organisation like others having years of experience to their credit. Exposure to similar organisational situations in the past may influence the Communication Style of an executive. An executive without much experience in the organisation do not have such previous exposure. In order to explore this dimension Two way ANOVA was used.

Table 7.4

Two way ANOVA: Years of service Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Year of Service	2	4.968	2.484	1.595	0.204
Gender Role Orientation	3	135.001	45.000	28.895	<0.001
Residual	514	800.476	1.557		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

From table 7.4, it is evident that there was no year of service wise variation in the Communication Style of the executives (F=1.595, P=0.204). Lack of interaction indicates that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style with in same years of service wise groups.

This finding leads to think that difference in years of service is not capable of creating any changes in the Communication Style of an executive. Barbara (1984) found that Communication Style is not a factor that changes according to years of service in an organisation. This finding suggests that Communication Style of an executive may have developed during the early years of career or even before that.

SALARY

Salary is one of the primary motivators. The core need for employment is getting monetary income. Executives may quit one organisation and join another for better salary. Salary may be the prime concern for sticking on to one organisation. Salary may influence the life style of the executive. Life style may have differential impact on Communication Style of an executive. Two way ANOVA was used to analyse the possible relationship, if any, between salary and Communication Style.

Two-way ANOVA results indicate that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style of respondents due to the changes in salary level (F=2.289, p=0.078). There was no significant variation in the Communication Style of executives within a group of same salary level since there is no interaction.

Variations in salary may not produce changes in the way individuals interact with others. This finding indicates that it is not possible change the Communication Style of an executive by motivators like salary. Communication Style is deeply embedded within a person.

Table 7.5

Two Way ANOVA : Salary Vs. Communication Style

Source of Of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Salary	3	10.638	3.546	2.289	0.078
Gender Role Orientation	3	140.360	46.787	30.198	<0.001
Residual	513	794.806	1.549		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

MARITAL STATUS

An individual's orientation towards life may change after marriage. There may be difference between the value system, mind set, personal and professional goals of unmarried executives and married executives. Marital status may be a factor having influence on Communication Style of an executive.

Two way ANOVA results reveal that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style of married and unmarried executives (F= 0.417, p=0.659). Absence of interaction leads to the inference that there was no significant difference in the Communication Style while analysing married and unmarried executives separately.

Table 7.6

Two Way ANOVA :Marital Status Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Marital Status	2	1.306	0.653	0.417	0.659
Gender Role Orientation	3	148.060	49.353	31.546	<0.001
Residual	514	804.138	1.564		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

An executive's personal and professional life may be different. Presence of a spouse is not capable of creating any influence on the Communication Style of an executive.

Fredric (1985) has analysed Communication Style in relation to marital status and found that Communication Style is independent of marital status.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

In the case of married executives, presence of a child may give a new dimension to their life. Childless situation of a couple may produce severe adjustment problems in life and even depression. Such a condition may affect all the behavioral aspects of a person.

Two way ANOVA results indicate that there was significant variation in the Communication Style of childless executives and those with 1 or more kids

(F=4.174, p=0.016). Lack of interaction indicates that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style while analysing executives having kids and without kids separately.

Table 7.7

Two Way ANOVA – Number of Children Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variatio	n	DF S	S	MS	F P
No of Children	2	12.872	6.436	4.174	0.016
Gender Role Orientation	3	158.861	52.95	4 34.34	2 <0.001
Residual	514	792.572	1.542		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

A married executive having the problem of childless family life may be in a state of agony. If the reason for such a childless situation is due to the physiological problem of the executive, he or she may be in a pathetic stage. Such a situation may influence the executive's Communication Style.

DUAL CAREER FAMILY

Dual career status refers to the situation where the husband and wife are employed. This condition is against the traditional roles of working husband and housewife. They may have to adjust with the related problems in personal and professional life. Such a situation may influence the Communication Style of executives.

From table 7.8, it is evident that dual career family status can create significant variations in the Communication Style of an executive (F=9.778, p=0.002).

No significant variation was detected in the Communication Style while considering executive's as two groups with respect to dual career status.

Additional income from dual career may create increased financial security and corresponding happy life may influence Communication Style.

Table 7.8

Two Way ANOVA: Dual Career Family Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Dual Career Family	1	14.474	14.474	9.778	0.002
Gender Role Orientation	3	91.217	30.406	20.541	<0.001
Interaction	3	10.423	3.474	2.347	0.072
Residual	512	757.889	1.480		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

FAMILY BACKGROUND

There may be difference between the opportunities and facilities for education available in urban and rural areas. Profile of population in urban areas may not be the same in urban areas. These differences may create changes in Communication Style.

Two way Anova analysis reveal that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style of respondents due to family background (F= 0.579, p=0.447). There was no significant variation in the Communication Style while analysing rural and urban executives independently since the interaction is not significant.

Table 7.9

Two Way ANOVA: Family Background Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	Р
Family Background	1	0.900	0.900	0.579	0.447
Gender Role Orientation	3	111.219	37.073	23.859	<0.001
Interaction	3	9.753	3.251	2.092	0.100
Residual	512	795.573	1.554		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

Difference in urban and rural areas may not have influenced their Communication Style. Difference in educational pattern, peer groups between rural and urban population may not have influenced the Communication Style.

FATHERS EDUCATUION

Fathers education may influence the children's education, life style, domestic atmosphere and financial income of the family. Educational background of father may Influence his ideologies in life and inturn the overall development of the child.

It is evident from Two way Anova analysis that there was no significant difference in the Communication Style of executives with respect to their fathers education (F= 0.652, p=0.582). Fathers education and related factors such as family income, fathers career and life style of the family are not capable of producing

frather's education is not a factor capable of making any statistically valid variation in Communication Style.

Table 7.10

Two Way ANOVA: Fathers education Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Fathers Education	3	2.875	0.958	0.652	0.582
Gender Role Orientation	3	74.946	24.982	16.991	<0.001
Interaction	9	32.077	3.564	2.424	0.011
Residual	504	741.050	1.470		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

However, there was significant difference in the Communication Style of executives belong to the group of same father's education since the interaction is significant (F=2.424, P=0.011). This may be due to the influence of factors other than father's education.

MOTHERS EDUCATION

Presence of mother is more in a family than father. There may be difference in the case employed mothers. Mother's attachment with the kid during the early years in life can influence the kids in several ways. The education of the mother may have relationship in the upbringing of the child. These factors may produce variations in the Communication Style of the executive.

Table 7.11

Two Way ANOVA: Mothers Education Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Mothers Education	3	2.411	0.804	0.513	0.673
Gender Role Orientation	3	124.581	41.527	26.529	<0.001
Residual	513	803.033	1.565		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

Two way ANOVA table indicates that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style of executives due to the variations in their mother's education (F= 0.513, p=0.673). This finding leads to think that an executive's communication is not a function of maternal education and influence of related factors.

No significant variation was identified in the Communication Style of executives with same mother's education since there is no interaction. This finding suggests that executives having same level of mother's education may have received almost similar pattern of maternal care.

FATHERS OCCUPATION

Fathers Occupation may have a direct relationship with the income level of the family. Financial status of a family is one of the prime elements in deciding the children's quality of education, life style and friends circle. These factors may influence the Communication Style of growing children.

Table 7.12

Two Way ANOVA: Fathers Occupation Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Fathers Occupation	3	19.119	6.373	4.158	0.006
Gender Role Orientation	3	149.542	49.847	32.521	<0.001
Residual	513	786.325	1.533		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

It was found from the two way ANOVA that there was significant variation in the Communication Style of respondents with different father's occupations (F = 4.158, p=0.006). Fathers occupation and related factors such as income level, peer group difference and life style can produce variations in Communication Style of the child and the future adult.

No statistically significant variation was found in the Communication Style of executives with similar fathers occupation since there is no interaction.

This may be due to the similarities of vision and support of executives fathers having similar education. Similar educational background may have reflected in the socilisation processes executives to some extent and inturn on Communication Style.

MOTHERS OCCUPATION

Kids have intimate relationship with their mothers during early years in life.

Naturally, mother can influence all sort of behavior of her kid. If a mother is employed, her kid may not get the desired care. Difference in mothers occupation may influence the Communication Style of kids.

Table 7.13

Two Way ANOVA: Mothers Occupation Vs. Communication Style

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Mothers Occupation	2	0.807	0.403	0.258	0.773
Gender Role Orientation	3	143.981	47.994	30.658	<0.001
Residual	514	804.637	1.565		
Total	519	954.423	1.839		

There was no significant difference in the Communication Style of executives as a function of mother's education (**F** = 0.258, p= 0.773). Difference in mother's attachment levels and her presence or absence in house is not a factor having instrumental effect capable of creating significant variations in executive performance. No significant difference was identified in the Communication Style of executives with same maternal occupation level since there is no interaction. This finding leads to infer that maternal occupation is not factor having any instrumental influence on Communication Style. There was no significant difference in the Communication Style of executives as a function of mother's education.

H2. Communication Styles of executives are significantly associated with the factors of their biosocial profile.

From Table 7.14, it is clear that there was no significant relationship between 10 biosocial variables and Communication Style. Relationship was located in the case of 3 biosocial variables such as number of children, dual career family and fathers occupation.

Table 7.14
Two Way ANOVA Results: Biosocial Profile Vs Communication Style

Variable	F Value (BSP on CS)	Р	Conclusion	F Value GRO on CS	Р	Conclusion
Sex	3.799	0.052	Not Significant	9.086	<0.001	Significant
Educational Qualification	2.034	0.108	Not Significant	13.354	<0.001	Significant
Age	0.843	0.431	Not Significant	15.196	<0.001	Significant
Years of Service	1.595	0.204	Not Significant	28.895	<0.001	Significant
Salary	2.289	0.078	Not Significant	30.198	<0.001	Significant
Marital Status	0.417	0.659	Not Significant	31.546	<0.001	Significant
No. of children	4.174	0.016	Significant	34.352	<0.001	Significant
Dual Career	9.778	0.002	Significant	20.541	< 0.001	Significant
Family Background	0.579	0.447	Not Significant	23.859	<0.001	Significant
Fathetrs Education	0.652	0.582	Not Significant	16.991	<0.001	Significant
Mothers Education	0.513	0.673	Not Significant	26.529	<0.001	Significant
Fathers Occupation	4.158	0.006	Significant	32.521	<0.001	Significant
Mothers Occupation	0.258	0.773	Not Significant	30.658	<0.001	Significant

This finding leads to infer that biosocial variables are not responsible for the development of Communication Style. The difference in the Communication Style

of a childless executive (if he or she is experiencing mental strain because of childless situation) and others may be due to the agony in life. Such an executive may have pessimistic thoughts and resulting changes in interaction with the surrounding living world. They may not be in a position to communicate in such a way to perform their executive tasks effectively. It is evident from Table 7.14 that Hypothesis 2 (H2) is disproved.

This finding is contradicting the findings of several studies like Montogomery and Norton (1981), Diana (1994) and Nina (1997). The above referred researchers established that biosocial factors are instrumental in the formulation of Communication Style.

H3. There exists a significant association between Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style of executives

It is evident from Table 7.14 that there was significant variation in the Communication Styles of executives with various gender role orientations. Variations were significant in all the 13 constituent factors of biosocial profile (p<0.001). It can be inferred that there is a phenomenally significant variation in the Communication Styles of executives with different Gender-role Orientations. Hence H3 is proved with strong statistical support.

This finding leads to think that a person's Gender-role Orientation is capable of influencing his or her Communication Style. This finding leads to the inference

that Gender-role Orientation is influencing the ways in which human beings interact with others by way of verbal and nonverbal communication patterns.

The major purpose of communication is conveying ideas. There are individual differences in the ways in which people communicate. The finding of this study conveys the message that an individual's gender role related conceptions are influencing their ways of communication. Factors like socialisation process, cultural differences and its interference on human behavior may be instrumental in creating phenomenal variations in Communication Style of a person. Socially prescribed role expectations for males and females may influence their Communication Style.

This finding is consistent with the explanations of Spender (1985) that communication cannot escape the effects of gender. Samter (1989) also found that gender role orientation is one of the factors that influences Communication Style. The researcher could not locate any contradicting studies in this area.

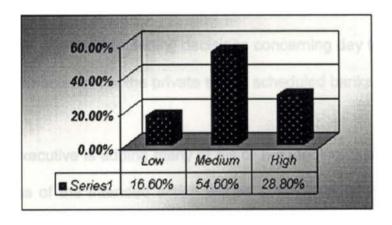
CHAPTER 8 EXECUTIVE PERFORMANCE

An executive is responsible for the attainment of the organisational objectives. Effort towards the fulfillment of the pre set goals is the prime task of an executive. Executives are creators of success in organisations. An executive has to contribute his or her part to the organisational performance. This chapter portraits the executive performance of respondents and its categorisation namely, high, medium and lower levels. Possibilities of relationship between Communication Style and Gender-role Orientation on executive performance is also explored in this part.

Figure 8.1 reveal that 16.6% of the respondents were detected as low performers, 54.6% medium and 28.8% with higher level executive performance. This implies that number of higher level performers is very less. This may have direct impact on overall performance of the banking industry. In a highly competitive environment this level of performance needs to be increased. With the opening up of Indian banking sector in the coming years, this performance level will be a limiting factor and even a threat to existence.

FIGURE 8.1

Column chart showing percentage wise representation of various levels of executive performance of respondents.



H4. Executive performance levels vary among executives as they differ in their Communication Styles.

It is clear from the analysis that there is a significant difference in the levels of executive performance with respect to the changes in Communication Style ($X^2 = 30.146$, p= 0.0001). The difference in Communication Style may influence the action intended by the message implied in the content of communication. An executive with a particular Communication Style can perform managerial functions at a higher level than those with other styles.

Table 8.1 reveals that funnel Communication Style is desirable for deriving performance. Highest of higher level percentage higher level performance(30.7%) is detected in the case of respondents with funnel Communication Style. Executives with Funnel style are doing the task of just passing the communication he or she receives from top to bottom and reverse. They are not contributing anything to the content of the communication. In the case of banking sector, majority of the important decisions are taken at the top level management excluding decisions concerning day today functions. This may be a characteristic of the private sector scheduled banks.

If an executive is adding many of his or her ideologies to the communication, the success of the intended action will be solely dependent on the strength of the

contribution part. Banks need to function within a framework as per the guidelines of government and Reserve Bank of India. Executives are bound to take decisions as per the provisions of the rules and regulations of concerned authorities and the policies of the respective banks.

Majority of the respondents (54.6%) were detected as medium performers. While considering the executives in the medium and high level performance as a single group at the upper end, an entirely different results were found. Similar percentage (21%) of executives with open and compromiser Communication Styles were identified at the upper end of the performance scale. 19.58% executives with autocrat Communication Style were detected at the upper end. Transparent and straight forward nature of open Communication Style, harmonious mode of decision making of compromisers may be the reason for deriving upper level performance. In the case of executives with autocratic style, upper end performance may have produced due to their policy of commanding style of asking subordinates for results. Employees may do work due to the threatening nature of work atmosphere. This style of autocratic communication is not desirable for producing results of long term objectives.

This finding suggests corrective measures in the Communication Style of executives in the banking sector so as to increase the overall performance of the industry.

This finding is in agreement with the studies of Pilanina (1990) and Beath (2000). This study is also consistent with the findings of Ratnaswamy (1995). The researcher could not find any contradicting studies.

Table 8.1

Classification of Executives according to their Communication Style and Executive Performance

Communication	Executive Performance				
Style	Low	Med	High	Total	
	30	62	29	121	
	34.9*	21.8*	19.3*	23.3*	
Open	24.8**	51.2**	24**	100**	
	14	39	46	99	
Funnel	16.3*	13.7*	30.7*	19*	
	14.1**	39.4**	46.5**	100**	
	20	61	30	111	
Compromiser	22.3*	21.5*	20*	21.3*	
	18**	55**	27**	100**	
	10	60	19	89	
	11.6*	21.1*	12.7*	17.1*	
Interviewer	11.2**	67.4**	21.3**	100**	
	12	62	26	100	
Autocrat	14*	21.8*	17.3*	19.2*	
	12**	62**	26**	100**	
	86	284	150	520	
	100*	100*	100*	100*	
Total	16.5**	54.6**	28.8**	100**	

 $X^2 = 30.146$, df = 8, p=0.0001

H5. Executive performance levels of executives vary as a function of their Gender-role Orientation.

It is clear from the mean value comparisons that the executive performance of respondents with androgynous Gender-role Orientation was detected as the highest (mean = 105.3175) and feminine as the lowest (mean=64.6489). To test the significance of relationship ANOVA was conducted.

Table 8.2

Mean and Standard Deviation: Gender-role Orientation Vs

Executive Performance

Gender-role Orientation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Androgyny	63	105.3175	21.6585
Masculinity	194	82.0052	26.0503
Feminity	225	64.6489	22.4904
Undifferentiated	38	69.3421	34.6701
Total	520	76.3942	28.0920

From the ANOVA test, it is evident that there was significant variation (F= 49.646, p=0.000) between the Executive Performances of respondents with different Gender-role Orientations such as androgyny, masculinity, feminity and undifferentiated.

From the above findings, it can be inferred that Hypothesis 5 is proved. This finding leads to think that higher performance of executives can be ensured partly by entrusting the key responsibilities to androgynous executives. Androgynous executives can contribute a lot to the success of the organisation.

Table 8.3

ANOVA: Gender-role Orientation Vs. Executive Performance

ANOVA					
Executive Perfo	rmance Score				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	91739.722	3	30579.907	49.646	.000
Within Groups	317834.460	516	615.958		
Total	409574.183	519			

It implies that androgynous orientation can give an upward thrust to the managerial skills of executives. Researches like Bem (1974, 1977), Putnam (1976), Sargent (1981), Blanchard (1982) and Naisbit (1985) have found similar relationships. According to them good manager should have androgynous orientation. This finding is in contrast to the conclusions of Powell (1977) and Schein (1976). They have investigated effective managerial performance and found positive association with masculinity.

In order to analyse the possible influence of Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style on executive performance, multiple regression was used.

Table 8.4

Mean and Standard Deviation: Influence of Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style on Executive Performance

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive Statistics						
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N			
Executive performance	76.3942	28.09200	520			
Open Communicator	8.1731	6.02890	520			
Funnel	7.3269	5.52179	520			
Compromiser	7.8942	5.97186	520			
Interviewer	7.4135	5.48357	5 20			
Autocrat	7.5192	5.72992	520			
GRO	2.0019	.96669	520			

Table 8.5

Correlation between Gender Role Orientation, Communication Style and Executive Performance.

Variab	les	Executive Performance
. , .	Executive performance	1.000
	Open Communicator	.601
Pearson	Funnel	285
Correlation	Compromiser	.031
	Interviewer	- .265
	Autocrat	162
	GRO	.009
	Executive Performance	•
	Open Communicator	.000
Sig. (1-	Funnel	.000
tailed)	Compromiser	.240
	Interviewer	.000
	Autocrat	.000
	GRO	.415

GRO- Gender-role Orientation

It is evident from table 8.5 that for every one unit increase in open Communication Style, a corresponding increase of 0.601 units in executive performance (r = 0.601, p = 0.000). In the case of funnel Communication Style, for every one unit increase , a corresponding decrease of 0.285 points of executive performance was identified (r = -0.285, p = 0.000). No significant correlation was located in the case of compromiser style (r = 0.031, p = 0.240). For every one unit

increase in interviewer style, a corresponding decrease of 0.162 unit of executive performance was detected (r= -0.162, p=0.000).

No significant correlation was found between gender role orientation and executive performance (r=0.009, p=0.415).

Table 8.6 Regression- Model Summary

			Model Summary (b)	
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.661(a)	.436	.430	21.21455
a Predicto		ant), GRO, Con	npromiser, Interviewer, Au	tocrat, Funnel, Open communicator
b Depend	lent Variabl	e: Executive pe		4 4A 11

The regression results indicate that the independent variables jointly explained nearly half variance in the dependent variable (R-square=0.436, F=6.175, p=0.000).

Table 8.7: Regression –ANOVA

			VA (b)			
	odel	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
(***	Regression	178694.916	6	29782.486	66.175	.000(a)
1	Residual	230879.266	513	450.057		
:	Total	409574.183	519			

a Predictors: (Constant), GRO, Compromiser, Interviewer, Autocrat, Funnel, Open Communicator

It is clear from table 8.8 that the influence of open Communication Style on executive performance is significant (beta=0.726, t=4.018, p=0.000). In the case of all other Communication Styles, the influence was not significant. There was significant influence of gender role orientation on executive performance (beta=-0.141, t= -4.094, p=0.000).

b Dependent Variable: Executive performance

Table 8.8 Regression-Coefficients

Coefficients (a)

	Unstandardised Coefficients Standardised Coefficients				
Model	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
(Constant)	45.701	30.361		1.505	.133
Open Communicator	3.381	.841	.726	4.018	.000
Funnel	-1.801E-02	.854	004	021	.983
1 Compromiser	1.172	.785	.249	1.494	.136
Interviewer	105	.765	021	137	891
Autocrat	.390	.769	.080	.507	.612
GRO	-4.104	1.002	141	-4.094	.000

From colinearity diagnostics it was detected that there is no multicolinearity among variables in the model. Therefore, regression analysis confirms a significant relationship between dependent and independent variables.

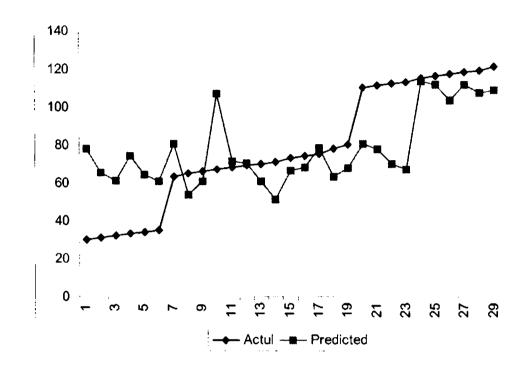
This finding suggests that gender role orientation and Communication Style are variables capable of influencing executive performance.

In this model the effect of Gender-role Orientation is considered as a single variable. In order to verify the nature of influence in the case of gender role orientation typologies and Communication Style pairs on executive performance, further analysis were conducted.

Figure 8.2

Actual and predicted regression line Diagram : Gender-role Orientation ,

Communication Style Vs Executive Performance



In order to analyse the correlation of various Communication Styles with respect to different gender- role orientations on executive performance, Pearson correlation coefficients were found and described in Table 8.9.

In the case of executives with androgynous gender- role orientation, only funnel Communication Style was found to be significantly correlated with executive performance (r =0.270, p=0.024). Significant negative correlation was detected in the case of open communication style of androgynous executives(-0.262, =0.028). No significant correlations with executive performance were found in the

case of androgynous executives with Compromiser , Interviewer and autocratic Communication Styles.

Table: 8.9
Correlation coefficients -Dependent Variable: Executive Performance

GRO	C.S	N	r	Р
Androgyny	Open	63	-0.262	0.028
Androgyny	Funnel	63	0.270	0.024
Androgyny	Compromiser	63	-0.178	0.099
Androgyny	Interviewer	63	-0.029	0.417
Androgyny	Autocrat	63	0.038	0.393
Feminine	Open	225	0.625	0.000
Feminine	Funnel	225	-0.301	0.000
Feminine	Compromiser	225	0.025	0.321
Feminine	Interviewer	225	-0.268	0.000
Feminine	Autocrat	225	-0.213	0.000
Masculine	Open	194	0.620	0.000
Masculine	Funnel	194	-0.283	0.000
Masculine	Compromiser	194	0.083	0.136
Masculine	Interviewer	194	-0.266	0.000
Masculine	Autocrat	194	-0.123	0.050
Undifferentiated	Open	38	0.616	0.000
Undifferentiated	Funnel	38	-0.447	0.000
Undifferentiated	Compromiser	38	0.058	0.327
Undifferentiated	Interviewer	38	-0.356	0.002
Undifferentiated	Autocrat	38	0.019	0.441

G.R.O- gender role orientation, C.S.- Communication Style

N- Number of respondents, r- Pearson Correlation coefficient

P- Significance level (1 tailed)

Significant positive correlation with executive performance was found in the case of Open Communication Style of executives with feminine gender – role orientation (r=0.625, p=0.000). Funnel (r=-0.301, p=0.000), Interviewer (r=-0.268, p=0.000) and autocratic (r=-0.213, p=0.000) Communication Styles of feminine executives were negatively correlated significantly with executive

performance. No significant correlation with executive performance was identified in the case of compromiser Communication Style of executives with feminine gender – role orientation.

Significant positive correlation with executive performance was identified in the case of open Communication Style of executives with masculine gender- role orientation (r=0.620, p=0.000). In the case of Funnel (r= -0.283, p=0.000), Interviewer (r= -0.266, p=0.000) and Autocrat (r= -0.123, p=0.050). Communication Styles of executives with masculine gender – role orientation, significant negative correlation with executive performance was found. No significant correlation with executive performance was identified in the case of compromiser Communication Style of executives with masculine gender - role orientation.

Significant positive correlation with executive performance was detected in the case of executives with Undifferentiated gender – role orientation and open Communication Style(r=0.616, p=0.000). Significant negative correlation with Executive performance was identified in the case of funnel (r= -0.447, p=0.000) and Interviewer (r= -0.356, p=0.002) Communication Style of executives with undifferentiated gender role orientations. No significant correlation with executive performance was found in the case of autocrat and compromiser Communication Styles of executives with undifferentiated gender- role orientation.

In order to get a precise idea about the combined influence of different Communication Styles and gender role orientation typologies on executive performance, regression analysis were conducted in all possible combinations of two independent variables.

A perfect relationship was emerged from the regression analysis. Precisely, open Communication Style and Gender-role Orientation combinations explained highest variance in dependent variable executive performance. Feminine gender role orientation and open Communication Style explained the highest variance 39% (R²= 0.390, F=217.112, p=0.000) and masculine 38.5%(R²= 0.385, F=110.611, p=0.000) and undifferentiated 37.9% (R²= 0.379, F=37.240, p=0.000) of executive performance variations. (Fig.8.10)

Straightforward and transparent nature of open Communication Style may be responsible for the clear understanding of the implied message in the communication and in turn results in improvement in performance of employees and cause higher level executive performance.

In the case of androgynous gender- role orientation, significant R² value was found along with funnel Communication Style only. In all other cases, detected R² Values were not significant. This indicates that androgynous Gender-role Orientation is not capable of creating any phenomenal changes on executive performance.

Researchers like Bem (1974), Putnam (1976), Sargent (1981), Blanchard & Johnson (1982) Naisbit (1985) have analysed androgyny and managerial

performance and found that good managers are having androgynous gender role orientation. This finding is contradicting the conclusions of the above studies.

Woodhill & Samuels (2003) have contradicted the ideologies of Sandra Bem (1974) and found that the presence of significant levels of negative feminine and negative masculine traits in androgynous individuals may have a detrimental effect on the androgynous gender role identity to the extent that such negative behaviors may override any of the positive benefits proposed for the androgynous person (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003).

Androgynous people are sensitive to both masculine and feminine cues and as such may respond to a wider range of positive or negative stimuli than traditional people. A negatively androgynous person would have a bigger repertoire of undesirable behaviors from which to choose a response. A negatively androgynous person may, for example, react in an undesirable feminine way in one situation and in an undesirable masculine way in another situation. It becomes clear that a single category of androgyny cannot capture these important differences because such a category by definition usually ignores gender associated vices (Woodhill & Samuels, 2003).

According to Nevid and Rathus (2005) one challenge to androgyny is the belief that masculinity, not androgyny, accounts for greater self-esteem. They believe that the relationship between psychological androgyny and self-esteem in both men and women is not based on the combination of masculine and feminine traits, but rather on the presence of masculine traits. These masculine traits included independence and assertiveness and can be found in both genders.

In the above studies, Communication Style was not a covariant. A real comparison of this study with their studies is impossible. The researcher could not locate any studies in the area connecting the same variable combinations. Findings of Woodhill & Samuels (2003) and Nevid & Rathus (2005) are against the superiority of androgyny among other gender rol eorientations. Findings of this study concering androgyny is consistent with the views of Woodhill & Samuels and Nevid & Rathus.

Table 8.10 also shows that the effect of feminine gender role orientation and open Communication Style is stronger than other combinations (beta=0.625, t =14.735, p=0.000). The effect of masculine Gender-role Orientation and open Communication Style on executive performance is also significant (beta=0.620, t=10.517, p=0.000). In the case of undifferentiated gender role orientation and open Communication Style, the effect on executive performance is found to be significant (beta = 0.616, t=6.102, p=0.000).

From colinearity diagnostics it was verified that there is no Multicollinearity among variables in the model.

In the case of Funnel Communication Style, significant R square values were found in all Gender-role Orientation combinations such as Androgyny (R^2 = 0.073, F=4.098, p=0.048), feminine (R^2 = 0.090, F=33.711, p=0.000), masculine (R^2 = 0.080, F=15.434, p=0.000) and undifferentiated (R^2 = 0.200, F=15.259, p=0.000)

Regression Table: Executive Performance with respect to Gender-role Orientation and Communication Style

Table 8.10

G.R.O	C.S	\mathbb{R}^2	F	P	Beta	t	P
Androgyny	Open	0.069	3.841	0.055	-0.262	-1.960	0.055
Androgyny	Funnel	0.073	4.098	0.048	0.270	2.024	0.048
Androgyny	Compromiser	0.032	1.694	0.199	-0.178	-1.302	0.199
Androgyny	Interviewer	0.001	0.044	0.834	-0.029	-0.210	0.834
Androgyny	Autocrat	0.001	0.075	0.786	0.038	0.273	0.786
Feminine	Open	0.390	217.112	0.000	0.625	14.735	0.000
Feminine	Funnel	0.090	33.711	0.000	-0.301	-5.806	0.000
Feminine	Compromiser	0.001	0.216	0.643	0.025	0.465	0.643
Feminine	Interviewer	0.072	26.227	0.000	-0.268	-5.121	0.000
Feminine	Autocrat	0.045	16.039	0.000	-0.213	-4.005	0.000
Masculine	Open	0.385	110.611	0.000	0.620	10.517	0.000
Masculine	Funnel	0.080	15.434	0.000	-0.283	-3.929	0.000
Masculine	Compromiser	0.007	1.215	0.272	0.083	1.102	0.272
Masculine	Interviewer	0.071	13.458	0.000	-0.266	-3.668	0.000
Masculine	Autocrat	0.015	2.720	0.101	-0.123	-1.649	0.101
Undifferentiated	Open	0.379	37.240	0.000	0.616	6.102	0.000
Undifferentiated	Funnel	0.200	15.259	0.000	-0.447	-3.906	0.000
Undifferentiated	Compromiser	0.003	0.203	0.654	0.058	0.451	0.654
Undifferentiated	Interviewer	0.127	8.835	0.004	-0.356	-2.972	0.004
Undifferentiated	Autocrat	0.000	0.022	0.883	0.019	0.148	0.883

G.R.O- gender role orientation, C.S.- Communication Style, R^2 = Coefficient of determination, F- Ratio of the population variance from ANOVA, p-probability value, Beta- Slope of the regression line, t - Standardised regression coefficient

The relationship of funnel Communication Style and androgynous gender role orientation on executive performance is stronger than all other cases (beta = 0.270, t=2.024, p=0.048). No significant R² values were found in the four cases compromiser Communication Style and gender role orientation combinations.

Significant R^2 values were found in the case of Interviewer Communication Style combinations of feminine(R^2 = 0.072, F=26.277, p=0.000), masculine (R^2 = 0.071, F=13.458, p=0.000) and undifferentiated (R^2 = 0.127, F=8.835, p=0.004)

gender role orientations. In all the three cases where significant influence was located between Interviewer Communication Style and gender- role orientation combinations on executive performance, negative beta values were obtained.

In the case of autocrat Communication Style, significant R^2 value was found along with feminine Gender-role Orientation only (R^2 = 0.045, F=16.039, p=0.000). Open Communication Style is a common factor in the three cases where significant R square and high beta values were detected.

In the case of open Communication Style, very minute difference in \mathbb{R}^2 value was found in between feminine, masculine and undifferentiated Communication Styles.

This finding indicates that open Communication Style is predominantly responsible for the creation of a higher level executive performance than other Communication Styles.

Researchers like Sandra Bem (1974), Sargent (1983) have supported androgynous orientation and superior performance. In the above two studies, Communication Style was not a covariant. A real comparison of this study with their studies is impossible. The researcher could not locate any studies in the area connecting the same variable combinations. The researcher could not locate any similar studies between the same variable combinations.

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSION AND FINDINGS

The findings regarding the objectives specified in the study are described in this chapter. The results of the verification of the hypotheses are explained in this part. The conclusion, study based implications for managerial practice and scope for further research are also described in this chapter.

FINDINGS

Biosocial profile of the respondents was analysed. Findings based on the analyses described in the previous chapters are listed in the proceeding part.

Biosocial profile of the respondents was analysed. Females executive participation was low (32.88%) as compared to males (67.12%). Educational qualifications of respondents were analysed and found that 34% of executives were graduates, 33% postgraduates, 24% with non-management professional qualification and 9% with professional management qualifications. This finding leads to think that the presence of executives with professional management education is less in the sectors studied.

Presence of a major fraction (88.5%) the executives in the 21-40 age group indicates greater possibilities for newer ideas of younger generation. The organisations analysed had a proper blend of freshers and experienced executives. Scheduled banks in the private sector had an almost uniform pattern of salary level. Majority (94.2%) of the executives were married.

Only a small fraction of the married respondents (7.2%) was childless at the time of data collection. More than half of the respondent's (55.8%) spouses were

employed. Representation of rural population in the executive positions is less (31.7%) in comparison with urban (68.3%).

9% of the respondents were in the fathers education category of S.S.L.C, 37% with S.S.L.C, 41% degree and 13% with professional qualification. In the case of mothers education, 18.3% of the respondents belonged to the below S.S.L.C level, 58.7% S.S.L.C., 16.3% Degree and 6.7% with professional qualification. Low level of parental education and lack of mothers care may have influenced the overall development of children. Analysis of respondents' fathers occupation reveals that 32.7% of the executives fall in the category of self employed, 52.9% non-executive job, 11.5% professionals and 2.9% management professionals. Nominal income level of the non-executive job category may have influenced the financial capacity to invest in the education of children. Executives belonged to this category may be more talented and have taken more efforts to reach the level of an executive. In the case of mothers occupation, 73.1% respondents fall in the category of housewives, 18.3% with non-executive jobs and 8.7% with professional jobs. Absence of executive's mothers with an occupation of management professional indicates a trend of male domination in managerial occupations.

Analysis of Gender-role Orientation of the respondents reveals that 44% were feminine, 37% masculine, 12% androgynous and 7% in the undifferentiated category.

In spite of the 67.12 % percentage of males, higher percentage of executives with feminine Gender-role Orientation indicates that sex factor may not be a real predictor of Gender-role Orientation.

Possibilities of relationship between Biosocial variables and its impact on gender role orientations were analysed.

28.94% of males showed feminine Gender-role orientation whereas only 8.19% females showed masculine gender role orientation. Females show a greater (15.79%) inclination to androgynous orientation than males (10.31%). Variations were detected in the gender role orientation of executives with respect to biological sex. The relationship between educational qualification and gender role orientation was found to be significant. It is be possible to expect a desired gender role orientation based on the type of education she or he has undergone. Age was detected as a factor capable of producing variations in Gender-Role orientation of executives. Androgynous orientation of executives seems to be associated with younger age. 'Years of service' was detected as a factor having decisive influence on Gender-role Orientation. None of the executives belonged to 21-30 years experience was located with androgynous or undifferentiated orientations.

Salary was not detected as a valid parameter in deciding the gender role orientation of executives. This finding leads to infer that salary linked factors such as lifestyle and social status are not capable of influencing Gender-role orientation. Gender-role Orientation was not diagnosed as a function of marital

status. Gender- role orientation was detected as a factor varying with child/childless status. If the childless condition in an executives life is a problem creating mental discomfort that may affect his or her behavior and Gender- role orientation. Dual career status was detected as a factor capable of producing variations in Gender- role orientation of a person. Additional income from the salary of the spouse may be responsible for this variation in Gender-role Orientation.

Family background (rural/urban) can influence Gender-role Orientation. Difference in socialisation pattern and educational facilities in rural or urban place may create the variations. Parental education was detected as a factor that can influence the Gender-role Orientation of executives. Education level and related income of parents and particularly of mother may influence the gender –role orientation of executives. There was no significant difference in the Gender-role orientation of executives with respect to variations in 'fathers occupation'.

'Fathers occupation' related Income level and status may be independent of gender role orientation. 'Mothers occupation' can produce variations in Gender-role Orientation of executives. Presence and absence of mothers care can be attributed to the variation.

Variations in gender- role orientation were detected in the case of 10 out 13 factors of biosocial profile. This finding leads to the inference that biosocial profile can produce variations in Gender-role Orientation of executives.

Communication Styles of the respondents were categorised. Majority of the respondents (23.3%) were having open Communication Style, 21.4% compromiser, 19.2% autocratic, 19% funnel and 17.1% with interviewer styles.

There was no significant difference between the Communication Style of male and female respondents. Executives may have learned to communicate in almost similar way in order to perform their tasks effectively, irrespective of biological sex difference. There was no significant variation in the Communication Styles of executives with different educational qualifications. It can be argued that educational qualification is not a factor capable of influencing the Communication Style of executives.

It was found that age is not a factor capable of influencing Communication Style of executives. This is probably due to the fact that Communication Style has been developed during the early years in life. No year of service wise variation was detected in the Communication Style of the executives. It was found that there was no significant variation in the Communication Style of respondents due to the changes in salary level. This finding indicates that it is not possible to change the Communication Style of an executive by motivators like salary.

No significant variation was detected in the Communication Style of married and unmarried executives. An executive's personal and professional life may be different. Presence of a spouse is not capable of creating any influence on the Communication Style of an executive. Significant variation was located in the Communication Styles of childless executives and those with 1 or more kids. This

can be attributed to the childless/with child situation related mental changes. It was detected that dual career family status can create significant variations in the Communication Style of an executive. Additional income from dual career may create increased financial security and corresponding happy life may influence Communication Style.

There was no significant variation in the Communication Style of respondents due to family background (Rural/Urban). Difference in educational pattern, peer groups between rural and urban population may not have influenced the Communication Style. 'Fathers education' was not found to be associated with the communication style of executives.

There was no significant variation in the Communication Style of executives due to the variations in their 'mothers education'. This finding leads to think that an executives communication style is not a function of maternal education and influence of related factors. Significant variation was located in the Communication Style of respondents with changes in 'fathers occupation'. 'Fathers occupation' and related factors such as income level, peer group difference and life style can produce variations in Communication Style of the child and the future adult. Difference in mothers attachment levels and her presence or absence in house may not be factors having instrumental effect capable of creating significant variations in executive performance.

No significant relationship was found between 10 biosocial variables and Communication Style. Relationship was located in the case of 3 biosocial

variables such as number of children, dual career family and fathers occupation.

This finding leads to infer that biosocial variables are not responsible for the development of Communication Style.

There was significant variation in the Communication Styles of executives with various gender role orientations. Variations were significant in all the 13 constituent factors of biosocial profile. It can be inferred that these is a phenomenally significant variation in the Communication Styles of executives with different Gender-role Orientations. This finding leads to the inference that Gender-role Orientation is influencing the ways in which human beings interact with others by way of verbal and nonverbal communication patterns.

Analysis showed that 16.6% of the respondents were low performers, 54.6% medium and 28.8% with higher-level executive performance. In a highly competitive environment, this level of performance needs to be increased.

Significant difference was located in the levels of executive performance with respect to the changes in Communication Style. This finding leads to think that an executive with a particular Communication Style can perform managerial functions at a higher level than those with other styles. This finding suggests corrective measures in the Communication Style of executives in the banking sector so as to increase the overall performance of the industry.

Significant variation was detected between the Executive performance levels of respondents with different Gender-role Orientations such as androgyny, masculinity, feminity and undifferentiated.

For every one unit increase in open Communication Style score, a corresponding increase of 0.601 units in executive performance of the respondents was identified.

The regression results indicate that the independent variables such as Communication Style and Gender-role Orientation jointly explained nearly half variance(43.6%) in the dependent variable executive performance. This finding suggests that gender role orientation and Communication Style are variables capable of influencing executive performance.

A perfect relationship was emerged from the regression analysis. Precisely, open Communication Style and Gender-role Orientation combinations explained highest variance in the dependent variable executive performance. Feminine gender role orientation and open Communication Style explained the highest variance 39%, masculine 38.5 and undifferentiated 37.9% of executive performance variations.

In the case of androgynous gender- role orientation, significant R^2 value was found along with funnel Communication Style only. In all other cases, detected R^2 Values were not significant. This indicates that androgynous Gender-role

Orientation is not capable of creating any phenomenal changes on executive performance.

In the case of open Communication Style, very minute difference in R² value was found in between feminine, masculine and undifferentiated Communication Styles.

This finding indicates that open Communication Style is predominantly responsible for the creation of a higher level executive performance than other Communication Styles.

CONCLUSION

Biosocial profile can produce variations in Gender-role Orientation of executives. Biosocial variables are not responsible for the development of Communication Style except in cases of number of children, dual career family and fathers occupation. Gender-role orientation is a function of Communication Style. Executive performance is a function of Communication Style.

Gender- role orientation can have a decisive influence on executive performance. The cumulative effect of Communication Style and gender role orientation can produce variations in executive performance. Open Communication Style is predominantly responsible for the creation of a higher level executive performance than other Communication Styles.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERIAL PRACTICE

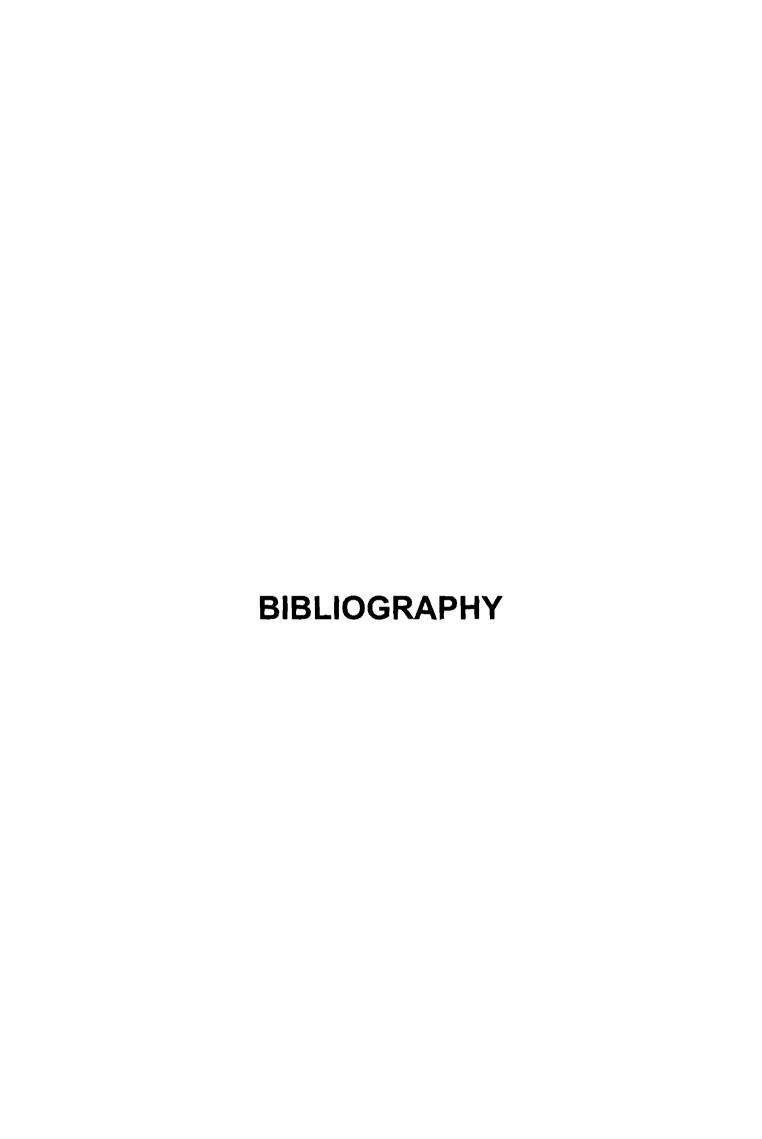
A precisely designed plan of action is essential to transform our nation into a developed one. Our industrial arena needs to be revamped to tap its potential to the maximum possible extent. This is possible only by improving the performance of executives. Innovative strategies must be deployed for increasing executive performance. Gender-role Orientation can be taken as one of the parameters to be coined with higher level executive performance. Gender based elimination of executives without any real reason should be avoided. Sex-wise elimination may be a reason for lower level representation of females. Male-female representation is not a major concern, but all possible steps should be taken to make sure that those aspirants to the executive positions should be evaluated with valid parameters instead of false beliefs and dependence on traditionally followed gender stereotyped notions.

Human resource planners can add new dimensions such as Gender-role Orientation, Communication Style and biosocial profile for a deep evaluation about the future performance of job aspirants. These factors can be considered in selection and promotion decisions. Business schools can consider the role of Gender-role Orientation and biosocial profile in their selection criteria in order to equip their students in a better way to glorify the image of their institution. These findings can be utilised in the emerging organisations in order to solve their infancy problems in formulating an organizational structure.

It is high time to alleviate gender wise segregation in recruitment and promotion decisions. The parameter should not be male-female difference but precisely Gender-role Orientation.

SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is desirable to explore the relationship between Gender-role Orientation and executive performance subject to various sub roles of managerial function. Reflection of executive's contribution to the balance sheet can be considered while analysing executive performance.



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APPENDIX - A

Bem Sex Role Inventory

Indicate by ticking (write mark) on the appropriate number by choosing the number on a scale of 1-7 how well each of the following characteristics describes you.

- (1) Never or almost never true
- (2.) Usually not true
- (3) Sometimes but infrequently true
- (4) Occasionally true

(5) Often true

(6) Usually true

- (7) Always or almost always true
- 1. Ambitious
- 2. Affectionate
- 3. Self reliant
- 4. Gentle
- 5. Independent
- 6. Understanding
- 7. Assertive
- 8. Sensitive to the needs of others

- 9. Defends own beliefs
- 10. Yielding
- 11. Aggressive
- 12. Loves children
- 13. Forceful
- 14. Shy
- 15. Strong personality
- 16. Loyal
- 17. Analytical
- 18. Sympathetic
- 19. Has leadership abilities
- 20. Compassionate
- 21. Willing to take risks.
- 22. Flatterable
- 23. Makes decisions easily
- 24. Soft spoken
- 25. Self sufficient
- 26. Tender
- 27. Dominant
- 28. Child like
- 29. Willing to take a stand
- 30. Does not use harsh language

APPENDIX - B

Communication Style Inventory

Instructions

Read each the statement below carefully. Then decide how much each statement applied to the way you operate on the job. Indicate by ticking (write mark) on the appropriate number.

 If I were at a meeting and totally ignorant on the subject being discussed (and everyone else seemed to understand the subject), I would confess my ignorance at the first opportunity.

Not like me at all 1

Somewhat like me 2

Undecided 3

Quiet like me 4

Exactly like me 5

- 2. If one of my best employees was is late and it was affecting his/her job performance, I would tell him/her how I felt about it.
- 3. If my boss gave me a direct order to do something that I felt was unnecessary, I would ask why he/she wanted it done.
- 4. If I were giving an employee a poor performance review and he/she said, "
 well you are not such a terrible manager either! " I would ask him /her to
 say more.

- 5. If I disliked several things about a person with whom I worked. I would tell him/her about my feelings.
- If one of my employees appeared to be avoiding me for some reasons, I would ask him/her what is wrong.
- 7. If I were conducting a performance review with a good employee and there were a couple of negative points I could mention, I would tell to him/her even though he/she might become upset.
- If I heard from a good source that I had been passed up for promotion, I would ask my boss about it.
- 9. If I were giving an employee an assignment, which I suspected he/she did not like, but the employee said nothing, I would ask the employee how he/she felt about the assignment.
- If one of my employees took several days off (personal time allowed by company policy). I would ask him/her what the problem was.
- 11. And the colleague asked me for my opinion about it, I would be frank in telling him/her what I thought
- 12. If I had to make a decision about something that would affect the people in my department, I would get as much input as possible from them before I made the decision.
- 13. If I were giving an employee a last -minute rush assignment and he/she asked why it had to be done that way. I would explain what I knew about the assignment.
- 14. If I were working on a project with a tight deadline and a friend from another department dropped into chat, I would tell him/her that I was busy and could not talk.

- 15. If one of my employees let me know that he/she was interested in a job which had opened up in another department (for which I felt he/she was not qualified), I would say that I could not recommend him/her for the job and explain why.
- 16. If a co- worker openly disagreed with me in a meeting, I would encourage him/her tell me more details.
- 17. If meetings held by my boss often wasted a great deal of time, I would tell him/her I felt about them.
- 18. If my boss made some changes in a report I had written, I would ask him /her why the changes had been made.
- 19. If I had a heated argument with someone in my department and I suspected he/she still felt bad about it, I would ask him/her about it.
- 20. If I were having personal problems which seemed to be on my mind at work, I would seek out someone to talk about them.

APPENDIX - C

FULLY EFFECTIVE EXECUTIVE SELF TEST

Instruction

Encircle the number on the line that most closely approximates how much you agree or disagree each statement.

- (5) Strongly agree
- (4) Agree
- (3) Undecided
- (2) Disagree
- (1) Strongly disagree
- 1. I am currently enjoying a very high level of satisfaction in both my personal and professional life.
- 2. I know, exactly what my primary personal goals are
- 3. I know exactly what my primary professional goals are.
- 4. My work life and professional life do not interfere significantly with each other.
- 5. The primary source of my identity does not come from my job, my job title, or from my role in the family. I have deeper sense of identity.
- 6. I tend to make most decisions easily.
- 7. I take self- responsibility, never blaming others for my thoughts, feelings or behavior
- 8. I am more of a realist than an idealist.

- 9. I currently have an important project underway, that is very much under my own control and subject to significant outside interference. This project is very exciting and dear to me.
- I can readily change those things that I have the power to change, whenever
 I choose to.
- I can easily accept difficult situations and conditions over which I have little or no control.
- 12. I am certain that I know the difference between that which I can change and that which I cannot change.
- 13. I am currently involved in a program, formally or informally, to take good physical care of myself including diet exercise.
- 14. I never spite myself in order to get even.
- 15. I do not get unduly angry or worried.
- 16. I have a clear understanding of how the quality of my listening influences others. I am particularly adapt at listening to another persons feelings, when appropriate.
- 17. I think of myself as a loner even though I enjoy social activity.
- 18. I see myself as a risk taker.
- 19. Although I work hard at times I am not a workaholic.
- 20. I am not overly concerned with others approval of me.
- 21. I am determined to have the most satisfying personal and professional lives ever had by any human being that ever walked on the face of this planet, and I am succeeding in this ambition.
- 22. I know the difference between realistic and reasonable expectations and know how to balance these two in order to be most effective.

- 23. I deeply respect each and every person's right to take full responsibility for himself or herself.
- 24. I know what I have to do in order to manage my boss (es).
- 25. I have no unreasonable fears.
- 26. I generally tend to be a stress seeker rather than a stress avoider. Stress does not bother me as much as it seems to bother most persons.



APPENDIX- D

BIOSOCIAL PROFILE

1.	Sex								
	1. Mal	е		2. Fem	nale				
2.	Educational Qualification								
	1. Degree								
	2. Post graduation								
	3. Professional Qualification (non management)								
	3. Professional Qualification (Management)								
3.	Age								
	1. 21-	30	2. 31-	40	3.4	11-50	4. 51-60		
4.	Years of service								
	1. 1-1	0		2. 11-	20	3.21-30	4. 31 and above		
5.	Sa1ary (in Rs)								
	1. 10000-15000			2. 15001-20000					
	3. 20001- 25000			4. 25001 and above					
6.	Marital status								
	1. Unmarried			2. Married					
7.	If married, no of children								
	1.	0	2.	1	3.	2 and above	•		

8.	Dual career family							
	1. Yes	2. No						
9.	Family Background							
	1. Rural	2.Urban						
10.	10. Fathers education							
	1. Below SSLO	2. 9	SSLC	3. Degree				
	4. Professional Qualification							
11.	Mothers Education							
	1. Below SSLO	2. SSLC	3. De	egree				
	4. Professional Qualification							
12.	Fathers Occupation							
	1. Self employ	ed 2. Non ex	2. Non executive job					
	3. Professiona	ıl 4. Manag	4. Management professional					
13.	Mothers occupation							
1.1	Husewife 2	2. Non executive job						

3. Professional 4.Management professional

7 156