



**THE RELATIONSHIP OF WORK ACTIVITIES TO
MANAGEMENT STYLE IN THAI LUXURY HOTELS**

BY

SUCHADA CHAREANPUNSIRIKUL

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The Scottish Hotel School
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University of Strathclyde
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ABSTRACT

Hotels are an essential and critical component of Thailand's tourist industry and one of the major contributors to Thai tourism revenue. However, the industry is considered to be in an infant stage. Since a general manager is considered to be the key person who directs the business in the hotel in every situation, this research aims to investigate the emphasis of time spent on various work activities of hotel general managers (i.e. marketing, human resource, training, etc.). In order to identify the significance of the general manager's roles, the research was conducted as an empirical investigation focusing on the leading Thai luxury hotels which were of international standard. The research defines the emphasis of the amount of time spent on the various work activities by investigating how managers perceive their work roles and how they actually spend their time. The core study of this research derived from Mintzberg's study of managerial work (1973), an observational study of five top executives in the United States and Ley's study of the managerial activities of seven managers in a major US hotel chain (1978).

The methodology in this study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. According to an appropriateness of access to data, there were three methods utilised which comprised a questionnaire, an interview and a period of observation. These three methods were used in sequence. The questionnaire was used to study biographical data and perceptions of Mintzberg's managerial work roles. The interview, which was semi-structured, was used to provide the interviewer with

additional questions to make sure the desired information has been obtained, while the observation aimed to study the work roles which emerged from general managers' work behaviour and to provide the insights of general managers' behaviour into specific work roles from recording and classification.

It is intended that the results of the research will enhance the understanding of different approaches to managerial roles and time usage thereof. With this understanding, there will be an increase in the number of qualified Thai general managers employed in international hotels and a responsibility for development of Thai general managers. In addition, individual general managers themselves, may be able thereby to increase the effective use of their time.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the Thesis

Hotels are an essential and indispensable component of Thailand's tourism industry. As Robert E. Wood states: "the heart of the mass tourism industry is the hotel sector" (1979: 282). The hotel industry in Thailand is growing in importance in the national economy in terms of its contributions and effects. As can be seen in Table 1.1, tourists visiting Thailand in 1993 spent 29,329 million baht, 22.95% of total tourists expenditure, on accommodation. With the exception of shopping, tourists expenditure on accommodation is higher than other levels of expenditure, signifying the importance of the hotel industry.

Table 1.1 Distribution of tourism contribution expenditure 1993

Type of Expenditure	Expenditure (Baht/Person/Day)	Revenue (Million Baht)	Percentage
Accommodation	733.63	29,329	22.95
Food & Beverage	481.16	19,236	15.05
Sight Seeing	165.70	6,624	5.18
Local Transport	175.25	7,006	5.48
Shopping	1,367.01	54,650	42.76
Entertainment	162.52	6,497	5.08
Miscellaneous	111.53	4,459	3.50
Total	3,196.80	127,802	100.00

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand: Statistical Report 1993

In accordance with the expansion of tourism in Thailand, there has also been a corresponding boom in the hotel industry. As Tables 1.2 and 1.3 show, the number of hotels in Thailand has increased each year from 1990 to 1994.

Table 1.2 Number of rooms of accommodation establishments in Thailand 1990-1994

Region	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Central (exclude BKK)	14,012	15,202	17,159	19,003	64,702
Eastern	32,929	37,880	43,773	45,813	49,613
Northern	24,566	28,140	28,838	32,132	36,178
Southern	42,103	48,276	51,016	53,955	60,737
Northeastern	13,898	15,407	15,852	14,822	14,822
Total	114,999	144,905	156,638	165,725	242,773

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand, Annual Statistical Report on Tourism in Thailand

Table 1.3 Number of rooms of accommodation establishments in major cities 1990-1994

City	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994
Bangkok	28,845	31,788	34,611	46,664	58,909
Kanchanaburi	2,288	2,553	2,909	2,961	3,125
Chiang Mai	9,474	11,845	12,057	14,499	16,328
Pattaya	18,097	24,414	24,957	17,426	17,910
Phuket	12,259	14,912	17,355	24,722	26,831
Total	70,963	85,512	91,909	106,272	123,103

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand, Annual Statistical Report on Tourism in Thailand

In spite of the rapid growth in the number of hotels and room capacity, the hotel industry in Thailand is still in an early stage of development. There is a lack of "know-how", especially in technical skill and knowledge, and well-qualified personnel working in the industry. More importantly, there is very little hospitality research in

this area in Thailand. From 1987 to the present, only five pieces of research can be located in state university libraries. This reflects the fact that the hotel management concept is still in its infancy in Thailand. Indeed, there is a lack of both instructors and qualified and experienced hoteliers. There is very little expertise in hotel schools in Thailand, as well as a lack of human resources and a lack of studies of the industry. Qualified and experienced personnel prefer to work in the industry than to teach in educational institutes. Also, there is a lack of training equipment in government hotel educational institutes. Moreover, the private educational institutes are more profit orientated than concerned with the quality of training for educational purposes, a view which as we will see, is supported by the hotel general managers interviewed for this study.

As a result of the shortcomings mentioned above, many Thai hotel owners have little knowledge of the hotel industry and lack confidence in running their own hotels. They prefer to employ professional management companies, such as Accor, to operate their own hotels. The general pattern is that hotel industry senior managers are expatriates coming from Europe, the United States and Australia while the middle and lower level of employment is taken by local people.

The best way to develop this fast growing industry is to put the right person in the right job and to keep well-trained and qualified personnel in the industry. This cannot be done by providing luxury in the hotels or offering staff high salaries. It needs

management skills, and this is a major factor to be judged for efficiency and effectiveness in hotel management.

1.1.1 Background of Thai hotel industry

The history of Thai hospitality can be traced back as far back as the Sukhothai era, some eight hundred years ago. There are a number of old paintings showing foreign visitors and traders, Chinese as well as westerners, visiting and doing business (trading) in the kingdom. There are also documents and diaries of European ambassadors and missionaries, mentioning the accommodation in Siam, the old name of Thailand, in the seventeenth century. The first record of a hotel in the modern sense is from 1863. At that time, there were two hotels established in Bangkok, the Union Hotel and the Boarding Houses.

Although Thailand has a very long history of hospitality, the hotel industry in the country has not yet fully developed. Realising that hotels are an important business sector which brings about business expansion and employment, the Thai government is now paying more attention to hotel development and the private sector has shown more interest and concern in the study of hotel management. There has been an increasing number of both government and private institutes and universities which offer hotel management programmes (Muqbil 1992: Kitthaweerat 1992). Also, there are training courses and seminars to help improve skills and knowledge of people who are working in the industry. This is a response to one of the guidelines for promotion

and development of tourism between 1992-1996 that is “develop and improve the quality of personnel relating to tourism. Enlarge the number of qualified tourism personnel at the university and vocational education level by encouraging the private sector to play a role in the development and training of such human resources” (Kitthaweerat 1992).

1.1.2 Brief history of the Thai hotel industry

From the Sukhothai era to the early Rattanakosin era (1250-1851), accommodation for travellers involved two main groups. The first group was national guests who stayed in palaces or royal family compounds. The second group was ordinary travellers who stayed at temples, public halls and villagers’ dwellings. During the Ayuthaya era (1350-1767), La Lubaire, a French ambassador who visited Ayuthaya in 1687, wrote about accommodation for national guests as follows (cited in Sangpayap 1991):

There are no official residences for national guests in Siam. I saw only common large halls, with surrounding walls of which the tops are not higher than I can touch. The roof is positioned on wood poles fixed in those walls...I wonder why accommodation for guests is not arranged in Asia...

The Thai hotel business began during the reign of King Rama IV (1851-1868) when Thailand become more involved in international business with westerners. Also, King Rama IV took a personal interest in western culture and sent Thai ambassadors to

visit Great Britain in 1857. The first record of hotels in Thailand was found during this period as shown in "Bangkok Calendar", an English annual book published by Doctor Deneil B. Bradley, an American missionary. In 1863, two hotels were firstly registered which were the Union Hotel and the Boarding Houses. These two hotels were owned and managed by expatriates. The proprietors of the Union Hotel were Cook, Carter and Hopkins, and the proprietors of the Boarding Houses were Captain James White, Carter & Howard, G.W. Thomas and Lewis. In 1868, there was only one hotel, the Union hotel, that was registered. In 1870, there were six hotels registered which were the Union, the Falck's Hotel, the German Hotel, the Humburg Hotel, the Marine Hotel and the Siam Hotel. In 1871, there were four hotels which were the Carter's Hotel, the Falck's Hotel, the German Hotel and the Norfolk Hotel.

The following period of King Rama V's reign (1868-1910) was an era of modernisation. Reformation took place in various areas in the Thai society. Western knowledge and culture played a significant role in this period. A lot of hotels were built in this time. The Oriental Hotel is one of the hotels that was built in 1876, and it was the first hotel that had electricity. It was highly popular among foreigners because of its riverside location and pure air at that time. Although there are a lot of hotels along both sides of the Choa Praya River nowadays, the Oriental Hotel still retains its popularity. Moreover, it won a global award for excellent service eight years in succession (1985-1992) and became more famous.

The first hotel owned by Thais was the Hua Hin State Railways Hotel at Hua Hin Beach, south of Bangkok. It was established in the early 1900s by His Royal Highness Prince Burachatchaiyakorn, the father of the Thai hotel industry. From 1910 to 1925 was the period of King Rama VI. There were a lot of foreigners and businessmen visiting Thailand, so more hotels were needed to accommodate visitors in this period. The Royal Hotel was built in 1911, and Madame A. Staro was the owner. During the reign of King Rama VII (1925-1934), the king ordered renovation of the Phrayathai Palace and made it a hotel, called the Palace Hotel, to accommodate the increasing number of foreign travellers and businessmen. It was intended to be the first hotel of international standard. Unfortunately, these hotels did not survive.

1.1.3 Modern Thai hotel industry

From King Rama V period (1868 - 1910) up to the present, the Thai hotel industry has expanded steadily. The Tourism Authority of Thailand was set up in 1959. In 1960, the number of the hotel rooms in Bangkok totalled 1,000 and have since increased steadily each year. In 1979, the number of hotel rooms was 11,326 (The Tourism Authority of Thailand 1980). The hotel industry in Thailand was given a boost by the Board of Investment starting in the early 1960's. In the late 1960's, the hotel boom radically changed the skyline of Bangkok with high-rise hotels. In the early 1990's there was a big jump in the number of accommodation establishments and number of rooms in major cities in Thailand (see Table 1.4). From simple management and a simple product, the hotel industry in Thailand has become complex

Table 1.4 Number of accommodation establishments and rooms in major cities

City	1992		1993		1994		1995	
	Est.	rooms	Est.	rooms	Est.	rooms	Est.	rooms
Bangkok	549	48,371	506	46,664	551	58,909	524	63,857
Central/West (excluding Bangkok)								
Kanchanaburi	168	2,909	163	2,961	166	3,125	188	5,058
Cha-Am	53	2,972	49	2,911	62	3,646	83	4,103
Hua Hin	60	2,335	62	2,334	72	2,499	88	2,957
Others	246	8,943	275	10,797	322	13,244	304	12,860
Total	527	17,159	549	19,003	622	22,514	663	24,978
Eastern Thailand								
Pattaya	316	24,957	310	24,722	334	26,831	309	26,791
Rayong	191	7,213	203	7,488	209	7,994	206	8,026
Trat	83	2,027	83	2,027	97	2,509	81	2,084
Others	187	9,576	215	11,576	225	12,279	232	12,978
Total	777	43,773	811	45,813	865	49,613	828	49,889
Northern Thailand								
Chiang Mai	303	12,057	293	14,499	310	16,328	241	14,832
Chiang Rai	114	4,526	111	4,395	136	4,900	129	4,978
Phitsanulok	35	1,691	39	1,663	39	2,771	30	2,601
Others	332	10,564	375	11,575	382	12,179	387	12,580
Total	784	28,838	818	32,132	867	36,178	787	34,991
Southern Thailand								
Phuket	261	17,355	264	17,426	268	17,910	265	18,385
Samui	258	6,500	274	6,736	328	8,805	317	8,656
Hat Yai	88	7,693	82	7,678	96	8,646	95	8,669
Sungai Kolok	59	2,133	60	2,313	61	2,323	57	2,255
Others	528	17,335	663	19,802	751	23,053	739	23,633
Total	1,194	51,016	1,343	53,955	1,504	60,737	1,473	61,598
Northeastern Thailand								
Nakorn Ratchasima	59	3,030	60	3,173	71	3,971	84	4,770
Khon Kaen	45	2,461	35	1,863	38	2,390	41	2,803
Ubon Ratchathani	42	1,533	25	1,264	34	1,711	36	1,857
Others	274	8,828	261	8,522	298	10,090	308	10,830
Total	420	15,852	381	14,822	441	18,162	469	20,260
Grand Total	4,251	205,009	4,408	212,389	4,850	246,113	4,744	255,573

Note: Includes all accommodation, including inns, lodges and guesthouses.

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand

in organisation and larger in size. The hotel business has changed from being the sole province of the small business and entrepreneur to an industry including giant multinational companies. In the past ten years, the hotel industry has been one of the fastest growing industries in the Thai economy. Despite hoteliers' secrecy over their occupancy rates, according to the Tourism Authority of Thailand, the average occupancy rates are shown in Table 1.5.

Table 1.5 Average occupancy rate of accommodation establishments in major cities 1989 - 1993

City	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993
Bangkok	87.88	78.14	62.44	53.22	56.56
Chiang Mai	56.27	54.08	50.36	41.34	45.95
Pattaya	58.27	53.60	50.57	45.45	42.49
Phuket	63.08	63.38	57.59	39.63	59.85
Hat Yai	61.25	60.29	55.14	44.14	50.01
Sungai Kolok	49.73	50.78	57.45	41.28	53.73

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand: Statistical Report 1993

A comment on a critical issue of today's hotel business is made by Kurt Rufli, managing director of Amari Hotels and Resorts as follows (cited in Muqbil 1993):

The main difference between yesterday's problems and today's is that today's are more complex. They are caused by external factors such as global recession, lack of job security and unemployment; competition for Thailand as a destination from other countries in the region, i.e. Malaysia and Indonesia, plus the price-driven nature of the market where consumers buy on price and not on destination preferences; environmental and infrastructure problems in Thailand.

Since 1980 there has been substantial competition in the Thai hotel market. Many hotels have competed ruthlessly, employing various marketing strategies such as cutting prices, coupon schemes, double your stay policies and various product improvements. Therefore, the industry requires more professional expertise to handle the speed of change. Today's hotel managers have to be equipped with management and marketing skills as well as the ability to apply new technologies which have emerged as aids to successfully marketing their products and services.

Although many people are involved in the operation and management of a hotel, the heart and the brain of the hotel business is the general manager. Hotel general managers occupy a strategic role in the midst of the hotel operation, where they are in close contact with employees and guests, as well as executive management. The decisions they make in this crucial position play a large part in determining the effectiveness of the hotel staff and the satisfaction of the hotel guests. Whether the properties they manage provide superior service and realise their profit potential is a function of general managers' expertise. The success or failure of a hotel business depends largely on the general manager. Realising the importance of general managers, this research aims to investigate the time spent on various work activities by hotel general managers, i.e. marketing, human resource management, training and activities involving desk work, telephone, meetings, inspections and discussions. In order to identify the significance of general managers' roles in the hotel industry in Thailand, the research is conducted as an empirical investigation focusing on the leading Thai luxury hotels which are of international standard. The scope of the study

is limited in order to make a valid comparison of the similarities and differences in management between Thai managers and non-Thai managers. The research defines the emphasis of the amount of time spent on the various work activities by investigating how general managers perceive their roles and how they actually spend their time. It is intended that the results of the research will not only enhance the understanding of different approaches to managerial roles and time usage thereof, but also provide comparison of the characteristics and uniqueness of Thai and non-Thai general managers. Such information could enable general managers themselves to increase the effective use of their time. In addition, it should give decision-makers, particularly those with a non-hospitality background help in appointing hotel general managers, through a precise understanding of their advisers.

This study aims to achieve the following objectives:

- 1) to analyse general managers' allocation of time spent on work activities in Thai luxury hotels;
- 2) to determine the impact of personality and cultural/educational background on the management styles of Thai and non-Thai general managers in Thai luxury hotels;
and
- 3) to identify hotel general managers' managerial job patterns through the investigation of what they do on the job against how they perceive it.

In this research, the concept of managerial roles is derived from Mintzberg's (1973) study of managerial work, an observational study of the work of five top executives in the U.S.A. Mintzberg identifies ten roles and classifies them in three clusters: interpersonal roles, informal roles and decisional roles. The first cluster, interpersonal roles, comprises figurehead, leader and liaison. The figurehead is the symbolic head who is obliged to perform a number of routine duties of legal or social nature, e.g. member of hotel association. The leader is responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates, staffing and training. The liaison role involves maintaining self-developed networks of outside contacts and informers who provide favours and information, e.g. airlines or travel agent representative, convention bureaux. The second cluster, informal roles, comprises monitor, disseminator and spokesman. The monitor seeks and receives a wide variety of special information, much of it current, to develop a thorough understanding of the organization and its environment. The monitor is the nerve center of internal and external information of the organization. The disseminator transmits information received from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organization. Some information is factual, whereas some involves interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organisational influencers. The spokesman transmits information on organisation's plans, policies, actions results and so on to outsiders, serving as an expert on the organisation's industry. The third cluster, decisional roles, comprises entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator. The entrepreneur searches the organisation and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement

projects" to bring about change, and also supervises the design of certain projects. The disturbance handler is responsible for corrective action when the organisation faces important, unexpected disturbances. The resource allocator is responsible for the allocation of organisational resources of all kinds, in effect the making or approval of all significant organisational decisions. The negotiator is responsible for representing the organisation at major negotiations.

This research also adopts the structured observation technique which was undertaken by Ley (1978) to study the managerial activities of seven managers in a major US hotel chain. Ley applied Nailon's (1968) diary method as a basis for structured observation instead of a self-completion diary. The model presented in his study was based on Mintzberg's ten managerial roles. Ley attempted to control key variables which had a major influence on the activities of the managers by limiting the number of variables which directly affected it. Hence, he consciously predetermined to study managers in the hospitality industry, from one company, at one hierarchical level in only two main geographical locations. Ley assumed that there was a relationship between the performance of specific managerial roles and judged effectiveness as a manager. Effectiveness in his study was defined in terms of being able to initiate activities to expand a hotel's potential, to improve the establishment and to suggest ideas for future improvements to top management. From his investigation, Ley found managers perceived two roles to be dominant - leader and entrepreneur. He examined the relationship between the leader role and entrepreneurial activities and a corporate office rating of managerial effectiveness. The independent variable was the allocation

of time for performing the roles and the dependent variable was managerial effectiveness. Ley hypothesised that highly effective managers would spend more time in the leader role as hotel chain focused on the work activities encompassed by this role. On the contrary, the results of his study showed that two highly effective managers spent less time in the leader role than two less effective managers. Ley (1980: 100) explained that highly effective managers spent more time on entrepreneurial activities than did managers with lower effectiveness ratings. The results of his study indicated further that a hierarchical relationship existed between the amount of time managers allocated to entrepreneurship and judged effectiveness. In terms of the characteristics of managerial work, Ley verified the findings of Nailon (1968) and Mintzberg (1973) that the role of hotel manager was seen as rapid in pace, having many interruptions, being one of action rather than reflection and concerned with verbal rather than written media.

1.2 Hypotheses

In the past, Thai hotel owners and international chain hotels needed expatriate general managers to manage their hotels if they wanted their hotels to reach an international standard. This was because there were insufficient Thai people qualified to an appropriate level in hotel management, and few Thais were familiar with international hotel standards. As a result, non-Thai managers were very important and gained respect in the Thai hotel industry. Nowadays, there are more Thai people who have had a western education or have graduated from an overseas hotel school. In addition,

Thai people now receive a higher standard of education. Yet some Thai hotels still hire expatriate managers to give a better image to their establishments since many consumers still hold the view that a western general manager is a symbol of international standards.

In comparing the priorities of Thai and non-Thai managers, the emphasis is placed on the following questions:

- How far does actual management style correspond with the managers' own perception of their particular role?
- Is there any relationship between Thai values, culture and/or national characteristics and the management styles?
- Have the academic background, work experience, on-the-job and the career route of the general managers contributed to their effectiveness?
- Are Thai general managers who have an overseas education and work experience or training as equally efficient in terms of time usage as expatriate managers?
- Do Thai managers who have worked overseas and possess overseas education and training consider that their work experience contributes to their credibility in terms of their work?

To find the answers to these questions and those attendant on the other objectives listed earlier, three hypotheses are formulated:

- 1.3.1 all the general managers in the study judge their managerial effectiveness in terms of their personal constructs, specifically, personal background and education, personal attitude, management style, and career path;
- 1.3.2 the non-Thai general managers consider that cultural orientation contributes to their effectiveness, whereas the Thai general managers consider that overseas education and experience contribute to their effectiveness; and
- 1.3.3 there is no positive correlation between the amount of time allocated to a specific work role and the significance of that role.

1.3 Methodology

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were employed in this research. Written questionnaires, interviews and periods of observation were used in sequence. First, questionnaires were mailed to ninety-eight general managers of luxury hotels with the room rate ranges from 3,000 baht, approximately £100, to 45,000 baht, approximately £1,500, nation-wide (see Appendix A). Then, after collecting the responses to the questionnaires, interviews were conducted with some of those

general managers on a volunteer basis. Lastly, observations were undertaken of the work routines of eight general managers from the same respondent group.

The written questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first part sought personal data on general managers. The second part asked for the general managers' perceptions of their work activities. The third part consisted of open-ended questions asking the general managers to evaluate their performance and management style. The purpose of the questionnaire was to survey the factual and biographical details relative to general managers' background - i.e. professional, academic and socio-cultural - and the allocation of time spent on their work activities. Questionnaires were sent to the general managers of Thai luxury hotels. At present, there is no official hotel classification in Thailand. The Tourism Authority of Thailand ranks hotels in the country by the room rates which fall into five groups:

Group 1 single room-rate of 3,000 baht and over;

Group 2 single room-rate of 2,000 baht and over;

Group 3 single room-rate of 1,000 baht and over;

Group 4 single room-rate of 400 baht and over; and

Group 5 single room-rate of 200 baht and over.

Therefore, the researcher defined the room rate in the first rank from the Tourism Authority of Thailand's classification (1993) (i.e. the room rate of 3,000 baht and over) as a luxury hotel.

Of ninety-eight mailed questionnaires, fifty were returned as usable responses which represented a 51.02% response rate and comprised 48 male general managers and 2 female general managers. These general managers managed a diverse range of properties and hotel categories - i.e. city hotels, resort hotels, national chain hotels, international chain hotels and independent hotels (see Table 1.6).

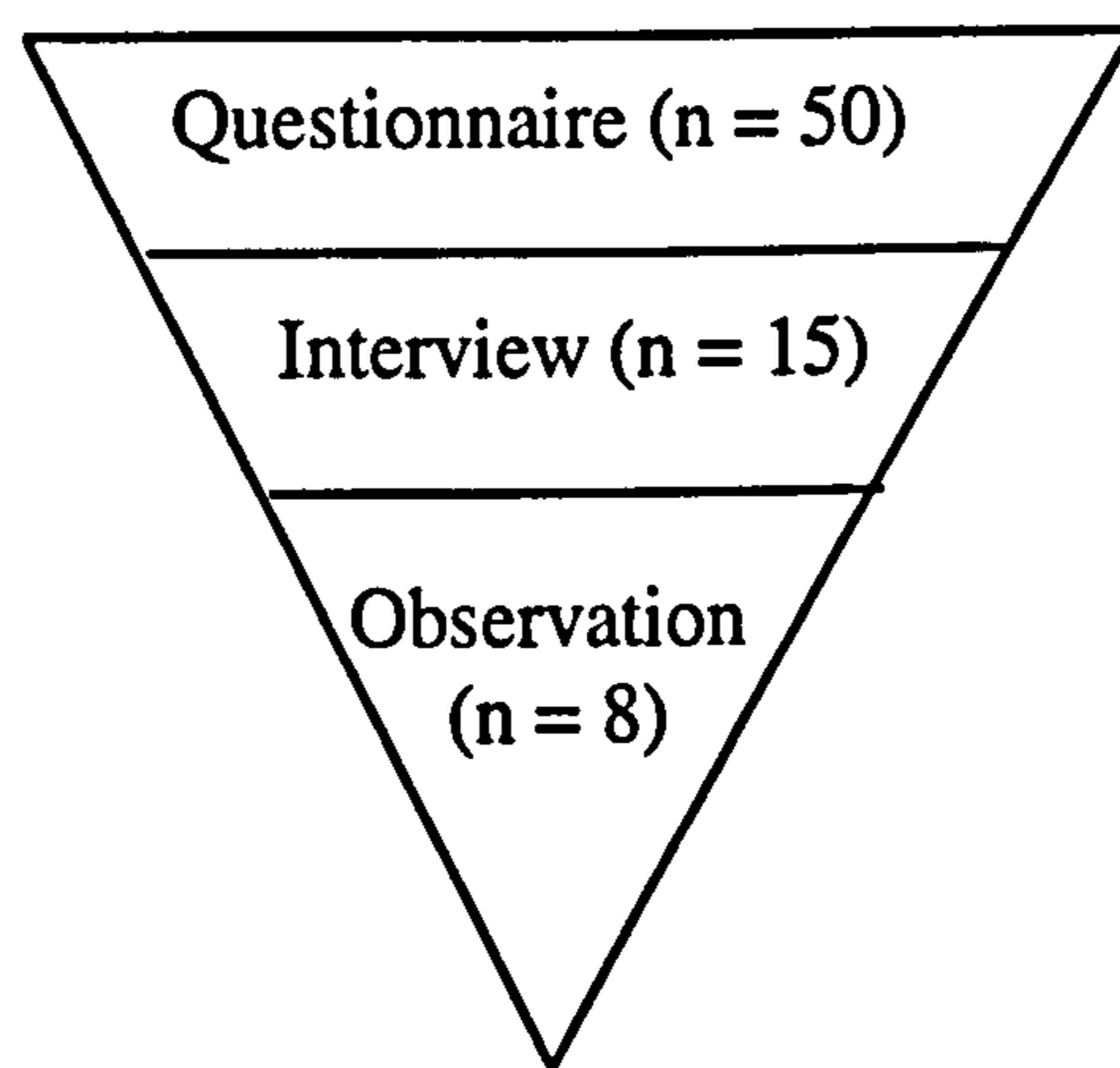
Table 1.6 : Property profile of surveyed General Managers (n=50)

Characteristic	No.	Percentage
Classification of property		
City Hotel	26	52%
Resort Hotel	22	44%
Others	2	4%
Category of property		
Asian chain	9	18%
Western chain	10	20%
International franchise	3	6%
Independent	28	56%
Number of rooms		
51 - 100	1	2%
101 - 250	20	40%
251 - 400	18	36%
Over 400 rooms	11	22%

After collecting the responses to the questionnaires, fifteen Thai and non-Thai general managers, both male and female, were selected for personal interview. The personal interviews were semi-structured and conducted with those general managers who were willing to co-operate in the study. Some questions in the interviews were open-ended, providing respondents with the opportunities to express their views on their management styles. This assisted the researcher to gain some in-depth knowledge of the general managers' perception of the allocation of their time spent on work roles, and the nature of those work roles as carried out in practice.

The final session of this field work was the structured observation of daily working practices of eight selected general managers, four Thais and four non-Thais. The observation was conducted on a voluntary basis, and the observation period was five consecutive working days spent with each general manager. Due to the confidentiality required by each hotel company, the researcher was excluded from private meetings or sensitive communications during the observation period. The reason for conducting the structured observation as the final stage was to substantiate the findings of the survey as well as to provide the researcher with an opportunity to judge whether the general managers' perceptions were related to, or different from, what actually happened in practice. In other words, observation was conducted in order to identify whether or not perception and practice coincided. Therefore, a filter model was used (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Filter model



1.4 Potential contribution of the Study

Since the hotel business, and hotel management in particular, has not been fully developed in Thailand, this study aims to make a contribution to the theory and practice of hotel management. As the research focused on the work roles of general managers, it will benefit the future development and training of potential general managers for hotel management in Thailand. In addition to hotel management, the research is intended to benefit three major groups as follows.

1.4.1 Hotel industry

The significance of these findings will be beneficial to multinational hotel investors, agent companies and Thai hoteliers as well as to the development of potential general managers in the future. The results reflect directly trends in the training of general managers. Thus, management can utilise the results to establish criteria to assess general manager's qualifications to match job requirements. This concept of putting the right person to the right job can also be applied to other positions in management and operational levels. Furthermore, it confirms that Western management concepts can be applied to Thai organisational culture. In addition, the research reflects the fact that both Thai and non-Thai general managers have adjusted themselves and their management styles to fit the culture of the organisation. Potential general managers can learn the art of blending Western management concepts with Thai culture in order to enhance a successful career.

1.4.2 Hotel School Institutions

The findings may lead to changes in human resource management in the hotel sector and to an increased awareness in planning the curriculum of hotel studies in hotel schools and institutions whose growth is booming as a result of the rapid expansion of the hotel and catering industry. In addition, this piece of research emphasises the need for human resources at all levels in the industry, including the students who will enter the industry, to be well-trained and qualified in hotel management. Hotel schools and universities should recognise the importance of the curriculum and plan courses with clear objectives that are relevant to the need of the industry for both operational and management levels.

1.4.3 Government

Since the findings of this research reflect the need for training in the industry, the government should recognise the need for qualified labour in the industry. As the industry is rapidly growing, the government needs to co-operate with hotels and assist hotel schools and similar institutions to improve their curricula and quality of teaching by funding the training for teachers and lecturers, supplying teaching materials and instruments, as well as planning a budget for state hotel schools and universities.

1.5 Organisation of the Study

This thesis is divided into seven chapters. The first chapter is an introduction to the research and an overview of the hotel industry in Thailand. In addition, Mintzberg's (1973) theoretical concept of management, in terms of ten managerial work roles, and Ley's (1978) study of managerial effectiveness in the hotel industry using a structured observation approach are addressed.

The second chapter is the review of the related literature. The work roles from Mintzberg's models, the work activities of the general manager and the concept of management style are defined. In addition, managerial work studies in the hospitality industry are reviewed.

The third chapter provides the research design, the methodology used in the investigation, as well as instruments and methods for data collection. The sample procedures for the research are also explained.

The fourth chapter is an introduction to Thai culture and values which involve the Thai approaches to work in the hotel industry. This chapter also examines the concept of Thai culture and cross-cultural management, since it is a vital variable in the research.

The fifth chapter is divided into two parts. The first part is the analysis of the questionnaire results, and the second part is the analysis of the semi-structured

interview results. The chapter also presents the statistical results of time allocation on the ten managerial work roles from both the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews. The results from the statistical analysis of the data collected are also discussed.

The sixth chapter examines the framework of the specific work roles, work activities and time allocation. It includes the third part of the field work, i.e. the results of the eight structured observations of hotel managers. The similarities and differences in the emphasis on work roles, time allocation on the work activities and the relationship to the management styles of Thai and non-Thai general managers in the study are identified and discussed.

In conclusion, the seventh chapter places the implications of the study of the work roles, time allocation and management styles in the Thai hotel industry in context. It also offers a summary of the research as well as suggestions for future research.

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Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction to the study of management

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature associated with the connections between managerial behaviour and performance of work activities. The literature concerned with the time and contact patterns of managers, managerial work connected with the hospitality industry, and factors which influence managerial work, are reviewed to clarify the definitions of these concepts in order to develop a framework for the particular research embodied in this thesis.

Management practice and research have been aimed at improving managers' ability to perform better technically and administratively. Historically, the first set of issues dealt with in management, by practitioners such as Taylor, was productivity: how to accomplish tasks or work more rapidly and efficiently. The focus was on helping managers perform their technical responsibilities. The second set of issues focused on how the whole organisation could become more productive. There were two parallel developments. One believed in finding more effective ways to divide work among people and units and better ways to co-ordinate these efforts. Thus, the focus was on the way the organisation was structured. The other found an organisation's performance could be improved if its employees were more motivated to do their work. Hence, researchers tried to determine how feelings and attributes affected the performance of the workforce. Management researchers began to study organisational

structure and behaviour with consequences which were important to managers' administrative efficiency.

2.1.1 Theoretical perspectives on managerial studies

By the late 1800s, the rise of large companies in many industries in the United States threatened the survival of medium and small companies which could only compete by achieving lower costs per unit of production. Therefore, business managers became more concerned with efficiency which led them to experiment systematically with ideas to improve productivity and efficiency. Accordingly, the work of these managers and researchers was called scientific management, a term invented by Frederick Winslow Taylor (Baird et al. 1990: 35). Frederick Winslow Taylor (1856-1915) is widely known as the father of scientific management. He was an engineer who worked in the late 1800s and early 1900s to improve efficiency in the production of industrial and consumer goods.

Having been a labourer himself, Taylor believed that labourers deliberately set to work slowly because they feared being laid off if they finished a job too quickly. This practice went largely unchallenged because there was little in the way of systematic analysis of how long it should take for labourers to complete their work. Thus, Taylor proposed the basis of scientific management - analysing jobs to find out how long they should take and how best they might be performed, then training the employees to do the job, paying them according to what they accomplished. He then established

management concepts of a “fair day’s work” and a “differential piece rate” system. He urged employers to pay workers on the differential rate system wherein workers who met high standards (“first class men”) would be rewarded with higher wages than those who were below the standard. Taylor saw many advantages in this system as he noted in a speech to the Cleveland Advertising Club (quoted in Wren 1994: 130):

Scientific management at every step has been an evolution, not a theory. In all cases the practice has preceded the theory ... all the men that I know of who are connected with scientific management are ready to abandon any scheme, any theory, in favor of anything else that can be found which is better. There is nothing in scientific management that is fixed.

Also, Taylor believed among the best outcomes of the differential piece rate system was that it promoted more friendly feeling between workmen and their employers because it served both their best interests. However, this system did cause conflicts elsewhere as Wren (1994: 131) notes:

Taylor had his failings as well as his virtues. His Principles of Scientific Management, for example, contained more advocacy than fact, and was more reform minded than scientific. He spoke of a “true science of management,” yet in practice violated fully done nor was the rate rationally developed. He used Grantt’s task and bonus scheme rather than his differential piece rate because it worked better. Thus he was willing to try a better way if it could be found - he never concluded that there was only one way.

Another interesting point related to this issue is noted by Rose (1981: 39) as follows:

Taylor's simple-minded conception of science did not include the notion that propositions in the imperative mood cannot be deduced from those in the indicative, but its truth is here given a back-handed recognition. Fairness in payment clearly demands some social reference-point. But whose reference-point should this be? Certainly not the worker's; the worker is not a scientist. In theory, it should be that the scientific manager. But of course, in practice, the reference he will be obliged to adopt must also take into account the ability of the enterprise to continue showing a profit.

Rose also notes that Taylor's work concentrated more on investigating the job and how to make the best out of it rather than upon human psychology because the concept of psychology in management was not developed at that time (Rose 1981: 38):

One can hardly condemn Taylor for ignoring the psychology of individual differences, since it was only poorly developed at the time he was preparing his system. And it is true that he did make genuine discoveries about the more efficient performance of certain tasks. There were, however, simple labouring operations in which the psyche is not importantly engaged.

There were two obstacles which slowed the adoption of scientific management. Scientific management posed a major threat to the powerful foremen and union leaders who exercised ultimate control over job assignments and methods of operation in a factory. The second obstacle came from the workers themselves. According to Taylor, workers wanted to work in the most efficient manner, to perform their work with a minimum of effort, and to be better paid for increased productivity. It was also

assumed that workers would submit to having their physical movements and thinking about the job standardised. However, employers attempted to set higher norms for production and sped up the assembly line without improving wages which increased resentment and employee dissatisfaction. Instead of a “fair day’s pay”, management used increased productivity as a reason for laying people off.

However, the efficiency of scientific approaches to production was too valuable to abandon as Wren (1994: 131) notes:

On balance, Taylor left an indelible mark on his age and ours. He was not alone, but was joined by numerous others who apply, adapt, refine, and spread the idea of scientific management. Taylor provided the polestar to a significant era in the evolution of management thought.

To enhance productivity beyond the levels achievable through technological innovation, researchers and managers designed methods to manage people, coordinate their work, and enhance their productivity. These methods were developed in two distinct but interrelated ways: through organisation theory and behavioural study.

2.1.2 Classical Organisation Theory

While Taylor focused on the technical activities of organisations, Henri Fayol (1841-1925), a Frenchman, examined the problems of improving the quality of managerial work. He was hired as an engineer by a French mining company and worked his way

up the ranks to manager, general manager, then member of the board of directors. Fayol focused on the administrative level of organisations. From his extensive experience, he concluded that a company's success was due to managerial as well as engineering skill. Fayol identified six basic activities which he believed were fundamental to the operation of any organisation:

- technical (production, manufacture, adaptation),
- commercial (buying, selling, exchanging),
- financial (searching for and optimum use of capital),
- security (protection of property and person),
- accounting (stocking, balancing sheet, costs, statistics), and
- managerial (planning, organisation, command, co-ordination, control).

Fayol became a pioneer in the field of management because he distinguished managerial activity from all other activities in organisations and conceived of managerial activity in terms of its core functions which he defined as:

- planning – the process of setting performance objectives and identifying the actions needed to accomplish them;
- organising – the process of dividing up the work to be done and then co-ordinating results to achieve a desired purpose;
- commanding – the process of directing the work efforts of other people to successfully accomplish their assigned tasks;

- co-ordinating – the process of ensuring activities and resources are working well together towards the common goal; and
- controlling – the process of monitoring performance and progress to ensure that plans are being carried out properly.

These functions of management were meant to be carried out in all aspects of the organisation: technical production, marketing, finance, and accounting security.

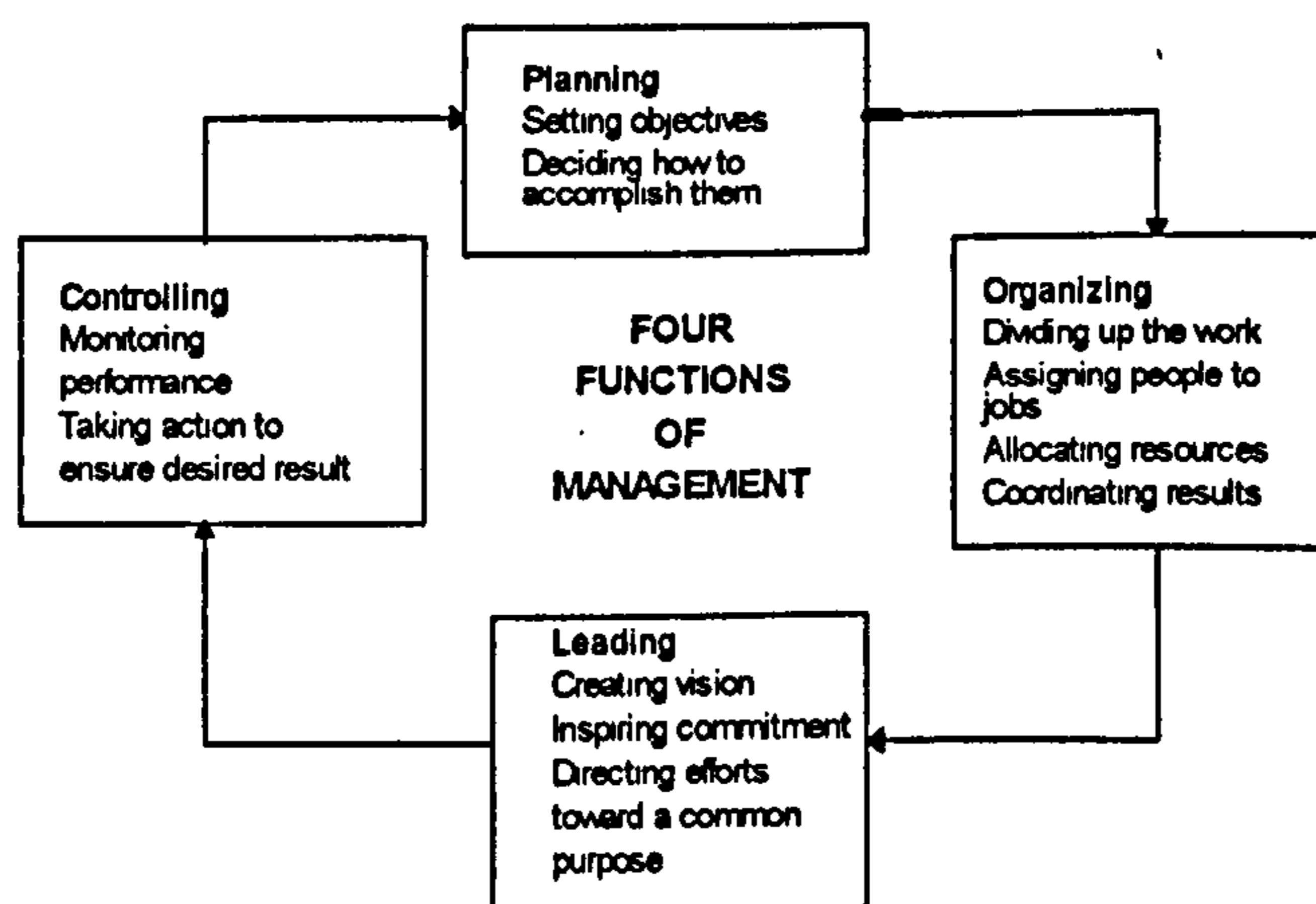
These core functions were developed and subsequently acquired a fundamental status in modern management theory as reflected in the work of contemporary researchers and writers such as Terry (1953), Koontz and O'Donnell (1955), Schermerhorn *et al.* (1991: 16-7), and Wren (1994). All these writers recapitulate and refine Fayol's core functions in various ways. First, George Terry (1909-1979) reflected them in his book, Principles of Management, in 1953 as "the activity which plans, organizes, and controls the operations of the basic elements of men, materials, machines, methods, money, and markets, providing direction and co-ordination, and giving leadership to human efforts, so as to achieve the sought objectives of the enterprise" (Wren 1994: 351). Then, Harold Koontz (1908-1984) and Cyril O'Donnell (1900-1976) defined management in their book in 1955 as "the function of getting things done through others". They followed Fayol's path by explaining the managerial function as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling, and these functions were exercised by managers simultaneously. They also emphasised that these functions

contributed to organizational co-ordination (Wren 1994: 351). Wren himself comments (1994: 352):

The applicability of planning, organizing and controlling achieved the great agreement. Fayol's "command" became a source of much disagreement in terminology: for some it was directing; for others, supervising, leading, actuating, or whatever. Staffing, which Fayol had subsumed under organizing, achieved some recognition as a separate function either explicitly for human resources or more generally under the heading of assembling resources. Coordination began and endured as a separate managerial function until 1954; afterwards, it became an integral part of the entire process. As Fayol's lead to some changed ideas about what managers needs to know.

Later Schermerhorn et al. (1991) described the "four functions of management - planning, organising, leading and controlling" as a basic foundation for managerial effectiveness (See Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Planning, organizing, leading and controlling - four functions of management



Source: Schermerhorn, J.R. et al., Managing Organizational Behavior, (1991: 17)

Fayol's original work, Administration Industrielle et Générale, was published in French in 1917 and later was translated into English in 1930 when British and American managers began to take advantage of his contributions to the study of organisations. Fayol was among the first management writers to offer a list of principles of management to guide practising managers. Each of his principles, which are listed in Figure 2.2, was considered as a general statement involving a basic idea that can be applied in different kinds of organisations and in different ways.

Figure 2.2 **Fayol's fourteen principles of administration**

1. **Division of Labour** Through specialisation of labour, maximum efficiency can be achieved.
2. **Authority and Responsibility** Authority is the right to command and the power to make oneself obeyed. Responsibility is the reward or penalty accompanying the use of power.
3. **Discipline** The essence of discipline is "obedience, diligence, energy, correct attitude, and outward marks of respect, within this limits fixed by a concern (organization) and its employees."
4. **Unity of Command** Everyone should have one, and only one, boss.
5. **Unity of Direction** There should be only one manager and one plan for all operations of the same type. This assures consistency and responsibility.
6. **Subordination of Individual Interest to the Common Good** The goals of the organization take precedence over the goal of the individual.
7. **Remuneration** Employees should be paid fairly for their work, and the payment should be an incentive to perform well but not lead to unreasonable rewards.
8. **Centralization** Authority and responsibility should not be too centralized in one manager. There should be enough delegation to others that subordinates are encouraged to work well, yet enough centralization to ensure accountability within the organization.
9. **Hierarchy** The line of authority in an organization (scalar chain) runs from top to bottom in a straight line. Communications should normally follow this path, although administrators should be able to communicate across the organization to their peers at the same level of authority.
10. **Order** To run well, an organization should have a place for everything and everything should be in its place.
11. **Equity** The organization runs best when there is friendliness among employees and managers and when managers act fairly toward others.
12. **Stability of Staff** Employee turnover is unhealthy for organizations. Good administration encourages commitment and long-term associations from employees.
13. **Initiative** Subordinates should be given the opportunity and freedom to conceive and execute a plan, even if it sometimes fails.
14. **Esprit de corps** The morale of an organization's people is an asset and should be cultivated and encouraged by administrators whenever possible.

Source: Lloyd S. Baird et al., Management: Functions and Responsibilities, New York, (1990: 45)

While Fayol focused on making management more effective, Max Weber (1864-1920) focused on structuring the organisation. His major contribution was a framework of what he called the characteristics of bureaucratic management. He claimed these characteristics were necessary for an organisation to run smoothly. Weber's characteristics of bureaucratic management are as follows.

1. Division of labour
 - functions and tasks should properly be defined and people should specialise so they be able to learn that how to achieve a common objective.
2. Hierarchy of authority
 - a clear hierarchical chain of command should be well defined in an organisation so workers clearly understand to whom they are responsible.
3. Formal selection
 - employees should be hired and promoted on the basis of qualifications and expertise.
4. Career orientation
 - managers should be professionals and devoted to the career of management.
5. Formal rules and controls
 - formal rules and controls should be developed and used to guide and monitor employee behaviour.
6. Impersonality
 - rules should be impersonally and continuously recorded in written reports,

and uniformly applied limiting decision making and actions.

Weber did not intend to create the atmosphere of red tape and slow response associated with the word “bureaucracy” today. He was concerned with creating a well-run organisation where decisions were made which based on facts, and people were rewarded and punished according to their competence and performance. These ideals of bureaucratic management still have consequences for organisations even today.

As organisations grew in size and complexity, the search for a theory of organisation led Weber to his bureaucratic model. However, modern organisations have become much larger and more structurally complex than was the case in Weber’s time, with more layers of management and more specialised departments. The division of labour and co-ordination mechanisms have become more elaborate and different levels of management exercise varying degrees of authority. Yet, there are a number of dysfunctions in modern bureaucracies as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 The characteristics of Weber's ideal bureaucracy and some associated dysfunctions

Characteristics of Weber's Ideal Bureaucracy	Associated Dysfunctions Identified by Critics
Labor is specialized so each person has clear authority and responsibility.	Overspecialization stimulates a divergence of interests that lead to conflict.
Offices and positions are arranged in a hierarchy of authority.	A very formal hierarchy creates inflexibility in following "official" channels.
Members are selected and promoted on the basis of technical competence.	Bureaucracies become political systems serving an elite corps of managers.
Members have administrative careers and work on a fixed salary.	Conformity to the organization's way can be detrimental to one's mental health.
Members are subject to rules and control that are strict and impersonal and are applied universally.	Rules become ends in themselves; rules can only specify minimum requirements.

Source: Schermerhorn, J.R. et al., Managing Organizational Behavior, (1991: 318)

Weber was neither right or wrong in suggesting that organisational structure is a tool for implementing strategy. In some situations, a rigid bureaucratic structure is best while in others, a flexible structure works more effectively. The important point is how each organisation is designed to build on the strengths of the bureaucratic form, minimising its weaknesses, and how each of these very large organisations adjusts the bureaucratic form to fit external and internal requirements. The organisational design also depends on the available technologies, the nature of the organisation's environment and the desires of senior management.

To sum up, both Fayol and Weber attempted to present schemes for coping with large-scale organisations but from different backgrounds and perspectives - Fayol by his contribution of the principles and elements of management; and Weber by his

search for a blueprint of rationalised structured arrangements for the purpose of ensuring organisational efficiency.

2.1.3 The Human Relations Movement

In time, the need for a better understanding of human behaviour grew out of the deficiency of scientific management as a putatively comprehensive model for improving management effectiveness. The quest for efficient production methods, better technology, and more closely controlled work procedures often encountered resistance from workers. Human relations is a term used to describe an approach towards management that emphasised people rather than machines as Wood (1994: 23) notes:

Exponents of the human relations approach did not regard economic factors as being necessarily the prime motivator in the workplace. Non-economic rewards could, it was felt, be more important. In particular, the social conditions of employment, the human need for sociability and employment of personal relationship, and the need for security could be equally as significant as, or more significant than wages for position and motivated experiences of work. Job satisfaction was regarded as being as important to productivity as financial rewards by human relations specialists - a happy worker was a productive worker!.

During the 1930s and 1940s, the work of Elton Mayo and others studying the psychology of workers became widely known, as Mayo and his colleagues from

Harvard University began the Hawthorne studies - a series of experiments at a Western Electric plant conducted over a two year period, from 1924. It remains one of the best known cases in the history of management studies. Following scientific management, Mayo had previously studied the problems of physical fatigue among workers in a textile plant in Philadelphia. At the Hawthorne plant, the challenge was to study the relationship between output and illumination and investigate the effect that changes in illumination had on productivity. If the optimum level of illumination could be identified, all lights could be adjusted to that level and productivity could be increased. Mayo varied the lighting in several departments. All other working conditions were left as they were and the productivity of all groups increased.

A second series of experiments was begun in 1927, partly to resolve the confusion presented by the first set that illumination was not the answer to the research problem. These experiments were conducted by Mayo and a new group of researchers from Harvard University over a five-year period. A test group was carefully selected and subjected to changes in wages, rest periods, duration of workweek, temperature, humidity, and other factors. The results bore no relation to the changes. Again the productivity increased. However, the researchers could not find any direct connection between changes made in physical working conditions and worker appraisals. Mayo concluded that the explanation must lie in the attitudes of the workers towards their jobs and the company. Mayo had changed the relationship between management and the team of workers being studied in order to change workplace conditions. The test subjects were under less strict supervision than the other employees. Mayo and his

team suggested that the new “social setting” created in the test room explained the increased productivity. Workers’ performance improved because these employees believed they were part of an important group whose help and advice were being sought by the company. They believed management was concerned about their welfare.

Human relations rather than physical workplace conditions was thus recognised as the key variable in productivity levels. The Hawthorne researchers conducted a third experiment, adopting an anthropological method, which began in 1931. This experiment involved no changes in workroom conditions. Also, their interest shifted from physical working conditions to the “social setting” of work. In this experiment, Mayo identified the powerful and complex effect of group norms on productivity and group identity. Workers who produced above or below the norm set by the group met with some form of disapproval from the other members of the group. Thus, human factors were found to have a significant impact on productivity.

According to evidence from this third experiment, Mayo and his colleagues postulated a new dimension to the study of management, namely, workers often belonged to informal groups that greatly influenced whether a job would get done on time, or a new employee would be accepted into the organisation. Consequently, managers and researchers began to realise that people’s needs and attitudes sometimes had much influence on worker performance and productivity as the production system. Some researchers and business managers saw the problem in different terms. Some found

that motivation related to the individual values and attitudes of workers themselves. For that reason, researchers concentrated on identifying the human factors that would stimulate people to be more productive. Another important finding was a sense of belonging or being part of a group was essential to one's job satisfaction.

As researchers became more aware of the importance of people to the success of organisations, a lot of effort was made to communicate these ideas to practising managers. Unlike scientific management, human relations was based on metaphysical explanations and encouraged people to investigate and discover which way they were going for themselves rather than using established techniques as Wren described (1994: 319):

Human relations was based on intangibles, not on hard, scientific investigation, and there were no final answers, that is, nothing positive or fixed in solutions to human problems.

Thus, the term "human relations" was used to describe an entire approach towards management that emphasised people, human factors, rather than machines. Although both the human relations approach and scientific management examined the problem of increasing productivity, these approaches were thus quite different.

2.2 Managerial Work Studies

There have been many studies of managerial work and what managers do. A review of the historical development of management theory shows that early studies - such as those by Fayol and Taylor - defined management in terms of effective management subjected to personal experience and the ability to systematically analyse the work tasks of managers. Many of these early studies were concerned with understanding what managers did in terms of functions.

2.2.1 Historical studies

A classical management theory and one of the most widely cited in terms of its prescriptions for effective management, as noted earlier, was established by Henri Fayol, a French mining engineer. He attempted to classify managerial activities and introduced the concept of five basic managerial functions which were: planning, organising, co-ordinating, commanding and controlling (Fayol 1916). It is perhaps remarkable that Fayol's approach remained influential in management theory until there was a distinctive break with this prescriptive tradition as a result of a study conducted by Mintzberg (1973) which examined managerial work by focusing on the job rather than the person, on similarities in managerial work rather than differences, and on the content of managerial work rather than its characteristics. Mintzberg (1991: 21) begins from the proposition that:

If you ask managers what they do, they will most likely tell you that they plan, organise, co-ordinate, and control. Then, watch what they do. Don't be surprised if they can't relate what you see to these four words.

This quotation reflects Fayol's view that managers plan, organise, co-ordinate, command and control. However, Mintzberg did not quite agree that there was any connection between these five functions and managers' work - what managers actually do. In general, studies of managerial work from Mintzberg onwards do not attempt to "prescribe" what managers do but to "analyse" what they do. These studies in the managerial work tradition mainly attempt to answer three questions:

- how do managers spend their time and with whom?
- what do managers do? and
- what influences what they do?

To understand how significant Mintzberg's work is, it is first necessary to note that he was not, as such, the pioneer of studies of managerial work in terms of content - what managers "do". Prior to Mintzberg there were many attempts to elicit such aspects of managerial work. Rather, Mintzberg's work acted as a catalyst by which his own work, and earlier studies, received more attention.

Thus, Carlson (1951) conducted one of the first significant empirical studies of managerial work, involving nine Swedish managing directors, using diary recording

forms. He asked the managers to fill out time diaries to record their daily activities as follows:

- place of work;
- contact with persons or institutions (subordinates, customers, etc.);
- technique of communication (direct: personal observations, conversations, regular and ad hoc conferences, telephone calls; indirect: via persons, via papers);
- nature of question handled being: a) field of activity or functional area (finance, production, personnel, etc.); b) development of current operations; and c) policy or application); and
- kind (or content) of action (getting information, advising and explaining, taking decisions, giving orders).

These areas of his interests became a model for later studies. For example, Burns (1954) analysed the relationships of four middle managers in one department group of an engineering factory for a period of five weeks, also using the diary method of recording. A weakness of the diary method used in the study lay in the inaccuracy of the time recorded for tasks by the four managers because each manager decided the allocation of time for himself. Burns tried to overcome this weakness by making cross references among the four managers' records and taking the differences into account. However, the results still only constituted an estimate of the time spent by managers on their tasks: Burns discovered that managers were very poor at estimating their own time usage. He assumed that the managers' estimates were related to the expenditure

of effort that derived from demands made on their energy and capacity rather than on their time. Each manager's estimate of his own time spent on production was closer to actual findings. Most of the group, particularly the two senior managers, thought that production absorbed most of the time of the others. Burns found that on average the four managers spent 80 % of total time recorded in conversation. The records showed that one third of their time was spent on production and a sixth on personnel. Burns found that there was a restriction in the range of contact within the department, no member of the selected managers seeing more than a third of the total personnel, half of whom had no recorded contact with any of the four managers over the five week period. There was a remarkable tendency for interaction to be initiated downwards rather than upwards. The even balance at the same status level served to maintain communication circuits among groups of equivalent status which crossed departmental boundaries. The communication "leaked" from level to level through contact individuals and the ground at a lower level was prepared for likely action. Furthermore, Burns' finding that the group overestimated the time it spent on production and underestimated the time it spent on personnel, indicated a lack of awareness of the extent of their absorption in internal problems of "human relationships". Most of the interaction of the executives inside the department was internalised within a staff group of fourteen; and two-fifths of it was further internalised within the executive group itself. Moreover, the executives tended to "stay inside" physically as well as socially - that is, within the walls of the office. A second study by Burns (1957) carried out using the same method involved a larger sample of seventy-six senior and middle managers. In this study Burns found that a

senior management group spent half of the total time spent in conversation and with people within the concern, whereas junior managers spent more time issuing instructions and decisions than the senior managers did.

The main findings of both studies were that managers spent a high proportion of time on conversation, and much horizontal and parallel communication. Also, Burns revealed that managers had a tendency to spend considerable time with a selected group of other managers. He established a picture of managerial work that depicted managers as poor at estimating their own time allocation, especially that time spent on human relationships. What Carlson and Burns found in common was that managers tended to be reactive rather than proactive. They spent a large amount of their time communicating with others, they had few periods of uninterrupted time, and the nature of their work was highly fragmented.

Copeman (1963) used the diary method for a comparison of the work of fifty-eight chief executives and department heads. He found that the chief executives spent more time (fifty-three hours per week) than the department heads (forty-three hours per week) on their jobs. Likewise, the executives spent more time writing and planning, but less drafting reports. They spent the same amount of time as department heads in contacts with subordinates, but spent 1.5% of their time with superiors while department heads spent 14.5%, and more time with their colleagues (16% versus 10.5%).

Dubin and Spray (1964) studied eight American senior and middle managers for two weeks and attempted to establish how they spent their time. They found that higher-level managers were less likely to concentrate their time on a single activity. There was no increasing tendency at the higher levels to spend time in horizontal relationships. The finding was in contrast with Burns' study (1954). Managers at all levels spent substantial time in these relationships. Dubin and Spray concluded about other variations in managerial work that top executives and those employed in client-centred industries were more frequently in contact with people outside the organisation than their subordinates, whereas functional specialisation allowed the particular executive to spend long periods of time performing his special tasks without need to contact or co-ordinate with others.

Horne and Lupton (1965) used diaries to study sixty-six British middle managers for one week, concluding among other things that these men were not overworked and that the time spent in particular functional areas indicated specialisation by type of manager (for example, personnel) but not by level. In addition, these researchers made an explicit attempt to study content, using FOUR, a substitute for POSDCORB. The POSDCORB is an acronym developed, by Luther Gulick (1937), for various functional elements of the work of an executive. POSDCORB stands for the following activities:

- planning;
- organising;

- staffing;
- directing;
- co-ordinating;
- reporting; and
- budgeting

Hence, FOUR stands for formulating, organising, unifying and regulating. These were the consequence of Henri Fayol's study - managerial activity core functions: planning, organising, commanding and controlling. Horne and Lupton suggested that the managers spent a great amount of their time on non-formulating activities. The managers in the study listed "regulating" to some degree more frequently and "organising" rather less frequently. To sum up, Horne and Lupton's study suggested that the systematic self-recording of activity enabled the researcher to more thoroughly understand managers' activities. In addition, they argued that their results had practical implications as showed many of the managers in their study could re-organise themselves and their department after they examined their records.

Thomason (1966) attempted to produce generalisations about managerial work roles and relationships. His two main assumptions were that managerial activities and communications formed a pattern and were not randomly distributed through time; and the data attained by self-recording or observation were sufficiently valid and reliable since Burns' studies had shown how managers apparently made wrong estimates of their time spent. Thus, Thomason conducted a series of studies of various

patterns of managers in the area of communication. The studies consisted of eight studies carried out by members of the Churchill College Management Course attempting to measure their activities. The samples varied in size and the quality of data collected by the students varied considerably.

Studies of this set led Thomason to conclude that communication structures look like a patch-work strip of centres and gaps with a recurring pattern of communications extending down the hierarchy. In contrast to the previous three researchers (Carlson, Burns and Dubin), these series of studies suggested that a managerial position should be considered in terms of the activities associated with the position and that the distribution of amounts and directions of communications in a hierarchy were subject to some distortion. In addition, Thomason verified variations in job by functional area. He found that the time spent on production decreased while time spent on policy increased as managers move up the hierarchy. His significant conclusion is that communication centres may be the centre for specialised information. The overall hierarchy becomes a composite of different subject-oriented, communications networks, with the centre of this network lying at the point of the hierarchy to which the subject is allowed or required to penetrate.

Kelly (1964) used activity sampling to study the work of four section managers of the Glacier Metal Company. The activity sampling involved random and momentary observations of activities. During a three week period, Kelly made two thousand eight hundred observations to collect data similar in nature to that associated with the diary

method. His main finding was that the job determines what managers do, not an individual required style. Thus, in his view, the job is the principal determinant structure to the behaviour of section managers and personal factors are of limited significance in determining managers' behaviour.

During the 1970s, Mintzberg (1973) and Stewart (1976) contributed their distinguished research to the study of management. Stewart in particular conducted many pieces of research concerning managerial behaviour. Although both made an effort to understand managerial work, they put emphasis on different aspects of managerial activities and approached such activity in different ways. Mintzberg was interested in similarities of the job whereas Stewart was interested in differences. While Mintzberg (1973) adopted structured observation methods to mark down key characteristics in the nature of managerial work, Stewart (1976) adopted the use of the activity diary as her main method in order to elicit an understanding of the underlying constructs which affect managerial work. Both techniques have been popularly used among management researchers (the diary method as we have seen has an established popularity: as will be shown later, observational techniques are a more recent innovation). Whereas Stewart's studies offered new insights into managerial work, her research also reinforced the findings of early studies, namely that managers tended to be reactive rather than proactive, spent a large amount of time (60-90%) communicating with others; had few periods of uninterrupted time; and experienced their work as highly fragmented. However, her studies indicated that managerial work might vary both with function and level. A picture of managerial work emerged as

having a number of general characteristics but there were distinct differences between type of manager, those in different functions and at different levels in the hierarchy. Stewart's research was significant for understanding how managers allocated their time.

As with earlier studies, Stewart employed the diary method. Stewart (1967) studied the way in which 160 senior and middle managers spent their time for a period of four weeks. She made almost no attempt to study work content. In this study she analysed the results of twenty five variables and identified specific "types" of manager based on different activities such as a planner, a generalist or a multispecialist. Each type had a distinct work pattern. She classified the managers into five categories:

- **The Emissaries:** these managers spent much of their time away from the company, dealing with and entertaining outsiders. They worked longer hours than any of the other groups, but mainly on travelling and entertaining. Their days were less fragmented than other groups except "The Writers". Typical of this group were the sales managers and senior managers who acted as public figures.
- **The Writers:** these managers spent a greater deal of their time in writing, reading, dictating, and figure-work. They were solitary by comparison with other managers. They spent the least time in group contacts. They worked shorter hours and were less subject to day-to-day pressures. Staff specialists or those who manage them -

the assistant manager of a computing branch, the chief electrical engineer belonged to this group.

- **The Discussers:** these were the average managers. They spent most of their time with other people and particularly with their colleagues that they could be called the “horizontal” group. They carried out a diverse range of activities. Many types of managers could fit in this group.
- **The Trouble Shooters:** these managers’ work was most fragmented, hence they spent more time coping with crises. They spent much time with their subordinates and less with colleagues. A relatively large amount of their time was spent on inspection. Most of the production people fell into this group.

The Committee-men: these managers were notably different from the other groups in two respects: their wide range of internal contacts and the large amount of time spent in group discussions. They spent a great amount of their time in committee meetings. Their contacts were both vertical and horizontal but they had few contacts outside the company. These managers in the study were found exclusively in larger companies.

Stewart (1982) aimed to provide a new way of thinking about the nature and the diversity of managerial work and about how managers actually perform such work. She claimed the existence of choices in managerial work had important implications for the way managers treated their jobs. She described managers as “intuitive

responders” since they were not generally aware of the choices that were at hand to them. Most of the managers she interviewed revealed that they had no plan for their jobs. This concept is directly in contrast to the distinctive work of Kotter (1982) that general managers developed “agendas” - a term to describing the personal objectives which are mental constructs that act as the basis for plans of operation - and then subsequently developed a “networks” of contacts to implement these agendas.

Kotter (1982) whose comprehensive observations of fifteen general managers derived from research conducted over several years found that successful managers could be very different in terms of personal characteristics and behaviours. Kotter suggested that general managers were not generalists. They were specialised to fit job demands. Each general manager had an extensive knowledge of business and a network of relationships with other people in that business. He used the term “demands” to describe these patterns in the work of the 15 general managers he observed. In addition, Kotter argued that the complexity of the job responsibilities and relationships that formed important and difficult sets of demands, challenges and dilemmas were:

- setting basic goals, policies, and strategies despite great uncertainties;
- balancing the allocation of scarce resources, no short-run concerns;
- keeping on top of diverse sets of activities and identifying problems;
- getting information and support from superiors and being demanding without giving an uncooperative image;

- getting things done through large and diverse groups of people; and
- motivating good performance and appraising performance, and handling conflict.

The activities that Kotter identified as demands and rules are remarkably similar to the traditional management functions of planning, co-ordinating, staffing, directing and controlling. He suggested that business trends show increasing job demands. Because of corporate diversification and growth, technological advancement, and global competition, the general manager's job responsibilities have become more complex. Kotter revealed differences in responsibilities and relationships that caused job demands to diverge, such as product or market diversity, organisational size, age, performance level, level of profitability, and the nature of organisation's culture. However, although these uneven forces influenced job demands, they did not eliminate them. Kotter concluded that managers developed agendas, consequences, and tasks necessary to accomplish organisational objectives by meeting demands which were influenced by other factors. One interesting point proposed in this study was that Kotter asserted that successful general managers were both "born" and "made". Kotter argued that basic personality and family background were major attributes to a general manager's success as well as educational experiences and organisational career paths.

2.2.2 Managerial roles and activities

Henry Mintzberg's classic book, The Nature of Managerial Work (1973), focused on an in-depth examination of the daily activities of five chief executives of organisations which ranged in nature and activity from research and development of technological products for industry to a large suburban school system. As mentioned earlier, Mintzberg attempted to focus his study on the job rather than the person, on basic similarities in manager's work rather than on differences, and on the essential content of the work rather than its characteristics. Mintzberg encountered the problem of interpretation of observations and found it difficult to shape his model. One reason for this difficulty was the complexity of the positions observed. Another derived from the limitations of structured observation as a research method. Also, confidentiality of information; complexity of organisation, or exclusion from meetings, and effects of the presence of the researcher all possibly limited the validity of the data collected. Despite these difficulties, the value of Mintzberg's study lies in its empirical analysis of managerial behaviour.

The research methodology used in this study was known as "structured observation". Being provided with "preliminary data" relating to the executives' appointment schedule; information about the organisation; and background information about the manager, Mintzberg, during the work week, recorded anecdotal data on the manager who was observed. The anecdotal data was meant to give explicit detail of "critical or interesting incidents". Also, background notes were recorded during informal discussions with the managers. The process of recording and coding of observations

was carefully designed by using three records to record these data in order to cross reference the collected data as Mintzberg explained (1973: 232-3):

The chronology record described activity patterns and cross-referenced the other two records. The mail record described each piece of incoming and outgoing mail. The contact record described each verbal contact.

Thus, Mintzberg's "structured observation" brought together the flexibility of open-ended observation with the discipline of seeking certain types of structured data. As a research technique "structured observation" appears to offer a considerable number of advantages over questionnaires and diary studies as Mintzberg remarked (1973:227):

However, in most of these studies an approach similar to that of the diary researchers was used - the recording categories were predetermined. The only real difference was that recording was done by the researcher instead of the manager. This avoided some of the problems of the diary studies, but not the basic one of being able to find out only about time distribution of those dimensions of the job already understood. But structured observation can draw also on the chief strength of unstructured observation, namely, the development of categorization schemes during and after observation.

Mintzberg's findings refuted Fayol's theory which managers, practitioners and researchers believed and still believe, that managers plan, organise, command, co-ordinate and control. Mintzberg's study showed that managerial activities did not fall into this circle. Instead, ten managerial roles emerged according to the manager's work which was principally characterised by brevity, variety and fragmentation. In

addition, his results were a stunning theory of this period. The introduction of social psychological concepts exposed management research to a wide range of new research techniques and methods. One of the advantages of observation technique over diary method is that the observation approach provides an insight into managerial behaviour. Accordingly, the psychological approach has become more important in research methods such as the use of participant observation and field experiments which allow for more effective insights into what managers do.

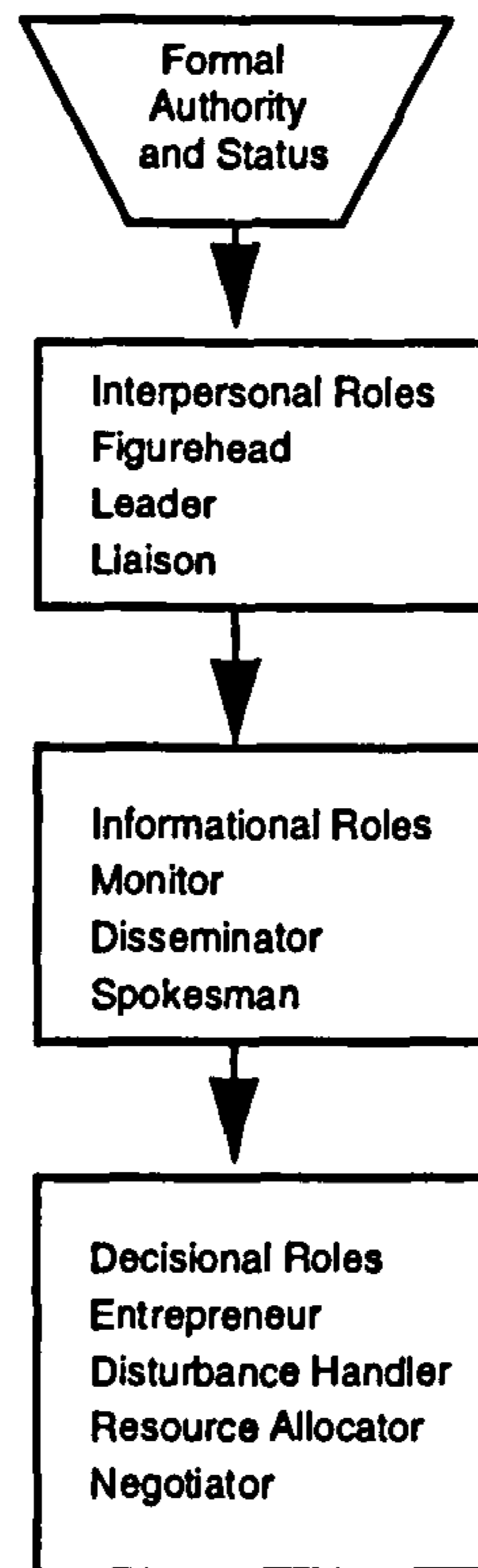
Furthermore, the study allowed Mintzberg to (a) construct a detailed chronology of managerial work characteristics on a basis of time allocation; (b) analyse the activities of managers; and (c) identify the purpose of each activity. Imperatively, the purpose of the activity was the key to the categorisation and the description of the essential content of managerial activity - what the five managers in the study did - and this led to the development of the theory of the ten managerial roles which is shown in Figure 2.4. Each of these roles derives from the managers' position of formal authority in the organisation and involves a number of distinct action responsibilities. Figure 2.5 shows the application of the manager's formal authority and status and the ten managerial roles.

Figure 2.4 Mintzberg's ten managerial roles

Interpersonal roles	
Figurehead	Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of legal or social nature
Leader	Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties
Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favors and information
Informational roles	
Monitor	Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organization and environment; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information of organization
Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organization; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organizational influencers
Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions results, etc.; serves as expert on organization's industry
Decisional roles	
Entrepreneur	Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change; supervises, design of certain projects as well
Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances
Resource allocator	Responsible for the allocation of organizational resources of all kinds- in effect the making or approval of all significant organizational decisions
Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations

Source: Mintzberg, H., The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper & Row (1973: 92-3)

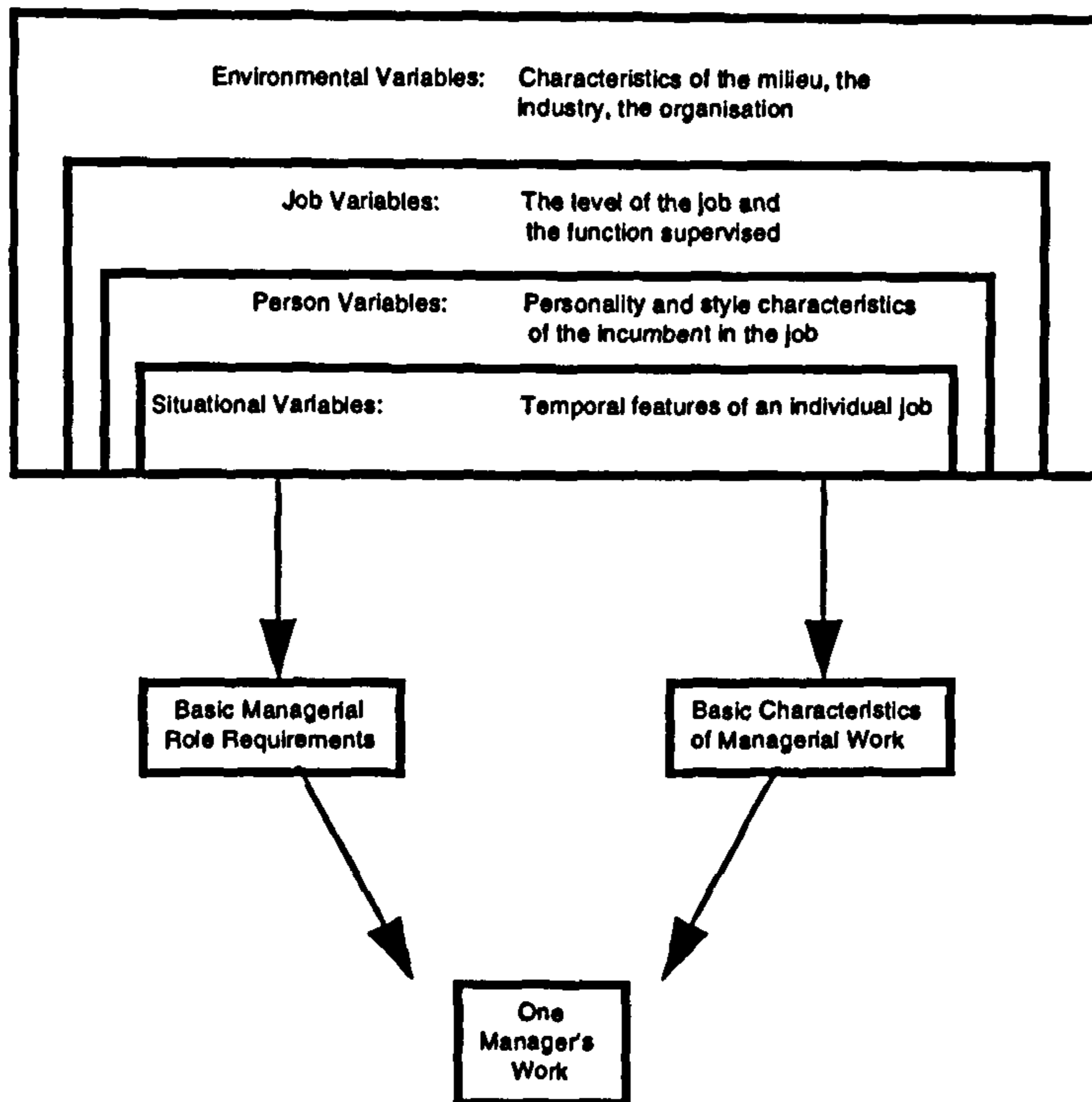
Figure 2.5 The Manager's Roles



Source: Mintzberg, H., The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper & Row (1973: 59)

From his observations, Mintzberg developed a contingency view of managerial work as shown in Figure 2.6. This figure illustrates Mintzberg's classification of factors which he called "four nested sets of variables" influencing the manager's work. He specified the "four nested sets" as environmental, job, person and situational variables. Mintzberg explained that the work of an individual manager was first broadly influenced by the organisation, its industry and other factors in the environment. Then, the job itself caused work diversions. Next, job variations derived from the person - personality and style. Finally, variations within a particular manager's job were caused by the situation in which it was performed, such as temporary threats.

Figure 2.6 A contingency view of managerial work



Source: Mintzberg, H., The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper & Row (1973: 103)

Principally, a manager's job in any organisation will be busy and demanding. The results from Mintzberg's study on managerial work can be summarised as follows.

- Managers worked long hours: a working week of at least 50 hours was typical, and up to 90 hours was not exceptional. The length of the working week tended to increase as one advanced to higher managerial levels. Heads of organisations often worked the longest hours.
- Managers' work was intense and involved doing many different things during each workday. The busy day of a manager included up to 200 separate incidents or

episodes in an eight-hour period at supervisory levels and at least 20 to 30 for chief executives.

- Managers were often interrupted. Their work was fragmented and variable. Interruptions were frequent and many tasks were completed quickly.
- Managers worked mostly with other people. They spent little time working alone. Time spent with others included working with bosses, peers, subordinates, subordinates of their subordinates, as well as outsiders such as customers, suppliers.
- Managers were communicators. Much of their work was face-to-face verbal communications during formal and informal meetings. They spent a lot of time getting, giving, and processing information. Higher-level managers spent more time in scheduled meetings than lower-level managers.

Mintzberg claimed that the managers' activities were scattered, short-term copings rather than deliberative, analytical, and logical as Fayol had suggested. Rather than engaging in the traditional functions (Fayol's core functions), Mintzberg concluded that managers performed ten roles that could be described under three general categories: interpersonal, informational and decisional. The interpersonal role arose from the manager's formal authority and occurred when a manager dealt with others as a figurehead, leader, or liaison. The informational role involved the manager's

receiving, storing and sending information as a monitor, disseminator, or spokesman. The decisional role involved making decisions about organisational activities as an entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, or negotiator. One disadvantage of Mintzberg's study is that his sample size is too small to be generalised. Although the notion of managers performing certain roles has an insightful application, other investigations into Mintzberg's conclusions have not always been supportive of this approach as Wren argues (1994: 357):

His findings were based on only five chief executives - there is no reason to believe that this group represented typical managers; and the roles were based on observed behavior without asking the purpose of that activity.

On the other hand, Ley (1978: 54, 57) found Mintzberg's study was insightful:

As can be seen, the roles were inductively derived from analysis of identifiable activities, as well as from the results of previous work activity studies which had hinted at the importance of certain role categories (e.g. Horne and Lupton, 1965, and the informational roles). That Mintzberg succeeded in both his description of managerial behaviour and his inductive reasoning can perhaps best be asserted by the acclaim accorded him by his academic peers and practising managers, and by the subsequent research generated by his study.

Weick (1975: 111), in a review of Mintzberg's The Nature of Managerial Work (1973) (based on Mintzberg's 1968 study), has stated:

rarely has the field of Organisational Behaviour had better evidence of the value of description and induction that is found in Mintzberg's book.

On the contrary, Dann (1990: 323) presents another view as follows:

... There have been constant methodological and interpretative problems involved with answering the question what do managers do? Not the least of these is that managerial functions have consistently proved themselves resistant to observation. Both the frameworks of Fayol (1949) and Mintzberg (1973) have been found wanting when methodologically applied to imprecise; and some more recent work has attempted to refine some of the terms that are used in the description of managerial functions (Larson et al. 1982)...

Critics are therefore divided as to whether Mintzberg's research methodology is as significant to managerial work studies as has been claimed. This is because the structured observation method has both advantages and disadvantages. However, the most crucial problem of Mintzberg's study seems to be the limited sample size. However, if we turn this weakness into a challenge it could encourage other researchers in this field to test Mintzberg's generalizations and to seek to overcome the limitation of this method. We do not know how many of Mintzberg's 28 propositions about managerial work could apply to managers in similar job, and in what situations these propositions are true. Overall, the observation method did give more impact and insight to Mintzberg's study. Obviously, this method enabled him to explore managerial work in a different way than that characterising classical and

human relations theories. Also, it should be noted that Mintzberg was aware of the limitation of the observation method (1973: 231):

Structured observation was chosen as the method for this study because it made it possible to develop theory inductively, to observe and question intensively where necessary, and to be systematic. The method restricted the sample size, and, as a result, less quantitative data on job characteristics was generated than would have been done by a comparable diary study. But I was happy to trade off this kind of data in return for more powerful data on activity content. The trade-off was for depth at the expense of breadth, a necessary one given the objective of describing work content.

2.2.3 Managerial networks

Another interesting point raised by the study of management is the nature of managerial networks. Managers enact roles and fulfil their action responsibilities through relationships with other persons inside and outside of the organisation. Kotter (1982) found the general managers in his study allocated significant time and effort to developing their networks because they were considered as a means to implement agendas and getting their jobs done. In Mintzberg's study (1973), one of the ten managerial roles, liaison, could be considered as a network building. Stewart (1982: 108) also being aware of the importance of managerial networks, compared how British and American managers developed and maintained their network in an interesting way:

Mintzberg described “liaison” contacts “to gain favours and information” as one of the ten managerial roles that he identified. Sayles (1964) gave the most extended and searching account of the importance of the manager’s network of contacts...The one enduring objective of the manager is the effort to build and maintain a predictable, reciprocating system of relationships... It should be, but in our experience it is not often recognized as an objective. It may be that British managers tend to be less conscious of this objective than the American managers about whom Mintzberg and Sayles were writing.

2.3 Managerial work studies in the hospitality industry

Many people believe that hospitality industry is unique and different from other industries. This is because the hospitality industry involves subjective products and services. The products are intangible and consist of social interaction (Worsfold 1989). Therefore, it is interesting to examine if the characteristics that Mintzberg (1973), Stewart (1967, 1980, 1982) and Kotter (1980) identified in their studies (such as managerial roles; job demands, constraints and choices; and agendas and networks) could relate to the hospitality industry.

Reviewing literature of managerial work in the hospitality industry, Nailon’s study in 1968 would be considered an initial examination of the time usage and patterns of contact of hotel general managers. His study applied a similar framework to Mintzberg’s to carry out the application to the hospitality industry. Nailon’s stated purpose was to develop a methodology for the study of hotel managers’ activities. However, the work tended to be more concerned with a study of time usage and

contact patterns. Nailon compared work in the hospitality industry with results from other managerial work research. Nailon examined the work activities of hotel managers by analysing six areas of:

- method and means used for each activity;
- time and duration of each activity occurred;
- duration of time involving functional area;
- duration of time involving content;
- time spent in different locations; and
- interaction time with others.

He aimed to study eight hotel managers in England. For reasons such as withdrawal of support and changes of management, the study had to reduce the original set sample size of eight managers to just three. Nailon used a diary method to collect his data for over three periods of a working week (in July, August and September). The diary form he used contained five headings: function; content; location; activity and interaction. He asked participants to record events which lasted for a minimum period of 5 minutes. Nailon explained the nature of the hotel general managers' work in terms of the immediate work environment.

His study showed managers spending more time on external activities and substantial amounts of time on supervision but rather less on personal interactions than in other managerial work studies. The managers in Nailon's study spent less time in their

offices and more time with customers than did those in the general studies. Also, he summarised the work of general managers as being engaged in a continuous monitoring of their unit through fleeting contacts and frequent movement about their establishment. Nailon therefore provides an important starting point for the activity analysis of hospitality managers.

The work of Ley (1978), was the second major study of managerial work in the hospitality industry and was heavily influenced by the work of Mintzberg (1973). Ley conducted a structured observation study of seven hotel general managers in the US over a period of 3-5 days each during the peak business months of July and August. In contrast with Nailon's study (1968), the major strength of Ley's work is its methodology which uses the same instrument as Nailon (1968). However, Ley applies Nailon's (1968) diary method as a basis for structured observation, rather than as a self-completion diary. Ley was more interested in the observation technique than the diary method since he believed the observation methodology would offer greater insights into managerial work.

By developing a potential application in the structured observation approach used by Mintzberg, he added to this a further document, which was the Structured Data Form, which allowed him to note the purpose of the activity using Mintzberg's activity/role analysis approach. Ley (1978) attempted to control key variables which had a major influence on the activities of the managers by limiting the number of variables which directly affected it. Hence, he consciously predetermined to study managers from one

industry, one company, at one hierarchical level, and just two main geographical locations. Ley asked senior members of the management of the hotel chain to rank each of the managers in the study as highly effective, effective or less effective. Lastly, he asked each manager to judge their own use of time. His study found that those managers who spent a proportionally higher amount of time on the entrepreneur role tended to be more effective. Similarly, those who spent higher amounts of time on the leader role were less effective. In terms of the characteristics of the managerial job he verified the findings of both Nailon (1968) (specifically) and Mintzberg (1973) (generally) that the role of (hotel) manager is rapid in pace, having many interruptions, being one of action rather than reflection and concerned with verbal rather than written communication.

Similarly influenced by Mintzberg (1973) was the work of Arnaldo (1981). Arnaldo conducted a postal questionnaire of 194 hotel managers in America. He asked each of them about their personal details; about the measures which were used to judge their effectiveness; and to rate each of Mintzberg's (1973) ten roles against their use of time and their perceived importance. The basic problem with the last part of this is that managers have been consistently shown to have a very limited ability to judge their own use of time. Also the ability of managers to consistently perceive each of Mintzberg's roles in a similar way seems highly unlikely. As with Ley's study, Arnaldo concluded that the leader role was seen as both the most important and the most time-consuming. Similarly, he found the entrepreneurial role to be important

although relatively less time-consuming. This supported the importance of the entrepreneur role in Ley's work (1978).

Worsfold (1989), using Mintzberg's approach to managerial behaviour, conducted a similar study of 31 hotel general managers of a major UK hotel group. The hotels were mainly in Scotland and England and varied in size. A semi-structured interview was employed to collect data about biographical, personal and management style characteristics. Worsfold found that the managers in his study were "consultative" and "easy going". Also, his results showed the managers in the sample were concerned for people and sociable and communicative and should have some facilities to influence and motivate their staff. The leadership style identified in this study ranged from "autocratic", "easy going", to "charismatic". Worsfold suggested that autocratic could apply to most hotel managers and a task orientated leadership style would be the most effective for the hospitality industry. He also argued that the image of the hotel and catering industry as being people oriented with a need to maintain good interpersonal relations would suggest the need for high scores on consideration, a measure of the extent to which a manager will have relationships with subordinate (i.e. mutual trust, respect and consideration of feelings). Worsfold concluded that there was a conflict for managers in the hospitality industry. The conflict was working in a personality intensive industry with the requirement to establish rules and regulations for the maintenance of standards. He suggested that this conflict could be resolved by effective managers who use a combination of decision, centralisation and initiating structure, both of which are acceptable because of their high scores on consideration.

Shortt (1989) also applied Mintzberg's approach of the ten managerial roles to examine work activities of hotel managers in Northern Ireland. This study employed the Managerial Work Survey (MWS) as a main instrument. This instrument was developed by McCall et al. (1980) (cited in Shortt 1989) to examine the content of managerial work activity. Items in this instrument were designed to analyse managerial work and were based on the results of a direct observation study which enabled a better picture of managerial job content. Shortt mailed the MWS to a 20% random sample of 190 managers as a pre-test in Northern Ireland. Then, the modified questionnaire was sent to the remaining 152 managers and 62 returned usable responses. Instead of the "leader" role, which has been prominent in the literature on managerial work, the "disturbance handler" role was considered to be the most important role in this study. The entrepreneur role was rated second and the leader role came third. These findings reflect the fact that managers in this study were highly involved with change and crises drawn from the external environment.

Another piece of research on managerial work roles, a comparative study of Korean and American hotel general managers, was conducted by Sang Mu Kim (1994). His study was also influenced by Mintzberg's (1973) work. The purpose of this study was to explore the statistical profile of tourist hotel general managers in Korea that would identify:

- the demographic characteristics of the general managers;
- the aspects of general managers' job satisfaction; and

- the general manager's allocation of importance to ten managerial roles to enable a comparison of the characteristics and uniqueness of Korean and American hotel general managers.

The questionnaire was distributed to hotel general managers, a total of 150 who participated in the "Korean Tourist Hotel General Managers Seminar" conducted by the Korean Tourist Association (KTA) in 1992. General managers from hotel sites all over Korea were represented at the seminar.

Kim's results show that the general managers in the study had a high degree of satisfaction with their present job although they changed jobs frequently. The older general managers felt a higher degree of job satisfaction than the younger ones. This shows that there was a relationship between the number of years spent in the industry, the number of years in the present job and job satisfaction. Similar to Ruddy (1990), Kim also found that the more qualified general managers have a higher degree of job satisfaction. The more educated general managers also rated a higher degree of job satisfaction.

When analysing managerial roles, the leader role clearly assimilated more time than any other interpersonal role and was also thought to be the most important. The informational roles, both monitoring and disseminating were said to be relatively time absorbing and important, while that of spokesman consumed less time and was considered correspondingly less important. Kim's study shows that Mintzberg's

framework can be applied to Asian managers. The comparison of these results with the American general managers made the study more interesting because the allocation of time and importance to ten managerial roles were similar, except the role of figurehead and negotiator which were revealed as relatively time-consuming and important from Korean general managers. The leader role was the most important role than that received the highest ranking. Finally, Kim (1994) concluded that the general managers apparently believed that their effectiveness and the success of their properties rested on their ability to motivate and direct the hotel staff members directly responsible for the execution of hotel operations.

In short then, it can be seen that Mintzberg's framework can be applied in hospitality management research as reviewed above. Mintzberg's roles are applicable to hotel managers. This could indicate that hotel managers are similar to managers in other industries and they are reactive rather than proactive.

2.3.1 Studies of hospitality managers' personality profile and characteristics

This chapter, overall, concentrates on two key issues which are (a) what managers actually do and (b) factors that influence their effectiveness. The previous section reviewed studies which dealt with theories of managerial work and explored what managers do and how they use their time. This section discusses studies which deal with factors that influence managers' effectiveness.

Hales & Nightingale (1986) and Hales (1987), reported two stages of the same research. The first study attempted to understand the managerial job in terms of the expectations of those in the role set of the manager. The authors studied the nature of unit management work in the hospitality industry. The focus of their study was on unit managers, those who managed a single, definable, unit operation. The study covered six organisations from different sectors of the hospitality industry: a family restaurant chain, a hotel chain, a steak-house chain, school meals, hospital catering and contract catering. Hales & Nightingale (1986) conducted a total of 121 interviews by studying the role set. They identified the "role set" as "relevant" and "exhaustive". Relevant included specific persons, with whom or for whom the manager works, occupying specific positions within the organisation or its outside environment. Exhaustive consisted of all those who had role requirements of the managers. Finally, the results was presented as a role set diagram which comprised General manager, Regional manager, Area manager, Marketing manager, Deputy assistant manager, Trainee manager, Grill cook, Washer up, Waitress, Customers, Training manager and Account Department. They asked representatives of each category of member of the role set to state their expectations or demands which they make upon the subject manager. The representatives were also asked to indicate the strength of the role requirement. Hales & Nightingale used the results from the interviews to formulate a model which they called a managerial wheel. They found that (a) there was a large number of conflicting role expectations of managers; (b) there was a mass of competing demands which makes the job conflicting and fragmented; (c) there was a variation between different sectors in terms of tasks and activities; and (d) there were some differences between

the public and private sectors in terms of the emphasis and substance in the expectations of members of the manager's role set. In short, Hales & Nightingale argued that the role sets and managerial wheels can be used as a technique which is well suited for investigating role demands and expectations which surround managers' jobs.

In the second study, Hales (1987) attempted to relate these expectations to the pattern of work undertaken in terms of the demands, constraints and choices framework developed by Stewart (1976). The results of Hales' study derived from a pilot study on managerial work undertaken for the Hotel and Catering Institutional Management Association and the Hotel and Catering Industry Training Board, in the UK hotel and catering industry. In this study, Hales (1987) compared the job of family restaurant chain unit manager and hospital domestic services manager by listing work tasks and activities in order of strength of expectation, indicating the sources of these expectations and whether they were acknowledged by the manager. Then, these work tasks and activities were compared to the proportion of time spent on them by the manager. Differences would be expected in the time spent on areas of work where the weight of role demands were substantially different. Hales found that the restaurant manager expected to spend more time on financial administration whereas the domestic services manager expected to spend more time on general involvement in the organisation and in acting as a channel of organisational information. Furthermore, Hales illustrated these expected differences in the form taken by work in the two jobs. He concluded that the restaurant manager's work was basically static, based on a

small office, spending time on desk-based paperwork while the domestic services manager's work was more mobile, involving frequent touring of the hospital and a high proportion of time spent on face-to-face contacts. This approach placed an intense emphasis on the nature of the demands which a manager faced in his job. In conclusion, both the work of Hales & Nightingale (1986) and Hales (1987) indicated that there were differences between the various sectors of the industry both in terms of demands from the job and the way in which the job was subsequently carried out.

Joseph Ruddy (1990) aimed to provide insights into the hotel manager's role and his research has implications for management development programmes designed to produce the general managers of tomorrow. He administered a questionnaire to the general managers of 107 hotels in South East Asia; Hong Kong, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Thailand. His respondents comprised six female general managers and 101 men. Following Kotter's concept of general managers implementing agendas and developing personal networks, the emphasis of Ruddy's study was placed upon the time managers spent in communication skills, delegation, decision making and self-discipline. He suggested that these variables were vital to management development in terms of helping senior managers perform effectively in a general management role. Ruddy found that the success of the hotel general managers in this study emerged from personal networks and these general managers were cultivators of interpersonal networks. Communication was the most frequently mentioned activity in this research as well as the interpersonal aspects of managing - dealing with people, directing, handling conflicts, hiring and firing and the like. Ruddy concluded

that these skills were found to be the hardest to master. He suggested that this finding pointed directly at the realities of managing a hotel - dealing effectively with others who exercise power and influence demands a network of assistants, confidantes, trusted subordinates and friends. Also, the emphasis the general managers in his study gave to interacting with others was such that three of the ten most frequently mentioned activities were "reading", "paperwork" and "thinking". The respondents also placed qualities related to their personal characteristics and behaviour highest on their list of career influences. Finally and most importantly, he concluded that career success derived from manager's motivational drive - his or her need to achieve results - as well as interpersonal skills and communication ability.

There is a problem with Ruddy's study, because the term "being successful" is difficult to define. How can one know what are the variables and criteria of success? There was no indicator of how the hotel managers in this study could be defined as "successful". Nevertheless, Ruddy's study does reflect the fact that the key influences which led to the managers' career ladder and contributed to their effective performance were their personal constructs and the deeply felt need to achieve results.

Since personnel are a critical instrument of human resource development, the characteristics of hospitality managers are as important as their international expertise on the job. Swanljung (1981) studied the career paths of a selected group of hotel executives in order to determine the factors which significantly affected their career ladders. He concluded that these executives initially held positions in several

departments before their promotions to general manager. These routes were accounting and finance, marketing, and food and beverage. Changing companies was mentioned as one of the factors in getting promotion. It is very interesting to see that most of the executives had worked for several different companies before achieving an executive position. By doing so, it added credit to their “fast track” to the corporate office. Likewise, Swanljung identified the important “success” traits of these executives, namely that they were hard working, fair and able to motivate others. Both technical and managerial knowledge was as crucial as administrative capability, and delegation was significant to their professional success. The executives in his study also regarded entrepreneurial qualities as vital to their success.

In a similar study, Berger and Ferguson (1986) traced the characteristics of restaurant managers in order to determine how they managed their professional and personal time. Again, hard work and discipline were as important as attitude in ensuring career success. In order to cope with the stress from the business, it was important for managers to be relaxed, calm, friendly, flexible and easy-going. Moreover, fairness, the ability to motivate people, honesty and sensitivity were identified as the essence of a restaurant managers’ personal attributes. Berger and Ferguson found that managers regarded managing their time as the most difficult routine task. More than half of their respondents kept their schedules flexible. They were ready to give time to unplanned events that interrupted their schedules. In addition, the majority of restaurateurs committed their time to their business but they placed an emphasis on the quality of time spent with their family. The significance of this study is that the managers in

Berger and Ferguson's study found their jobs to be fragmented by interruptions, but planning and organising were important to what they did. Also, planning was a continuous process that they had to do every day of the week.

From Ruddy's, Swanljung's and Berger and Ferguson's studies, it can be concluded that hospitality managers share common characteristics. They should be hard workers, honest, sensitive, friendly, easy-going and flexible in order to cope with the stress and time constraints imposed by the business which has long and irregular hours of work. Furthermore, they should be able to motivate people and have good communication skills as well as technical and managerial knowledge for their career success.

To sum up, this chapter has discussed the key literature on the following topics:

- managerial behaviour and work activities;
- time and contact patterns of managers from general management studies to hospitality industry;
- significant management theories of Taylor and of Fayol which have dominated other later management studies;
- Mintzberg's management perspective in contrast with Fayol's;
- managers' time allocations in the hospitality industry; and
- characteristics and career paths of hospitality managers, identifying factors that contributed to their success.

As noted in the earlier discussion on managerial work studies, there is, in the methodological approach to the study of managers, a relatively clear sequential path beginning with studies which are concerned with time usage, developing into those studying functions and concluding with attempts to place managerial work within a contextual framework. Research has addressed the characteristics of managerial work that can apply in the hotel industry. Overall, these managerial studies have sought to answer questions of how hotel managers spend their time and what contact patterns they develop. However, there is still a need for a study which investigates what influences the nature of managerial work. There is a need, a challenge and an opportunity for new research to explore the nature of managerial work in hospitality services because the studies mentioned earlier offer an incomplete picture of managerial work in this industry. This study attempts to answer the general question of what do managers do with their time at least in part. However, another aim of this particular work is to study the decision processes used by managers to schedule their time and what influences their priorities.

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Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The focus of this study is on the work patterns of Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers of luxury hotels in Thailand. It involves investigating the emphasis of time spent on various work activities and work roles of the hotel general managers as well as investigating how these managers perceive their roles and how they actually spend their time. Both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection are employed in this study. The use of mixed methods aims to maximise the amount of data collected. According to the appropriateness of access to data, there are three methods utilised in this particular study which will be discussed later at length. These methods comprise a questionnaire, an interview and observation.

3.2 Aims of the Study

The main aim of this research was to discover the work patterns of a sample of Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers of luxury hotels in Thailand by analysing the relationship between the allocation of time spent on their work roles and activities. The study also attempted to compare observations of managerial behaviour with self-perceptions of that behaviour by the general managers in the study. Consequently, the analysis would allow the researcher to compare observed time allocated to specific work roles with perceived time given to those work roles. Since there has been no research of a direct comparison of cultural aspects affecting the effectiveness of hotel

general managers' management in Thailand, the present study also aimed to investigate the cross-cultural factors that influence Thai and non-Thai general managers' work activities. The study of the similarities and differences between general managers' jobs and cultural perspectives might show ways in which the selection and training of hotel general managers could be improved. The study of how managers spend their time could also reflect their efficiency and this could be of use in management development. Hence, this study had three research objectives, namely to:

- analyse general managers' allocation of time spent on work activities in Thai luxury hotels;
- determine the impact of personality and cultural/educational background on the management styles of Thai and non-Thai general managers in Thai luxury hotels; and
- identify hotel general managers' managerial job patterns through the investigation of what general managers do on the job against how they perceive it.

It could be argued that hotel general managers' jobs within the study may not be constantly comparable from manager to manager. It was difficult to determine a manager's use and allocation of time as a means to measure their effectiveness. Each manager had different limitations and constraints. However, the recording and classifying of the hotel general managers' activities and time allocations during

periods of observations could reflect their performance. The observation record could then be a means to identify whether these general managers had comparable jobs or not. In either case, it could be concluded that hotel general managers will differ in the activities and time usage which they emphasise and therefore their behaviour may be said to differ. The differences in behaviour might be foreseen for various reasons. It could be as a result of their unit's operation that hospitality managers may have a broad range of duties and responsibilities as Ley (1978: 67) observed:

This variation in behavior might be expected for the very reason that managers of hospitality establishments have a broad range of duties and responsibilities, some of which they may carry out themselves, some of which they may delegate, and some of which they may ignore in the short run without adverse effects on operational performance.

Likewise, the differences in behaviour of hotel general managers could be from a variety of styles, personal factors or business knowledge of each hotel general manager (Kotter 1982). Based on these observations and related literature, hypotheses can be presented as follows.

- 1) All the general managers in the study judge their managerial effectiveness in terms of their personal constructs, specifically, personal background and education, personal attitude, management style, and career path.

- 2) The non-Thai general managers consider that cultural orientation contributes to their effectiveness, whereas the Thai general managers consider that overseas education and overseas experience contribute to their effectiveness.

- 3) There is no positive correlation between the amount of time allocated to a specific work role and the significance of that role.

From these hypotheses related to the patterns of work role behaviour, the application of the role terminology presented by Mintzberg (1973) in The Nature of Managerial Work will allow the study to examine certain specific issues related to role performance and effectiveness of the hotel general managers in terms of time usage.

3.3 Methodology

As mentioned above, this study used both quantitative as well as qualitative research methods by applying three different methods of data collection: questionnaire, interview and observation. These three methods were used in sequence. First, mailed questionnaires were used to survey ninety-eight hotel general managers (see Appendix A). The questionnaires were used to obtain biographical data and perceptions of Mintzberg's ten managerial work roles. The respondents were asked to provide personal details as well as general data on the hotels they operated and were asked to estimate how they divided their time between different work roles and activities. Second, semi-structured interviews were used to obtain answers to questions which

required more thought, such that a questionnaire would not have been suitable as an information gathering device. Finally, with the kind permission of some general managers, the researcher was able to record what these general managers actually did. The observations were applied to study the allocation of time spent on Mintzberg's ten managerial work roles and activities as well as to investigate how far the managerial work roles actually corresponded with the managers' own perception of these particular roles. In addition, it was intended to establish whether observation would identify whether or not perception and practice coincided. Thus, the questionnaire method aimed to obtain the general managers' profile and relate the general managers' time allocations to Mintzberg's ten managerial roles, while the interview method aimed to achieve an insight of the relationship between time allocations to the specific work roles and management styles. Finally, the observation method was employed to fulfil the in-depth investigation of the hotel general managers' time allocations to specific work roles and relationship of the latter to management style. These three methods were used in this particular sequence in order to generate progressively more specific data. It was intended that the three different methods would support one another and that the use of mixed methods would generate effective results.

3.3.1 Sampling procedures

In order to compare the work patterns and management styles between Thai and non-Thai general managers, certain criteria were set to generalise the population as follows.

1. General managers in the study managed luxury hotels in which the room rate ranges from 3,000 baht (approximately £100) to 45,000 baht, (approximately £1,500) and over. The researcher chose luxury hotels for the sample as luxury hotels in Thailand are of international standard.
2. The general managers represented a wide cross section of local and international chains, independent and contract-management hotels.
3. The size of hotels ranged from small (fewer than 150 rooms) to large (more than 700 rooms).
4. The luxury hotels represented both city and resort hotels.

An introductory letter from the Professor of Hotel Management at The Scottish Hotel School, University of Strathclyde, a request letter for participation in the observation and a written questionnaire were distributed to the general managers of ninety-eight hotels, all members of the Thai Hotel Association, in Thailand during the period November 1994 - March 1995. The total respondent set comprised sixteen Thai

general managers and thirty-four non-Thai general managers. These general managers managed a diverse range of properties and different hotel categories (city hotels, resort hotels, chain hotels, independent hotels, etc.). Fifty from ninety-eight returned as usable responses, a total response rate of 51.02% representing sixteen Thai general managers and thirty-four non-Thai general managers.

3.3.2 Instrument and methods for data collection

3.3.2.1 Questionnaires

A questionnaire was chosen as one of the means of obtaining data because this instrument allowed the researcher to tailor the survey for the particular study. The questionnaire was designed for top level unit management, hotel general managers. Data collected were used to analyse general managers' managerial perceptions of task importance and the time they devoted to specific work roles: figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesman, entrepreneur, disturbance-handler, resource allocator and negotiator.

To ascertain that the questionnaire was formed effectively, without bias and avoiding leading questions, a pilot study and depth-interviews were conducted with two hotel general managers at Moat House International and the Stakis Grosvenor Hotel in Glasgow. With their guidance, constructive criticism and information, a questionnaire

was formulated for the general managers of luxury hotels in Thailand which would generate effective responses.

The general managers were asked to provide information about their personal, educational and professional backgrounds as well as their views concerning Thai culture, importance of time allocation, effective management and their roles and activities according to Mintzberg's model (1973). Consequently, there were some parts of the questionnaire, concerning such issues as work roles and management styles, that involved detailed concepts and which took time to answer. As they were difficult to simplify, there were few respondents willing to answer them. Hence, it was predictable that the response rate would be below 50%.

The questionnaire consisted of seven sections, designed to survey general managers' backgrounds (professional, academic and socio-cultural). These seven sections were as follows.

- (1) Respondent demographic.
- (2) Hotel information.
- (3) Respondent personal qualifications, skills and past experience.
- (4) Perceived culture factors of managing Thai hotels (non-Thai general managers).
- (5) Respondent ratings managerial work roles and allocation of time on each role and department.

(6) Respondent ratings of frequency of work activities experienced in an average month.

(7) Respondent self-assessment in terms of effectiveness and management styles.

The questions in Section 5 above were formed from Mintzberg's (1973) ten managerial roles: interpersonal roles - figurehead, leader, liaison; informational roles - monitor, disseminator, spokesman and decisional roles - entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator, which were considered a core theme of this questionnaire form. This section aimed to test if Mintzberg's managerial work roles would be applicable in the Thai hotel context. The questions in Section 6 derived from B.M. Austin's questionnaire (1988) in Explorations in Managers' Attitudes of Time Management: Relationship with Locus of Control. His original questionnaire, called "Time Questionnaire", explored a variety of impressions, attitudes and propensities of young managers towards time. With his kind permission, some parts of his original questionnaire were adapted to serve this particular research with different purposes. In this study the questions were adjusted to measure the frequency of managers' work activities (see Appendix B, items 36 - 53).

3.3.2.2 Interviews

Interviewing is another major technique for collecting data. There are various types of interview, for example, an open-ended interview. In this type of interview, questions are designed to promote discussion and to encourage the interviewee to talk candidly.

Respondents are encouraged to structure, explain, reflect, assess, proceed on, or whatever they want to do within the framework of the subject of interest (Hartman and Hedblom 1979: 174). However, one of the limitations of this particular research is time. The open-ended interview is time-consuming. Hence, the interview utilised in this research was of the semi-structured kind in order to cope with the time constraint as well as to provide the opportunity for the interviewer to raise additional questions and to make sure the desired information has been obtained.

Several interviews were conducted with the general managers who were willing to cooperate in the study. These managers were identified from the questionnaire survey. When the field work was conducted in Thailand the researcher contacted each of the respondents individually. Fifteen general managers from the total respondents agreed to be scheduled for interviews. The interview questions were sent to the general managers in advance so they were informed of what information was sought (see Appendix C). Then, they were asked to express their views on their perception of the allocation of their time spent on work roles, and the nature of those work roles as carried out in practice.

3.3.2.3 Observations

From the preceding review of the literature relating to managerial work activity analysis, it is apparent that the diary method has a long history of use as an instrument for data collection in management research on a number of levels in the U.K. This

approach could be treated as both quantitative and qualitative analysis: a journal or record of events, reflections of personal process of learning and process of personal attitudes and values. The strengths and weaknesses of the diary method were mentioned in Chapter 2. One distinct advantage that the diary method has over the observation method is that the diary can examine greater numbers of subjects and for greater periods of time. Stewart (1967) explicitly compared the diary and observation methods in terms of both strengths and weaknesses. Ultimately, choice of method depends on which technique will be more appropriate to the research project. Stewart also pointed out that the main disadvantage of self-recording diaries is that they greatly limit both the scope and content of what can be studied. The scope is limited because the manager cannot devote much time to the task of recording. Also, the content is limited because it is difficult to get managers to record information in the same way if the item(s) being recorded allow scope for differences in interpretation (Stewart 1967: 6). In general, managers are busy people. The diary would thus be an additional burden for them. In contrast, structured observation focuses on time allocation as well as enabling the researcher to analyse both inputs and outputs of all kinds. Although the diary method provides generalisations - a survey of a large sample as discussed above - the observation method was chosen in this study. The observation method was more appropriate to this research project because the research aimed to study the work roles which emerged from managers' work behaviour. This aim could not be achieved by the diary method. Following Mintzberg's path, this present research adopted "structured observation" because one of the main aims was to study the content of managerial work. It was hoped that

observation would provide insights into managers' behaviour and specific work roles, from recording and classifying as shown in the studies by Mintzberg and Ley. In addition, among qualitative methods, the observation technique is considered to be an excellent instrument as Brannen (1992: 5) observes:

In seeking to achieve imaginative insights into the respondents' social worlds the investigator is expected to be flexible and reflective and yet somehow manufacture distance (McCracken, 1988). The consequence of this approach is that the method of qualitative research par excellence is participant observation. In the qualitative tradition, the instrument is a pre-determined and finely-tuned technological tool which allows for much less flexibility, imaginative input and reflexivity.

The related literature also showed that there might be considerable variations in the record of a manager's work from week to week. From previous studies, it was debatable that one or two weeks of study was enough to give a good picture of what the manager was doing. In this study it was decided to ask general managers if they would be prepared to be observed for one working week. This period was chosen as it seemed to be the best compromise between a sufficient period of time to show up variations in the job, and the maximum length of time that one could hope the managers would keep their interest and allow their day to day operation to be recorded. The choice of the one week period was then left to the general managers who participated in the observation to choose a period, by a certain date, that would be representative of their normal work.

As discussed earlier, the samples of the observation are general managers who responded to the request letter and those who stated their interests in the research. It might be more interesting to observe quite a number of the general managers at work for a longer period than one working week as Kotter (1982) did. At first, the target sample for the observation stage was set for ten general managers. For similar reasons to Nailon (1968; see Chapter 2), when he conducted his study in 1968, with withdrawal of support and changes in management, the sample size had to be reduced to eight hotel general managers: four Thais and four non-Thais. There were only three general managers who immediately responded to the request after the proposals were sent out. It was very difficult to find a number of general managers in Thailand who would give their time from their busy schedules to participate in the observation. In addition, most managers in Thailand were not familiar with the observation technique and may have been uncomfortable with the idea of being observed. Therefore, the researcher had to establish a rapport with the hotel general managers while conducting the interviews in order to persuade them to participate in the observation.

For the observation, two main measures were used of a manager's activities. One was the amount of time spent on particular activities. The other was the frequency with which the activity was done. In the study, both frequency and the amount of time spent on particular activities were used as comprehensive measures. It was believed that a combination of the two measures provided a greater understanding of more aspects of the managers' work.

Preliminary data on each manager who took part in the observation stage was collected before the actual observation began (see Appendix D). This information concerned the property, the hotel general managers, the employees, the length of service and the operation. This information provided an insight into the demands, constraints, and choices open to the manager. The purpose of obtaining this preliminary data was to identify differences among these properties and their characteristics which later were used to define certain aspects of managerial behaviour.

3.3.2.3.1 Designing the observation record

During the observation, structured data were collected on the pattern of activity throughout every minute of the workday. The structured data form was adapted from various studies but in particular these by Mintzberg and Ley. In turn, the data recording instrument used by Ley (1978) was adapted from Nailon's (1968) study and was further adapted by this researcher to provide the structured information shown in Appendix E.

The structured observation recorded sheet was designed to record the manager's daily activities. The areas of interest were developed from Carlson's diary record (1951), such as place of work, contact with persons (subordinates, customers), contacts with institutions (travel agency, airline agency, construction companies), techniques of

communication (direct: personal observations, conversations, regular and ad hoc conferences, telephone calls; indirect: via persons, via papers).

As a result, the coding for recording data in this study was classified into four groups as follows.

Activity: describes the actual activity involved in an event
Desk Work
Periodicals
Telephone Calls
Talking (1)
Meeting (2+)
Interview
Schedule Meeting
Entertainment.
Private
Function
Tour.
Inspection

Interaction: describes the person or group with whom the activity is concerned.
Corporate head office
Colleague
Subordinate/Staff
Customer
Potential client
Supplier

Location: describes the person or group where the activity occurred
Office
Other Office
Guest Floors
Lobby
Front Office
Kitchen
Restaurant
Bars
Others

Function: describes the area of operation with which the activity is associated
Restaurant
Kitchen
Banquet/Conference
Bars
Housekeeping
Front Office
Purchasing
Accounting
Finance and Control
Marketing/Sales
Engineering/ Maintenance
Public Relations
Personnel/Human Resource

These classifications were put in the analysis sheet and recording sheet as shown in Appendices E and F. Each “Structured Observation Recorded Sheet” could be used to record ten or eleven activities (see Appendix E). The “Structured Observation Recorded Sheet” was designed to give detailed information on when and where the activity took place; the people who were involved in the activity; and the subject matter of the activity. In addition, the record form also provided an explanation of the purpose of the activity. The purpose of this structured observation was to provide the researcher with an efficient method of recording all important aspects of the activity and an explanation of the content of each activity. However, the recording sheet itself could not provide the analysis or map out work roles. This could only be accomplished by the provision of a “Structured Observation Analysis Sheet” for each work role emerged from each activity.

The analysis of work roles was developed from Ley’s classroom survey using fifty-seven senior students in hotel management at Michigan State University (1978: 80).

The purpose of this survey was to test whether Mintzberg's ten managerial roles were appropriate to analysing routine activities typical of managerial work in the hotel industry. The results of Ley's classroom survey indicated that the role classification used by Mintzberg was valid, and the ten roles were left intact. An example of a completed survey form, illustrating the activities and appropriate role classification is shown below:

Hotel Management Work Activity Form (Example)

List any six (6) activities a hotel manager might perform during his work day. Be specific (for example - reprimand an employee, take bar inventory, etc.)

	<u>Activity</u>	<u>Role Classification</u>
1.	Scheduling	Resource Allocator
2.	Meeting with staff for feedback and idea development	Monitor
3.	Reviewing employee performance	Leader
4.	Meeting and talking with guests, understanding their needs	Monitor
5.	Development of new ideas to improve the operation	Entrepreneur
6.	Meeting with salesmen of major suppliers	Liaison

I have/have not sufficient hotel or restaurant experience to believe a manager would perform each of these activities at least once a month.

I am a junior/senior in Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management (MSU).

Therefore, the "Structured Observation Analysis Sheet" was designed to analyse the work roles emerged from each activity as the following example:

Time	Medium	Interact	Role(s)	Average (min)	Duration (in min)
7.30	Tour		Monitor		60
8.30	Scheduled Meeting (Morning Brief)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/Resource	20	80
9.55	Scheduled Meeting (Dept. Meeting)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/Resource/Ent	21.25	85

In order to run the observation systematically and to assist the general managers understanding the codes used for the data recording process, the recording codes were revised. Also, a precise description was made for each code used for the data recording. The revised coding for each activity and the coding for data recording in the “Structured Observation Recorded Sheet” are shown below:

Data Recording Code

<u>Activity:</u>	Describes the actual activity involved in an event
Desk Work	Mail in/out, Reading, Writing and Dictation
Periodicals	News, Journals
Call In	Receiving calls
Call Out	Making calls
Talking (1)	Conversation with one person
Meeting (+2)	Discussion in which two or more other persons are involved

Interview	Formal interview for selection, with agency, potential employee, client, etc.
Private	Private activities not connected with work
Function	Attend social function or religious ceremony (grand opening, staff party, hotel anniversary, etc.)
Tour	Maintain of hotel operation and stands
Inspection	Verification of work of others, maintain of room stands
<u>Location:</u>	describes where the activity occurred
Office	Guest Floors
Other Office	Front Office
Meeting Room	Lobby
Restaurant	Other
Kitchen	
<u>Interaction:</u>	describes the person or group with whom the activity is concerned
Corporate head office	Supplier
Superior/Owner	Contractor
Secretary	Guest
Subordinate	Potential Client/Employee
Colleague	Other

The major problem that this research was not able to address was a high turnover of the general managers during the field work in Thailand from January to May. During the observation period, it was a transition of the general managers' employment contracts. Moves are regularly assigned by the company. Some were transferred to other hotels in the chain or to a new country. Others did not renew the contracts or moved to a new company. This high turnover is not an unusual phenomenon in the industry because it has become a process of a way up to top-level management. Most of the hotel executives worked their way up to top management positions from the bottom of the career ladder. Some started their jobs in small companies and moved up to multinational chains. The hotel executives' work histories often show their experience with several different companies. They often move between companies in order to get higher-level positions and broader work experience (Swanljung 1981). Some general managers also commented during the interviews that being mobile and flexible are important traits for their career advancement.

3.3.3 Analysis of data

The different types of data were analysed as follows.

SPSS for Windows was used to analyse the questionnaire data collected. SPSS stands for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. It is widely used in Social Science Research and offers a full range of contemporary statistical methods, plus good editing and labelling facilities. One of the most reassuring aspects of SPSS is the ease

with which it handles missing data. This package was chosen because it is user friendly. In addition, the SPSS/PC is able to report overall statistics by tabulated reports, plots of distributions and trends, and results of a wide variety of statistical analysis procedures which is very useful for management researchers. The data collected from the questionnaires of fifty respondents were analysed by SPSS system analysing and displaying information. The results are presented in the form of frequency tables and cross-classification tables to show the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Material from interviews was analysed as follows. The semi-structured interview was used to gather detailed and in-depth views of both Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers on the management style, dominant work roles and characteristics of hotel general managers. The interview questions were sent out to each general manager who participated in the interview a week in advance (see Appendix C). The duration for each interview was varied from one and a half hours to three hours. The interviews were recorded and then transcribed. At the final stage, the answers for each question were mapped into five groups:

- specific work roles which influence management style;
- key influences on managerial management;
- Influences of cultural factors on hotel management;
- the general managers' time usage; and
- characteristics and trend for potential hotel general managers.

Finally, observation analysis was undertaken using methods described in detail above, and further elaborated in Chapter 6.

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Chapter 4: A Survey of Cross Cultural Differences Affecting Management in Thai Hotel Industry

4.1 Introduction

Interactions between members of different cultural groups are an increasingly common aspect of modern life. This is where cross cultural psychology makes a strong contribution in understanding how behaviours are shaped and influenced by social and cultural forces. The hotel industry has always been recognised as highly international, because not only have there been international tourists travelling across the world but the nature of the industry itself is important. As hotel companies have widened their scope to encompass international operations, hotel employees have moved from one country to another. These employees could be more successful in their career positions if they are aware of cultural differences and implications. Also, there are hotel managers who have faced difficulties caused by cultural dislocations. Lack of cultural awareness and sensitivity may cause a manager to fail in an assignment. Intercultural training can therefore lead to better performance for these managers, both expatriates and the locals who work in multicultural environments. Thus, this chapter will discuss the different approaches to culture and self in Thai and western contexts. As one of the major objectives of the study is to compare the management of Thai and non-Thai general managers in terms of personality, cultural/educational background and management styles, this chapter discusses the results of culture influences which derive from the questionnaire. Other results from the questionnaire will be further analysed and discussed in the following chapter.

Since the analysis here involves cultural issues this chapter also includes a literature review dealing with Thai culture and values and cross-cultural management: it is thus a relatively self-contained discussion.

Thailand, once a fairy tale land of princes and palaces, of grace and beauty, of wondrous temples, of beautiful girls and warm hospitality, has become one of the major tourist destinations in Southeast Asia where foreign investments in hotels and resorts are blooming. The cultural environment is also conducive to the tourism and hotel industry. The Buddhist religion stresses kindness, openness and passivity. People tend to be relaxed, friendly and slow to take offence (Elliott 1983). Thailand was never a colony and so has retained more of its cultural heritage and character which also makes it more appealing to the tourist searching for the exotic world. There is also a tradition of service and quality reflecting the hierarchical, aristocratic and elite nature of Thai society which complements the hotel industry. The Thai national spirit and identity is strong but rarely expresses itself in violent nationalism or anti-foreign behaviour. Therefore, Thailand, the land of smiles with its culture of “take it easy”, still serves as a microcosm of the promises and challenges that face the hospitality investor throughout Southeast Asia (Meyer and Geary 1993). It is not surprising to find management of international hotels in Thailand dominated by European and American managers. This is because international chains brought their own managerial and skilled workforce with them when they first arrived on Asian shores (Wise 1993). Naturally, they also brought along their cultures and attitudes. Also, the international hotel industry within the region has been dominated by luxury hotels owned locally

and operated by western (especially American) chains for many years (Schelentrich and Ng 1994). However, Thailand was a country with an ancient culture while the West was young, and agriculture formed the basis of its economy. In addition, from an early age, Thai people are inculcated with the value of service and hospitality, so much so that it appears almost as a genetic quality. These attributes have contributed to the country's long history and rich culture, as well as to the uniqueness of Thai hospitality.

How could such a gentle and subtle culture like Thai culture create conflicts at work between Thai and Non-Thai employees? The keys are “communicating” and “cultural awareness”. There are certain values perceived as good in Thai society, which in western culture could be interpreted in the opposite way, as in, for example the case of criticism. Thais will try to avoid direct criticism and confrontation because they try to be polite and not offend others’ feelings. Most Thais will leave criticism to a third party in order to tone down the criticism. There is a common situation which happens at work in Thailand, when an employee does something wrong and the supervisor has to give him/her a warning. On the first occasion, they will have direct communication. But, if s/he continues this habit, the supervisor will ask the employee’s friend to pass on the message that s/he is in a trouble, instead of having a direct confrontation to that particular employee. This is because of the complexity of patterns of socialisation and rank in Thai society. The supervisor has to do his/her job by giving a warning but at the same time does not want to make the person feel degraded. Therefore, a friendly talk with a friend may save both of their “faces”. This is common in Thai

society because it is one of the socially acceptable ways that Thais express criticism and seek to improve social behaviour. Thus, Thais avoid direct criticism because they take criticism more personally. But, in the western interpretation of this behaviour, such approaches can be viewed as insincere, and by leaving criticism to a third party is often considered to be a case of talking behind a person's back as Mortlock (1986a: 19) notes:

Sometimes Thais express anger or criticism in indirect ways. One way is to gossip about the person they are angry with to their friends.

Especially in the hotel industry, where the work environment is highly multicultural, it is hard to avoid cultural influences and cultural clashes in communicating between expatriate executives and local staff. When either of them has little or no cultural sensitivity there is, of course, potential for misunderstanding and miscommunication between them. This reflects a need for human resource training programmes on cross-cultural issues, where cross-cultural psychology makes a strong contribution to the understanding of how behaviours are shaped and influenced by social and cultural forces.

4.2 Thailand: culture and values

In order to understand how their deeply ingrained culture and social values have been formed and affected the Thai approach to life and work, it is necessary to have an understanding of the Thai social structure and national characteristics. The Thai social

system is well patterned and predictable. The basis of role interaction is clearly differentiated as personal or impersonal determined by the presence or absence of the “Bunghun” (grateful) social relationship. These two types of relationships are the transactional or contractual relationship which is dyadic, voluntary and ritual or outwardly directed, and non-lasting; and the “closed-personal” and “psychologically invested” relationship which is based on “Bunghun” (gratitude) and involves a deep sense of obligation which is enduring, stable and reliable (Suvanajata 1976). Furthermore, Thais’ values are socially oriented (Mortlock 1986a); Cooper and Cooper 1990; Komin 1990) because Thai culture has grown from a profoundly agricultural setting where most people live and work together in groups, and has developed as a patronage system (Mortlock 1986a), where everyone expects everyone else to help and to grant a request. Groups have been traditionally tied by kinship and friendship to tackle difficult jobs or work that requires a larger workforce than one family can supply. This is how the “Bunghun” (gratitude) value emerges as an important social relationship in Thai culture.

On the other hand, this “Bunghun” (grateful) relationship can be double-edged. The concept of being grateful in response to “Bunghun”, or kindness and favours given, in general, has been an element for good and meaningful relationships. It also explains the effectiveness and efficiency of successful completion of jobs or tasks, many of which are accomplished basically through good connections and social relations. However, this value can be manipulated and exploited by those who are power-oriented, in the creation, monitoring and maintenance of any power group such as

street gangs, hooligans and the Mafia. This situation can be seen in governmental departments or on the general business circuit. The “power group” creates the “gratitude” moral and uses it as one of the basic means to get things done or get business going for their own benefit. Since the Thais in general are too “Kreng Jai” (nice and soft) to refuse kindness, the process of “creating gratitude” is often used to establish “Bunkhun” and power connections. This explains the behavioural patterns of “Chao Por” (godfather) or “Luk Phi” (superior) and “Luk Nong” (subordinate) relationships that influence connections with government officers, policemen, politicians and are seen, in various forms, in policy decisions benefiting business deals as well as direct corruption. Nevertheless, deep and long-term relationships result from a process of gradual reciprocal rendering and returning of goodness and favours, through successful experiences of smooth interpersonal interactions. The Thais, in general, are easy to befriend and deep friendship is not difficult to develop, even across hierarchies or culture (Komin 1990).

Although, Thailand is one of the Asian countries which values collectivism highly and has a “low” toleration of individualism (Hofstede 1990), the Thais do have a high sense of individualism in terms of self-importance and personal freedom. The interpretation of “individualism” to a Thai connotes the sense of “self-concern” and freedom of choice more than self-reliance and independence (Phillips 1965; Mortlock 1986a). However, no matter how much a sense of individualism a Thai possesses, each individual is bound together by family ties and “Bunkhun” (grateful) social relationships, which later become “social connections”. It can be concluded that

although Thais have a firm belief in themselves, they have trust in other people and have an optimistic view towards life (Smuckarn 1976).

Historically, because of a long period of feudalism, classes, but not caste, exist to some extent in Thai society. Thai people are concerned with keeping their social status. According to Cooper and Cooper (1980), few Thais are equal and many are more unequal than others. In fact, they are born equal, but they do associate themselves with social status and ranks in terms of superior and inferior or senior and junior, which in Thai is “Poo Yai” and “Poo Noi”. The Thais like to guess the status of others whenever there is “small talk” (Cooper and Cooper 1980). This is because they like to create intimacy between two parties and show a sense of family belonging. Seniority and status are important in Thai life. In general, Thais guess status and rank from appearance, age, occupation, wage and (intra-orientation) ranking, education, family and social connection. Thus:

- **Appearance** is important in Thailand because it is a way for people to show pride in themselves and of showing deference to those they are with. Thais are brought up with this sense of the importance of appearance (Mortlock 1986a).
- **Age** is another aspect reflecting rank in Thailand. Thai children are taught to respect elderly people. Respect generally means taking the senior person’s advice and guidance without arguing and to leave decision making to the senior person. This is because they believe that senior persons have better experience in seeing

the world. Thais are quick to assess who is older and who is younger. The elder is addressed as “Phi” and the younger as “Nong”.

- **Occupation and wage** reflect one’s financial status. For example, if you are a doctor, you are rich and gain high esteem. If you are a taxi driver, you are poor and have no social recognition.
- **Education and family** signify background and social status. Surnames to some Thais are very important because they represent the value of family status and indicate that one either belongs to a family with a long history descending from an aristocratic background “Poo Dee Kao”, or, that a person made a fortune from business and comes from a new wealthy family “Seth-thee-mai” or is a tycoon. Although Thai society is not a visibly discriminatory one, class values do matter and invisibly exist, affecting work life.

4.2.1 Hierarchy and Equality

A sense of hierarchy is much more strongly ingrained. Hierarchy in Thai society is expressed both in spoken language - the pronouns one uses to refer to a superior, equal and inferior - and in body language - the position and the way people stand, sit or greet. This sense of hierarchy also applies to the human body and objects. The head is the highest rank because it is the highest part of the body. Thais will be offended if they are touched on their heads. Feet are considered the lowest rank because they are

the lowest part of the body (Cooper and Cooper 1980; Mortlock 1986a). Similarly, a Thai will be insulted if s/he is pointed at by a foot. Also, when pants and skirts are on the line, a Thai will not go under the line because his or her head will have to be under the pants and skirts. These objects are considered lower than the head. The Thais often hang Buddha images around their necks, and they will be offended if their sacred objects are passed over by the lower objects.

4.2.2 Time

Time seems to be a focal problem for a Thai at work. In the Western world, people perceive time as something to be manipulated, controlled and planned. This reflects the Western's value of time, that is "time is money" (Cooper and Cooper 1980; Mortlock 1986b). Thais are less precise about time which is viewed as a continuum which stretches and contracts to adjust to situations that arise. They are more likely to accept the natural glitches which make a firm schedule impossible. Flexibility is a key to the Thais while planning is a key to Westerners. "Punctuality" seems to be impossible for a Thai to manage, especially in Bangkok where the traffic is the worst in the world. This goes some way to explaining why most Thais are not punctual as does the fact that Thailand is an agriculture country. People get up at dawn and go to the fields. They stay there until the work is done. For them, it does not matter if the work takes two hours or ten hours. They work according to the stage of the rice cycle. Punctuality has been unnecessary for most of the nation's history. According to the "take it easy" attitude, Thai people, especially in rural areas, do not separate

eating, sleeping, working and playing times. All of these run together in their lives. This is because rural areas are still intensely agricultural where people come to work in groups linked by kinship and friendship. Therefore, the idea of time and place for everything is very flexible. However, to some extent, the Thais can be conscientious about time when they are in a million dollar business context, or, they can be extremely punctual when it is necessary to their lives, for example, a set time by an astrologer for a wedding and funeral. The Thais can be present at the precise time for these auspicious moments because they believe they destine their lives, fortunes and futures.

4.2.3 Money

Being an agriculture country and dominated by the Buddhist religion, the Thai people see themselves as a generous, tolerant and contented people lacking in worldly ambition and unhappy about entering into situations of direct competition. Cooper and Cooper (1980) comment that the value Thai's attach to money is like throwing water around, which means they do not know how to use their money. Thais have no concerns to maximise value for money as Westerners do. People in the Western world are born with a different sense of the value of money. They are raised to budget and plan their expenditure. They are trained to work for any extra money from when they are young, whereas in Thailand most parents buy whatever a child needs if they can afford it. Thai youths are not given early training in handling money. In Thailand most people do not budget. Whatever money they have they spend (Cooper and Cooper

1980; Mortlock 1986b). Smuckarn (1979) discusses this behaviour from a psychological point of view. Thai children do not receive toilet training, and this supposedly leads them to grow up to be extravagant because a child who receives no toilet training learns no early self-discipline. Similarly, when one knows how to discipline oneself, it is easier to make one's own budget than a person who has no self-discipline. These differences between Thais and Western people show that Thais are more "present oriented" while Westerners are more "future oriented". The Thais tend to deal with their present as seen from "Time" and "Money" values. If it is taken from a linguistic perspective, the Thai language also reflects the attitude of present oriented. There are only two tenses - present and future - in the Thai language. In general, Thai people just use the present tense in their everyday conversation. The sense of past and future are described by adverbs. In contrast, most western languages have precise tenses and forms to distinguish the time.

4.2.4 Language

Language seems not to be a problem in Thailand because most Thai people who work for multinational companies learn English. Though the majority of Thais do not speak English, they can communicate with foreigners by their smiles, body language and patience. Thai people often smile. That is why Thailand is dubbed "Land of the Smiles". However, one should bare in mind the deeper meanings of a Thai smile. When Thais smile, it does not mean that the foreigners are always understood. In fact, the smile can only mean "I hear you", not "I understand you" nor "I agree with you"

(Mortlock 1986b). Meanings behind a Thai smile can be varied from situation to situation. It can mean “Hello” as a greeting or “Welcome”. In some cases, the smile means “I’m pleased or I agree with you”. Sometimes, it can mean “I’m sorry” or “It doesn’t matter”. And, many times smiles are used to cover embarrassment when Thais do something wrong or something goes wrong, and they do not know how to handle it. It is amazing that a smile of a Thai can be interpreted in various ways.

Though a lot of companies have offered foreign language training to Thai workers, such training may improve speaking skills but not always understanding. Language training is often intensive, but it does not provide the understanding of different cultures and peoples. Therefore, it is difficult for Thai workers who never leave the country to fully understand the cultures and the meanings behind the language. Most Western people, especially English native speakers, speak very fast and have no patience for Thais (Mortlock 1986b). This leads to a build up of a great deal of communication problems and difficulties in mutual understanding.

4.2.5 Independence and Individualism

The Thais are highly individualistic in the sense that they are “first and foremost free and independent souls” (Phillips 1965). “Individualism” in the Thai context has a profound sense of self-concern and freedom of choice. Phillips (1965) suggests that because of this individualism dimension, Thais seldom show a sense of obligation, solidarity, ideological commitment, and possibly even loyalty to anything beyond

personal values. According to Phillips' study, Thais maintain friendly and warm-hearted relationships with other people but with little personal commitment or involvement. They hide their feelings and intentions behind polite face-to-face social encounters.

In addition, Wilson (1962) describes the Thais as "determinedly autonomous", carrying the burden of social responsibility lightly. The Thai individualistic personality together with social mobility contributes to the fluidity and weakness of social groups and community solidarity. Moreover, Piker (1975) sees Thai individualism as a need for self-reliance as a result of the "perceived indeterminacy of motives of others" and the cognition of a general unreliability of human behaviour. Both Wilson's (1962) and Piker's (1975) arguments support Philips' statement that the Thai concept of "individualism" emphasises self-concern rather than personal commitment or involvement. But, in the Thai's view, Snit Smuckarn (1976) defines "individualism" as being self-admiring in the sense that the Thais have a firm belief in themselves, being trusting people and having an optimistic view towards life. He also describes the Thais as extravagance loving, having no discipline and ridden with sexual anxiety.

From a comparative standpoint, western people perceive individualism as freedom and rights, self-determination and self-actualisation. In other words, in the West, especially in the United States, individualism involves openness, equality, assertiveness, and the sense of developing a progressive independence (Johnson 1985; Mortlock 1986b). Independence has been valued by people of all nations. In the West,

children are taught from an early age to be independent, to think for themselves and to be adventurous. For the Thais, interdependence in a web of family and interpersonal networks is often seen as more important than self-reliance and independence. The Thais tend to be more accepting of things as they are whereas westerners like to take charge of new situations and manipulate them for the better. Interestingly, Thais by no means reject the concept of independence. The Thais pride themselves on remaining an independent nation which has never been dominated by colonial power - a unique situation among the other nations in Southeast Asia. Nevertheless, independence on the personal level does not rank as high as interdependence. Although one may work to achieve one's goals through individual effort, there are a whole series of other interwoven factors which affect one's life: family relationships, duty to parents, community bonds, status, former lives and spirit forces. In this context, expatriates who come to Thailand and operate on the assumption that everything can be handled by individual decisions may have some difficulties understanding their host culture.

The Influence of Buddhism on Thai Individualism

Since Thailand is a Buddhist country, it is quite common for commentators to use Buddhist teaching to explain Thai social behaviour. Thus, the emphasis on individualism, the permissiveness, non-violence, tolerance, and non-involvement of the Thais are seen as being primarily derived from the Buddhist concepts of the working of individuals' "karma", the result of his past actions. This could simply explain some of the Thai behaviours. They are not group oriented because of the

Buddhist emphasis on karma. They are non-committal and indifferent because of the Buddhist emphasis on detachment. The Thais are neither work nor material gains oriented and are contented with what they have because Buddhism advocates detachment from material goods and goals in life. Hence, there is no doubt that some people do believe that somehow Buddhism has some pervasive influence in Thai social and cultural life. However, Buddhism does not totally dominate the Thai way of living or the social values as it fails to explain other Thai attitudes and behaviours. For instance, it fails to explain why the Thai are material possession oriented, form and status symbol oriented and extravagant in nature.

Thus, Thai culture could be portrayed as something which contradicts itself if one does not have a profound understanding of Thai culture and Thai people. To some extent, the Thais are dominated by the combination of individualism and interpersonal relationship which can be classified as national characteristics (Smuckarn 1976: Komin 1990). These major national characteristics are:

- Ego orientation
- Personalism, whereby emphasis is given to the survival of the self as well as the dependence on other persons for the same survival purpose.
- Interdependence orientation
- Grateful relationship orientation
- Smooth interpersonal relationship orientation
- Flexibility and adjustment orientation

- Fun-pleasure orientation
- Merit making orientation which includes beliefs in karma and the predestined luck and fortune of each individual

These characteristics also influence the Thai's attitude towards life and work, and they are essential to a positive contribution to Thai society. Nevertheless, for those who are from a different culture, especially a western culture where these values are hardly shared, one needs to have an attentive perception of Thai national characteristics. When an expatriate has to deal with Thais at work, s/he must also understand the following values because they can cause a lot of problems at work if one misinterprets Thai meanings. These values are as follows.

- **Face Saving value.** The "face" is very important for the Thais because it is identical with "ego" (Komin 1990) which is the key value of the Thai society. Even a superior would attempt not to intrude too much on the subordinate's or the inferior's ego. The Thais consider the "face" as not something to be taken for granted.
- **Criticism value.** Criticism is something that relates to the "face saving" value. One should never criticise a Thai in front of other people. Even in a face-to-face situation, people stay polite and are not outrageous. Thais place a much higher value on self-control - to keep cool (Jai Yen) in every situation - and avoid confrontation (Mortlock 1986a; Cooper and Cooper 1990; Komin 1990).

However, Thais do express their views or criticise in indirect ways, and prefer to leave the criticism to an impartial third party. It is important to leave the space for a Thai in order to keep cool and to have self control in public.

- **Kreng Jai value.** “Kreng Jai” is one of the most difficult Thai concepts for non-Thais to comprehend because it does not exist in the western culture. It is a combination of deference and consideration. It is a condition that one has to take another person’s feeling (and ego) into account, or to take every measure not to cause discomfort or inconvenience for another person (Klausner 1981; Komin 1990). An example of the “Kreng Jai” value in a business context is the use of the telephone. The business telephone call often finds itself enmeshed in the intricacies of the “Kreng Jai” syndrome. To discuss business matters on such an impersonal basis without the opportunity to show traditional forms of ritual respect is considered not good form. Non-Thai managers will often use telephone calls and if those managers ask their subordinates to call and get information from another Thai who is considered to be of superior status and rank, the Thai subordinates will try to meet with the Thai superior in person rather than simply calling him/her on the telephone. This is because a personal visit would show deference to that particular person more than an impersonal and abrupt telephone call.
- **Comfortable and Fun Loving value.** The Thais love feeling comfortable (Sabai), and they are fun-loving (Smuckarn 1979; Cooper and Cooper 1990). Hence, the Thai attitude towards work is doing any activity with pleasure and fun (Sanuk).

When they find that a job does not entail fun, they are not happy with only economic incentives (Cooper and Cooper 1990).

- **Mai Pen Rai value.** This value associates with a sense of “take it easy” and a sense of “forgiveness”. The meaning of “Mai Pen Rai” is “never mind” or “don’t worry, it doesn’t really matter” (Meyer and Geary 1993). Therefore, the Thais take life easy (Sabai) in the belief that life will take care of itself.

These values are elements that contribute to the unique characteristics of the Thai hospitality industry, where caring, concern, gentleness and modesty are always provided. The smile and warm greeting has become a symbol of the Thai hospitality industry (Punmunin 1993). Although the Thais may have most of the wonderful characteristics for the hospitality industry, the greatest difficulty is how to manage these characteristics in the context of western styles of management. It is difficult because Thais hold totally different work attitudes from people in the West, but it is not impossible to achieve. The major work attitudes of Thai people as contrasted with westerners can be summarised as follows:

- they value reputation and “face saving” highly;
- they love a comfortable feeling (Sabai) and rely heavily on pleasure and fun (Sanuk) in doing their job;
- they have no basic separation of business affairs from social or personal life;

- they place great importance on personal relationships as distinct from role or task-oriented ones; and
- they rate loyalty, in the sense of gratitude (Bunkhun), and trust in it much more highly than in efficiency and performance.

Suntaree Komin (1981) conducted a value survey. Questionnaires were administered to a national sample of 2469 Thais from different provinces, stratified by geographical regions and by occupations which included farmers, skilled workers, labourers, employees, businessmen, university students and government officials. She found that both Thai men and women attached high value to being grateful, honest-sincere, polite-humble and kind-helpful. The scores showed lowly ranked values for ambitious-hardworking and broadminded. The significant cognitive world of Thai women is characterised by focal concern for family, security, peaceful and a life absent of conflict, with a low value for political values as well as issues of broader social concern. On the other hand, the cognitive world of Thai men is more social oriented. They gave priority to broader issues of national security and the role of power and politics. Thai men, in general are not so concerned with family as women are. Thai men also valued freedom-independence significantly higher than Thai women. In short, the value profile of Thai men consists of such traits as more other-orientated, concern over society at large, and the value of power and politics. Komin also described from the value rankings the prime concerns in the cognitive world of the Thai people generally with regards to life goals. Those were national security, religious and spiritual life, comfortable life, family, brotherhood spirit, self-esteem and

success in life. Less important were values indicating political consciousness, such as equality and freedom, intellectual value of wisdom and knowledge, the social values of social relation and social recognition. The least important were the worldly sensual values of beauty, mature love, exciting life and pleasure.

Komin went on to compare the perception of goal values between Thais and Americans. She explained that for Americans with the cultural background of a nuclear family, high mobility in terms of individuals setting up a new family, and in terms of career, an individual's immediate concern was very much individualistically oriented, with family and freedom, equality and self respect all highly valued. For the low values, the Americans cared for the self-directed worldly sensual values of beauty, mature love and pleasure more than the value of social recognition. In contrast, the Thais' perception was a world that was not of "yourself" and "your own life" but consciously involved "others" - helping others, caring and being considerate of others. Komin argues that Thais are more socially oriented. American society is characterised by these highly important values: honest and responsibility; a desire to prove one's competence, ambitious aims and working hard for achievement, broadmindedness, and courage to speak one's mind. These values suggested the assertiveness of a person through which the self was thrust out into the society in order to achieve, to act and to serve out one's own place.

As for the Thais the perception of their world was characterised by the ego value of being independent, the interpersonal-moral value of being honest-sincere and being grateful (the value of being grateful did not appear in the American value list), the competence value of being responsible, the interpersonal social relation related value of being caring and considerate, kind and helpful and being responsive to situations and opportunities. The caring and considerate and responsive to situation and opportunities variables did not emerge in the American value list. Suntaree Komin (1990) concludes that the cognitive worlds of the Thai and the American are totally different. The Americans put self assertiveness and achievement task oriented values as their most important concern while the Thais gave highest priority to ego, gratitude relation and being caring and considerate. The Thais also cared less for self assertiveness and achievement task oriented values, and being courageous in speaking one's mind.

4.3 Implications for the Study

Cultural values were assessed via the questionnaire element of the research methodology. The results from the questionnaire involved fifty hotel general managers, These general manager comprising sixteen Thai and thirty-four non-Thai. However, the cultural factors part includes only the thirty-four non-Thai general managers. This is because the study aimed to investigate if there is any effect of Thai culture on non-Thai general managers in terms of implementing western management

within the host culture. Thus, the discussion of the analysis in the following part includes only non-Thai general managers.

Most of the general managers in the study had work experience in Asian countries, and they learned about Thailand from literature before starting their work in the country. However, only seven of them (20.59%) were provided with a cultural orientation course before starting their career in Thailand. The seven respondents whose companies provided cultural orientation belonged to the following hotel categories:

- Independent (1)
- International Group (1)
- International Franchise (1)
- Western Chain (4)

The results show that the luxury independent hotels in Thailand did not appear to pay much attention to this issue. However, most of the non-Thai general managers considered cultural orientation as something essential to hospitality management as well as to their career in Thailand (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 General Managers' cultural orientation before working in Thailand (n=34)

Receiving cultural orientation from the company before working in Thailand			Cultural orientation is useful in hospitality management			Receiving cultural orientation before starting the job in Thailand is an advantage		
	No.	%		No.	%		No.	%
YES	7	20.59%	Essential	19	55.9%	Essential	5	14.7%
NO	27	79.41%	Very Important	13	38.3%	Very Important	23	67.7%
			Fairly Important	1	2.9%	Fairly Important	5	14.7%
			Important			Important		
Total	34	100		33	100		33	100

The results of the research found that the majority of the non-Thai general managers had been working in Thailand for between one and five years (64%) although around one quarter had been doing so for between six to ten years (23.5%). These managers (38.2%) had been in their present position between one to five years (see Table 4.2).

The study also found that the non-Thai general managers are rarely furnished with much in the way of cultural orientation although international companies and organisations were used to rotating expatriate management staff between countries. Most expatriate staff are provided with a culturally contained environment within which their social and material needs are met more or less as they are back home (Cooper and Cooper 1990). The results of the study also verified that the companies were unlikely to provide any class in Thai culture and language for their expatriate general managers. The number of non-Thai general managers who had such cultural orientation through either a cultural orientation course or work experience before starting their career in Thailand was four (11.8%), of thirty-four non-Thai general managers in the study (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.2 Survey of hotel general managers' working period (n = 34)

Year(s)	No.	Percentage
Years in Thai hospitality industry		
Less than 1 year	2	5.9%
1 - 5	22	64.0%
6 - 10	8	23.5%
11 - 15	-	-
Over 16 years	2	5.9%
Years in as General Manager		
Less than 1 year	4	11.8%
1 - 5	23	67.6%
6 - 10	4	11.8%
11 - 15	2	5.9%
Over 16 years	1	2.9%
Years in present position		
Less than 1 year	6	17.6%
1 - 5	13	38.2%
6 - 10	9	26.5%
11 - 15	-	-
Over 16 years	6	17.7%

Table 4.3 General Managers' personal area of cultural orientation/ course attended (n=34)

Subject	No	(%)
Cultural behaviour	2	5.8
Working	1	3
Others	1	3

Fifty-six percent of the expatriate sample i.e. the thirty-four non-Thai general managers, judged cultural orientation to be useful in hospitality management and 38.2% found it very important. Out of the total, 67.7% considered receiving cultural orientation was an advantage to their career in Thailand. Also, 55.9% regarded a thorough understanding of Asian culture as essential to the successful execution of their job as a general manager, and 38.2% viewed it as very important (see Table 4.4). When focusing on Thai culture, 55.9% of the sample perceived understanding

the Thai way of living as essential to their career as a hotel general manager. To understand Thai people gained the highest response rate of 85.3% (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.4 Degree of importance of Asian culture and training vs. western culture and training (n=34)

	Essential		Very Important		Fairly Important		Less Important		Unimportant	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
A thorough understanding of Asian culture	19	55.9	13	38.2	-	-	-	-	2	5.9
A thorough understanding of Western culture	10	30.3	7	21.2	11	33.3	4	12.1	1	3.0
A thorough understanding of Asian hotel management training	9	27.3	9	27.3	9	27.3	6	18.1	-	-
A thorough understanding of Western hotel management training	13	39.4	13	39.4	6	18.2	1	3.0	-	-

Table 4.5 Degree of importance of topics concerning Thai culture (n=34)

	Essential		Very Important		Fairly Important		Less Important		Unimportant	
	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Thai food	4	11.8	8	23.5	11	32.4	6	17.6	4	11.8
Thai language	4	11.8	7	20.6	17	50.0	5	14.7	-	-
Thai way of living	19	55.9	11	32.4	2	5.9	1	2.9	-	-
Thai people	29	85.3	3	8.8	1	2.9	1	2.9	-	-
Thai values	15	44.1	15	44.1	3	8.8	1	2.9	-	-
Thai etiquette	20	58.8	9	26.5	3	8.8	2	5.9	-	-
Thai politics	1	2.9	5	14.7	14	41.2	7	20.6	6	17.7
Religious practice	8	23.5	11	32.4	9	26.5	5	14.7	-	-

Most of the companies did not provide cross-cultural training programmes for these general managers because they assumed that the Thai workers were capable of

communicating in English. Therefore, there would be no need for the non-Thai general managers to have a basic knowledge of the Thai language, nor Thai cultural general knowledge. However, not all of the Thai workers are willing or able to cope with a range of expatriate cultures, attitudes and languages in order to do business with foreigners. Unfortunately, as mentioned above, most hospitality multinational companies often fail to equip the manager with the linguistic and cultural knowledge which would help him or her do his/her job in a foreign country. If foreigners want to do business in Thailand they need to prepare for the fact that norms of business management are not always the same as in the West. If one realises that s/he is not well equipped with these cultural kits from the company, it is often important to find a "Thai compradore". All of the successful earlier foreign business enterprises in Thailand survived because they worked through a Thai compradore, a person of influence who owed his loyalty to Thailand but who received money from foreigners (Cooper and Cooper 1990).

This concept is very applicable to the Thai hospitality industry. If expatriate general managers are farsighted and aim at career success in Thailand, they will select a Thai to be their number two because this person will be a great deal of help in many ways, especially when dealing with cultural conflicts among local staff. Some general managers prefer an alternative involving hiring a great number of expatriates to work for key positions in order to avoid the communication breakdown or conflicts with local employees. The reasons for selecting this strategy include the view that local workers do not have the knowledge to operate the advanced technology used in the

property, or that the expatriate key employees are there to set good examples for the local staff. There is a danger that these are just excuses and that a more plausible explanation for such a strategy is that these general managers have no patience with the local staff who have different attitudes and approaches towards work. If they had been trained in cultural awareness and sensitivity, they would have known that by doing so they created their own small community instead of mingling with the local culture. In other words, they did not create a “cultural melting pot” in the work environment but changed the environments. The lack of cultural awareness and sensitivity may cause a manager to fail in an assignment. Intercultural training can therefore reduce the clashes of cultural values and lead to better performance for these managers (Shames 1986) - both expatriates and the locals who work in multicultural environments.

The hotel industry is very much involved with people (Pine 1993). Thus, it is crucial that the people in the industry should be people oriented: the management understands staff's needs and vice versa, and that staff understand guests' needs. This statement is also applicable within the Thai hotel industry. The results from the questionnaire show that among the eight topics regarding the understanding of Thai culture, which are “food”, “language”, “way of living”, “people”, “values”, “etiquette”, “politics” and “religion”, the highest response rate is an understanding of Thai people (85.3%). It ascertains that people are the most important factor when working within Thai cultural environment and personnel is a crucial factor for hotel management. Thus, hotel general managers are “managers of people” (Guénat 1995).

The above discussion implies that the success of international hotels in Thailand comes from the contribution of successful general managers who know how to connect the concept of “culture-bound” (Shames 1986) with their management skills and styles in order to increase the corporate profits within the region in which they operate. In accordance with company expansion on a global level, an international training in finance, information-system management, marketing and multicultural skills, including language and cultural sensitivity is recommended (Shames 1986; Clark and Arbel 1993). These areas of training will assist hotel managers to be cosmopolitan, and enable them to cope with new challenges, and to have the flexibility to be able to manage the business elsewhere. The results also show that cultural training programmes at management level are necessary for general managers. In the long term, these training programmes should be provided by the companies, either internationally or locally owned, and apply to all levels in the organisation. The working period of time within the country is another distinct factor for understanding the culture. The working period in Thailand of most general managers in the sample is between one to five years. The working period of time is important because the more time the general managers spend on working in Thailand with Thai people, the more profound understanding of the people and the country they have. This is because they have time to observe and orientate themselves with local people. These human resource development programmes may not fulfil the immediate needs in the short term, as one could say that “Rome was not built in a day”. Hence, implanting multicultural training and cross-cultural awareness is a sensitive issue. It takes time to cultivate mutual communication in a global corporation, as well as to build trust and

shared values (Kenichi 1989). Cross-cultural awareness is not as simply implemented in the organisation as one might imagine. In addition, it is interesting and challenging for multinational companies and for hotel managers to implant dynamic and progressive management strategies within a non-aggressive culture such as Thai culture. It is an ideal to see people in hospitality industry work very efficiently and effectively, but the service also requires tender care and elegance.

4.4 Conclusion

The results of the survey confirm that transferred and overseas employees and non-Thai managers should received cross-cultural training before they start working in their assigned host country. Multinational hotel corporations should consider the implications of cross-cultural interaction in order to provide appropriate training and human resource development. Moreover, international hotel corporations should recognise the important of local policies, particularly in management staffing.

Cross-cultural training will assist non-Thai managers to foresee their needs and the difficulties they will encounter in settling in Thailand, both from personal and business perspectives. In addition, cross-cultural training will provide a balanced perspective to assist human resource professionals in hotel companies to select the type of manager most fitted to succeed in overseas assignments, and in ensuring what assistance is provided for expatriate staff and executives. Cross-cultural awareness will also provide hotel general managers with the knowledge to devise training programmes for

their staff who need to have close contact with multi-cultural guests. It can also serve as a basis to develop training programmes for expatriates to integrate with host cultures as well as for local employees working in multi-cultural environment.

Having noted the above, it is however important to recognise the wider significance of “culture” in the context of this thesis. Specifically, while culture has a role to play in understanding how management might be more effective in Thai hotels, the results to be discussed in the following chapters suggest very few cultural differences between Thai and non-Thai managers in terms of their time allocations to work activities and management style. This suggests that hotel management culture is heavily internationalised. This view of management has simplified the nature of the job that hotel managers’ activities revolve around providing basic human services to people who are away from their homes. Human interaction in providing services and catering to hotel guests thus prove hotel managers’ skills to be highly transferable in terms of technical skills, knowledge and practical expertise of the work performance in all departments of the hotel as well as their quality of sympathy and understanding of people.

This is highly suggestive because it raises the possibility that hotel operations themselves dictate the kinds of responses managers need to make in order to be effective and successful. It therefore appears that Mintzberg’s classification of managerial roles has wide cultural applications. Managers - especially expatriate

managers - need to be sensitive to host cultures and practises but this sensitivity may ultimately play little role in determining the mechanics of how they run their hotels.

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Chapter 5: A Survey on Time Allocations Affecting Managerial

Roles

5.1 Introduction

This chapter attempts to measure and compare the work patterns of a sample of Thai and Non-Thai hotel general managers of luxury hotels in Thailand by analysing the relationship between the allocation of time spent on the ten managerial roles and their work activities. Both data from questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were examined and elaborated. As mentioned in the preceding chapter on methodology, a questionnaire was chosen as one of the means to obtain relevant data and to allow the researcher to tailor the survey for the particular study. Thus, information about the general managers, their biographical data, work roles, work activities, and their hotels were collected by questionnaire method. A semi-structured interview was employed as a means to cope with that data which needed more elaborate explanation than could be achieved by the questionnaire method. The semi-structured interview sought the hotel general managers' views on their perceptions of their time allocations to specific work roles, and the nature of those work roles as carried out in practice. It also pursued the general managers' reflections on management styles. Data collected were used to analyse general managers' perceptions of the importance of their tasks and the time they devoted to specific work roles: figurehead, leader, liaison, monitor, disseminator, spokesman, entrepreneur, disturbance-handler, resource allocator and negotiator. The activities involved thirteen areas: desk work, telephone calls,

scheduled meetings, talk, meetings, interview, inspection, tour, travel, function, entertainment, periodical and scheduled time.

5.2 Sample procedures

Certain criteria were set to generalise the population in order to compare the work patterns and management styles between Thai and non-Thai general managers as mentioned in Chapter 3. Written questionnaires were posted to the general managers of ninety-eight luxury hotels with room rates ranging from 3,000 baht (approximately £100) to 45,000 baht (approximately £1,500) in Thailand (see Appendix A) during the period November 1994 - March 1995. Fifty members of the sample returned usable responses. The general managers were asked to provide information about their personal, educational and professional backgrounds as well as their views concerning Thai culture, importance of time allocation to work roles, based on Mintzberg's model (1973) and effective management. A major characteristic of the items in the questionnaire shown in Appendix B is their tendency to measure the respondents' attribution of the time allocation and the management style which influenced work patterns in their particular hotel properties.

5.3 Questionnaire analysis

5.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the General Managers in the Study

The total respondent set comprised sixteen Thai general managers and thirty-four non-Thai general managers, a 51.02% response rate. The respondents were 48 male general managers and 2 female general managers. The average age of general managers was forty-three. The average period of working time in Thailand as a general manager was between one to five years. The average general manager was married, having a spouse of the same nationality. These general managers managed a diverse range of properties and hotel categories in different locations in Thailand (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2).

Table 5.1 Regional breakdown of surveyed hotels (n=50)

Region/City	No. of hotels		City		Resort		Other	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Bangkok	24	48%	23	46%	-	-	1	2%
Cha-Am	3	6%	-	-	3	6%	-	-
Chiang Mai	2	4%	2	4%	-	-	-	-
Hua Hin	2	4%	-	-	2	4%	-	-
Pattaya	8	16%	-	-	7	14%	1	2%
Phuket	7	14%	1	2%	6	12%	-	-
Rayong	2	4%	-	-	2	4%	-	-
Surat Thani	2	4%	-	-	2	4%	-	-
Total	50	100%	26	52%	22	44%	2	4%

Table 5.2 Property profile of surveyed General Managers (n=50)

Category of property	No.	%	Number of rooms	No.	%
Asian chain	9	18%	51 - 100	1	2%
Western chain	10	20%	101 - 250	20	40%
International franchise	3	6%	251 - 400	18	36%
Independent	28	56%	Over 400 rooms	11	22%
Total	50	100%		50	100%

5.3.2 Respondents' personal qualifications, skills and past experience

All the general managers in the study spoke fluent English, either as their mother tongue or a second language. The study found fifteen general managers or 30% spoke only one foreign language fluently and thirty-three general managers or 66% could speak more than one foreign language fluently (see Table 5.3). Besides English, foreign languages that were widely spoken by the general managers in the study were German (34%) and French (32%). However, these general managers did not consider the ability to speak foreign languages fluently as a job advantage. The only international language required was English, and the majority of the hotel guests in Thailand spoke English. Speaking several foreign languages fluently might impress the guests, but it was neither necessary nor important in affecting managers' career advancement. In addition, a few Thai general managers surveyed spoke only two languages, Thai and English.

Table 5.3 Language ability (n=50)

Language	Fluent (%)	Basic (%)
English	100.00	-
French	32.00	30.00
German	34.00	12.00
Italian	3.00	18.00
Japanese	2.00	6.00
Mandarin	2.00	6.00
Spanish	12.00	16.00
Thai	38.00	26.00
Others	12.00	8.00

5.3.2.1 Educational backgrounds

Thirty-three general managers (66%) had attended hotel schools. Ten general managers (32.3%) graduated from Switzerland, six (19.4%) from the U.K. and four (12.9%) from the U.S.A. (see Figure 5.1). Among these thirty-three general managers, twelve furthered their studies after hotel school by further attending college. Two of them pursued their studies in different fields, Business Administration and Accounting. Twenty-seven general managers (54%) held a university degree (see Table 5.4) and of these, nine had continued to postgraduate studies. The degrees they held were from various fields. The majority possessed the MBA (see Figure 5.2).

Table 5.4 Profile of educational background of surveyed General Managers

(n=50)

Degree	No.	Percentage
Hotel School	11	22%
College (Hotel)	10	20%
College (Non Hotel)	2	4%
Univ. (Hotel)	10	20%
Univ. (Non Hotel)	17	34%
Total	50	100

Figure 5.1 Numbers of General Managers attending hotel school (n=33)

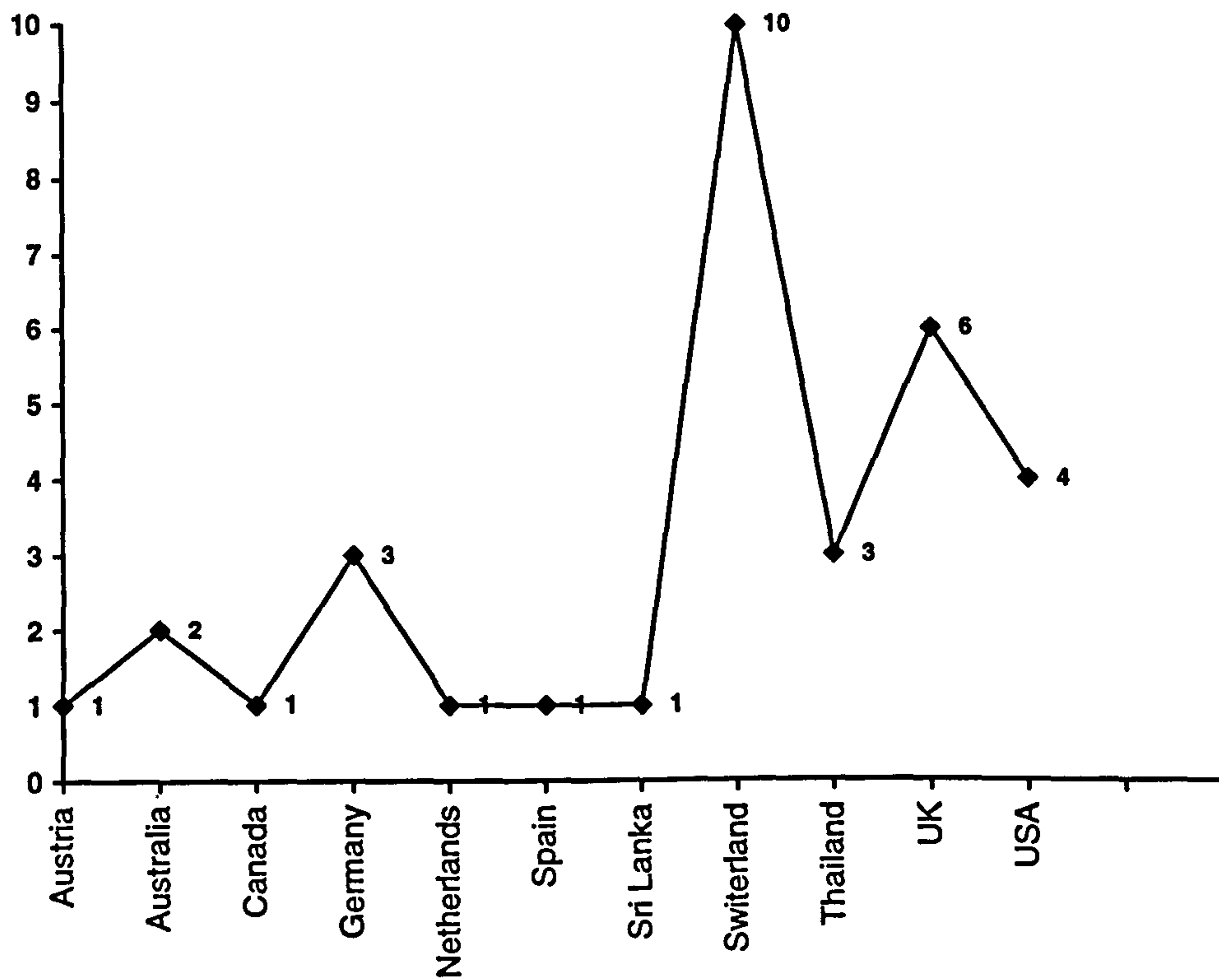
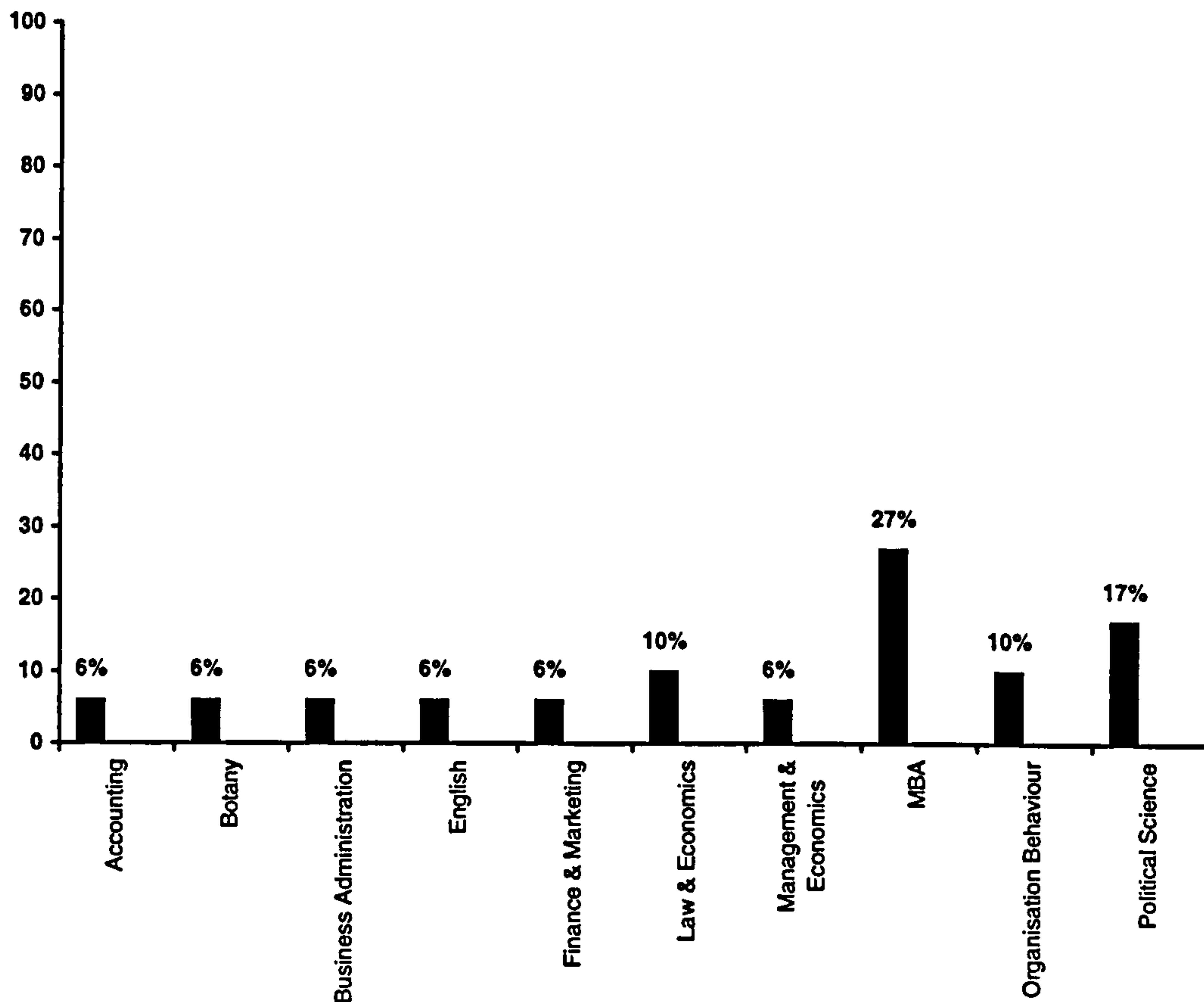


Figure 5.2 Breakdown of General Managers' degrees by subjects (n=17)



Thus, general managers who were university graduates (54%) outnumbered general managers who had only hotel school qualifications (22%).

Twenty-eight percent of the respondents were originally apprentices. Most of them did their apprenticeship in Germany (30.8%), Thailand (23.1%), and Switzerland (15.4%) in the areas of Hotel Management/Catering (16%), Business Administration/Commerce (9.1%), Science (9.1%), and General Education (9.1%).

Twenty-two percent of the total had training or work experience in different countries from those in which they had studied, 15.4% of the total had their training or work experience in Switzerland, 10.3% in China, 10.3% in Hong Kong, 10.3% in Indonesia and 5.1% in Spain.

The conclusion about general managers' educational backgrounds in the study that can be drawn from this analysis is that the majority are university graduates who also have hotel school qualifications. Reasons which show that this is important to Thai hotel school education are:

- the findings confirm that people in the industry show potential to further their studies at university level;
- the findings signify that people at management level of the industry valued university degrees in addition to hotel qualifications and past experience; and
- it is more economical in terms of time and financial expenditure to supply hotel school higher education in Thailand.

This argument could be supported by the surveyed conducted by the Tourism Authority of Thailand in 1993. The Tourism Authority of Thailand called for a seminar on Human Resource Development in the hospitality industry. The seminar reported that out of fifty-two institutes and universities which conducting hotel

management courses in Thailand there were twenty-one (40.4%) which offered courses at bachelor degree level. This shows that there is scope to encourage other Thai universities and institutes to develop their curricula and offer courses in hospitality management at bachelor degree or higher level in addition to the certificate level in order to cope with the demand from the industry. In addition, these institutes should consider courses for higher education and be able to offer courses for part-time students. This is because there are people who already work in the industry and wish to further their studies in order to enhance their career advancement. Many people entered the industry at a very young age and aspire to climb the career ladder. Thus, part-time courses would enable these people to continue working in the industry and pursue their degrees. However, these universities and hotel school institutes should recognise that qualified teaching personnel to conduct the courses and support teaching and training are limited in number.

As mentioned above, at present, university degrees are highly valued in Thai society. Thai universities and institutions offering courses in hospitality management are shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Summary of institutions running hospitality courses

Institutions	No.
Government Univ.	13
Private Univ.	9
College of Teacher Training	16
Rajmongkol Institute of Technology	2
Vocational Institute	10
Tourism Authority of Thailand	1
Private School	34
Total	85

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand, Seminar on Human Resources Development in Hospitality Industry 1993

From the seminar, Tourism Authority of Thailand ranged courses and classified them into 3 groups: Tourism, Hotel and Service Industry. The range of qualifications were classified into 5 levels:

- 1) Tourist Guide Training (Tourist Guide Training Certification)
- 2) Professional Training (one year programme) (Professional Certification)
- 3) Vocational School (1-3 years programme) (Certificate)
- 4) Vocational School (Higher Certificate or Diploma)
- 5) Bachelor Degree (Bachelor Degree)

The seminar also reported that in 1991 47,000 students graduated from the surveyed universities and institutes. The majority (14,790 graduates) possessed certificates from the third category (vocational school 1-3 years programme). However, the report shows that there was a high demand for university level qualified personnel in hotel management. This is because there were 5,300 applicants while the universities could hold only 2,500 students (Tourism Authority of Thailand 1993). This evidence supports that there is a high demand for hospitality management courses at university level and the demand exceeded supply. The report from the seminar shows that there were not sufficient qualified personnel and experts to teach hotel management courses in Thailand. In addition, at present there are very few textbooks in the hospitality field to supplement course teaching. Therefore, both government and private sector should be aware of the lack of personnel and could co-operate to develop human resources in

hospitality industry by assisting Thai hotel school educational institutes in developing their curricula and training in order to produce qualified personnel for the industry.

5.3.2.2 Professional backgrounds

Before they became hotel general managers, respondents had worked in various departments. The majority of respondents had worked in Rooms Division (84%), Food & Beverage (76%) and Marketing & Sales (54%) (see Table 5.6). Only one general manager had no hotel experience before being assigned to their present job. The results confirm that the career path of general managers involves three major departments, namely Room Division, Food & Beverage and Marketing & Sales (see Tables 5.6, 5.7 and 5.8) (Wood 1992).

Table 5.6 Number(s) of department(s) of General Managers' work experience indicated in the survey (n=50)

No. of Department(s)	No	%
None	1	2%
1	6	12%
2	12	24%
3	18	36%
4	6	12%
5	6	12%
6	1	2%
Total	50	100

Table 5.7 General Managers' work experience (n=50)

Departments	Accounting & Finance		Engineering		Food & Beverage		Human Resources		Marketing & Sales		Room Division		Non-Hotel Management	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	17	34%	8	16%	38	76%	12	24%	27	54%	42	84%	8	16%
No	33	66%	42	84%	12	24%	38	76%	23	46%	8	16%	42	84%
Total	50	100	50	100	50	100	50	100	50	100	50	100	50	100

Table 5.8 Breakdown of General Managers' work experience by department(s) (n=50)

Departments	1 Dept.		2 Dept.		3 Dept.		4 Dept.		5 Dept.	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Accounting & Finance	-	-	1	2%	6	12%	4	8%	6	12%
Engineering	-	-	1	2%	1	2%	-	-	6	12%
Food & Beverage	3	6%	7	15%	16	32%	6	12%	6	12%
Human Resources	-	-	3	6%	1	2%	2	4%	6	12%
Marketing & Sales	-	-	3	6%	12	24%	6	12%	6	12%
Room Division	3	6%	9	18%	18	36%	6	12%	6	12%

5.3.2.3 General Managers' expertise

These general managers specialised in various areas. The majority were experts in Food & Beverage (32.5%) and in General Management (23.3%). It is very interesting to note that most of these managers' work experience was dominated by Room Division and Food & Beverage. However, when they specified their specialities, Room Division appeared on the third rank (18.6%) at the same rank as Marketing & Sales (18.6%) (see Table 5.9). Therefore, it can be concluded that general managers' work was dominated by four major areas which are Food & Beverage, General Management, Room Division and Marketing & Sales.

Table 5.9 General Managers' specialism (n=50)

Specialisation	No.	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Human Resources	3	6%	7.0%
Room Division	8	16%	18.6%
Food & Beverage	14	28%	32.5%
Marketing/Sales	8	16%	18.6%
General Management	10	20%	23.3%
Not answer	7	14%	-
Total	50	100%	100%

To sum up, in general, many recruiters believe that hotel general managers should be career oriented as well as possess hotel certifications. In addition, many people tend to give higher credit to university degrees in particular fields i.e. Engineering, MBA and Marketing than in the hospitality field. This is because they believe that management in the industry is vocational and managers' abilities are based on operational skills. Some people think hotel managers may not be as intelligent or skilled as managers from other industries. However, this study found that most of the

general managers were university graduates (54%) and some of them came from a non-hotel management field (34%). In addition, research has suggested that potential general managers come from the Food & Beverage Department. The explanation of this fact could be that, historically, Food & Beverage was the major department. It was a major source of income because restaurants attracted both in-house guests and local guests to use the hotel. The results of this study show, however, that the general managers moved up from both Food & Beverage and Room Division Departments. Also, the majority worked in three major areas, namely Food & Beverage, Room Division and Marketing & Sales. The importance of room division is attributable to the economic significance of accommodation sales. It is also very interesting to note the importance of Marketing & Sales. The reason for this is that competition in today's hotel industry has intensified, and the world view in marketing was widened. Hotels have to compete with one another, even within the same hotel chain. Hence, Marketing & Sales is a major department which can significantly affect the profits or loss of the hotel through its performance.

This evidence supports the view that management knowledge and managerial skills are as important as hotel knowledge and operational skills. This finding can also be inferred from the general managers' educational background in that 27% of the graduate managers held an MBA degree. However, it is misleading to think that a manager from other industries can easily become a hotel manager. This is because managing hotels requires both management and hotel knowledge, blended with

operational skills. It implies that management qualifications and hotel operational skills are complementary.

5.3.3 Hotel information

As mentioned earlier, general managers in the sample managed a diverse range of properties and hotel categories in different locations all over the country. They were 52% city hotels, 44% resort hotels and 4% others which were identified as city resort hotels (see Table 5.1). The majority of the properties were independent hotels (56%), Western chain (20%) and Asian chain (18%) respectively. In terms of size, most hotels ranged between 101-250 rooms (40%), 251-400 rooms (36%) and over 400 rooms (22%) (see Table 5.2).

The majority of the surveyed hotels were independent hotels and of medium size. These hotels employed both full and part time employees. The minimum number of full time employees in the surveyed hotels was sixty-three persons, and the maximum was nine hundred and forty persons. The minimum number of part-time employees employed by the surveyed hotels was four persons and the maximum number of part-time employees was three hundred and twenty persons (see Table 5.10). The majority of employees were Thai (98.77%). The number of expatriate employees working in the surveyed hotels was very low. They were identified as Asian (1.9%), European (1.26%), American (1%) and others (1%) (see Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 Numbers of employees and nationalities of employees

Numbers of employees	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	person(s)
				Maximum
Full time employee(s)	427.04	212.96	63.00	940.00
Part time employee(s)	62.05	73.13	4.00	320.00
Foreigner(s) employed as key employee(s)	3.85	3.42	1.00	13.00
Nationalities of employees	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	percentage
				Maximum
Thai employee(s)	98.77	1.68	90.00	100.00
Asian Employee(s)	1.90	2.18	1.00	8.00
European employee(s)	1.26	0.53	1.00	3.00
American employee(s)	1.00	.00	1.00	1.00
Others	1.00	.00	1.00	1.00

The average number of expatriates hired as key employees (i.e. executive chef, director of human resources, director of finance) in the surveyed hotels was two persons or 22%. The highest number of expatriates employed as key employees in a single hotel was thirteen persons and the lowest number was one person (see Table 5.11).

This signifies that the Thai hotel industry is gearing to employ fewer expatriates and more Thais because the number of hotels (11) which employed two expatriate key employees and the number of hotels (11) which did not employ any expatriate are equal.

Table 5.11 Numbers of expatriates employed as department heads or key employees (n=50)

No. of expatriate(s)	No. of hotel(s)	Percentage
none	11	22%
1	10	20%
2	11	22%
3	5	10%
4	1	2%
5	2	4%
6	3	6%
7	1	2%
8	-	-
9	2	4%
10	2	4%
11	-	-
12	-	-
13	2	4%
Total	50	100%

5.3.4 Benefits received from company

The benefits that the companies provided for these general managers were the basic ones such as accommodation, health insurance, car and bonus. The benefits received from the companies are shown in Table 5.12 below.

Table 5.12 Summary of surveyed General Managers' benefits (n=50)

Benefits	YES		NO	
	No.	%	No.	%
Accommodation	46	92%	4	8%
Annual Home Leave	42	56%	8	44%
Annual Leave	28	84%	22	16%
Bonus	44	88%	6	12%
Car	45	90%	5	10%
Child Benefit	8	16%	42	84%
Health Insurance	45	90%	5	10%
Life Insurance	33	66%	17	34%
Profit Sharing	13	26%	37	74%
Share Option	8	16%	42	84%
Others	12	24%	38	76%

In order to indicate the general managers' preference for company benefits, they were asked to rank these benefits. The results showed that accommodation came top followed by child benefit and "others". When asked to indicate what came under this category, most respondents specified travel allowance (see Table 5.13). Thus, it appears that these general managers ranked benefits according to their concern for security. Since most of the general managers were non-Thais, their priority need was accommodation. The next important concern was family. The average general manager was a married man, therefore child benefit came second. The third ranked item was interesting. Most people would think that the general managers had to be present at their hotels all the time and rarely travel to other places. Contrary to this assumption, hotel general managers have to do some business travel. When they travelled, either for sales and marketing promotion or for other hotel business, they were concerned with the adequacy of their travel allowance.

Table 5.13 Ranks of importance of benefits received from the companies
(n = 50)

Benefit	Rank	Mean	STD Dev
Accommodation	1	2.40	1.41
Child Benefit	2	2.63	2.52
Others	3	2.78	3.20
Health Insurance	4	3.23	3.03
Bonus	5	3.70	2.45
Life Insurance	6	4.25	1.65
Car	7	4.43	2.11
Profit Sharing	8	5.00	1.59
Annual Leave	9	5.15	1.87
Annual Home Leave	10	5.44	2.02
Share Option	11	5.75	1.87

In order to examine the correlation between the general managers' personal data and their preference in ranking the company benefits, a statistical cross-tabulation was

employed. The significant values were read by chi-square correlation. The benefits were cross-tabulated with the general managers' personal data. In other words, when the observed significance level is below .05, this shows that there is a correlation between those two variables. The following are the more interesting results deriving from the analysis.

- **“Marital status” and “Bonus”.** Marital status relates to the ranks of benefit when it comes to "Bonus". The observed significance level is .01912. These two variables are somehow related. The results show that the majority (79.1%) who received this benefit are married. Of these 79.1%, 20.9% ranked bonus benefit as first priority and 18.6% ranked it second.
- **“Car benefit” and “Age”.** When the benefits received from the company were compared with the age of the general manager, there is a correlation between “Car benefit” and “Age”. The observed significance level is .03464. This means that these two variables are in some way connected to each other. The column percentages shows that 44% of the general managers received the “Car benefit” and 56% did not receive this benefit. The results show that the general managers who did not receive this benefit were in the youngest age group which is between 25-34. The majority who received the benefit were in the age group of 35-44.
- **“Car benefit” and “Nationality”.** The significance level of this cross-tabulation is .04859. The column percentages shows 34% of the general managers who

received car benefit were non-Thai and 10% were Thai. This correlation shows that most hotel companies considered that this benefit should be provided to non-Thai managers.

- **“Car benefit” and “Sex”**. The observed significance level of this cross-tabulation is .00125. Since the significance level is quite small there is a high possibility that male and female general managers do not find car benefit equally important. The results are interesting because one of the female general managers ranked car benefit as her first priority and the other ranked third while the majority of male general managers ranked fourth. This can indicate that women think of car as a basic necessity of life more than men do. However, there were only two female general managers in the study. The sample of female general managers was too small which may cause a deviation in the chi-square distribution. Thus, it is unwise to draw a general conclusion.
- **“Car benefit” and “Period of time working in Thailand”**. The significance level of this cross-tabulation is .00718. This means that these two variables are related. The results show that the majority (40.9%) of the general managers who received this benefit have worked in Thailand for between one and five years. Of these 40.9%, 15.9% ranked car benefit fourth out of ten.
- **“Nationality” and “Accommodation”**. The observed significance level is .03465. This shows that these two variables are by some means related. The

significance level shows that Thai and non-Thai general managers do not judge accommodation as equally important. The results show that the majority (55.6%) of the general managers considered “Accommodation” was the first priority. The breaking down of this 55.6% shows that 70% were non-Thai and 30% were Thai. This confirms that accommodation benefit gained the highest response rate was from expatriates who were more concerned for basic security as discussed above.

- **“Nationality” and “Annual home leave”.** The observed significance level is .00093. Since the significance level is quite small it is obvious that hotel companies provided this benefit for non-Thai managers more than Thai managers. The column percentages show 56% of the general managers received this benefit, of which some 82% were non-Thai.

5.3.5 Respondents’ rating of managerial work roles and allocation of time to each work role

To examine the significance of the importance of the general manager’s work roles, the general managers in the sample were given ten managerial work roles, derived from Mintzberg’s research, to rank in importance (1 = most important, 10 = least important) in association with their daily work. Also, they were asked to specify their time allocation to each work role. In order to generate the data of the general managers’ time allocations, they were asked to estimate both the actual time

allocations and to estimate the ideal time allocation to the specific roles (see Appendix B, items 34 and 35).

5.3.5.1 Summary of ranks of importance of managerial roles (actual)

In term of actual importance of particular roles to managers, the study found that 71.7% of the total respondents placed the leader role in the first rank and 27.3% ranked the entrepreneur role first. As for the second rank, 25% of the general managers chose entrepreneur and 20% chose monitor (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.14 General Managers' allocation of importance to the ten managerial roles actually performed on day to day operation (n=50)

		(percentage)									
Rank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total
Figurehead	4.70	11.60	7.00	13.90	7.00	11.60	2.30	7.00	9.30	25.60	100
Leader	71.70	17.40	2.20	2.20	2.20	-	4.30	-	-	-	100
Liaison	-	13.90	25.60	4.70	13.90	9.30	7.00	16.30	7.00	2.30	100
Monitor	11.10	20.00	13.30	15.60	11.10	6.70	6.70	6.70	8.90	-	100
Disseminator	2.30	11.40	11.40	25.00	13.60	4.50	4.50	13.60	11.40	2.30	100
Spokesman	4.50	4.50	11.50	4.50	6.80	16.00	6.80	13.60	13.00	18.20	100
Entrepreneur	27.30	25.00	11.30	11.30	4.60	2.30	13.60	2.30	-	2.30	100
Disturbance handler	11.10	2.20	8.90	6.70	22.20	20.00	6.70	11.10	2.20	8.90	100
Resource allocator	2.30	11.60	13.90	4.70	18.60	9.30	16.30	9.30	9.30	4.70	100
Negotiator	9.30	2.30	9.30	11.60	4.70	7.00	9.30	7.00	23.30	16.30	100

Overall the ranking of importance of the ten managerial roles was measured by mean scores as presented in Table 5.15. The results from Table 5.15 are then arranged in rank order as shown in Table 5.16.

Table 5.15 Summary of General Managers' average ranks of importance of ten managerial roles (actual) (n=50)

Managerial Roles	Mean	Std Dev
Figurehead	6.21	3.11
Leader	1.63	1.42
Liaison	5.14	2.45
Monitor	4.29	2.50
Disseminator	5.20	2.45
Spokesman	6.57	2.78
Entrepreneur	3.30	2.40
Disturbance handler	5.44	2.53
Resource allocator	5.53	2.47
Negotiator	6.47	3.02

Table 5.16 General Managers' ranks of importance of ten managerial roles (actual) (n=50)

Rank	Roles
1	Leader
2	Entrepreneur
3	Monitor
4	Liaison
5	Disseminator
6	Disturbance handler
7	Resource allocator
8	Figurehead
9	Negotiator
10	Spokesman

The results from Table 5.16 shows that overall, the leader role was first in rank of importance followed by the entrepreneur role. These findings are similar to those of Ley's study (1978). In addition, the monitor role was third ranked in importance, and the liaison role fourth. The disseminator role was ranked fifth and followed by the disturbance handler role, the resource allocator, the figurehead and the negotiator respectively. The least important role in this list is the spokesman role.

5.3.5.2 Summary of ranks of importance of managerial roles (ideal)

In addition, the researcher aimed to analyse how general managers would perceive and perform the ten managerial roles in an ideal world. In order to compare the general managers' actual performances with their ideal of the importance of roles, they were requested to rank the ten managerial roles according to their ideal views and also to specify the time allocation they would like to give to each chosen role. The results of the general managers' ideal view of the importance of managerial roles are illustrated in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 General Managers' allocation of importance to ten managerial roles on day to day operation (ideal) (n=50)

		(percentage)									
Rank		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Roles											
Figurehead		10.80	8.10	5.40	8.10	10.80	8.10	13.50	5.40	8.10	21.70
Leader		72.70	15.20	9.10	3.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
Liaison		-	8.10	16.20	13.50	10.80	21.70	8.10	8.10	5.40	8.10
Monitor		7.60	10.30	17.90	15.40	10.30	7.60	10.30	10.30	10.30	-
Disseminator		2.60	7.70	10.20	7.70	17.90	15.40	7.70	15.40	12.80	2.60
Spokesman		-	7.90	5.20	2.60	13.20	15.80	5.30	18.40	18.40	13.20
Entrepreneur		30.70	25.60	5.10	10.30	10.30	2.60	12.80	-	-	2.60
Disturbance handler		2.70	2.70	13.50	10.80	5.40	8.10	8.10	13.50	13.50	21.70
Resource allocator		2.70	8.10	21.70	10.80	13.50	5.40	10.80	13.50	10.80	2.70
Negotiator		5.30	2.70	5.30	10.50	10.50	7.90	13.10	15.80	13.10	15.80

The ranking of importance of the ten managerial roles in the ideal world were also measured by the same method (mean score) of the actual ranking of importance as presented in Table 5.18. Then, the results from Table 5.18 are arranged in rank order as shown in Table 5.19.

Table 5.18 Summary of General Managers' average ranks of importance of ten managerial roles (ideal) (n=50)

Managerial Roles	Mean	Std Dev
Figurehead	6.05	3.12
Leader	1.42	0.79
Liaison	5.54	2.35
Monitor	4.87	2.49
Disseminator	5.79	2.38
Spokesman	6.84	2.44
Entrepreneur	3.21	2.38
Disturbance handler	6.70	2.80
Resource allocator	5.35	2.51
Negotiator	6.63	2.64

Table 5.19 General Managers' ranks of importance of ten managerial roles (ideal) (n=50)

Rank	Roles
1	Leader
2	Entrepreneur
3	Monitor
4	Resource allocator
5	Liaison
6	Disseminator
7	Figurehead
8	Negotiator
9	Disturbance handler
10	Spokesman

5.3.5.3 Comparison of actual and ideal ranked importance of managerial roles

From Table 5.16, 72.7% of the general managers chose the leader role for the first rank of importance. The results show that the response for the ideal rank of importance increased by only 1% from the actual rank of importance of the leader role

which was of 71.7%. Twenty-five percent of the general managers chose the entrepreneur role as their second ideal whereas 25.6% chose this in terms of their actual performance, a difference of 0.6%. The monitor role was ranked as the third ideal at 17.9% and for actual performance at 13.3% (see Tables 5.14 and 5.17).

To sum up, the leader, entrepreneur and monitor roles were in the same ranks (1-3) for both actual and ideal roles. Also, the last rank, the tenth, remained the same for both actual and ideal roles, with the spokesman role. But, from the fourth to the ninth rank actual and ideal roles were slightly different as follows:

Rank	Managerial Role	
	Actual	Ideal
1	Leader	Leader
2	Entrepreneur	Entrepreneur
3	Monitor	Monitor
4	Liaison	Resource allocator
5	Disseminator	Liaison
6	Disturbance handler	Disseminator
7	Resource allocator	Figurehead
8	Figurehead	Negotiator
9	Negotiator	Disturbance handler
10	Spokesman	Spokesman

In conclusion, the results of the comparison of degree of importance of actual roles performed by general managers and ideal roles perceived by general managers were similar in the first three ranks, leader, entrepreneur and monitor, and the last rank, spokesman. The other ranks were slightly different (see Figure 5.3 and Table 5.20). From this finding, it could, therefore, be concluded that the majority of the general

managers judged that they could perform their ideal roles in the actual day to day operation.

Figure 5.3 The comparison of degree of importance of actual roles performed and ideal roles (n = 50)

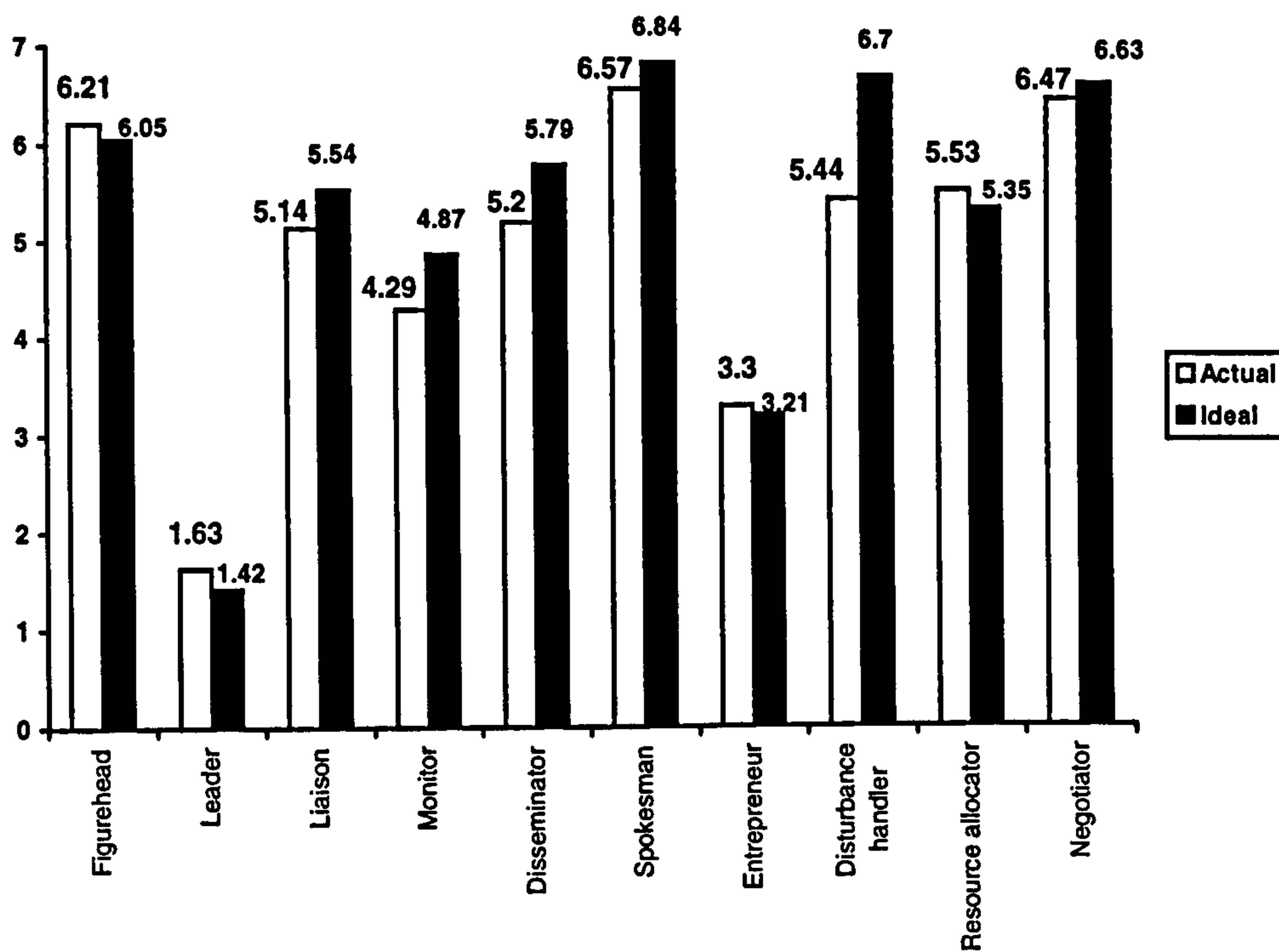


Table 5.20 Actual and ideal ranked importance of the managerial roles (n=50)

Roles	Actual Ranked	Ideal Ranked	Difference
Figurehead	8	7	1
Leader	1	1	0
Liaison	4	5	1
Monitor	3	3	0
Disseminator	5	6	1
Spokesman	10	10	0
Entrepreneur	2	2	0
Disturbance handler	6	9	3
Resource allocator	7	4	3
Negotiator	9	8	1

5.3.5.4 Comparison of actual and ideal time allocations of managerial roles

In addition, to the foregoing, the general managers were asked to estimate their actual time allocation to the specific roles. The results of the average time allocations to the actual roles were shown by the mean score. It is very interesting to notice that most of the general managers estimated the greatest amount of allocated time to the leader role, indicated as a mean of 28.93. This was followed by the entrepreneur role (14.21), disseminator (11.53) and monitor (10.27) (see Table 5.21). The results of the questionnaire analysis show that there is a correlation between the degree of importance attached to actual roles, and the amount of time allocations estimated for those roles in ranks 1, 2 and 10 (leader, entrepreneur and spokesman) were correlated with the amount of time allocations of these particular roles. But, the rest of the ranks and time allocations were not correlated (see Table 5.22).

Table 5.21 The average estimated time allocations of ten managerial roles
(actual) (n=50)

Managerial Roles	Mean	Std Dev
Figurehead	10.09	8.97
Leader	28.93	22.57
Liaison	9.64	6.95
Monitor	10.27	6.04
Disseminator	11.53	9.65
Spokesman	6.08	4.64
Entrepreneur	14.21	10.50
Disturbance handler	8.54	6.19
Resource allocator	9.57	5.16
Negotiator	8.68	6.56

Table 5.22 Actual ranked importance and time allocations of managerial roles

Rank	Managerial Role	
	Importance	Time allocations
1	Leader	Leader
2	Entrepreneur	Entrepreneur
3	Monitor	Disseminator
4	Liaison	Monitor
5	Disseminator	Figurehead
6	Disturbance handler	Resource allocator
7	Resource allocator	Liaison
8	Figurehead	Negotiator
9	Negotiator	Disturbance handler
10	Spokesman	Spokesman

This suggests that the correlation between rank of importance and amount of time allocation may not be true for every work role. It is worth noted that there were high correlations for the most significant and insignificant roles (leader, entrepreneur and spokesman) while the other roles in the middle were less precisely correlated. Therefore, it was important to further the investigation by observation. These findings will be later compared with the observation analysis in Chapter 6.

In comparing the ranks of time allocations between the actual roles and the ideal roles, the results showed that the ranks of time allocations of the two most time-consuming roles, the leader and the entrepreneur, were the same in both actual roles and ideal roles. Similarly, the ranks of the two least time consuming roles, the disturbance handler and the spokesman, coincided in both actual and ideal roles. The other ranks of time allocation in both cases varied slightly (see Table 5.23).

Table 5.23 Comparison of actual and ideal ranked time allocations

Rank	Managerial Role	
	Actual	Ideal
1	Leader	Leader
2	Entrepreneur	Entrepreneur
3	Disseminator	Figurehead
4	Monitor	Monitor
5	Figurehead	Disseminator
6	Resource allocator	Liaison
7	Liaison	Negotiator
8	Negotiator	Resource allocator
9	Disturbance handler	Disturbance handler
10	Spokesman	Spokesman

As for the comparison between the actual time allocation and the ideal time allocation of the managerial roles, differences between mean scores show that in most cases, managers spent less time on those roles than they would have ideally liked. These differences are not vastly significant except for the leader, entrepreneur and figurehead roles. As would be expected, given that those are the roles which managers would like to regard as ideally important, they would wish to spend more time on them (see Table 5.24). Of related interest is the observation that managers would ideally have liked to spend considerably less time on the disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator roles - all of which might be regarded as routinely difficult "hands on" decision-making roles in a hotel environment. To investigate why the ideal time allocations were increased in some roles and decreased in certain roles would be very interesting. However, the limitation of the questionnaire and interview methods was that it could not indicate exactly the reasons for differences between actual and ideal time allocations for these ten managerial roles.

Table 5.24 General Managers' actual and ideal time allocations of the managerial roles (n=50)

Roles	Actual	Ideal	Difference
Figurehead	10.09	12.34	-2.25
Leader	28.93	36.52	-7.59
Liaison	9.64	10.08	-0.44
Monitor	10.27	10.57	-0.30
Disseminator	11.53	11.66	-0.12
Spokesman	6.08	5.56	+0.52
Entrepreneur	14.21	17.55	-3.34
Disturbance handler	8.54	7.11	+1.43
Resource allocator	9.57	7.48	+2.09
Negotiator	8.68	8.67	+0.01

5.3.6 General managers' time allocation to major departments

This study also investigated general managers' actual time allocation to administrative work and major hotel departments: Accounting, Engineering, Food & Beverage, Human Resources, Marketing & Sales and the Room Division. The time allocations of the general managers to administrative work and to each department were measured by the mean score of stated time allocations. The results show that the greatest amount of time spent was involved in administrative work with a mean score of 24.93. The department which consumed most of the general managers' time was Marketing & Sales (24.83), followed by Food & Beverage (19.36) and Room Division (16.96). The least time usage at this level was Engineering, recorded at 7.02 (see Table 5.25).

Table 5.25 Average estimated time allocations to major departments (n=50)

Departments	Mean	Std Dev
Administrative	24.93	19.88
Accounting	10.44	4.99
Engineering	7.02	4.24
Food & Beverage	19.36	17.90
Human Resources	13.12	7.93
Marketing & Sales	24.83	12.35
Room Division	16.96	18.03

As discussed earlier, the Food & Beverage, Marketing & Sales and Room Division departments were the focus of the general managers' attention because these departments were regarded as contributing most to the profit or loss of the properties they managed. The Marketing & Sales department was given special attention because of the intense business competition during the period surveyed.

5.3.7 Frequency of actual managerial activities and routine occurrences of the surveyed General Managers

In order to measure the frequency of certain occurrences and activities repeatedly encountered in an average month, the general managers were given five scales - always (5), often (4), sometimes (3), seldom (2) and never (1) - to identify the frequency of the occurrences and activities. The results show that the activity which was most often repeated was "socialising" with a mean of 3.94. Scheduling their time in advance (3.92) came second. The general managers found that their business was often executed by means of the telephone. So, maintaining the personal business

network of contacts through the telephone gained the third rank with a mean of 3.86 (see Table 5.26). The results of the survey showed that these general managers seldom dealt with crises or emergencies. The mean for this item showed the lowest score of 2.61. This response was correlated with managers' estimated actual time allocations

Table 5.26 Mean of frequency of General Managers' activities occurring during day to day operation in an average month (n = 50)

Activities	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
- Making changes for the sake of finding something new and different	3.10	1.07	1.00	5.00
- Socializing (e.g. guests, local community)	3.94	0.92	2.00	5.00
- Scheduling my time in advance	3.92	0.90	1.00	5.00
- Maintaining your personal network of contacts through the telephone	3.86	0.87	2.00	5.00
- Fragmentation/ frequent change of activity	3.41	0.86	1.00	5.00
- Frequent interruptions	3.35	0.97	1.00	5.00
- Too many reports (to read/ write)	3.30	0.93	1.00	5.00
- Public/ client queries/ complaints	3.24	0.72	2.00	5.00
- Training new staff	3.20	1.08	1.00	5.00
- Staff queries/ complaints	3.12	0.90	1.00	5.00
- Business travelling	3.04	0.73	2.00	4.00
- Information unavailable/ delayed/ insufficient	3.00	0.83	1.00	5.00
- Staff shortage/ absence	2.90	1.04	1.00	5.00
- Waiting for decisions	2.86	0.88	1.00	5.00
- Unplanned meetings	2.76	0.92	1.00	5.00
- Crises, emergencies	2.61	0.89	1.00	5.00
- Correspondence delays	2.57	0.87	1.00	5.00
- Responsibility without authority	2.38	0.99	1.00	5.00

to the disturbance handler role, which was ranked ninth (see Table 5.27). The most frequently repeated activities of the general managers could be summarised as meeting with guests, agencies and the local community. The telephone was used as the main

means of maintaining their business connections. These general managers were aware of the importance of time management and often scheduled their time in advance.

To investigate the relationship between the ten managerial roles and the hotel general managers' routine activities and occurrences, a statistical cross-tabulation was employed. The significant values were read by chi-square correlation. The roles which showed significant correlative values with the listed activities are as follows.

Table 5.27 Comparison of General Managers' ranks of actual and ideal time allocations of the managerial roles (n=50)

Roles	Actual Ranked	Ideal Ranked	Difference
Figurehead	5	3	2
Leader	1	1	0
Liaison	7	6	1
Monitor	4	5	1
Disseminator	3	4	1
Spokesman	10	10	0
Entrepreneur	2	2	0
Disturbance handler	9	9	0
Resource allocator	6	8	2
Negotiator	8	7	1

The leader role showed a significant correlation with six activities with a significance level of .00036. The leader role was collated with a group of activities consisting of:

- maintaining the personal network of contacts through the telephone;
- business travelling;
- socialising;
- public/client queries/complaints;

- staff queries/complaints; and
- training new staff.

The next relationship which derived from the cross-tabulation is the monitor role and the activity of “too many reports to read/write”. with a significance level of .02313.

The results confirm that the monitor role is the key to organisational information flow (Mintzberg, 1973). The monitor role involves the manager receiving and collecting information from the reports that s/he has to read and write.

Spokesman is another role that shows correlative significance. The observed significance level is .03992. The spokesman role is correlated with the following activities:

- information unavailable/delayed;
- correspondence delayed; and
- waiting for decision.

The results show that the spokesman role involves the dissemination of the organisation’s information into its environment. Therefore, the spokesman role is critical when the above lists of activities occur.

In addition, the negotiator role correlates with the occurrence of the “staff shortage/absence”. The significance level was .01589. The results show that the

manager appears to be a negotiator on the behalf of his/her organisation when there is a staff shortage or absence.

A last pair of significant correlations was shown between the disturbance handler role and the following activities, indicated at a significance level of .01570:

- crises;
- fragmentation/interruptions; and
- unplanned meeting.

The results confirm that the disturbance handler role involves the manager when his/her organisation is threatened (Mintzberg 1973: Shortt 1989).

It is interesting to note that if the general managers' estimated time allocation of their actual roles and their ideal roles coincide with the results of the observation analysis then it may be concluded that the questionnaire method is an efficient method to investigate time allocations and managerial roles.

In conclusion, the major findings of the questionnaire analysis are that (1) the general managers' job pattern is proactive which contradicts both much prior research and what many people might presume; (2) general managers are involved in three major roles which are leader, entrepreneur and monitor; and (3) they often schedule their time in advance. However, the job is also often interrupted and there were frequent

changes of activities. The investigation of these points will be further discussed in Chapter 6: Analysis of Observation Results.

5.4 Interview analysis

A semi-structured interview was used to gather the detailed and in-depth views of both Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers on the management style, key influences on managerial development, personal characteristics needed for effective hotel management, criteria for selecting hotel general managers, and direction for potential hotel general managers. The interview also gave the interviewer an opportunity to ask the general managers about what activities consumed most of their working time and how they managed to schedule their time in advance given that the hotel general managers' work was fragmented, frequently interrupted and sometimes unpredictable. The number of general managers participating in the interview was fifteen, ten non-Thais and five Thais. A series of questions were asked during the interviews as shown in Appendix C. Only some questions and answers are reported here and there have been selected in order to support, elaborate and allow comparison with the analysis of the material covered in Chapter 3, the questionnaire results discussed above and with the observational analysis reported in Chapter 6.

5.5 Managerial role and activities

Question: *Which role do you think is the most important, and why?*

Out of the fifteen interviewees, twelve chose the leader role as the most important role whereas two chose the figurehead and one chose the negotiator. The reason advanced for regarding the leader role as the most important was identified as the significance of staff and team work. This view was typified by the following quote: “The leader is important because staff are the most important. It is my strong belief that only a happy staff can make the guest happy”. Such a view seems to imply that many managers see themselves as central, in leadership terms to the creation of a harmonious workforce.

The two general managers who chose the figurehead as the most important role did so because they argued that the figurehead was present all the time, whether when signing a contract or participating in a meeting. Only one of the general managers in the interview chose the negotiator role as the most important role for the reason that Marketing & Sales were given the most importance and emphasis in his hotel. This is because during a marketing campaign and promotion this general manager did a lot of negotiation on the behalf of his organisation with an advertising agency and other hotels, as he noted:

Our focus is on Marketing & Sales because when we get it right it will generate more income for the hotel. Recently, I spent a lot of time on marketing because we came up with a project which is a marketing consortium. So, I have to meet with other general managers and negotiate with them in order to keep the mutual benefits.

Question: *Is the chosen role related to other roles? Please give examples?*

The majority of general managers accepted that the role they chose as the most important role related to other roles. The leader role interacted with monitor, disseminator, disturbance handler and resource allocator. However, the majority of the general managers agreed that the figurehead was present in all situations.

Yes, it (the leader role) relates to monitor, disseminator, disturbance handler and resource allocator. In some situations, the leader may adopt only one other role, or sometimes two roles. But, the figurehead is present all the time.

Question: *How does the leader role influence your management style?*

The replies for this question suggested that the leader role had a lot of influence on the management style and, by extrapolation, on the hotels these general managers managed. However, it was felt important that first of all, the general managers were encouraged to define what they meant by leadership. The principal types of leadership style identified by the general managers in the interview are included in the following four categories, and numbers in brackets indicate the number of general managers identifying this style:

1. autocratic - this is a style of leadership which possesses the greatest degree of individual power and decision-making; it entails the view that any form of consultation is a weakness and that the individual who is in

a position of responsibility should have sole authority over the decisions that are to be made within the organisation (4);

2. democratic - this allows the workforce to participate in the decision-making process; it has the effect of decentralising power and delegating responsibility amongst the workforce rather than vesting it in the hands of one manager (8);
3. consultative - this regards consultation as a positive contribution to the process of decision-making; workers are encouraged to make suggestions and put forward ideas about aspects of their work (6); and
4. laissez-faire - this is a French phrase which means “leave we all alone” or to give a “free-rein”; this style of management might occur in a situation where the manager can afford to leave the responsibility for decision-making and the running of an operation or section to a group of trusted, well-motivated workers (2).

The results show that the democratic style gains the highest score followed by the consultative and autocratic styles. The lowest score is the laissez-fair style. The general managers in the interview claimed that they employed more than one style of leadership, and styles varied according to the audience to which they were directed. A good example was that they tended to employ an autocratic style of leadership in dealing with housekeeping staff, but a democratic or consultative style with departmental heads. This suggests that the hierarchy of the organisation influences the

leadership styles adopted by general manager. This example confirms that general managers adopted different leadership styles according to their perceptions of the power held by audiences for those styles (Wood 1994). In commenting on this point, one general manager explained:

Of course, we need a lot of discipline. I found that the autocratic style is working with the housekeeping staff but it does not work with my department heads. I have to be a little bit careful when I deal with my department heads because they would like to be independent and to take part in any decision making.

Similarly, another general manager argued:

I have to say that perhaps I'm an autocrat. But, the autocratic style did not work very well with my department heads. I may have a lot of trouble with them if I'm always autocratic. Well, believe it or not, the department heads love to be a part of the decision making. They can, sometimes, be aggressive when I take my own decision. So, most of the time I let them make the decisions together. But, there are times that I do not agree with their decisions. So, I make the final decision.

In general, the majority of the general managers disapproved of the autocratic style of leadership and management. They agreed that democratic and consultative leadership in many cases encouraged greater motivation, commitment and productivity of staff (Go et al. 1996). However, as the above quotations suggest, consultation was very much on the general managers' own terms and the fact that so many of the

interviewees elected the consultative style as their preferred leadership style, given this evidence, is suggestive of an interviewer effect (i.e. managers volunteering the regime that would generally meet with greatest approval).

Once the general managers defined their type of leader role and adopted it, it became their management style:

Certainly, the leader role influences my managerial style. First, you have to define what kind of leader role you assume. Once you define it, execute it, it becomes your managerial style. Look at the situations of hiring, firing, salary and promotion. If I don't assume the leadership role, the ultimate decision maker, there will be no decision, and that will be bad for the hotel.

Question: *Do you have to play more than one role at a time? If yes, please give examples.*

Twelve general managers in the interview accepted that they played more than one role at a time. These roles were usually related. However, some roles dominated others, depending on the situation and environment. For example, the roles of figurehead, leader, disseminator and resource allocator dominated during staff meetings whereas the role of figurehead and spokesman were significant in a press conference. In contrast to other general managers, three general managers mentioned that they played one role at a time, but they switched their roles very fast:

For me, these roles are not coexisting. They are separated, individual roles. When I sign a memo, I am the figurehead. But, when I send out the memo, I am the disseminator. These roles are switching all the time and at a very fast pace. So, it seems that they are coexisting.

Question: *Have you ever dealt with a crisis? What was it?*

This question and the following two questions aimed to compare the work roles performing by hotel general managers in normal situations and in crises. This is because crises are different from normal situations. In addition, since crises are regarded as unforeseen events and things which beyond the managers' control it is interesting to examine in what way the chosen work roles assisted hotel managers coping with crises. All of the general managers in the interview accepted that they had experienced crises in their hotels in varying degrees. The crises were identified as floods, hotel fire, overbooking of rooms, employees' accidents while working, and sickness and death of guests. However, all the general managers tried to be proactive rather than reactive. They suggested that crises could be prevented by good planning, having doctors on call twenty-four hours and providing lifeguards in seaside hotels, and providing training for the staff to deal with crises such as first-aid training, fire fighting training, and fire drill.

Question: *Do you play the same role in normal situations and in crises?*

Out of the fifteen interviewees, thirteen replied that they played different roles in crises and normal situations. Only two general managers said that they played the same role in both situations; that was the leader role.

Question: *In a crisis, which role do you play?*

The answers for this question were different, depending on the situation and degree of the crisis. Eight general managers identified the leader as the role they played during a crisis. Five general managers identified the resource allocator and two general managers chose the disseminator. The reason for these diversified roles is explained by the following quotes:

In cases like fire or flood, of course, you must assume the leader role.

I can give you an example of playing the resource allocator role during a crisis. The guest has a heart attack. I am responsible for allocating the resources. It is not necessary that I go to the guest myself, but make sure that it is done.

I play the disseminator role in a crisis when I don't want to be personally involved with it. Recently, one of our limousine cars was stolen. I didn't play the leader role here. It was not an immediate crisis, and the guest's safety was not jeopardised. I have the language and cultural barriers. So, I played the disseminator role, getting the information as much as possible and transferring it to people who could do the job.

From their answers, they show that language barriers and cultural backgrounds (i.e. beliefs, values and lifestyles) affect the chosen roles of Thai and non-Thai general managers. As discussed in Chapter 4, the potential conflict occurs when ethnic, racial and cultural differences come together in the work environment without mutual knowledge, understanding and respect (Tanke 1990). Therefore, these non-Thai were aware of multicultural management.

It is also very interesting to notice that all of the five Thai general managers in the interview played the leader role during the crisis: “In a crisis, you must be the leader. You must take immediate action. The situation must be controlled. I dictate”. This is because they all felt leadership to be appropriate when there were unforeseen events, changes and disturbances that brought pressure to their organisations. It is interesting to note that they did not mention delegation as non-Thai managers did. This could imply that Thai managers believe that leader is the only person who could lead the organisation through the turbulence as there is a Thai saying “follow your leader!”. Therefore, they put the emphasis on the leader role while non-Thai managers have to think of the proper channel to correct the situation. Thus, they could not choose to be a leader to lead the organisation through all crises as Thai managers did.

It is also worth noted that none of the managers chose disturbance handler role to deal with crises as Mintzberg suggested in his propositions about managerial roles (Mintzberg 1973). This suggests that the interpretation of the work roles and its importance is subjective to each manager. Therefore, the results of time allocations

might be different from the observation results. This is because the observation is more objective.

Question: *What do you find to be the most difficult part of your job?*

In their replies, the most difficult part of the job was identified as the volume and demand of work by six general managers; finding solutions to conflicts among staff by four general managers; getting action or business going by three general managers; and convincing or selling ideas to the head office or staff by two general managers.

The top answer shows that “job demands” is a common answer to managers in any industry. There are a number of factors (i.e. profitability, diversity of products and markets) which affect general managers’ job demands. The demand of each manager is varied by its environment and organisation. These high volume of job demands also suggest a “misfit” if managers could not deal with those demands while they were in the job (Kotter 1982). Therefore, it is important for hotel managers to be aware of time management. This is because time management is a useful tool to assist them to cope with demands. The other two answers which are “getting action or business going” and “convincing or selling ideas to the head office or staff” imply that cultural differences exist in the workforce. This is because many Thai staff have “comfortable and fun loving” (Sanuk and Sabai) and “Mai Pen Rai” (take it easy) values while they work (See Chapter 4). These two values are obstacles even for Thai managers to deal with. Therefore, it is reasonable to believe that it would be doubly difficult for non-

Thai managers who have additional disadvantages of language barrier and cultural background.

Question: *What have you learned from in order to perform your roles effectively?*

The answers of this question were listed as follows.

- past experience;
- examples;
- listening to others; and
- balancing what others say.

As for this question, the majority of the general managers suggested that they learned to perform their roles effectively from their past experience and examples from their previous bosses. The answers show that work experience is important. This is because the more experience they gain by dealing with people, the more broader view they have. These answers also suggest that to be an effective manager you have to be fair in decision making by listening to others and balancing what others say.

Question: *What are the key influences on your managerial development?*

In their answers, the interviewees mentioned education, career path, basic personality and family background as the key influences on their managerial development. The term basic personality was used to encompass a combination of:

- honesty;
- hard work;
- getting on with people; and
- outgoing personality.

Eleven subjects suggested education as the most important key influence on the development of their professional management skill whereas four subjects identified career path. There was a difference between Thai and non-Thai general managers in their preferences for the second and third ranks. Eight general managers pointed out basic personality as very important (rank no. 2). Of these eight general managers, there was only one Thai respondent. The rest of the Thai managers (4) considered family background as very important (rank no. 2). One of them mentioned “I find that my family name is helpful in getting my business done and dealing business with other organisations”. Unlike the Thai general managers, there were five non-Thai general managers who ranked family background third. Two managers did not mention any third rank.

5.6 Influences of cultural factors on hotel management

Question: *Did the company give you a brief or introductory knowledge of Thai culture and people before you were posted in Thailand?*

Only the ten non-Thai general managers were asked this question. Seven of them said that they did not get any cross-cultural training or introductory knowledge of Thailand. Two general managers mentioned that they were given literature and booklets about Thailand and Thai culture to read. Only one of the general managers answered that he was invited to stay and observe in the hotel he was going to run for two weeks before he decided to take the job. However, all of the ten general managers had had experience working abroad in similar environment, either in Asia or in Africa. They admitted that their working experience abroad helped them adjust to the Thai people, culture and environment easily. They said having seen various cultures and habits made them become more flexible, understanding and humble. All ten non-Thai general managers agreed that having Thai culture orientation and knowledge of Thai people and habits before starting their job in Thailand would have been a great deal of help. It would have helped them to find an appropriate way of communicating with their local staff. Though the head office or the company did not pay serious attention to this area, all the non-Thai general managers recommended having cultural knowledge and training before starting the job. The cross-cultural training would also help the non-Thai general managers to understand the different management perspectives between Thai and non-Thai general managers.

Question: *Is there any relationship between Thai values, culture, national characteristics and the chosen management style?*

Again, only ten non-Thai general managers in the interview were asked this question. All of them suggested that there was a relationship between Thai values, culture, national characteristics and management style. The majority of the general managers admitted that they sought to achieve a compromise between Thai values and characteristics with western ways of working. The main objective was communication and understanding as is illustrated in the following quotations:

Yes, I've to be careful of what and how I say and present myself to the staff according to Thai values. There might be some misunderstanding in communication, I also find that it's helpful to have a Thai RM.

The fun loving and comfort value, "Sanuk" and "Sabai", is very important for the Thais. I realise this, but it has to be combined with the European effectiveness. I compromise.

I adopted my management style to fit in the Thai culture and values. The Thai people do not like aggressiveness. You need to be more courteous. The autocratic style does not work here. You can assign but don't get work.

Question: *Do you consider overseas education and work experience contributes to your effectiveness?*

Only the five Thai general managers in the interview were asked this question. In their replies, all of the five Thai general managers agreed that overseas education and work experience did not contribute to their effectiveness in running their hotels. The word effectiveness used in the present study was defined as the ability to bring profitability to the property, the ability to achieve results and complete objectives and the ability to achieve satisfaction of guests, owners and staff. Three of the Thai general managers explained that their effectiveness derived from their training by professional supervisors and their work experience with international hotel chains in Thailand. The other two Thai general managers who had no work experience in international hotel chains said that they learned to be effective from their previous bosses who were good examples and teachers. The general managers' answers also reflected the importance of on-the-job training in the hospitality industry.

Question: How do you maintain the Thai feeling and culture at your hotel?

In the replies to this question, all the general managers in the interview said they did maintain the Thai feeling and culture in their hotels. The majority of them suggested that the decoration of the hotel and Thai uniforms created the Thai atmosphere and feeling. Wearing Thai national costume, smiling faces, Thai way of greetings "Wai" and service were identified as means of keeping the Thai identity. One general manager said he organised lectures on Thai culture, classes in meditation and cultural shows from the local community in his hotel on special occasions. In addition, the majority of the general managers mentioned that an international standard was also

needed in the hotel. The standard of service, room and food had to be international with a touch of local flavour.

5.7 General managers' time usage

Question: *What takes up most of your working time?*

In answering this question, many of the general managers identified more than one activity that took up the majority of their working time. These were identified as follows:

- administration (12);
- reports (8);
- meetings (5);
- negotiation in Marketing & Sales (5);
- problems with guests and staff (5);
- guest contacts (4);
- office work (2);
- unexpected telephone calls (2); and
- technical problems causing disturbance in the hotel (1)

As discussed earlier, the results from the questionnaire show that the greatest amount of time is spent on administrative work with a mean score of 24.93. This supports the view that general managers spent the greatest amount of time on administration.

Question: *As the general manager's work is fragmented and frequently interrupted, can you schedule your time in advance? How?*

All of the fifteen general managers in the interview answered that they scheduled their time in advance. The answers were exemplified by the following quotations:

Basically, it's a management thing. Everybody has twenty-four hours. I have a very good secretary who controls a lot of the time. The most important thing is you have to be prepared for changes at all times. I schedule my time on a weekly basis.

I've to admit that it's difficult to keep a schedule. My diary needs to leave the free time for something unexpected to complete the work for the day. I schedule my time on a daily, weekly and monthly basis, depending on the types of activities. For example, sales and marketing activities and trips to Bangkok on a weekly basis. I also keep on open door policy which is very good because I can react to the job immediately or take immediate action to the problem.

My technique is short appointments.

I schedule my time in advance on a monthly basis. Normally, I plan my business travel about one month in advance. I also set priorities to the activities. Sometimes, I delegate or send a representative.

Well, you can't work without scheduling time in advance. You need to know what you are going to do. But, to keep the schedule as planned is very difficult. I schedule my time on a monthly basis and keep it flexible. My schedule needs to be flexible for unscheduled meetings.

These selected responses suggest that the work of hotel general managers is proactive rather than reactive. In addition, although managers see their schedules as flexible, they seem to be conscious of the need to manage their working time. Time management is important because it can assist hotel managers to accomplish their task objectives instead of "flying by the seat of their pants".

5.8 Characteristics and trend for potential general managers

Question: *What are the criteria for selecting general managers to be posted in this hotel?*

In their replies to this question, the majority of the interviewees suggested that the criteria for selecting a general manager varied from hotel to hotel, depending on the emphasis and situation of the organisations. The hotels looked for the general manager that best suited their needs. This opinion is shown in the following quote:

“General manager’s qualifications may change from one company to another, depending on what you want as a captain.”

However, there were some basic qualifications that could be used as criteria for appointing general managers. These qualifications were identified as background and experience in a similar organisation, experience in Sales and Marketing, people orientation, people skills, diplomacy and flexibility.

Question: *What do you think is the trend for potential general managers?*

As for this question, the majority of the general managers saw that potential general managers should have had sales and marketing experience with a strong backup in food and beverage and front office experience. The reason for the emphasis on sales and marketing was that the competition in hotel business in Thailand was high. One general manager described the present situation as “a fierce battlefield.” In addition, nine respondents pointed out that potential general managers should be people-oriented, good at team work, able to relate well to people and able to motivate others: “The hospitality industry is often seen as a “people industry”. The trend for potential general managers should be more people business or people oriented and less money driven. The flexibility and ability to work well are also required”.

5.9 Discussion of the interview results

The results of the interviews showed that the leader role was thought to be the most important managerial role by the majority of the hotel general managers, twelve out of the fifteen interviewees. This finding supports the results from the questionnaire analysis and coincides with previous research studies (Ley 1978; Arnaldo 1981; and Kim 1994). Surprisingly, two of the general managers in the interview chose the role of the figurehead to be the most important role for the reason that it was the role that was present all the time. Although the number of the sample choosing the figurehead role is small, it is an interesting finding because the earlier research conducted on the managerial roles (Ley 1978; Arnaldo 1981 and Kim 1994) did not give any great emphasis to this role.

In addition, the majority of hotel general managers suggested that the role of the leader had a lot of influence on their management style and the hotels they managed. It was essential that they defined that type of the leader they assumed, namely autocratic, democratic, consultative and laissez-faire. All of the general managers in the interview employed more than one style of leadership. The styles of the leadership they adopted varied according to the situations and the audience with which they interacted. In general, they disapproved of the autocratic style of leadership, preferring the democratic and consultative styles, but this preference may have been expressed as a result of the interviewer effect.

Moreover, the majority of the general managers accepted that the role they chose as the most important role related to other roles. They suggested that they played more than one role at a time. This result supports Mintzberg's observation that "these ten roles form a gestalt - an integrated whole" (Mintzberg 1973:58). Surprisingly, a small sub-set, three hotel general managers, believed that they played one role at a time. For them these roles were separated, individual roles. They said that these roles were switched all the time at a very fast pace, so it seemed that they were coexisting.

Another significant finding of the interview analysis is that all of the general managers in the sample had experienced crises in their hotels in different types and degrees, i.e. floods, hotel fire, overbooking of rooms, employees' accidents while working and sickness and death of guests. The interview results illustrate that these hotel general managers are proactive in their management. They planned and found measures to prevent crises in their properties, for example providing training for the staff to deal with crises. This finding contradicts the belief that the hotel general manager's work is reactive. In general, people believe that the general manager has very often reacted or taken response to the situations or the problems which occur at that particular time. Moreover, it is very interesting to detect the diversified roles these general managers played in different types and degrees of crises, as illustrated in the interview results discussed earlier in this chapter.

In contrast to the non-Thai general managers, all of the five Thai general managers in the interview chose the leader role as the only role they played during crises. This

finding could be explained by differences of culture and training. Thai children are trained to be obedient and to respect elders, seniors and superiors. As a result, in time of difficulties, the Thais look for an authority or a leader to give them directions.

As for the key influences on managerial development, the hotel general managers identified as important education, career path, basic personality and family background. Education gained the first rank of importance which means the most important key influence on the managerial development. The finding from the present research agrees with many of the previous studies on the success of managers. Swanjung (1981) for example, placed a strong emphasis on education. From the total of fourteen hotel executives in his survey, twelve executives believed “an MBA would soon become a key to success in the hospitality industry” (Swanjung 1981:34). Similarly, Arnaldo (1981) and Kim (1994) noted that the average hotel general manager had completed a college education. Although only a small sample, it is interesting to note that four Thai general managers mentioned family background as a very important key influence on their managerial development. The result obtained here is supportive evidence to suggest that inner connections and family influence play an important role in business success in Thailand.

As for cross-cultural significance, the majority of the non-Thai general managers said that they did not have a brief or introductory knowledge of Thai culture and people before they were posted in Thailand. However, all of them had had experience working aboard in similar environment. Recognising the importance of

communication between the non-Thai general managers and their local staff, these general managers studied about Thailand and its people by themselves from literature and other sources. They all agreed that having a Thai cultural orientation and knowledge of the Thai people and their habits would contribute to their work effectiveness, as there was a relationship between Thai values, culture, national characteristics and management style. It is also interesting to note that all the non-Thai general managers recommended that a cultural orientation or training be provided by the head office or the company. In contrast to the non-Thai general managers, all of the five Thai general managers in the interview did not consider overseas education and work experience as a key factor in their effectiveness. However, they accepted that having overseas education and work experience might widen their world views. Furthermore, all the hotel general managers in the interview, both Thais and non-Thais, maintained the Thai feeling and culture at their hotels. Significantly, maintaining the Thai feeling and culture at their hotels would make their hotels different from other hotels in the same chain or group. In addition, the Thai service was famous for its uniqueness. Even for a short stay, the hotel guests could experience the warm hospitality of the Thai people and the gentle, caring Thai service. The different ways of maintaining the Thai feeling and culture at these general managers' hotels were mentioned in the interview results discussed earlier. In addition, all the general managers agreed that the international standard was also very important for luxury hotels. Particularly, a chain or a franchise hotel needed to maintain its brand image and standard. This was because there were a lot of hotel

guests who had fixed image that the chain and franchise hotels all over the world were of the same standard.

In respect of time usage, the hotel general managers in the interview identified office work, report, administration, guest contacts, unexpected telephone calls and unscheduled meetings, negotiation in marketing and sales, meetings, problems with guests and staff, disturbance in the hotel and technical problems as the activities that took up the majority of their working time. This confirmed the results of the questionnaire. In addition, it is very interesting to discover that all the fifteen hotel general managers scheduled their time in advance although their work was seen as fragmented and subject to constant interruption. The majority of the interviewees scheduled their time either on a weekly or monthly basis. This finding is further evidence to support the view that hotel general managers are proactive rather than reactive.

As for the criteria for selecting general managers to be posted in a hotel, the majority of the general managers suggested that such criteria varied from company to company, depending on what the hotel looked for. However, some basic qualifications, for example background and experience in a similar organisation, diplomacy, flexibility and people skills, could be considered as criteria for appointing hotel general managers. The emphasis on people skills given by the general managers in the interview agrees with the general belief that the hospitality industry is often described as “people industry”. The “people skills”, identified by the general managers

included the ability to relate well to people, the ability to communicate, the ability to motivate their staff and the caring and concern for people. In contrast to this interview result, it is perhaps worth noting that the hotel executives interviewed in Swanljung's (1981) study placed relatively little significance on people skills. This could be explained by the fact that interviewees in Swanljung's study were on the non-operational side, being hospitality chief executives or corporate officers, whereas the general managers in the present research were still on the operational side of the business. In addition, it could be possible that people who sought to obtain executive status attached less importance to people skills.

As for the final question concerning the direction of potential general managers, the majority of the interviewees foresaw that experience in sales and marketing would become significant in the future. Although strong background and experience in Food & Beverage and Front Office was still required, experience in Sales and Marketing would gain in pre-eminence, due to the increasing business competition in the hotel industry and the complexity of modern markets. Importantly, the potential general managers would be people-orientated and flexible. Furthermore, to have good leadership skills, to have some facilities to influence and motivate staff, the ability to communicate and the ability to work well in a team were essential qualifications for potential hotel general managers.

5.10 Conclusion

The analysis of the hotel general managers' actual and ideal ten managerial roles and of their estimated time allocations would explain how the general managers organise their work and how they would like to organise it better. There are number of immediate problems that occurred in the general managers' work routines: high levels of business competition, conflicts among staff, conflicts between management and subordinates, and difficulties in implementing foreign cultural imperatives within a host culture. There could be a relationship between these phenomena and time allocations of the general managers' specific work roles. Only the results of questionnaires cannot explain the reason why the general managers gave more significance to some managerial roles than others. Therefore, the questionnaire results must be supported and integrated with the interview results. In this study, the relationship between the hotel general managers' time allocations of their specific work roles and their managerial work activities was investigated to find a means to place people of different abilities and personalities in the most suitable jobs. The major findings of the questionnaire and the interview results that are the basis for further analysis in the next chapter, Chapter 6: Analysis of Observation Results, can be summarised as follows:

- **Hotel general managers' qualifications:** most general managers (66%) held hotel school qualifications either certificates or both certificates and university degrees. The general managers who possessed university degrees were from the field of Business Administration and Political Science. There is a tendency for

future hotel general managers to have a higher education and possess a university degree, in addition to a hotel school certificate or diploma.

- **General managers' work experience and training:** before being assigned to their present position, these general managers had worked in various departments. There were three major departments mentioned in the study: Room Division (90%), Food and Beverage (84%) and Marketing and Sales (68%). The majority of the general managers were moving up from Room Division and from Food and Beverage.
- **Overseas education and work experience:** the results from the interviews found that the Thai general managers gave little significance to overseas education and work experience. They said that past working experience with international hotel chains in Thailand and good examples from their previous bosses and supervisors contributed to their effectiveness.
- **Maintaining the Thai feeling and culture at the hotel:** the study found that both Thai and non-Thai general managers maintained the Thai feeling and culture at their hotels as it made their hotels different from other hotels in the same chain or group.
- **General managers' language ability:** all of the hotel general managers spoke fluent English. Besides the English and Thai languages, German and French were

commonly spoken. Most of the general managers spoke more than one foreign language fluently. However, they did not count this fact as a credit to their career advancement.

- **Managerial roles:** the study found that the hotel general managers placed the highest rank of importance on the leader role and the second highest rank on the entrepreneur role for both actual roles and ideal roles. The estimated time allocations of these two roles gained the highest and the second respectively. The results showed that the general managers considered the leader role as the most time absorbing role. The significant of this finding is that the leader role gained the highest response rate in both ranked of importance and time allocation. It confirms the assumption quoted from Ley (1978: 121) that: “It might be deduced, therefore, that proportionately greater time is given over to leadership activities by highly effective innkeepers”. However, the results of his analysis indicated the contrary conclusion (Ley 1978: 121): “This hypothesis is refuted by the data. During the observational period, no innkeeper devoted proportionately more time to the leader role than to each of the other work roles”. But, the results of the questionnaires indicate that the time allocations of some managerial roles correlated with the ranks of “importance”. Therefore, it is worth to further investigate whether the results of the observation confirm this finding or Ley’s finding. This will be discussed further in Chapter 6: Analysis of Observation.

- **Roles assumed during crises:** all of the general managers had experienced crises in their hotel in different types and varying degrees. Although the Thai general managers assumed only the leader role during crises, the non-Thai general managers played a range of diversified roles, depending on the types and degrees of crises: the leader, the resource allocator and the disseminator.
- **Key influences on managerial development:** the hotel general managers in the interview identified education, career path, basic personality and family background as key influences on their managerial development. Of all the key influences, education gained the first rank of importance.
- **General managers' time allocations of administration work and of major departments:** the results showed that greater amounts of time were spent on administrative work (24.93) which involved reports, correspondence, internal audits, etc. The departments which consumed most of working time were Marketing & Sales (24.83), Food & Beverage (19.36), and Room Division (16.96).
- **Criteria for selecting hotel general managers:** from the results of the interviews, it seems that the criteria for selecting hotel general managers varied from company to company. However, background and experience in similar organisations, diplomacy, flexibility and people skills could be used as criteria for appointing general managers.

- **Direction for potential general managers:** the study found that strong background and experience in Food & Beverage and Front Office, plus good skills in marketing and sales would be the trend for potential general managers. Other basic qualifications, for example people skills, leadership skills and flexibility, were also important for potential general managers.

On the whole, this chapter has dealt with the analysis of questionnaires and interviews. One significant finding of the above summary of findings shows that the leader role is the most important and the most time-consuming role. The entrepreneur role is ranked second as well as its rank of time allocation. The results of the questionnaires also agree with the results of the interviews when respondents identified the area which takes up most of their time. Both results show administration consumed most of their working time.

These findings will be discussed further in the following chapter when the results are compared with the results of the observation.

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Chapter 6: Observation of General Managers' Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis of managerial time allocations to specific activities and managerial work roles. These activities were grouped into the ten work roles empirically derived by Mintzberg (1973) from a study of five chief executives in a consulting firm, a hospital, a consumer good manufacturing firm, a public school system, and a firm producing industrial and technological products. Mintzberg focused his study (1) on the job rather than the man, (2) on basic similarities in manager's work rather than on differences, and (3) on the essential content of the work rather than its peripheral characteristics. This study presents data concerning hotel general managers' perceptions of the importance of specific work roles and their perceptions of the time allocated to such roles. In addition, the study focuses on the relationship between the hotel general managers' time allocations to the specific work roles and their management styles. It is necessary to recall that Mintzberg suggested that his ten roles were common to the work of all managers. Mintzberg also recommended against isolating the roles, emphasising that "these ten roles form a gestalt - an integrated whole. In essence, the manager is an input-output system in which authority and status give rise to interpersonal relationships that lead to inputs (information), and these in turn lead to outputs (information and decisions) One cannot arbitrarily remove one role and expect the rest to remain intact" (Mintzberg 1973:58).

Later David Ley (1978) conducted a similar empirical study with seven hospitality managers in the United States. Ley's study did confirm that the ten roles were an integrated whole. However, his study focused on the effectiveness of the innkeepers relative to Mintzberg's ten managerial work roles. Ley additionally analysed the purpose of each managerial activity as a means of judging the relationship between the effectiveness and the time allocations to the ten work roles. In doing so, the managers who were judged to be highly effective, effective, or less effective could be compared according to the time they allocated to specific work roles or to major role groupings (interpersonal, informational and decisional) (Ley 1978:69). Since these two studies influenced this particular study, the analysis of the results from this study has shed light on the findings of these two studies' findings.

This chapter principally discusses observation of managers' activities in hotel operations. The sample for the observation element comprised eight hotel general managers, seven males and one female. The properties they managed consisted of five city hotels and three resort hotels. General Managers 1 - 4 were non-Thai, and General Managers 5 - 8 were Thai. Due to the massive volume of data and records collected during the observation, it is not possible to present all the data from the observation. Therefore, the analysis uses only selected data. For example, data concerning one general manager identified as General Manager 1 was analysed as shown in Appendix F. The hypotheses were then measured by an analysis of time allocated to work roles according to the results from questionnaires, interviews results and observation. The general managers in the observation were asked to rate on a 10-

point scale (1 = most important; 10 = least important) the ten work roles in order of their importance to the successful execution of these general managers' job. They were also asked to give the approximate percentage of time they spent on each work role. A sample of the questionnaire from General Manager 1 is presented in Figure 6.1.

Estimated time allocations for each work role were taken from questionnaire responses (see Figure 6.1). In order to identify actual time allocations, the percentage of time allocated to each work role was calculated from time spent on work role-related activities during the period of observation. Estimated and actual time allocations for each work role were therefore ranked for the eight observed general managers. The results of the estimated and actual time allocation to managerial work roles of all the eight hotel general managers in the observation are shown in Tables 6.1 and 6.2.

The results from Tables 6.1 and 6.2 show that all the general managers thought that they devoted most of their time to the leader role. But, the actual time allocations of all the general managers in the observation show that they spent most of their time on the monitor role. There is a big difference between the estimated time and actual time allocations of the eight general managers (see Table 6.3). This deviation could be attributable to the fact that the hotel general managers filled out the questionnaires approximately three months before the observation was conducted. The situations when they were observed might have been different from when they filled out the

questionnaires. Thus, the estimated time allocations were very different from the actual time allocations.

Figure 6.1 Managerial work activities questionnaire of General Manager 1

Please rank the ten roles in order of their importance (1 = most important 10 = least important) to the successful execution of your job and give the approximate percentage of time you spend performing that role.

Roles	Rank	% of time
A. Figurehead	4	20
B. Leader	1	20
C. Liaison	6	3
D. Monitor	2	10
E. Disseminator	8	5
F. Spokesman	9	5
G. Entrepreneur	7	5
H. Disturbance handler	3	15
I. Resource allocator	5	15
J. Negotiator	10	2
		100%

Table 6.1: Estimated time allocation to managerial work roles

Roles	(percentage)							
	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Figurehead	20.0	15.0	7.5	5.0	20.0	5.0	10.0	5.0
Leader	20.0	20.0	20.0	30.0	20.0	30.0	20.0	20.0
Liaison	3.0	15.0	7.5	5.0	8.0	4.0	10.0	15.0
Monitor	10.0	5.0	7.5	5.0	10.0	10.0	8.0	5.0
Disseminator	5.0	5.0	7.5	3.0	10.0	15.0	3.0	15.0
Spokesman	5.0	10.0	7.5	5.0	2.0	2.0	7.0	5.0
Entrepreneur	5.0	10.0	7.5	30.0	8.0	15.0	6.0	10.0
Disturbance Handler	15.0	10.0	7.5	10.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	5.0
Resource Allocator	15.0	5.0	7.5	3.0	10.0	7.0	4.0	10.0
Negotiator	2.0	5.0	20.0	4.0	10.0	10.0	30.0	10.0
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Table 6.2: Total actual time allocation to managerial work roles (percentage)

Roles	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Figurehead	15.9	17.9	16.3	18.5	9.0	12.7	5.9	17.5
Leader	7.4	6.1	8.0	6.4	13.7	9.8	6.3	8.3
Liaison	7.1	9.0	9.5	8.7	3.7	4.5	1.7	11.4
Monitor	38.5	35	34.5	34.8	30.0	43.3	68.0	32.3
Disseminator	13.8	20.5	17.4	16.9	25.7	18.6	14.4	20.2
Spokesman	5.0	4.4	1.9	7.6	2.3	0.2	0.8	2.7
Entrepreneur	2.5	1.3	0.7	3.2	3.9	1.5	0	0.1
Disturbance Handler	2.2	1.6	8.9	2.0	1.6	4.7	0.4	2.3
Resource Allocator	6.0	3.3	2.3	0.3	4.6	3.2	2.4	2.4
Negotiator	0.9	0.9	0.5	1.6	5.5	1.5	0.1	2.8
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Being aware of this limitation, the general managers in the observation were asked to complete another questionnaire with the researcher during the observation period. This questionnaire was adapted from Ley's (1978) "Management Activity Survey". Ley adapted his 77-item Management Activity Survey from the original 80-item Questionnaire developed by McCall (1977). McCall's (1977) original questionnaire was intended to analyse the relationship between each managerial work role. McCall designed 80 questionnaire items based on Mintzberg's description of the activities encompassed by the ten managerial roles. He called this questionnaire the Managerial Work Survey (MWS) and claimed it to be a reasonable tool for measuring Mintzberg's ten managerial work roles model via survey methods. McCall tested his Managerial Work Survey by mailing the questionnaire to a 33-1/3 percent stratified random sample of managers in a large manufacturing organisation and asking the managers to rate on a 7-point scale each activity's importance to their own

Table 6.3: Actual and estimated time allocations to managerial work roles (percentage)

Roles	GM 1			GM 2			GM 3			GM 4			GM 5			GM 6			GM 7			GM 8			
	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	Est	Act	Diff	
<u>Interpersonal</u>																									
Figurehead	20	15.9	4.1	15	17.9	-2.9	7.5	16.3	-8.8	5	18.5	-13.5	20	9	11	5	12.7	-7.7	10	5.9	10	5	17.5	-12.5	
Leader	20	7.4	12.6	20	6.1	13.9	20	8	12	30	6.4	23.6	20	13.7	6.3	30	9.8	20.2	20	6.3	20	20	8.3	11.7	
Liaison	3	7.1	-4.1	15	9	6	7.5	9.5	-2	5	8.7	-3.7	8	3.7	4.3	4	4.5	-0.5	10	1.7	10	15	11.4	3.6	
<u>Informational</u>																									
Monitor	10	38.5	-28.5	5	35	-30	7.5	34.5	-27	5	34.8	-29.8	10	30	-20	10	43.3	-33.3	8	68	8	5	32.3	-27.3	
Disseminator	5	13.8	-8.8	5	20.5	-15.5	7.5	17.4	-9.9	3	16.9	-13.9	10	25.7	-15.7	15	18.6	-3.6	3	14.4	3	15	20.2	-5.2	
Spokesman	5	5	0	10	4.4	5.6	7.5	1.9	5.6	5	7.6	-2.6	2	2.3	-0.3	2	0.2	1.8	7	0.8	7	5	2.7	2.3	
<u>Decisional</u>																									
Entrepreneur	5	2.5	2.5	10	1.3	8.7	7.5	0.7	6.8	30	3.2	26.8	8	3.9	4.1	15	1.5	13.5	6	0	6	10	0.1	9.9	
Disturbance Handler	15	2.2	12.8	10	1.6	8.4	7.5	8.9	-1.4	10	2	8	2	1.6	0.4	2	4.7	-2.7	2	0.4	2	5	2.3	2.7	
Resource Allocator	15	6	9	5	3.3	1.7	7.5	2.3	5.2	3	0.3	2.7	10	4.6	5.4	7	3.2	3.8	4	2.4	4	10	2.4	7.6	
Negotiator	2	0.9	1.1	5	0.9	4.1	20	0.5	19.5	4	1.6	2.4	10	5.5	4.5	10	1.5	8.5	30	0.1	10	10	2.8	7.2	

Note: GM - General Manager
Act - Actual Time Allocations
Est - Estimated Time Allocations
Diff - Differences between Actual and Estimated Ranked Time Allocations

supervisory performance. Questions in the Managerial Work Survey (MWS) were about the functional division in which the manager worked and the manager's level in the formal hierarchy.

In the present study, there are 56 activity items in the "Management Activity Questionnaire". These 56 activity items are work activities of a hotel general manager, representing Mintzberg's ten work roles and were classified as follows:

- items 1-6 are work activities related to the role of the figurehead;
- items 7-12 are work activities related to the role of leader;
- items 13-18 are work activities related to the role of the liaison;
- items 19-24 are work activities related to the role of the monitor;
- items 25-30 are work activities related to the role of the disseminator;
- items 31-35 are work activities related to the role of the spokesman;
- items 36-41 are work activities related to the role of the entrepreneur;
- items 42-47 are work activities related to the role of the disturbance handler;
- items 48-53 are work activities related to the role of the resource allocator; and
- items 54-56 are work activities related to the role of the negotiator.

Each hotel general manager in the observation was asked to rate on an 7-point scale their time allocation and the importance for each item. The rating scale descriptors for the time allocation were as follows: 0 = never; the higher numbers indicating a greater amount of time spent on those activities. The rating scale descriptors for

18. ③ Developing contacts with important people outside of your hotel. ⑤
19. ③ Keeping informed on various events and “gossip of the trade”. ④
20. ③ Keeping up with market changes and trends. ④
21. ② Gathering information about trends outside your organisation. ④
22. ② Gathering information about clients, competitors, associates, etc. ④
23. ⑤ Touring the property. ④
24. ② Learning about new ideas originating outside of your organisation. ③
25. ④ Keeping employees of your hotel informed of relevant information. ⑤
26. ③ Transmitting ideas from your outside contacts to appropriate insiders. ③
27. ④ Holding meetings to disseminate information to employees of your hotel. ④
28. ② Deciding what information responsibilities to delegate to others. ③
29. ⑤ Providing guidance to your subordinates on the basis of your
understanding of the organisation. ⑤
30. ③ Forwarding important information to your subordinates. ④
31. ③ Keeping important people outside of your hotel informed about your
unit’s activities. ④
32. ① Handling “public relations” activities for your own hotel. ③
33. ① Presiding at meetings as a representative of your hotel. ③
34. ② Serving as an expert to people outside of your hotel. ③

35. ① Informing others of your hotel's future plans. ③
36. ③ Designing projects for organisational improvement. ④
37. ⑤ Initiating controlled changes in your hotel. ⑤
38. ③ Exploiting opportunities to expand or grow as a hotel. ⑤
39. ③ Maintaining supervision over changes in your hotel. ④
40. ⑥ Solving problems by instituting needed changes in your hotel ④
41. ③ Deciding the priorities of internal improvement projects. ③
42. ① Responding to unforeseen events. ④
43. ② Resolving conflicts between subordinates. ⑤
44. ② Handling employee grievances. ④
45. ① Dealing with conflicts between your hotel and other hotels. ④
46. ③ Taking immediate action in response to a crisis (e.g., equipment breakdown, sudden scheduling conflicts, and irate client, etc.). ④
47. ② Helping department heads resolve emergency problem situations (shortages in manpower or supplies during a busy period, for example). ④
48. ④ Programming work (what is to be done, when and how). ④
49. ③ Distributing budgeted resources. ⑤
50. ③ Making decisions about time parameters for upcoming programmes. ④
51. ① Deciding which programmes to provide resources (manpower, materials, ③

dollars) for.

52. ① Allocating manpower to specific jobs or tasks. ③
53. ② Allocating equipment or materials ③
54. ③ Writing out contract implementation procedures. ④
55. ② Negotiating with outside groups for needed materials, support commitments, etc. ③
56. ① Negotiating contracts. ④

Table 6.4: Total perceived time allocation to managerial work roles

(percentage)

Roles	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Figurehead	13.8	10.9	10.4	10.2	10.3	14.2	11.2	10.6
Leader	11.8	12.2	11.7	12.2	11.9	11.5	11.2	13.7
Liaison	9.2	10	10.8	11	9.9	7.1	10.6	6.6
Monitor	11.2	10.4	10.8	11.4	10.7	14.2	9.6	9.7
Disseminator	13.9	11.3	11.3	12.6	12.3	11.5	12.2	13.2
Spokesman	5.3	10	7.4	6	7.8	4.4	6	9.2
Entrepreneur	15.1	11.3	10.8	9.8	11.1	15	13.8	11.2
Disturbance handler	6.6	9.1	10.8	9.8	9.5	8.8	10.6	10.6
Resource allocator	9.2	10.9	11.7	11	11.5	10.6	13.2	13.7
Negotiator	3.9	3.9	4.3	6	5	2.7	1.6	1.5
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

6.2 Structured Observation in Operation

In Chapter 3 the research methodology utilising structured observation records and analysis method was discussed. As it is not possible to present detailed examination of all the eight hotel general managers in the observation, one of the sample identified as

General Manager 1, has been selected to exemplify of the complete sequence of events. Each particular activity during the five day observational period in this property has been recorded and the purpose of each activity has been explained. This example is presented in Appendix G.

In order to analyse the data collected, it was necessary to distinguish between time allocated to work activities and unidentified time between activities during the structured observation data recording. This unidentified time represented “wasted time” in which no activities were performed, and such time should therefore be excluded from the work activity time. By doing so, one might expect that managers who were able to either avoid periods of “wasted time” between activities or complete specific tasks with relatively little interruption are efficient in time management and are effective. All other times recorded in the Structured Observation Recorded Sheets did not included lunch time, unaccounted time and personal time away from the property or with family in the manager’s accommodation because they could not represent the time in which business activities could be performed.

Similar to Ley’s analysis when each day’s activities had been recorded, not every minute spent at work could be classified as part of a work activity. For example, a hotel manager might raise a point concerning news on television the previous night during a discussion with his assistant manager, or a squash game he played yesterday evening with his Food and Beverage Manager. In order to keep same accuracy in time recording, such unaccounted time was recorded separately under that precise heading.

In the case of the hotel general manager in Property 1, this “unaccounted time” amounted to two hundred and ten minutes over the five-day observation period which represented 7.7% of the total time observed (see Tables 6.5 and 6.6). “Personal time” is another issue which reflected its impact on the results and was recorded under “private”. Most of the general managers lived on the property; only one lived off the hotel premises. Only one general manager was single; and three of the seven married managers had more than one child. Therefore, an interruption of the hotel manager at work by their spouse and children was not an unusual. Both unaccounted time and personal time were recorded as accurately as possible. The results also show that there might be a link between the interruption from the family and the recorded personal time as shown in Tables 6.5 and 6.6. General Manager 2 spent the least time, 0.5% of the total observed time, on personal time and he is the only single general manager in the observation.

Table 6.5: Total worked time, personal and unaccounted time (mins)

General Manager	Total Work Time	Private	Unaccounted Time	Total Time
GM 1	2485	36	210	2731
GM 2	2314	14	210	2538
GM 3	1977	41	250	2268
GM 4	2143	67	296	2506
GM 5	2269	37	476	2782
GM 6	2206	110	307	2623
GM 7	1997	45	374	2416
GM 8	2874	38	288	3200

Table 6.6: Total worked time, personal and unaccounted time (percentage)

General Manager	Total Work Time	Private (%)	Unaccounted Time (%)
GM 1	91.0	1.3	7.7
GM 2	91.2	0.5	8.3
GM 3	87.2	1.8	11.0
GM 4	85.5	2.7	11.8
GM 5	81.6	1.3	17.1
GM 6	84.1	4.2	11.7
GM 7	82.6	1.9	15.5
GM 8	89.8	1.2	9.0

Occasionally, a hotel manager would become involved in certain tasks in the late evening after the day's routine activities had been performed. In Ley's study, this was identified as "an additional time-related factor" and was excluded from the records because such activities were based on recall. On the contrary, in this particular study, the general managers in the sample considered these activities as a part of their routine activities and the researcher recorded the time during which the activities took place.

6.2.1 Description of Activities

The activities performed by the sample of hotel general managers were generally categorised into thirteen items in order to analyse the ten managerial roles initially originated by Mintzberg. These thirteen items were:

Desk work	Mails, Reports, Document concerning administration
Periodicals	News, Journals
Telephone calls	Receiving and Making calls

Talking (1)	Conversation with one person
Meeting (+2)	Discussion in which two or more other persons are involved
Scheduled meeting	A meeting held according to the fixed schedule
Scheduling time	Making a schedule or an appointment
Interview	Formal interview for selection, with agency, potential employee, client, etc.
Private	Private activities not connected with work
Function	Attend social function or religious ceremony (grand opening, staff party, hotel anniversary, etc.)
Inspection	Maintaining standards mainly concerning room and food and beverage
Tour	Maintain of standards
Entertainment	Official and unofficial meeting with guest or agency (i.e. supplier or contractors)

Since desk activities generally involved scanning, completion and signing of reports and documents concerning general administration, the roles assigned to these activities derived from the roles classified by Ley (1978:114) as follows:

Assignment of Desk Activities to Managerial Roles

Activity	Role
Reviewing reports completed by others (department heads)	Monitor
Reading incoming circulars, reports from head office, district, etc.	Monitor

Completing forms and reports to be sent to others

Disseminator

Signing forms and reports completed by others

Spokesman

Importantly, Ley made an interesting argument from his findings that although Mintzberg asserted the belief that the work of all managers could be classified according to these ten roles, it did not mean that managerial work activities had to be represented by all ten roles. Also, Ley remarked that the role of negotiator as defined by Mintzberg was found to be an insignificant part of a hotel manager's work role requirements in his study. This will be discussed later in the chapter.

There were times that two or more work roles merged within one activity. It was difficult to decide on how to allocate time to different roles. It was a question of whether those roles coexisted at one time or if the roles were switched. Since this issue reflected the complexity of how the human mind functions, it was very difficult to measure the duration of a given role during the observation, or to distinguish the point when the general manager was changing from one role to another. There could be an overlap of the roles during the time when the roles were switched. As no conclusion can be drawn at this point, the general managers and the researcher finally agreed to divide equally the time allocation to each specific work role when more than one work role occurred in a particular activity.

An example of this situation is shown on the analysis sheet (see Figure 6.2) which deals with the second activity on the first day of observation of the General Manager 1. The activity was described in the recorded sheet shown in Figure 6.3 and was then

Figure 6.2 Analysis sheet

General Manager 1

Day 1

Time	Medium	Interact	Role(s)	Average (min)	Duration (min)
7.30	Tour		Monitor		60
8.30	Scheduled Meeting (Morning Brief)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/Resource	20	80
9.55	Scheduled Meeting (Dept. Meeting)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/Resource/Ent	21.25	85
11.25	Talking	F&B	Disseminator		3
11.28	Call out	Supplier	Figurehead		4
11.31	Desk work		Disseminator		1
11.32	Call in	Supplier	Figurehead/Nego	1.5	3
11.36	Desk work		Figurehead/Monitor	1.5	3
11.39	Talking	Secretary	Monitor		1
11.40	Call in	Contractor	Figurehead		2
11.42	Entertainment	Guests	Figurehead/Spoke	1.5	3
11.45	Call out	FO staff	Disseminator		2
11.48	Talking	F&B Staff	Disseminator		1
11.50	Talking	Beach staff	Disseminator		1
11.52	Call out	HK staff	Leader/Dissem	1.5	3
11.55	Talking	Gardener	Leader/Dissem	1.5	3
11.58	Talking	Kitchen staff	Disseminator		1
12.10	Entertainment	Exhibitor	Figurehead/Liaison	1	2
12.12	Entertainment	Guests	Figurehead/Spoke	0.5	1
12.14	Call out	F&B Dir.	Leader/Dissem	1	2
12.16	Call in	F&B Dir.	Disseminator		1
12.17	Talking	F&B manager	Disseminator		1
12.19	Desk work		Monitor		1
12.21	Call out	F&B	Disseminator		1

Figure 6.3 Structured observation recorded sheet

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORDED SHEET

HOTEL 1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 1

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
1	7.30	8.30	Tour	Ensure the hotel is well operated and maintained.	Hotel	
2	8.30	9.50	Scheduled Meeting	Meet with department heads and listen to their reports. Follow up tasks and assign daily tasks.	President room	Dept. Heads
3	9.55	10.55	Scheduled Meeting	Conduct formal meeting with department heads: - to follow up work and to support department heads - to explain the memos - over time policy - to allocate budget	Meeting room	Dept. Heads, Secretary, Security Chief
4	11.25	11.35	Talking (1)	Confirm the visit with the kitchen supplier.	Office	F&B director
5	11.28	11.31	Call Out	Wait for the line. The other party is engaged.	Office	
6	11.31	11.32	Correspondence Out	Set print document (fire manual) on the computer.	Office	
7	11.32	11.35	Call Out	Make appointment to finalise the contract for the kitchen renovation.	Office	Supplier
8	11.36	11.39	Correspondence In	Read the daily mails.	Office	
9	11.39	11.40	Talking (1)	Brief about the appointment with the kitchen supplier.	Office	Secretary
10	11.40	11.42	Call In	Confirm the appointment with the kitchen supplier.	Office	Supplier

classified on the analysis sheet shown in Figure 6.2 as leader, monitor, disseminator and resource allocator. In this situation the General Manager 1 was performing his role as leader (staffing responsibilities), as monitor (receiving information from reports), as disseminator (distributing important information to subordinates) and as resource allocator (assigning tasks and giving deadlines). In performing these roles in one particular activity which lasted 80 minutes, 20 minutes were allocated to each relevant work role. The Structured Observation Recorded Sheet was designed to obtain information on time allocations of the eight general managers. The “Purpose of Activity and Explanation” section in the Structured Observation Recorded Sheet indicated the work role(s) which emerged during each activity performed. The information gathered from the Structured Observation Recorded Sheet was then transferred to the “Analysis Sheet”. The data from the Analysis Sheet provided the duration of time of each activity and managerial work role(s) of that activity performed per day. An example of the completed Structured Observation Recorded Sheet for General Manager 1 is illustrated in Figure 6.3, and an example of the completed Analysis Sheet is illustrated in Figure 6.2. The sample of the General Manager 1’s Analysis Sheet for “Day 1” is shown in Appendix F. The time allocations to each particular work role from the Analysis Sheet were totalled for each day. The total time for each work role of each day was then added to obtain the total observed time for that work role. An example of total time and an example of total time allocations to managerial work roles of General Manager 1 is presented in Table 6.7, and an example of total time allocations to activities of General Manager 1 is

presented in Table 6.8. In addition, these total time allocations to work roles and activities for each general manager in the observation are presented in Appendix H.

Table 6.7: Total time allocations to managerial work roles of General Manager 1

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
<u>Interpersonal</u>							
Figurehead	98.00	114.00	41.00	84.00	59.33	396.33	15.95
Leader	61.00	13.00	23.00	29.75	47.67	174.42	7.02
Liaison	50.75	57.75	30.50	8.50	3.00	150.50	6.05
<u>Informational</u>							
Monitor	169.50	227.00	186.33	288.92	100.17	971.92	39.10
Disseminator	107.75	59.75	32.17	87.42	103.17	390.26	15.69
Spokesman	51.75	48.75	15.00	0	5.50	121.00	4.90
<u>Decisional</u>							
Entrepreneur	26.00	0	10.33	4.16	14.33	54.82	2.21
Disturbance Handler	0	8.00	22.17	16.75	11.00	57.92	2.33
Resource Allocator	58.75	26.75	8.50	1.50	51.83	147.63	5.93
Negotiator	4.50	1.00	15.00	0	0	20.50	0.82
Total time (mins)	628.00	556.00	384.00	521.00	396.00	2485	100.00

Table 6.8: Total time allocations to work activities of General Manager 1

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Desk work	77	155	25	107	104	468	15.8
Call in	22	1.00	0	0	45	68	3.0
Call out	41	43	1	19	37	141	7.2
Talk	65	9	46	136	140	396	24.0
Scheduled Meeting	165	10	112	67	24	378	13.6
Meeting	3	0	19	0	14	36	1.4
Tour	60	117	9	20	20	226	9.0
Entertainment	195	212	0	0	12	419	18.2
Travel	0	0	124	154	0	278	5.4
Periodicals	0	9	0	0	0	9	0.3
Inspection	0	0	48	18	0	66	2.1
Total time (mins)	628	556	384	521	396	2485	100

6.3 Discussion of results of the structured observation

6.3.1 Relationship between time allocation to managerial work roles and management style

The discussion involves all of the eight hotel general managers in the structured observation. As indicated previously, it might be expected that hotel managers in the sample would perceive the leader role as an area of primary responsibility. This could be easily understood because Mintzberg described the leader role as “responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training and associated duties” (1973:92). However, the results of the observation show that half of the sample (GM 1, 4, 6 and 7) perceived the leader role as the most important while the other half (GM 2, 3, 5 and 8) placed greater importance on the entrepreneur role. General Manager 8 also perceived the resource allocator role as important as his leader role (see Table 6.9). Interestingly, the researcher was told by all the general managers during the observation that none of them liked to perform the figurehead role. However, the results show that they all perceived and actually allocated respectively high response rates to this particular role. This could be interpreted as indicating that the general managers would prefer not to exercise their authority and status if possible. However, if a conductor has the sole responsibility for the concert, so has the general manager for the hotel. Therefore, whether they prefer it or not, this role is considered important to the general manager’s work as well as the other roles.

Table 6.9: Actual and perceived ranked time allocations to managerial work roles

Roles	GM1			GM2			GM3			GM4			GM5			GM6			GM7			GM8			
	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	Per	Act	Diff	
<u>Interpersonal</u>																									
Figurehead	3	2	1	4	3	1	8	3	5	2	2	0	6	4	2	6	3	3	4	4	0	5	3	2	
Leader	4	4	0	1	5	4	1	6	5	4	6	2	2	3	1	2	4	2	4	3	1	1	5	4	
Liaison	6	5	1	7	4	3	4	4	0	8	4	4	7	7	0	4	6	2	6	6	0	9	4	5	
<u>Informational</u>																									
Monitor	5	1	4	6	1	5	4	1	3	2	1	1	5	1	4	3	1	1	8	1	7	7	1	6	
Disseminator	2	3	1	2	2	0	3	2	1	4	3	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	2	1	3	2	1	
Spokesman	9	7	2	7	6	1	9	8	1	9	5	4	9	9	0	9	10	1	9	8	1	8	7	1	
<u>Decisional</u>																									
Entrepreneur	1	8	7	2	9	7	4	9	5	1	7	6	4	8	4	7	8	1	1	10	9	4	10	6	
Disturbance Handler	8	9	1	9	8	1	4	5	1	7	8	1	8	10	2	7	5	2	6	9	3	5	9	4	
Resource Allocator	6	6	0	4	7	3	1	7	6	6	9	3	3	6	3	4	7	3	2	5	3	1	8	7	
Negotiator	10	10	0	10	10	0	10	10	0	10	10	0	10	5	5	9	8	1	10	7	3	10	6	4	
Total difference between actual and perceived time allocation			17			25			27			22			22			17			28			40	
Mean difference			1.7			2.5			2.7			2.2			2.2			1.7			2.8			4	

Note: GM - General Manager

Act - Actual Ranked Time Allocations

Per - Perceived Ranked Time Allocations

Diff - Differences between Actual and Perceived Ranked Time Allocations

In Ley's (1978) study, all innkeepers had included both the leader and entrepreneur roles among their four most important work roles. Ley also found that no innkeeper devoted proportionately more time to the leader role than to each of the other work roles. This finding contradicts the findings of previous researchers such as Burns (1954) Dubin and Sprays (1964), Mintzberg (1973), Arnaldo (1981) and Kim (1994) who found that the role of leader absorbed a high percentage of time.

The results from this particular study show a low percentage of time allocation to the leader role and thus agree with Ley's findings. However, the leadership style observed in the structured observation was more "participative and achievement-oriented" rather than "autocratic". This evidence supports Bass's finding that today's managers emphasize a more democratic, participative leadership style than autocratic approach (Bass 1985 cited in Go et al. 1996). In addition, the low percentage of time allocation to this specific role signifies that the general manager who preferred "participative and achievement-oriented" styles considered monitoring and disseminating to be at the heart of running the hotel. This manager, as Mintzberg described, is between his network of contacts and his organisation, shifting what is received from the outside and transmitting much of it into his organisation (Mintzberg 1973:49). Therefore, there was a rise of the time allocations to both monitor and disseminator roles instead of the leader role as shown in Table 6.2. The result is very interesting not only because it differs from previous studies but also because it reflects that the autocratic leadership style is less preferable. The hotel general managers emphasised empowerment and had less involvement in the staff's decisions. Therefore, the

monitor role appeared first in rank with a high percentage of all the general managers in the sample. In this case, it could be that the monitor role is the most important role because of advanced technology. The finding also reflects that there is greater competition in hotel industry than there was ten years ago. The present hotel business relies on information technology more and more each day. Thus, access to data is a key to business success. There is no doubt that hotel general managers should put more emphasis on the flow of information.

6.3.1.1 Similarities and differences of General Managers' time allocations to specific work roles and activities

The results show that there are some similarities between General Manager 1 and General Manager 4. These similarities are:

- age of the managers (25 - 34 years);
- type of hotel (resort hotels);
- size of hotel (over 250 rooms); and
- type of management (owner).

These could also reflect the similarities in their time allocations to some specific work roles. For instance, their ranks of actual time allocations to the monitor, figurehead, and disseminator roles (see Table 6.9). In addition, they spent similar proportions of time to “entertainment” and “tour” activities (see Table 6.10). This is because their

hotels are of similar type (resort hotels), size (over 200 rooms) and clientele. Also, the similar amount of time allocated to entertainment activity shows not only that they managed similar type of hotel which required them to keep frequent contacts with guests and tour representatives, but also their preferences or styles. This is because General Managers 2,5,6 and 7 whose response rates for “entertainment” are considerably lower, explained that they would rather spend time on “desk work” than on “entertainment” because it is their prefer style. Hence, they appointed a person to take charge of entertainment activity so that they could allocate more time on other activities.

To sum up, this evidence supports that managers’ preference, age, type of hotel, type of management and size of hotel could determine the similar proportioning of their time allocations to certain work roles and activities.

A “tour” appears to be a basic daily activity for a hotel manager, especially for those who manage resort hotels. General Managers 1, 2, 3 and 4 commented during the interview that touring the property is essential, especially, for a massive property or a hotel which has high volume of in-house guests. However, the findings indicate that General Manager 6 did not spend time on this activity at all (see Table 6.10). General Manager 6 managed a city hotel of between 101-250 rooms which is considered small by the standard of the Thai Hotel Association. There were two food and beverage outlets: one restaurant and one coffee shop. Although the manager mentioned in the interview that touring the property was important, she had to delegate this

responsibility to her assistant because her desk work consumed a lot of her total time. She was also occupied by scheduled meetings with the executive boards during the observed period. In addition, the time allocated to “tour” could also reflect the style of the manager. It certainly seems to show that the relationship of the time allocated to “tour” and the total time contact with guests of each manager (see Tables 6.10 and 6.11). The results show that, generally, when the percentage of time allocated to “tour” is low, the percentage of time allocated to contact with guests is also low and vice versa. This is because during touring the property the general manager is normally stopped by guests who recognise him/her and it was thus the time which gave the general manager an opportunity to greet or talk to guests. One exception to this is General Manager 7 whose time allocation to “tour” and the contact with guests does not correspond to the others in the sample. The reason for the proportion of time allocated to “tour” by the General Manager 7 being the highest of all the eight general managers was that there were crises caused by the electricity system breaking down many times during the observed time period. General Manager 7 had to tour his property to check his departments and maintain standards. During interviews with the researcher, he also admitted that in general, the proportion of the total time spent on “tour” was not as high. This is a distinct point which also highlights the differences of total time allocations and styles between Thai and non-Thai general managers. From Table 6.10, it can be seen that except for General Manager 7, all Thai general managers allocated less time on “tour” activity than the four non-Thai general managers.

It also reflected the Thai value at work that Thai general managers preferred less interaction than non-Thai general managers. This is because sometimes interaction can lead to confrontation. As discussed in Chapter 4 Thai people place high value on “face” and prefer to be calm at all times. Therefore, they do not like confrontation and criticism, whereas non-Thai managers preferred interaction and immediate communication between both subordinates and guests.

Table 6.10: General Managers’ total time allocation to managerial activities

(percentage)

Activities	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Desk work	15.8	17.5	20.3	17.5	10.4	23.9	54	22.5
Call in	3	4.7	2.3	5.4	1	3.8	2.7	7.1
Call out	7.2	8.6	4.2	10.1	2.1	11	5.6	8.1
Talk	24	13.4	17	11.7	19.4	12.8	8.9	13.6
Scheduled Meeting	13.6	19.5	10.8	19	53.1	39	13	13.7
Meeting	1.4	3.6	8.5	0.7	5.7	5.5	0.6	5.3
Tour	9	9.8	9.2	9.1	3.3	0	11	5
Entertainment	18.2	8.2	13.4	18.5	3.7	0.5	0	17.4
Travel	5.4	1.6	0	0.6	1.8	0	0	0
Periodicals	0.3	1	0.1	0	0	0	0	0.2
Inspection	2.1	5.5	10.6	3.5	0.5	3.4	2.4	1.8
Interview	0	1.9	3.3	3.9	0	0	0.4	5.2
Function	0	4.1	0	0	0.8	0	1.3	0
Scheduled Time	0	0.6	0.3	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total Number of Activities Performed	212	343	285	323	220	379	274	450

Table 6.11: General Managers' time allocation to contacts

	(percentage)							
Contact	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Secretary	0.35	5.16	5.18	4.9	3.31	4.49	8.03	3.74
Resident/Assistant Manager	7.52	3.81	0	4.63	8.54	5.5	2.98	0.53
Head Office/Superiors	1.04	6.31	7.95	4.09	17.01	34.27	2.38	3.4
Subordinates	60.26	39.15	55.61	35.33	56.4	48.83	68.45	55.53
Colleagues	1.73	5.34	1.66	20.51	1.24	1.37	7.59	2.92
Suppliers/Contractors	13.33	9.18	0.69	16.2	5.28	2.51	10.57	15.55
Guests	11.57	11.05	20.81	12.63	4.24	0.72	0	2.29
Independents/Others	4.2	20	8.1	1.71	3.98	2.31	0	16.04
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

As mentioned earlier, Ley noted that the role of negotiator was found to be an insignificant part of a hotel manager's work role requirements. This was particularly so because Ley's subjects were innkeepers in a hospitality chain. The negotiation functions in this case were made principally at regional and corporate levels. However, the situation in the present study is different. Although the time allocations to the negotiator role of the majority in the structured observation ranged from 8th to 10th in rank which could be considered very low (see Table 6.9), there were two general managers, General Manager 5 and General Manager 8, whose ranks were distinctively higher, placing negotiator at 5th and 6th respectively. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that the negotiator role is insignificant. In this case, it indicates that different environments and structures of organisations require different practices and emphases on different managerial work roles.

It is also interesting that this finding reflects the similarities between General Manager 5 and General Manager 8 in their time allocation to the Sales and Marketing department. This point will be further elaborated in the area of the total general

managers' time allocations to each department. Moreover, it is worth noting that all the non-Thai general managers in the observation ranked the role of negotiator as least important (10th). In contrast, Thai general managers' ranks for this role ranged from 5th to 8th. The language barrier could be an explanation of why the non-Thai general managers in the observation gave very little significance to the role of negotiator. Another reason could be the different ways of communication resulting from the culture differences. This is because important negotiations with local authority or organisations require cultural sensitivity and knowledge of host culture. Also, not many Thais have good command of English and these non-Thai managers do not speak Thai. Thus, they delegate the negotiator role to their local assistants who are their counterparts (see Chapter 4).

The entrepreneur role is another role which yields different results to those of Mintzberg (1973). Mintzberg noted that his ten roles were common to the work of all managers and constituted an integrated whole. However, the results of the observation show that in practice there were times when a general manager did not perform all ten roles. As shown in Table 6.2, General Manager 7 did not perform the entrepreneur role at all. In addition, though all the managers in the study perceived the entrepreneur role to be as important as the leader role, they spent, in fact, little time performing this role. The time allocation to the entrepreneur role ranged from 7th to 10th position, which is considered low (see Table 6.9). The interpretation could be that the stage of a hotel's development influences a hotel manager's degree of entrepreneurship. The hotel general manager who works in the hotel which is well

established or recently refurbished would not have many new projects to initiate. Conversely, the hotel general manager who works in a hotel which is in a transitional stage such as a change of the management or a refurbishing period may, of course, have to be involved in various new initiatives and plans as shown in the time allocations of General Managers 1, 4 and 5 (see Table 6.9). The results from the observation on the entrepreneur role for General Managers 1, 4 and 5 are comparatively high. This is because during the observed period there were innovations in property 1, a change of menu plan in property 4 and a change of management in property 5.

6.3.1.2 General Managers' effectiveness

Overall, all general managers appeared able to judge the time spent on certain roles fairly well; for example, the mean difference scores of General Manager 1 and General Manager 6 were the same figure which was 1.7, the lowest score among all general managers (see Table 6.9). The results of General Manager 1 showed that he could judge the time spent on particular roles better than other general managers. There were more matched scores between perceived and actual roles. The roles which matched between perceived and actual time allocations were leader, resource allocator and negotiator. Although, the mean difference score of General Manager 6 was also 1.7, there was none matched score for perceived and actual time allocation. But whether there is any advantage in being able to make an accurate assessment of their time spent on the work roles is dubious. If one believes "knowing what you are

doing is the best”, this means the manager who gets more matched scores and gains a lower mean difference score is considered highly effective.

6.3.2 Managerial work pattern of hotel general managers

The data of this study were analysed to see whether there were distinct activity patterns of the hotel managers. Similar to previous research findings, this study shows that a hotel manager’s activities are various and fragmented. Throughout each working day, the general manager encounters a great variety of activities. Hence, they have to be prepared to shift their moods quickly and frequently. The hotel general manager’s desk-work is frequently interrupted by telephone calls or by subordinates coming to his office. All of the general managers studied agreed that they could control such interruptions. They could ask their secretaries to screen the telephone calls or close the office door but they did not want to do this, except when they had projects or work which required a great deal of concentration. However, this situation was very rare. They all preferred “instant communication”. Besides, controlling the flow of communication would slow down communication with their networks as well as slow down the pace of their monitor and disseminator roles. As a result, all the general managers in the observation were in favour of an “open door” policy. Also, their subordinates were encouraged to come to their offices. It is very interesting to note that the Thai staff went to speak to the general managers in person in their offices for either minor or major issues, instead of using the internal telephone. However, the general managers in the observation often used the internal telephone to call their staff to come to their offices or either to request or to pass on the

information related to work with their staff. This fact could be explained by the Thai “Kreng Jai” value (see Chapter 4). The Thai subordinates felt that a personal visit would show deference to their superiors or bosses far more than an impersonal abrupt telephone call.

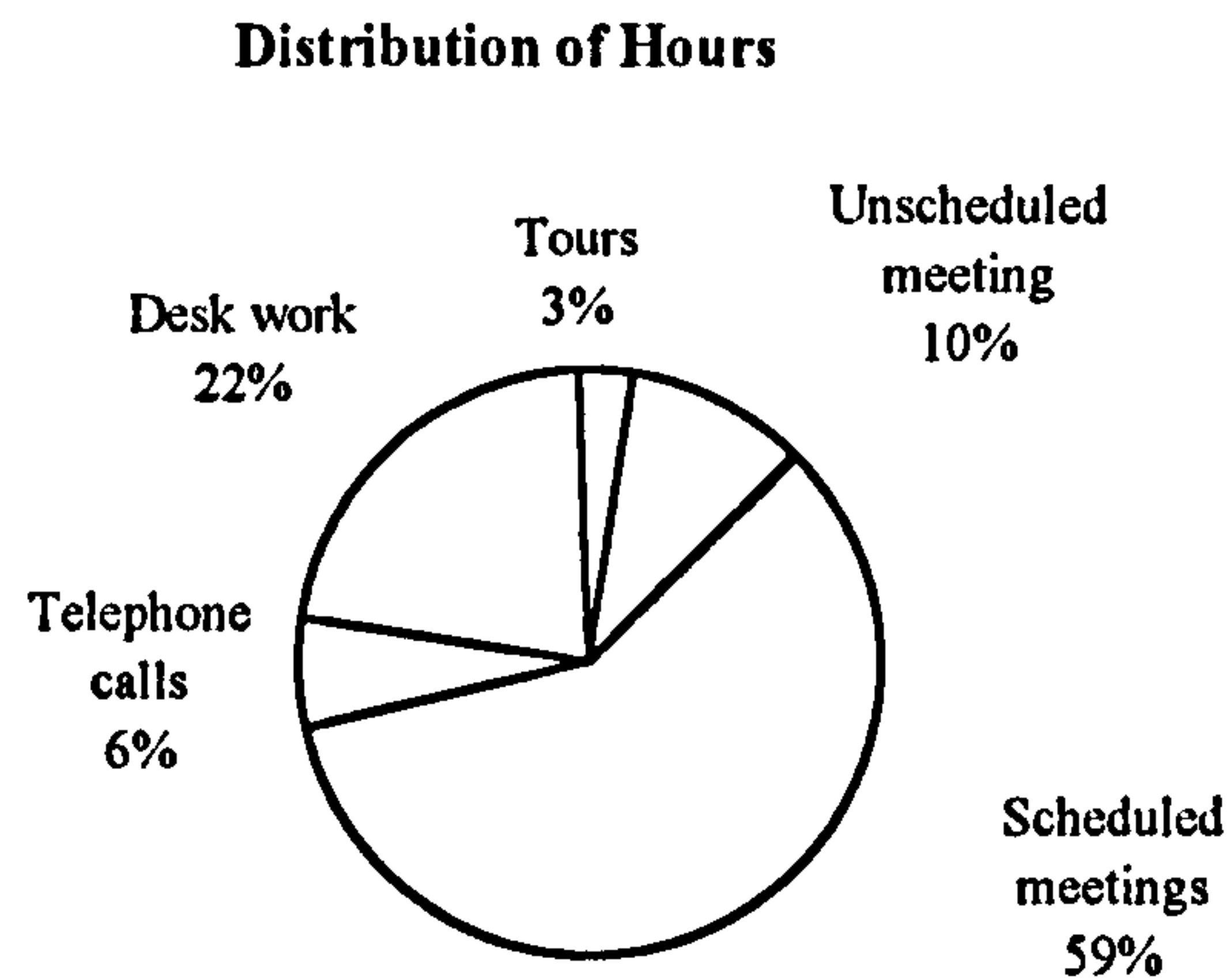
6.3.3 Relationship between the time distribution on activities and management styles

In addition to his model of managerial roles, Mintzberg showed his chief executives’ distribution of time classified by media as illustrated in Figure 6.4. The figure indicates that the chief executives spent a great deal of time on verbal media. Scheduled meetings consumed the most time of the executive’s time (59%) followed by desk work (22%). Similarly, the results from the present study show that hotel general managers in the observation allocated most of their time to “scheduled meetings” (22.6%) followed by “desk work” (22.3%). The average of the general managers’ distribution of hour and activities of this present study is presented in Figure 6.5. In this figure, the proportion of time distributed to scheduled meetings and desk work dominates half of the general managers’ working time. During the observation period there was a period for business assessment involving three of the general managers appraising the financial performance of their units and concluding their fiscal reports in order to allocate new budgets for the coming year. Therefore, they were more likely to be occupied by scheduled meetings with executives boards and department heads. From this can be drawn the conclusion that the time-consuming activities for hotel general managers in the observational study have some proportional similarities

to the distribution of time of the chief executive in Mintzberg's study; for example the activities taking the greatest amount of time in both studies are "scheduled meetings" and "desk work". However, the studies differ in the more activities (13) are involved in this present study illustrated in Figure 6.5 compared to Mintzberg's study in Figure 6.4.

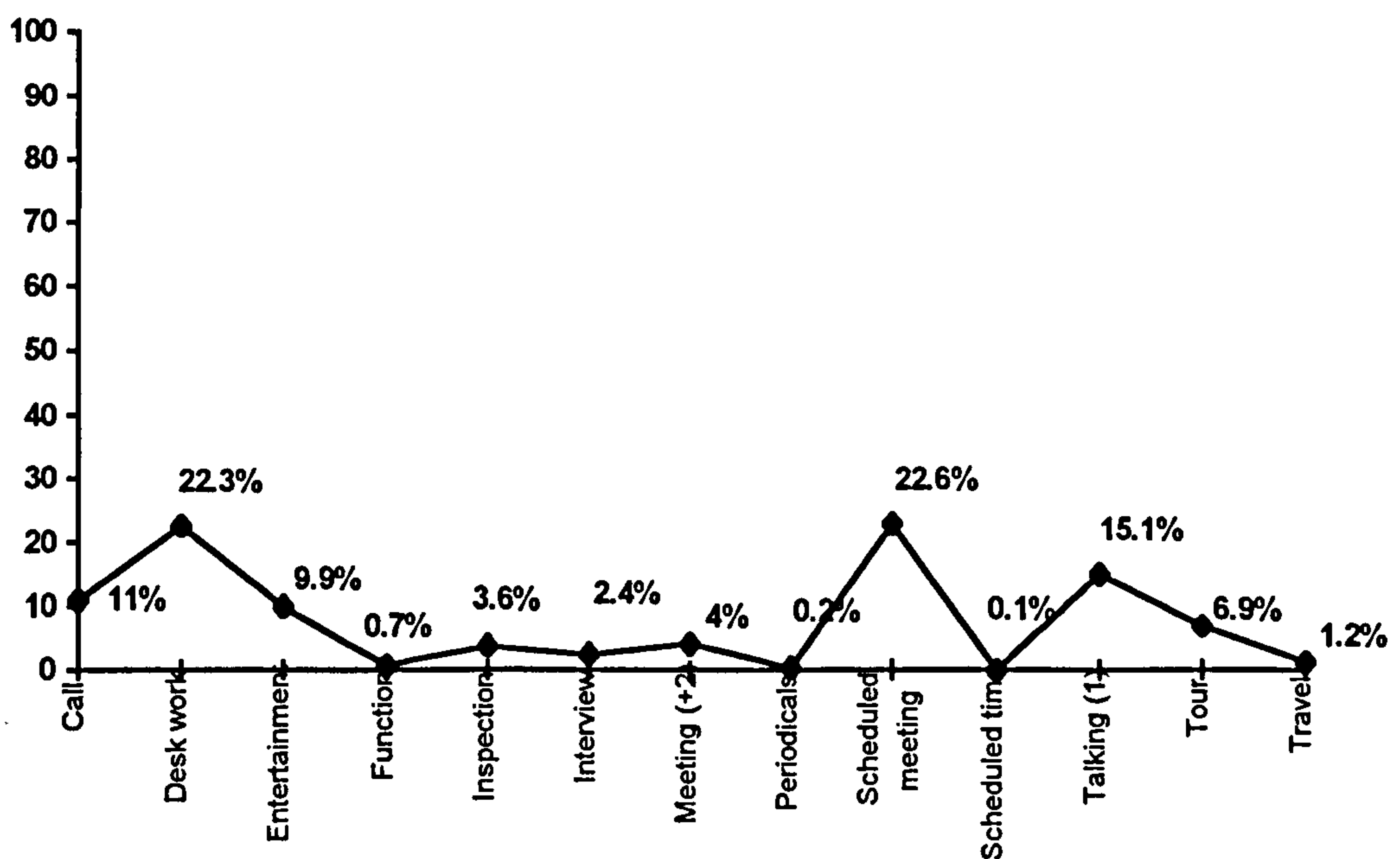
This finding leads to another, namely that the distribution of working hours to particular activities implicitly reflects the personal preferences and styles of the hotel general managers. Moreover, it can be argued that the hotel general managers' time allocations to work activities and work roles could reflect their styles or their time allocations could implicitly show that they responded to the job demands. All the hotel general managers in the structured observation mentioned during the interview that their styles could not be changed by the environment. They all said that they chose the organisation and the environment. If they found that their styles did not fit the organisation and the environment, they would have to move to another company and new environment. However, it is worth noting that the results from the observation analysis signify that the results of the hotel general managers' time allocations to the work activities and work roles reflect both the general managers' preferences or styles as well as the demands of their jobs. As discussed earlier, General Manager 6 devoted most working time to "scheduled meetings" and "desk work". The time allocation to "entertainment" for this general manager was very low,

Figure 6.4 Chief Executives' distribution of time and activities by media



Source: Mintzberg, H., *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper & Row (1973: 39)

Figure 6.5 Hotel General Managers' distribution of time and activities by media



since the manager delegated this responsibility to her assistant. General Manager 6 gave two reasons for this. First, it was her style to delegate work and to empower

department heads. Second, the scheduled meeting with the head office was an obligation and the desk work needed immediate attention during the observed time period. This general manager also added that it would have been nice to spend time with in-house guests, tour representatives and the press. She mentioned that she used to have more time, and allocated some of her time to “entertainment” and managed public relations by herself. After the hotel changed hands, she did not have time to do these activities because of the demands from her desk work and scheduled meetings. Thus, this is evidence that both the general manager’s style and the demands from the job influence the general manager’s time allocation to the activities and work roles. Similarly, the remarkable increase of time allocation on “tour” from the normal routine of General Manager 7, as explained earlier, illustrated the general manager’s response to immediate attention or coping with the job demand. In addition, General Manager 1 explained that “travel” was one of the activities that he was not fond of. However, his time allocation to “travel” was the highest of all the eight general managers in the observation. This was because “travel” was a part of his job responsibilities. He was obliged to go to the company’s head office which was located in a different city. Therefore, it can be concluded that the time allocation to managerial work activities and work roles results from a combination of the general managers’ styles and job demands.

6.3.3.1 Management styles

Before beginning the discussion, it is worth comparing Mintzberg's managerial framework and Stewart's scheme in order to identify and categorise managerial styles of the eight general managers in this observational study (see Figure 6.6). Both Mintzberg's managerial framework and Stewart's scheme were discussed and presented in Chapter 2.

Mintzberg also concluded from his analysis of the ten managerial roles that there was an indication of eight managerial job types. He defined the eight types as follows (Mintzberg 1973):

- **The Contact Men:** these managers spend much of their time outside their organisations and deal with people who can give them favours, sales orders and provide them with privileged information.
- **The Political Managers:** these managers spend their time with outsiders. Also, they are in a complex managerial position where they are required to reconcile a great many diverse political forces acting on their organisations. These managers also spend a great amount of time in formal activities. They meet with their superiors regularly. They also receive and negotiate with pressure groups and explain the actions of their organisations to special interest parties.

- **The Entrepreneurs:** these managers spend their time seeking opportunities and implementing changes in their organisations. They also have to spend considerable time in the negotiator role to implement their proposed changes.
- **The Insiders:** these managers spend their time building up structure, developing and training their subordinates and overseeing the operations they develop.
- **The Real-Time Managers:** these managers are also concerned with the maintenance of internal operations. The work of these managers is highly fragmented and contacts are very many and very brief. Managers who belong to this type can be found in the basic line-production job, as the head of small businesses and in any organisation in a dynamic, competitive and high-pressured environment. Their principal role is disturbance handler.
- **The Team Managers:** these managers involve the creation of a team that will operate as a cohesive whole and will function effectively. The team managers are found where the organisational tasks require difficult co-ordination among highly skilled experts, for instance, heads of research and development groups charged with complex projects. Their primary role is the leader role.
- **The Expert Managers:** these managers are managers who have to perform an expert role in addition to their managerial roles.

They can be heads of a specialist staff group or they serve as a centre of specialised information in the larger organisation. Their key roles are monitor and spokesman.

- **The New Managers:** these managers are the ones who are in their new jobs. They concentrate on the liaison and monitor role in order to build up their contacts and data base. This is because they lack of contacts and have insufficient information as they are new to the jobs.

Figure 6.6 Mintzberg's managerial job types vs. Stewart's job profiles

Figure 6.6 a Mintzberg's managerial job types

Managerial Job Type	Key Roles
Contact man	Liaison, figurehead
Political manager	Spokesman, negotiator
Entrepreneur	Entrepreneur, negotiator
Insider	Resource allocator
Real-Time manager	Disturbance handler
Team manager	Leader
Expert manager	Monitor, spokesman
New manager	Liaison, monitor

Source: Mintzberg, H., The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper & Row (1973: 92-3)

Figure 6.6 b Stewart's job profiles

Job Profile	Key Roles
Emissaries	Liaison, figurehead, monitor
Writers	Monitor, disseminator, spokesman
Discussers	Monitor, negotiator
Trouble shooters	Monitor, Disturbance handler
Committeemen	Leader, negotiator, monitor

In analysing the descriptions and key roles of Mintzberg's job types and these key roles of Stewart's profiles, some similarities can be found (Mintzberg 1973). They are:

- contact men and emissaries;
- expert managers and writers; and
- real-time managers and trouble shooter.

The results from Table 6.10 also show that General Managers 3, 6, 7 and 8 did more "desk work" as mentioned earlier. Particularly, General Manager 7 spent a remarkably high percentage of time on "desk work" activity. His ratio for this activity is 54%, the highest percentage of all the general managers in the observation. In addition, the key roles of General Managers 3, 6, 7 and 8, which defined by ranks of time allocations (ranks 1st and 2nd), were the monitor and the disseminator. It will be recalled from Chapter 2 that if categorised according to Rosemary Stewart's scheme, they would be members of the group which Stewart called "the writers" (Stewart 1967).

Unlike this group of managers, General Managers 1 and 4 spent more time on "entertainment" and their key roles were the monitor and figurehead roles. Hence, these two general managers would fall into the group which Stewart called "the emissaries" because the member of this group spent time in entertaining and had personal contact with customers (Stewart 1967). As for General Manager 5, he spent his time on scheduled meetings and his key roles were the monitor and disseminator

roles. However, his time allocation to the leader role was also significant. Among the eight General Managers, his proportion of time allocated to the leader role is the highest (13.7%). Thus, he then could fall into a group which Stewart called “the committee-men”. The rest is General Manager 2. Similarly, General Manager 2 spent his time on scheduled meetings and his key roles were the monitor and the disseminator. However, he could not fall into the same group as General Manager 5 because his time allocation to the figurehead role was more significant than the leader role. Although, one of his primary roles was of the figurehead, he could not be in “the emissaries” category, because his time allocation to entertainment activity was considerably lower. However, he spent quite a substantial amount of time on desk work activity. Thus, General Manager 2 could be classified as a combination of “the committee-men” and “the writers”.

To conclude, the styles of the general managers in this study classified according to Stewart’s scheme and key roles are:

- the emissaries;
- the writers;
- the committee-men; and
- a combination of the writers and the committee-men.

6.3.4 The General Managers' patterns of contacts

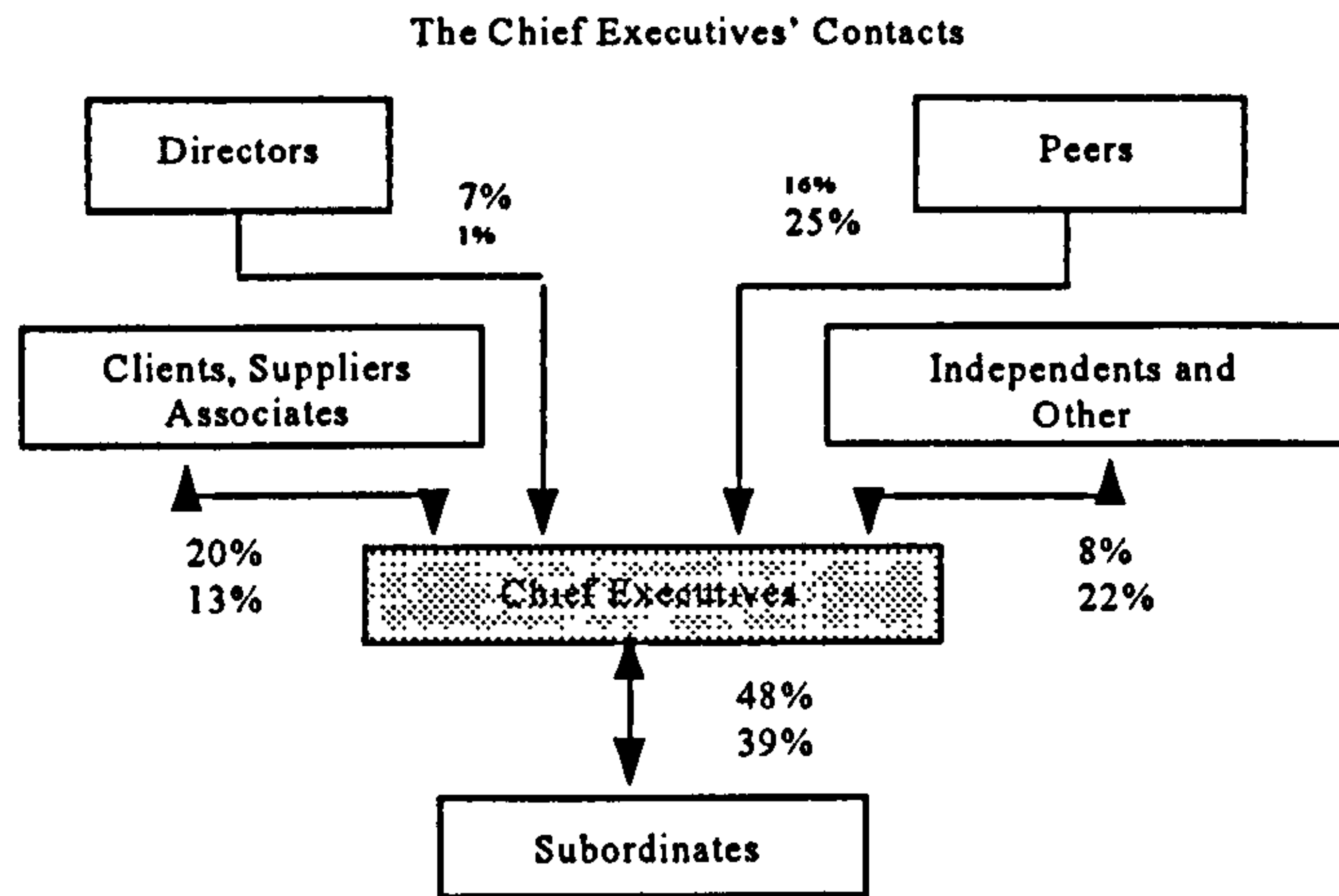
In his study, Mintzberg identified the time allocated to verbal contact as shown in Figure 6.7. His chief executives spent 48% of their contact time with subordinates, 7% with superiors and 44% with independents and others. Mintzberg concluded that the managers spent substantial time with subordinates, between one-third and one-half of their total time in verbal contact, whereas other studies found horizontal contacts - with colleagues, independents and others - consumed more time than with subordinates. For example, Burns (1954) found half of all contacts of managers were with colleagues, and Stewart (1967) found senior and middle managers spent 12% with superiors, 41% with subordinates and 47% with others which could be broken down to 19% with colleagues, 13% with fellow specialists, and 8% with other internal people, and only 8% with external people.

However, the results of this study confirm Mintzberg's findings that hotel general managers spend more time with their subordinates. The findings of the general managers' total time contact can be broken down into 60.2% with subordinates, 10% with superiors, 9.2% with clients and suppliers, 8.1% with hotel guests, 8% with independents and others, and 4.5% with colleagues as shown in Figure 6.8.

Similarly, the results of the general managers' patterns of contacts in this present study differ from the two major studies of Nailon (1967) and Ley (1978). Both studies showed that the time spent on external contacts was higher than the time spent on internal (subordinate) contacts. The results of Nailon's study indicated 61.6% of

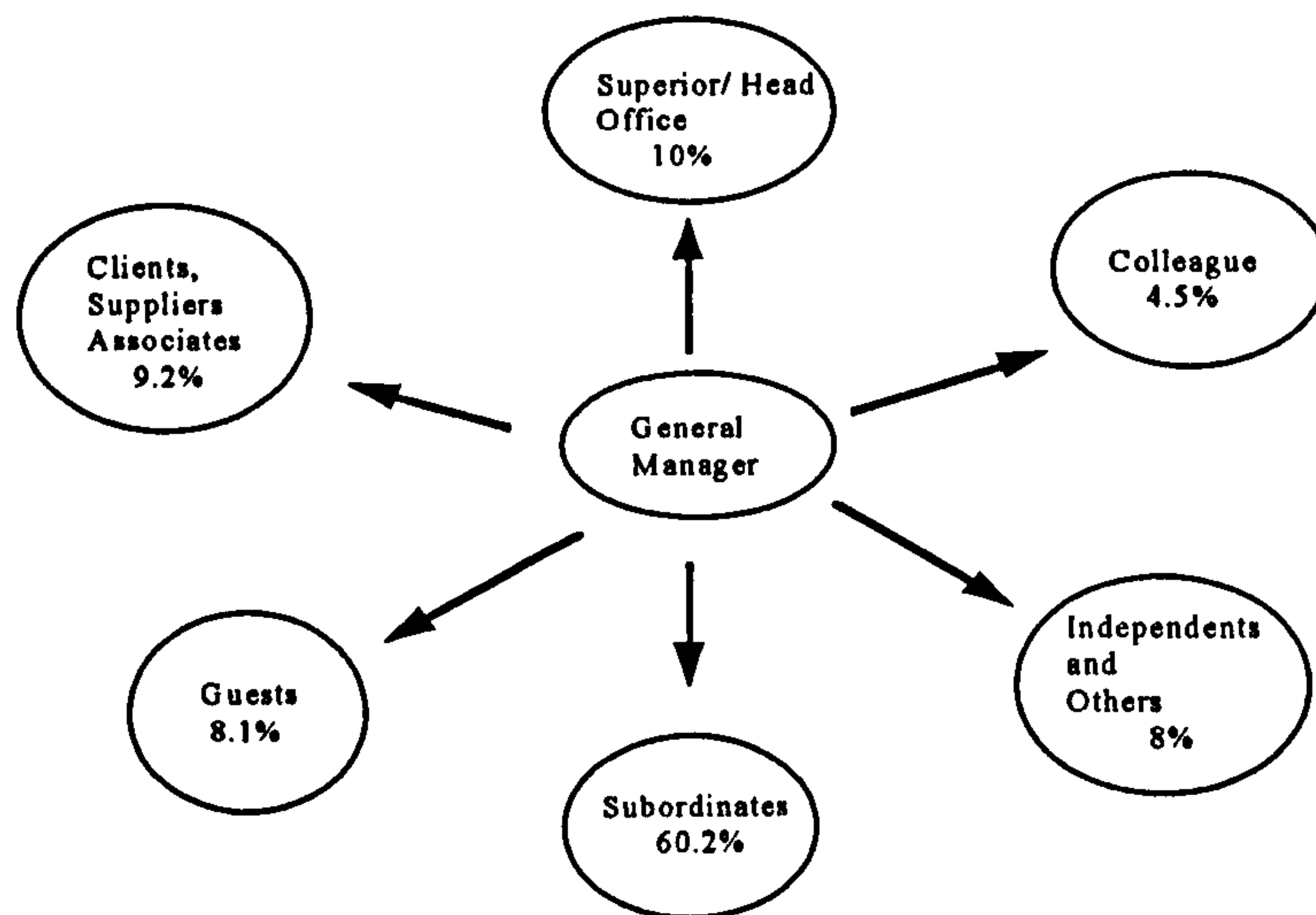
time spent on total external contacts and 38.4% of time on total internal (subordinate) contacts. The same figures for Ley's study were 65.3% on total external contacts and 34.7% on total internal (subordinate) contacts.

Figure 6.7 Chief Executives' contacts



Source: Mintzberg, H., *The Nature of Managerial Work*, Harper & Row (1973:46)

Figure 6.8 The General Managers' contacts



6.3.5 General Managers' time allocation to major departments

Another area which needs to be discussed in this chapter is the hotel general managers' total time allocated to each department. This could be inferred from the total time contact with subordinates as shown in Table 6.12. The results of this exercise show that the hotel general managers spent their time in various areas, evidencing a diversity that means there is no distinct pattern of contact. This could reflect the personal preference, style and emphasis of the managers. However, there are three general managers, General Managers 5, 6 and 8, who spent most of their time with their Sales and Marketing department. General Manager 6 scored highest in this respect, with a figure of 46.1% (see Table 6.12). From interviews with this manager, it was established that one of the reasons for spending this amount of the time on Sales and Marketing was that it was this particular general manager's expertise. Also, the staff in this department needed more attention and guidance. This was also the case with General Manager 8. During the interview, General Manager 8 added that Sales and Marketing was not his only specialism. He put his emphasis on this area because there was a high competition in the market and because the Sales and Marketing department was considered as generating the major source of income. The reason for General Manager 5's time allocation to Sales and Marketing department related to the fact that the hotel was suffering from a change of management and that there was a very low occupancy rate during the observed period.

Table 6.12: Total time allocation of contacts to each department (percentage)

Department	GM 1	GM 2	GM 3	GM 4	GM 5	GM 6	GM 7	GM 8
Front of House	11.8	17	7.6	26.4	22.2	15.3	20.3	8.4
Food & Beverage	10.2	12.1	16.3	19.6	19.7	1.5	15.1	10.0
Back of House	16.3	9.6	11.4	16.0	4.0	8.5	14.8	5.4
Human Resources	17.0	13.7	25.5	0	6.8	3.2	8.8	15.4
Accounting & Finance	0.5	11.1	14.5	1.4	7.7	15.8	9.2	13.6
Engineering	20.0	4.3	11.0	12.3	4.8	2.5	18.1	5.7
Marketing & Sales	0.3	4.7	6.1	13.3	25.4	46.1	4.7	25.0
Purchasing	0.7	0	0.2	11.0	2.7	2.6	9.0	3.2
Public Relations	0	27.5	7.4	0	6.7	4.5	0	13.3
Sports	23.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total Time	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

There is also a similarity in General Manager 5's and General Manager 7's time allocation to the front of house, 22.2% and 20.3% respectively. Although, General Manager 5 specialised in Food and Beverage and General Manager 7 in Human Resource, these two managers showed more emphasis on front office work because room occupancy was the major source of income for both hotels. It is perhaps worth noting that General Manager 1 focused on the Recreation and Transport department (23.3%) because his hotel was a massive resort and the activities for in-house guests and transportation were considered as important as room occupancy and food and beverage were for other hotels. Although General Manager 2 focused on front office work and the occupancy rate, he spent most time on public relations (27.5%) because there were quite a number of important events taking place at this hotel during the observed period. Lastly, General Manager 3 spent more time with Human Resource/Personnel department than with Food and Beverage department, which was his expertise, because there were staff crises. This manager had to resolve staff conflicts and to cope with a key staff shortage during the observed period.

From the above discussion, it seems that a hotel manager's work is highly reactive, that the manager has, very often, to react and take an immediate response to the situations or the problems which occur at any particular time. One of the general managers remarked that his time allocation to each department could be changing all the time. His priority depended on the situation and the performance of each department. The greater amount of time would be allocated to the area or the department which needed most attention at the given period. Similarly, another general manager commented that, naturally, his focus would always be on his specialisation but his time allocations to particular functions had to reflect the areas which needed more care or immediate attention at a particular time. However, this does not mean that the general managers were not proactive. All of them are and have to be proactive. But, the proactive activities of hotel general managers are often difficult to perceive because such managers also engage in many reactive functions. Managers could always think and plan all the time. No matter what they are doing, ideas always come up to their minds. Some managers may have a special talent that they could think very well and very fast. This talent could enable them to be very good at immediate planning or short-term plans, whereas other managers have to keep themselves in the office in order to concentrate on the work when they are thinking or planning a project.

Finally, one would wish to know why these general managers adopt this pace and workload. One major reason is the intrinsically open-ended nature of the job. All the

general managers in the study showed a lot of enthusiasm for their jobs and explained that they loved the job and it was a part of their lives. All agreed with the comment of one that “You have to love and live with it. Otherwise, you have to leave it!”. In addition, the general manager is responsible for the success of his organisation. Unlike other occupations, there are really no tangible signs where a hotel general manager can stop or finish his work. The lawyer can win or lose a case and finish the case, but the hotel general manager must always keep on doing his work. Also, he could never be sure when he has succeeded, nor when his whole organisation may come down around him because of miscalculations and wrong decisions.

6.4 Conclusion

From the discussion in this chapter, the major findings of the structured observation can be summarised as follows.

- **Monitor and disseminator.** The results from the observation find that all the hotel general managers in the sample allocated most of their working time to the monitor role. The disseminator was the second most important role for six general managers. However, there were two general managers in the observation whose second most important role was as figurehead.
- **Negotiator.** All of the general managers in the observation perceived the negotiator role as the least important (ranks 9 and 10). Nonetheless, the results from the general managers’ actual time allocation to this role ranged from ranks 5-

10. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that the negotiator role is insignificant for hotel general managers. The variation in the general managers' time allocation to this role also reflects distinct differences between the Thai and non-Thai general managers. All the non-Thai general managers' time allocation to this particular role was on the same rank, which was 10th, whereas the Thai general managers' ranged from 5th to 8th.

- **Figurehead.** From the results of the general managers' estimated rank of importance for the figurehead role, little importance was given to this work role. However, the results of the general managers' perceived and actual time allocations to the figurehead role indicated its significance. This role obtained quite a high proportion of all the general managers' time allocations. This finding reflects the fact that the importance given to a work role does not necessarily correspond with the time allocation to that particular work role.
- **Entrepreneur.** Besides the leader role, the entrepreneur role was given a strong emphasis by the managers. Three of the general managers in the observation perceived this role as the most important. One general manager perceived it as the second important role. In contrast to their perceptions, however, the actual time allocated to this particular role was considered low. In addition, there was one general manager in the observation, General Manager 7, who did not perform this specific role at all during the observed time period. This finding is very important

because it contradicts Mintzberg's theory that all the ten managerial roles were an integrated whole.

- **The most important role perceived by the general managers.** The leader role was perceived as the most important managerial role by half of the sample in the observation. Three general managers placed their importance on the entrepreneur role, and only one general manager perceived the resource allocator as the most important role.
- **Perception and reality.** Whether or not the general managers' perceived time allocations coexist with reality is an interesting issue. If time management determines one's effectiveness, it would follow that knowing their actual time usage would allow general managers to plan and allocate their time more effectively. Overall, the results show that most general managers' perceptions of their time allocations to some particular work roles correlate with what they actually did. This confirms that the more effective they are, the more accurate are their own perceptions of time allocations to the specific roles. This is because the mean difference scores of the perceived and actual time allocations of each hotel manager is considered low. Also, there are a couple of matched scores for perceived and actual time allocated to some certain roles. Therefore, what the general managers perceived of their work roles should coincide with what they actually did. However, this point cannot be solidly confirmed by the mean difference score of the perceived and actual time allocations of the General

Manager 8 which was the highest score (4). Also, there were no matched roles between perceived and actual roles. Therefore, although, according to the evidence, this conclusion is not one hundred per cent proven, in general, it can be said that there is a correlation between the general managers' perceptions and reality.

- **Fragmented and interrupted activities.** The results from the observation confirm much of the major previous research findings (Stewart 1967; Mintzberg 1973; Ley 1978) that general managers' work activities are fragmented. During each working day, there are a great variety of activities involved in the general managers' work.
- **Tour.** The activity which reflects a significant difference in the hotel general managers' time allocations between Thai and non-Thai general managers in the structured observation is "tour". Regardless of the electricity crisis in property 7, the time allocation to this activity for the Thai general managers is considerably lower than for non-Thai general managers.
- **Leadership style.** The finding of the observation suggests that an autocratic leadership style was less attractive to all the general managers in the sample. The leadership style employed by the general managers in this study was a combination of participative and achievement-oriented styles.

- **Patterns of contacts.** The finding of the patterns of contacts in this study contradicts many other major previous studies such as Burns (1954), Stewart (1967), Nailon (1967) and Ley (1978). These previous studies found that the managers spent more time with their colleagues and external contacts than with their subordinates. The present study finds that the most of the hotel general managers' total time contacts (62%) is devoted to their subordinates. This finding is similar to Mintzberg's (1973) study. Mintzberg found that his chief executives spent most of their total time contacts (48%) with their subordinates.
- **General Managers' time allocations to departments.** There is no distinct pattern of time allocations to major departments in the hotel among the eight general managers in the observation. The priority of the general managers' time allocations vary. From this can be concluded that all the hotel general managers in the observation found that their job demands, environments and organisations varied. However, the findings show that all the general managers' priorities of time allocations to each department are based on the situation and performance of that particular department at a given point in time.
- **Managerial style.** The hotel general managers' styles in the observation are suggested from their time allocations to work activities and work roles. The hotel general managers' in the observation could be classified as members of "the emissaries", "the writers", "the committee-men" and a combination of "the writers and the committee-men" (Stewart 1967).

- **Relationship between the importance of the managerial work roles and the time allocations to the specific work roles.** The results of the observation show that the leader role was perceived as the most important role by four general managers. However, their time allocations to this work role was considered low. The results of the observation also show that the general managers did not emphasize the figurehead role but this role obtained a quite high proportion of all the general managers' time allocation. This finding supports one of the present study's hypotheses that there is no relationship between the general managers' time allocations and the importance of the specific work roles.

Finally, the results of the structured observation analysis implicitly raise some interesting arguments which are worth further investigation. These arguments will be mentioned in the suggestions for further study in the last chapter, Chapter 7.

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Chapter 7: Conclusions and suggestions for future research

7.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter comprises an application of the present study in the Thai hotel industry context, limitations of the study, a brief restatement of the principal findings, contributions of the study and suggestions for future research. The present research employed the Mintzberg framework, which was originally used to examine the work activities of chief executive officers, to examine if Mintzberg's ten managerial work role model was applicable in the Thai hotel industry. The research also followed the path of Ley's (1978) study which investigated the Mintzberg framework in the lodging industry in the United States. In addition to the investigation of the Mintzberg framework, the present study aimed to identify the link between Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers' work roles. The intention of the study was to present a comparison between Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers in terms of their time usage and of their emphasis on the ten managerial work roles in order to find guidelines for appointing hotel general managers and designing training that responded to the real needs of the developing hospitality industry in Thailand.

As the ten managerial work roles were the core of the study, managerial perceptions of hotel general managers' work roles were included in the research in order to compare perceived time allocation to specific activities with actual time allocation to the activities as measured by the researcher in the structured observation. Both Mintzberg's (1973) and Ley's (1978) methodologies seemed to be appropriate for the

present study of operational hotel general managers. Therefore, they were adapted. Although the small sample size of the structured observation of the present study provided the researcher insights into the hotel general managers' job patterns, it is difficult to generalise the results of the findings. In order to solve the limitation of the sample size, this research employed two more methods: the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview. These two additional methods enlarged the sample size so that some generalisation of the results of the study could be considered.

7.2 Application of the present study

This present study has tested Mintzberg's ten managerial work role model with comparison of both Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers who worked in Thai luxury hotels. The results of the study showed the Mintzberg's managerial work roles were applicable in the Thai hospitality industry. The role classification used by Mintzberg could be used to circumscribe the work activities of the hotel general managers in Thailand.

Moreover, the application of the structured observation technique based on Mintzberg's framework indicated its significance in the study of a hotel general manager's time usage and job patterns. The results of the study showed that the structured observation method was more appropriate for the study of hotel general managers' time usage and work activities than the questionnaire method. Structured observation enabled the researcher to ask in-depth questions and to have time to

observe and make detailed and comprehensive recordings. A systematic standard could be used for recording a large number of activities. In some cases when the results of the time allocations from the questionnaire contradicted the results of the time allocations from the structured observation, the results of the structured observation could be considered more reliable. This was because the results of the questionnaire were based on the general managers' perception whereas the results of the structured observation were based on the general managers' actual performances. Structured observation not only provided insights into the subject of the study, but also increased the awareness and knowledge about self and interpersonal behaviour of the hotel general managers.

Finally, the results of the present study showed its value in its direct application to the particular hotel general managers participating in the structured observation and their organisations as well as to the Thai hospitality industry. The hotel general managers themselves could apply the results of the study to enhance their time usage and their effectiveness in management. The organisations could use the results of the study as information for selecting appropriate hotel general managers to suit the needs of their organisations and for designing training courses for young potential general managers. The Thai hospitality industry could utilise the finding of the present research for its management development.

7.3 Hypothesis testing

Although the remainder of this chapter details the key functions of the study, this section consider the results of the work in terms of the formal hypotheses proposed in Chapter 1.

Hypothesis 1: All the general managers in the study judge their managerial effectiveness in terms of their personal constructs, specifically, education, personal attitude, management style and career path.

From the interview results, all of the fifteen hotel general managers in the interview agreed that their education, career path, basic personality and family background were very important to their present career and their effectiveness. The general managers in the sample of the present research judged their effectiveness by profitability, realising objectives, achieving results and satisfaction of clients, owners and staff. The general managers in the interview also added that all these factors, education, career path, basic personality and family background, were integrated or had to go together.

As discussed in the analysis of the interview results, eleven out of the total of fifteen general managers mentioned that education was the important key influence on their managerial development. This finding supported much of the previous research conducted on successful executives in the hospitality industry. Swanljung (1981), for example, placed a great significance on education in his study of fourteen hotel executives in major North American and international hotel chains. Likewise,

Arnaldo's (1981) and Kim's (1994) studies showed that the average hotel general manager had received a college education. Supporting the results of the present study and of the previous research, the results from the questionnaire of the present study illustrated that thirty-three general managers or 66% of the total sample had hotel school qualifications and twenty seven general managers or 54% were university graduates (see Table 5.3 and Figure 5.1). This confirms that the majority of the hotel general managers placed importance on their education, especially higher education. Moreover, the general managers who had vision related hotel school education also studied business administration and/or marketing and sales.

In addition to education, eight of the fifteen general managers in the interview mentioned basic personality as very important key influence on their managerial development. The basic personality was used in the present study to describe a combination of honesty, hard work, getting on well with people and an outgoing personality. Furthermore, the hotel general managers considered their career path as a key to their effectiveness. All of the fifteen general managers in the interview agreed that they learned to be effective from their previous supervisors and from the front line of working experience up to a department head. Moreover, the general managers in the interview agreed that their family background played an important role in their career success.

Finally, the majority of the general managers considered that their management style, leadership, contributed to their effectiveness. In order to be effective, they employed

different styles of leadership. The styles of leadership varied according to their audiences and their situations. It is also worth noting that the majority of the hotel general managers preferred the democratic and consultative styles of leadership.

Hypothesis 2: The non-Thai general managers consider that cultural orientation contributes to their effectiveness, whereas the Thai general managers consider that overseas education and experience contribute to their effectiveness.

From the questionnaire results, the non-Thai hotel general managers considered that cultural orientation was essential to oversee success in the hospitality industry. They suggested that cultural orientation and training be provided by the head office or the company before hotel general managers were posted to their assigned countries. All of the ten non-Thai general managers in the interview agreed that cultural orientation and training contributed to their effectiveness. In addition, they mentioned that cultural knowledge gave them a deep understanding of the country they were working in and of the people they were working with. It helped them to communicate well with their local staff, and they got better results from their staff accordingly.

In contrast, the Thai general managers did not consider overseas education and overseas work experience contributed to the effectiveness in managing their properties. All of the five Thai general managers in the interview said that overseas education and work experience was not necessary. Three out of the five Thai general managers in the interview did not have overseas education. In addition, the results

from the questionnaire showed that ten out of the sixteen Thai general managers or 62.5% had their education in Thailand and six general managers or 37.5% had overseas education. All of the Thai general managers agreed that they learned to be effective from their past working experience with international hotel chains in Thailand and from the “good examples” of their previous bosses and supervisors. However, they commented that having an overseas education or work experience might broaden their viewpoints and could be an advantage, but this advantage was not a key factor in their effectiveness.

Hypothesis 3: There is no positive correlation between the amount of time allocated to a specific work role and the significance of that role.

As discussed in Chapter 5, the general managers considered that there was a relationship between their time allocations to, and the importance of specific work roles. The results from the questionnaire showed that the most important rank, which was the role of leader, gained the highest amount of time spent. The second important role, which was the role of entrepreneur, was the second time-consuming. In addition, the role of spokesman, which was considered the least important role, consumed the least time. These results agreed with Arnaldo’s (1981) study and Kim’s (1994) study. Arnaldo summarised his findings on managerial roles as follows (1981:55):

The role of leader clearly absorbed more time than any other interpersonal role, and was also thought to be most important. ...while the role of spokesman consumed less time and was considered correspondingly less important.

Nonetheless, the results from the observation of the present study were different from the results of the questionnaire. The general managers in the observation mentioned that there was no relationship between their time allocations and the importance of the specific work roles. One of the general managers in the observation commented that he chose the leader role as the most important role but he spent more time on the monitor role. He liked to spend time with his staff and listened to their ideas.

The results from the observation indicated that all the general managers in the observation considered the leader role as the most important role but they spent most of their time on the monitor and disseminator roles (see Tables 5.15 and 6.2). Other evidence from the results of the observation concerned the role of the figurehead. The general managers' rank of importance for the figurehead role was considered low, but this particular work role obtained quite a high proportion of all the general managers' time allocations. More evidence could be seen from the roles of the negotiator and the entrepreneur. The results of the study found that the hotel general managers actual time allocation to the negotiator role was high whereas the general managers' perception of its importance was low. Similarly, hotel general managers' actual time allocation to the entrepreneur role was low while their perception of its importance was high. Therefore, this hypothesis could be confirmed that there was no relationship between the general managers' time allocations and the importance of the managerial roles.

As can be seen, studying time allocation by self-assessment from studying those by observation gives different results. In addition, results from the questionnaire analysis are in contrast with results from observational analysis. The results from the questionnaires show that there are significant correlations between the amount of time allocated to a specific role and the significance of that role (see Chapter 5). However, as discussed above, the results from the observation confirm that there is no positive correlation between the amount of time allocated and significance of any particular role. In this case, the test of this hypothesis was based on the results from observational analysis. This is because the results from the questionnaires are the general managers' self-assessment while results from the observation are actual timings of their activities. This evidence could confirm that the results from observational analysis are more reliable. It also shows that using mixed methods would be an advantage when one wishes to explore managers' time usage. Mixed methods could allow researchers to obtain a wider range of data and gain wider research perspectives.

7.4 Limitations of the present study

The major limitations of the present study can be summarised as follows.

- **Limitation of data collection.** Written questionnaires were mailed from the U.K. to ninety-eight general managers of luxury hotels in Thailand in November 1994. In January 1995, when the researcher went to conduct the field work part

of the research in Thailand, fourteen questionnaire responses were returned. A reminder letter and a new set of questionnaires were sent to hotel general managers who had not returned the questionnaires. Ten more questionnaire responses were returned after this reminder. In February, another reminder letter and questionnaires were sent to the remaining general managers. While in Thailand, the researcher also telephoned the hotel general managers to request co-operation for completing the questionnaires. Personal visits to the hotels were made, if possible, to get the questionnaire responses. After all efforts had been made, fifty usable responses on a self administered survey were obtained by May 1995. This was a limitation because it was time-consuming and very difficult to obtain completed questionnaires. Fifty responses would not have been obtained if there had been no telephone and personal visit follow up.

- **The general managers' high turnover during the field work period.** During the field work period, from January to May, there was a transition of the hotel general managers' employment contracts in Thailand. Some general managers did not renew the contracts and moved to a new company or a new country. As a result of the seasonal high turnover of hotel general managers, it was difficult to find general managers to complete the questionnaires. The general managers who were first contacted left the questionnaires to their business successors. However, many new general managers refused to answer the questionnaires.

- **Lack of understanding in the importance of research study in Thailand.**
Due to the different educational system, most Thai people are not familiar with the structured observation method. The Thai people, in particular, do not like being observed. They feel as if somebody is finding fault with them. Therefore, it was difficult to gain co-operation from Thai general managers to participate in the structured observation. However, this observation stage was also turned down by many non-Thai general managers. Therefore, the sample size of the structured observation had to be reduced from the original intention of ten general managers to eight general managers. The comparatively small sample size of the structured observation made it difficult to establish a representative sample. The researcher tried to solve this limitation by employing the questionnaire and semi-structured interview methods to enlarge the sample size.

In addition, there was a lack of co-operation from both private and government sector Thai hotel organisations in providing information of Thai hotel industry. One common response to enquiries by the researcher was “the information concerning your request has never been collected or no research in this field has been conducted.” This reflects the fact that people in the industry have not paid attention to the importance of conducting research to develop the fast growing hospitality industry in Thailand. Had there been more research in this field, this present study would have been assisted and supported by the existence of valid secondary sources of information.

- **Communication and distance.** This study was conducted in two different countries. The theoretical part was conducted in the U.K., and the field work was conducted in Thailand. There were several problems of communication in obtaining data from Thailand via letters and mail. For example, information packages were delayed or, sometimes, lost. The best means of accessing data was requesting it in person while the researcher was conducting the field work in Thailand. Importantly, this research was impossible to conduct in one country because there was insufficient literature, books and resources either from the university libraries or from the public libraries in Thailand.
- **Time constraints.** A major limitation of the study was the time constraints on respondents. All the hotel general managers who participated in the semi-structured interview and the structured observation were very busy, and it was very difficult to schedule them. The scheduled meetings were changed several times, due to these busy schedules and time conflicts.

In addition, the field work was very time-consuming, and it was very difficult to keep the field work schedule as planned. Moreover, the period of time for the field work was limited to six months. As a result, the period of time spent with each hotel general manager in the structured observation was reduced from the original intention of seven days to five consecutive observed working days.

- **Lack of co-operation from the major hotel chains in Thailand.** The variables in the study would have been more easily controlled if the subjects in the structured observation worked in the same location and type of hotel, managed similar properties belonging to the same organisation and supervised comparable employees. As the observation part of the present research was conducted on a voluntary self-selecting basis, the sample of the structured observation was varied in terms of organisation, type of hotel, size of hotel, ownership, location and clientele.
- **Limitations of the structured observation method.** Telephone calls presented one of the problems in data collection in the structured observation. The observer could not hear the other party to the conversation. In addition, the telephone call was widely used as an efficient means of communication for business transactions, due to the heavy traffic congestion problem in Bangkok. The researcher solved this problem by asking the general managers to summarise the information that was needed. Moreover, the researcher was sometimes excluded from meetings, as a result of the company's need for confidentiality or because meetings dealt with sensitive personnel issues. Nevertheless, the structured observation method had far more advantages and was more appropriate for this present study than other methods, as discussed extensively in Chapters 3 and 6. As no method is perfect, some kinds of data have to be traded off in return for more powerful data on managerial activities and work roles.

7.5 Synopsis of the research findings

From the analysis, the major findings of the present study can be grouped into four areas. They are:

- 7.5.1 managerial work roles and time allocations;
- 7.5.2 managerial styles;
- 7.5.3 cultural impact;
- 7.5.4 hotel general managers' qualifications;
- 7.5.5 criteria for selecting hotel general managers; and
- 7.5.6 trend for potential hotel general managers.

7.5.1 Managerial work roles and time allocations

The present study found that some work roles were more prominent than others in hotel general managers' time allocations and work activities. The principal work roles were the leader role, the figurehead role, the monitor role, the disseminator role, the entrepreneur role and the negotiator role. The other roles were not discussed extensively in the study because they were less distinctively significant than the roles mentioned above. The major findings concerning managerial work roles and time allocations can be summarised as follows.

- **Leader.** The study found that hotel general managers placed the great emphasis on the leader role for both estimated (a measurement by general managers' self evaluation of their time allocations and importance) and perceived (a measurement by an analysis of 56 activity items in the Management Activity Questionnaire) rank of importance. However, the time allocated to this role was less than for the monitor, disseminator and figurehead roles.
- **Monitor and disseminator.** The study found that the most time-consuming role was the monitor role followed by the disseminator role. This reflects the fact that hotel general managers spent most of their time on monitoring and delegating. They were acting as the "nerve centre" of their organisations. Their time allocations to these two roles also indicated the emphasis of hotel general managers on the flow of information and communication.
- **Figurehead.** The study found that hotel general managers gave a low estimation of importance to the figurehead role. However, this particular work role absorbed a high proportion of the hotel general managers' total time allocation. This could signify that the figurehead role permeated all of the activities in which the managers were involved.
- **Negotiator.** Again, the study found that the hotel general managers perceived the negotiator role as relatively unimportant, but the results from the managers'

actual time allocations to this particular role signified that its importance was greater than the managers' perception of its significance.

- **Entrepreneur.** The study found that hotel general managers ranked the entrepreneur role as the second most important. However, their actual time allocations to this work role were very low. More importantly, there were times when this particular role was not performed during the observation period.
- **Managerial roles as an integrated whole.** The research found that the results from interviews contrasted with the results of the structured observation. The results from the interview agreed with Mintzberg's theory that the ten managerial roles were related and had to be an "integrated whole" (Mintzberg 1973: 58). In practice, the results from the structured observation indicated that there could be times when hotel general managers did not perform all the ten managerial roles as an "integrated whole".
- **Relationship between the importance of the managerial work roles and the time allocations to the specific work roles.** The study found that there was no relationship between the importance of the managerial work roles and the time allocation to that specific work role as indicated in the test of hypothesis number three.

- **Perception and reality.** The study found that there might be evidence which indicated a perceivable degree of correlation between hotel general managers' perception of their time allocations to the specific work roles, and what they actually did.
- **Fragmented and interrupted activities.** The study found that the hotel general managers' work activities were fragmented and that there was a great variety of activity involved in the hotel general managers' working days.
- **Time allocations to work activities.** The observation research found that the hotel general managers devoted most of their working time to administrative tasks. Desk work and scheduled meetings were the most time-consuming activities. The study also found that there was no distinct similarity in the hotel general managers' patterns of time allocation to contact with each department. The time spent on each department varied, and depended on the immediate needs and performance of particular departments. However, the results from the questionnaire indicated that the hotel general managers spent most of their time on Marketing and Sales, followed by Food & Beverage and Room Division departments.
- **Comparison of time allocations between Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers.** There were differences in the time allocations of Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers in some work activities and work roles. The work

activity of “tour” and the negotiator role were examples of these differences which might result from the different working attitudes between Thai and non-Thai hotel general managers or from the different cultural influences.

- **Patterns of time contacts.** The results of the patterns of time contacts in the present study were different from those of the major previous studies such as Burns (1954), Stewart (1967), Nailon (1968) and Ley (1978). The present study found that hotel general managers spent more time with subordinates than with other contacts (i.e. colleagues, independent) whereas the other major studies found to the contrary. However, the results of the patterns of contacts of this study were similar to Mintzberg’s (1973) patterns of contacts.

7.5.2 Managerial styles

The major findings concerning managerial style in the present study can be summarised as follows.

- **Managerial styles.** The hotel general managers’ styles in the structured observation were placed into four categories which were the “writers”, the “emissaries”, the “committee-men” and a combination of the “writers” and the “committee-men”. The styles were determined from key managerial work roles. The key roles for the “writers” style were the monitor and the disseminator. The key roles for the “emissaries” style were the monitor and the figurehead. The

key roles for the “committee-men” were the monitor and leader roles. Finally, the key roles for a combination of the “writers” style and the “committee-men” style were the monitor, the disseminator and the figurehead.

- **Leadership style.** The results of the present study found that the hotel general managers in the study employed more than one leadership style. The autocratic leadership style was less preferable. The hotel general managers were in favour of a combination of democratic and consultative leadership styles. This was because most of the hotel general managers focused on the empowerment and the participation of their staff.

7.5.3 Cultural Impact

The results of the present research concerning cultural impact can be summed up as follows.

- **Cultural sensitivity.** The results of the present study found that hotel general managers placed importance on cultural sensitivity because the hospitality industry was people-oriented and involving people of different cultures. Therefore, communication skills with regard to cultural sensitivity were viewed as important.

- **Understanding the host culture.** The results of the present study found that the working time period of the non-Thai hotel general managers was a variable which could determine the level of cultural understanding and knowledge. The non-Thai hotel general managers agreed that the more time they spent on working in Thailand, the more understanding they gained of the people and the country.
- **Cultural training for overseas employees and non-Thai hotel general managers.** There was a need for cross-cultural training for both overseas employees and non-Thai hotel general managers before they started their work in Thailand. However, the results of the present study found that there was a lack of training in this area either from the international or from the national hotel company.

7.5.4 Hotel General Managers' Qualifications

The major findings with regard to hotel general managers' qualifications can be summarised as follows.

- **Education.** The results of the present study found that most hotel general managers in the study obtained hotel school qualifications, either certificates or both certificates and university degrees.

- **Key influences on management work pattern.** The hotel general managers identified their keys influences on management work pattern as education, career path, basic personality and family background. Among these key influences the hotel general managers considered education as the most important key influence on their management work pattern.
- **Career path.** The results of the present research found that the hotel general managers in the study came from three departments which were Room Division, Food & Beverage and Marketing and Sales.
- **Training for hotel general managers.** There was a need for training of hotel general managers. However, the results of the present study found that there was a lack of training at this level. As mentioned in the study, the hotel general managers' work activities involved two key roles which were the monitor and the disseminator; therefore, the training for hotel general managers should perhaps include information system management, delegation, skills and knowledge of marketing and sales on a global level.

7.5.5 Criteria for selecting hotel general managers

The hotel general managers in the study indicated that the criteria for selecting hotel general managers varied from company to company. However, they suggested some common criteria which were diplomacy, flexibility and people skills.

7.5.6 Trend for potential hotel general managers

The results of the present research found that there was a trend for potential hotel general managers to be people who had a strong background and solid experience in Food & Beverage and Front Office. In addition, skills in marketing and sales had to be included, due to the present situation of great competition in the hotel industry in Thailand.

7.6 Contribution of the Study

As mentioned at the beginning of the thesis, this study aims to make a contribution to three groups as follows.

7.6.1 Hotel industry

As the hotel industry is based on constant service demands throughout twenty-four hours of the day, the ability to use time efficiently and understand the allocation of time to specific work activities and work roles is essential. The results of the present research benefits directly this crucial aspect of the hospitality industry. Particularly, all hotel general managers who participated in the structured observation would be able to understand better their use of time and their preference for specific work activity and work roles in order to improve their managerial effectiveness in a hotel general

manager position. According to the present research findings, the monitor role is the most time-consuming work role followed by the disseminator role for both Thai and non-Thai general managers. The results of the study also show that the time allocation to work activities and work roles implicitly signifies the general managers' preferences and styles. Hotel owners and decision-makers could use the results of the present study as criteria for selection of their hotel general managers, putting the right person to the right job, as well as for the assessment of the performance of their hotel general managers. In addition, corporate management could use the findings of the research to design training for more effective (existing) management at the operational level as well as for future hotel general managers.

Moreover, it is worth noting that the hotel general managers in the study mentioned that there was a need of training for the general managers themselves. From the research findings, there is very little training for the general manager level in Thailand. The reason for the lack of training at this level is not explained. It could be that there are no qualified trainers. Voicing the need of the hotel general managers, training at the general manager level should be implemented by the corporate or head-office to increase the hotel general managers' awareness and knowledge as well as to enhance their performance.

Furthermore, all the non-Thai hotel general managers in the study placed strong emphasis on cross-cultural knowledge and training. They all recommend that cultural

training be provided for hotel general managers before they are assigned to their host countries.

7.6.2 Hotel School institutions

As presented in the analysis of results, there are some Thai universities offering hotel management courses at the bachelor degree level. These universities aim to provide graduates to work at the operational level from middle to top management. The hotel school institutions could benefit from the present research by utilising its findings to plan their courses and curricula in order to respond to the need for increased professionalism in personnel in the Thai hospitality industry. According to the results of the study, the hotel general managers stated that their managerial effectiveness derived from their past experience and from on-the-job training with their previous bosses or supervisors. Thus, the Thai hotel school institutions should be aware of the importance of training in their curricula.

Practical training should be strongly emphasized, as theory alone cannot help graduates to be successful in a service sector such as the hotel industry. Moreover, the general managers in the study showed their concern for a need for a university degree. They implicitly exemplified the view that a hotel general manager needs a bachelor's degree for their career. The hotel general managers in the study placed a strong emphasis on education. In addition, there is a certain value in possessing a higher degree. Swanljung indicated in his study that "an MBA would soon become a key to success

in the hospitality industry” (Swanljung 1981: 34). Therefore, the hotel school institutions in Thailand should consider this need of the hotel general managers.

7.6.3 Government

As mentioned in Chapter 1, the hospitality industry in Thailand is growing in importance in the national economy in terms of its contributions and effects. The significance of the hotel industry is signified by the tourists’ expenditure on accommodation (see Chapter 1). In order to cope with the rapid growth of the Thai hospitality industry, the government should be sensitive to the needs of human resources and their academic development. Since the results of the present research indicate the significance of education and training in the industry, the Thai government should respond to this need by funding training for teachers and lecturers to be qualified personnel, supplying teaching materials, instruments and laboratories, as well as allocating an appropriate budget for state hotel school institutions. Importantly, the government should support academic research to help develop the Thai hospitality industry.

7.7 Suggestions for future research

Any future research similar to the present study could include a number of improvements. These must incorporate:

- an objective criteria for the measurement of managerial effectiveness;
- a homogeneous sample of subjects;
- a larger sample of subjects; and
- a longer time period for structured observation.

It is recommended that general managers in the study work in the same size and type of hotel, manage comparable properties belonging to the same hotel group or chain and supervise similar subordinates. A comparatively homogeneous sample would benefit in the control of key variables which have a major influence on the work activities and the judged effectiveness of managers.

Moreover, there were some interesting issues that arose during the investigation of the present study that nevertheless, could not be explored because of the earlier mentioned constraints. The study found that the following issues might be worth further serious investigation:

- whether or not the time allocations to specific work activities and work roles reflect a manager's style;
- whether or not the time allocations to specific work activities and work roles describe a manager's job demands;
- whether or not the time allocations to specific work activities and work roles could explain a manager's managerial effectiveness;

- whether or not Mintzberg's ten managerial roles overlapped;
- whether or not a manager switched Mintzberg's work roles at a rapid pace;
- whether or not a manager's perception of Mintzberg's ten work roles and their work activities coexist with reality; and
- how far a manager could realise the perception of his/her job.

These issues would seem to be interesting for future research study conducted to develop and expand the horizon of the work activities and work roles of management.

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Appendix A

Surveyed hotel directory

Mr. Robert U. Jaermann
General Manager
Amari Airport Hotel
333 Chert Wudthakas Road
Bangkok 10210, Thailand
Tel. 556 10 21-1
Fax (662) 566 19 41

Mr. Marc H. Dumer
General Manager
Amari Boulevard Hotel
2 Sukhumvit Road Soi 5
Bangkok 10110, Thailand
Tel. 255 29 03, 255 29 40
Fax. (662) 255 57 07

Mr. Peter Caprez
General Manager
Amari Water Gate
847 Pratunam
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 65390000-21
Fax. (662)653 9044-6

Mr. Charlie Sithichai
General Manager
Bel-Aire Princess
16 Soi 5, Sukhumvit Road
Bangkok 10110
Tel. (02) 253 4300
Fax. (662)255 8850

Mr. Gerd Steeb
General Manager
Central Plaza Hotel
1695 Phaholyothin Road
Bangkhen Bangkok 10900, Thailand
Tel. 541 12 34
Fax. (662) 541 10 87

Mr. Pierre A. Bonard
General Manager
Grand Hyatt Erawan Bangkok Hotel
494 Rajdamri Road
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel.254 12 34

Mr. Gregory J. Meadows
General Manager
Delta Grand Pacific Bangkok
259 Sukhumvit Road
Bangkok10110, Thailand
Tel. 255 24 40
Fax. (662) 255 24 41

Mr. Daniel McCafferty
General Manager
Dusit Thani Hotel
222-229/1-2 Rachadapisek Road
Bangkok 10500, Thailand
Tel. 236 04 50-9
Fax. (662) 236 64 00

Mr. Christian Eyer
General Manager
Evergreen Laural
88 North Sathorn Road
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 266 7223, 266 7266
Fax.(662)266 7222

Khun Aurana Singhaplin
General Manager
The Four Wings
40 Soi 26, Sukhumvit Road
Bangkok 10110
Tel. (02) 641 150, 247 6333
Fax.(662)641 1551

Mr. Sophon Vongchatchanon
General Manager
Grand China Princess
215 Yaowaraj Road
Sumpuntawong District
Bangkok 10100
Tel. (02) 224 9977
Fax.(662)224 7999

Mr. Christian Wüelfing
General Manager
The Mansion Kempinski Bangkok
75/23 Sukhumvit Soi 11
Bangkok 10110, Thailand
Tel. 255 72 00

Mr. Michael P. Bamberg
General Manager
Hilton International Bangkok Hotel
2 Wireless Road
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel. 253 01 23
Fax. (662) 253 65 09

Mr. Mahmood Masood
General Manager
Holiday Inn Crowne Plaza
91 Silom Road
Bangkok 10500, Thailand
Tel. 238 43 00
Fax. (662) 238 52 89

Mr. Prakij Chinamourphong
General Manager
Imperial Hotel
6-10 Wireless Road Ploenchit
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel. 254 01 11, 254 00 23-100
Fax. (662) 253 03 190, 254 20 77

General Manager
Imperial Queen's Park Hotel
199 Sukhumvit Soi 22
Bangkok 10110, Thailand
Tel. 261 90 00
Fax. (662) 261 95 30

Mr. David Wiig
General Manager
Landmark Hotel and Plaza
138 Sukhumvit Road
Bangkok 10110, Thailand
Tel. 254 04 04, 254 04 24
Fax. (662) 253 42 59, 254 04 39

Mr. Patrick Basset
General Manager
Novotel Bangkok Hotel
Siam Square soi 6
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel. 255 68 88
Fax. (662) 236 19 37-9

Mr. Axel Goerlach
General Manager
Marriott Royal Garden Riverside
257/1-3 Charoen Nakhorn
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 476 0022
Fax.(662)476 1120, 460 1805

Mr. Deacha Tangsin
General Manager
Menam Hotel
2074 New Road , Yanawa
Bangkok 10120, Thailand
Tel. 289 03 52, 289 11 48-9
Fax. (662) 291 10 48, 291 42 27

Mr. Jacques Ligne
General Manager
Le Meridien President Hotel
135/26 Gaysorn Road
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel. 253 04 44, 253 65 50
Fax. (662) 253 75 65

Mr. Aswin Intkakul
Managing Director
Louise Tavern
79 Soi 64, Wiphawadi Rangsit Road
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 2532655, 255 7200
Fax. (622)253 2329-13

Mr. Lewis B. Bloom
General Manager
Montien Hotel
54 Surawongse Road
Bangkok 10500, Thailand
Tel. 233 70 60
Fax. (662) 236 52 19, 237 72 33

Mr. William D. Black
General Manager
The Regent of Bangkok Hotel
155 Rajadamri Road
Bangkok 10330
Tel. 251 61 27
Fax.(662) 253 91 95, 254 73 59

Mr. Michael Thomas
Resident Manager
Novotel Lotus
1 Soi Daeng Udom
Sukhumvit 33 Road
Bangkok 10110
Thailand

Mr. Kurt Wachtveitl
General Manager
The Oriental Bangkok
48 Oriental Avenue
Bangkok 10500, Thailand
Tel. 236 04 00, 236 04 20
Fax. (662) 236 19 37-9

Mr. Kamthorn Chaturachinda
General Manager
Rama Gardens Hotel
9/9 Vibhavadi Rangsit Road
Bangkhen Bangkok 10210, Thailand
Tel. 561 00 22
Fax. (662) 561 10 25

Mr. Heinrick Stocker
General Manager
Rambrandt
19 Soi 18, Sukhumvit Road
Bangkok 10110
Tel. (02) 261 7100
Fax.(662) 261 7014

Managing Director
Ramada Renaissance Hotel Bangkok
3999 Rama III Road
Bangklo Bangkok 10120, Thailand
Tel. 292 31 64
Fax. (662) 292 31 64

Mr. Arthur J. Nigro
General Manager
Siam City Hotel
477 Si Ayuthaya Road
Bangkok 10400, Thailand
Tel. 247 01 20, 247 01 30
Fax. (662) 247 01 78

Mr. Manoon Intrayota
Vice President Operation
Royal City
Boromratchonni Road
(Pinkla-Nakhonchaisi Road)
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 435 8888
Fax.(662)434 3636

Mr. Eric Hallin
General Manager
Royal Parkview Hotel
19/9 Sukhumvit Soi 20
Bangkok 10110
Thailand

Mr. Willy Optekamp
General Manager
The Royal Orchid Sheraton Hotel
2 Captain Bush Lane Siphya Road
Bangrak Bangkok 10500, Thailand
Tel. 234 55 99, 237 00 22
Fax. (662) 236 83 20, 254 73 59

Mr. Vorapong Vanakorn
General Manager
Royal Princess Hotel
269 Larn Luang Road
Pomprab Bangkok 10100, Thailand
Tel. 281 30 88
Fax. (662) 280 1314

Mr. Brian Harris
General Manager
Shangri-La Hotel
89 Soi Wat Suan Plu New Road
Bangrak Bangkok 10500
Tel. 236 77 77
Fax. (662) 236 85 79

Mr. Surawongse Bunnag
General Manager
Tawana Ramada Hotel
80 Surawongse Road
Bangkok10500, Thailand
Tel. 236 03 61
Fax. (662) 236 37 38

Mr. Eduardo Fahrenkrug
General Manager
Siam Inter-Continental Hotel
967 Rama I Road
Bangkok 10400, Thailand
Tel. 253 03 55-57
Fax. (662) 254 85 34

General Manager
Sol Twin Towers
88 Soi Rong Muang
New Rama VI Road
Bangkok
Tel. (02) 216 9555-634
Fax.(662)216 9544

Mr. Rodney Darwin
General Manager
The Sukhothai Hotel
13/3 South Sathorn Road
Tungmahamek Yanawa
Bangkok 10210, Thailand
Tel. 287 02 22
Fax. (662) 287 49 80

Mr. Martin Reed
Managing Director
Swissôtel Bangkok, The Arnoma
99 Rajadamri Road
Bangkok 10330, Thailand
Tel. 255 34 11-9
Fax. (662) 259 28 96-97

Ms. Nitaya Jutamart
General Manager
Tara Hotel
18/Sukhumvit Soi 26
Prakanong Bangkok 10110, Thailand
Tel. 259 2900
Fax. (662) 259 2896-7

Khun Amorn Techaruvichit
General Manager
Asia Pattaya Hotel
Pattaya Beach Resort
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 428 602-6
Fax. (038) 423 496

Mr. Vichai Chienchitlert
General Manager
River Kwai Village Hotel
72 Moo 4 Tha Sai Yok
Kanchanaburi 73110, Thailand
Tel. (034) 591 055
Fax. (034) 591 054

Managing Director
Hotel Sofitel River Kwai
9/1 Moo 3 Thamakham
Kanchanaburi 71000, Thailand
Tel. (034) 515 061
Fax. (034) 515 095

Mr. Robert Yhien Pe
Managing Director
Golden Valley Resort
188 Moo 5, Moosee
Ampur Pakchong
Nakorn Ratchasima 30000, Thailand
Tel. (01)335 0880-3
Fax. (01) 213 4330

Khun Suppawan Ratanaopath
General Manager
A-One The Royal Cruise Hotel
499 North Pattaya Beach Road
Pattaya City Chonburi 20260,
Thailand
Tel.(038) 424 242

Mr. Thomas Tapken
General Manager
Amari Orchid Resort Pattaya
Beach Resort
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. 9038) 428 161, 428 323
Fax. (662) 428 164

Khun Issara Vasavarnond
General Manager
Royal Jomtien Resort
408 Moo 12 Jomtien Beach Road
Pattaya 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 231 350-68
Fax. (038) 231 369

Mr. Chatchawal Supachayanont
General Manager
Dusit Resort
240/2 Pattaya Beach Road
Pattaya City 20150, Thailand
Tel. (038) 425 611-7
Fax. (662) 428 239

Mr. Andrew Low
General Manager
Montien Hotel Pattaya
Pattaya Beach Resort
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 428 155-6
Fax. (038) 423 155

Managing Director
Pattaya Park Beach Resort
345 Jomtien Beach Road
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 423 000-6
Fax. (0380) 423 009

General Manager
Royal Cliff Beach Hotel
353 Moo 12 Pattaya Beach
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 250 421, 250 440
Fax. (662) 540 511, 540 513

Mr. Philippe Guenat
General Manager
Royal Garden Resort Pattaya
218 Beach Resort
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 428 126-7
Fax. (0380) 429 926

Mr. Somrit Kongphrom
General Manager
Cha-Am Methavalai Hotel
220 Ruamchitr Road Cha-Am
Petchaburi 76120, Thailand
Tel. (032) 471 028-9
Fax. (032) 471 590

Mr. Hans Spoerri
General Manager
Siam Bayshore Resort Hotel
599 Moo 10 Pattaya Beach
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 428 678-81
Fax. (662) 428 730

Mr. Robin Lee
General Manager
Siam Bayview Hotel
310/2 Moo 10 Pattaya Beach
Pattaya City 20260, Thailand
Tel. (038) 423 871-8
Fax. (662) 428 730

Mr. Charlerm Siboonruang
General Manager
Hinsuay-Namsai Resort Hotel
250 Moo2 Tombol Sakpong
Amphur Klaeng Rayong 21190, Thailand
Tel. (038) 638 035, 638 360
Fax. (038) 638 034

Mr. Michel Molliet
General Manager
Novotel Rim Pae Rayong Hotel
4/5 Moo 3 Pae Klaeng Kram Road
Rayong 21110, Thailand
Tel. (038) 648 088, 648 360-72
Fax. (038) 648 002

Mr. Philippe Delaloye
General Manager
Rayong Resort
Lam-Tarn Barn Phe
Rayong 21000, Thailand
Tel. (038) 651 000
Fax. (038) 651 007

Mr. Richard Kaldor
General Manager
Sofitel Central Hotel
Pracubkhirikhan 77110, Thailand
Tel. (032) 520 250-6
Fax. (032) 511 014

Mr. Mathias Hansen
General Manager
Club Aldiana Siam
9 Moo 3, Tambol Paknamparn
Ampur Pranburi
Prachuabkhirikhan 77220, Thailand
Tel. (032) 631 235
Fax. (032) 631 236

Mr. Victor Sukserree
General Manager
Dusit Resort and Polo Club
1349 Petchkasem Road Cha-Am
Phetchburi 76120, Thailand
Tel. (032) 471 350-1
Fax. (032) 471 291

Ms. Pat Poompuang
General Manager
Golden Sands Hotel
853/1 Petchkasem Road Cha-Am
Phetchburi 20260, Thailand
Tel. (032) 471 972, 427 061 9
Fax. (038) 471 984

Mr. Timothy H. Cooke
General Manager
The Regent Cha-Am Beach Hotel
849/21 Regent Cha-Am Beach
Phetchburi 76180, Thailand
Tel. (032) 471 480-90
Fax. (032) 471 492

Mr. Oliver Kraft
General Manager
Royal Garden Resort Hua-Hin
107/1 Phetkasem Beach Road
Prachubkhirikhan 77110, Thailand
Tel.(032) 511 184, 511 565
Fax. (662) 512 422

Mr. Shin Koga
General Manager
Royal Princess Chiangmai Hotel
112 Changklan Road
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 281 033-43
Fax. (053) 281 044

Mr.Robert W. De Graaff
General Manager
Amari Rincome Hotel
310 Huay Kaew Road
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 221 044
Fax. (053) 221 915

Mr. Somsak Sa Ra-Puech
General Manager
Chiang Mai Orchid Hotel
100-102 Huay Kaew Road
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 222 099, 222 091-3
Fax. (053) 221 625

Managing Director
Holiday Inn Green Hills Chiangmai
24 Superhighway-Lampany
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel.(053) 220 100-9

Mr. Gaston Frechet
General Manager
Novotel Suriwongse Hotel
110 Changklan Road
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel. (053)270 051-7
Fax. (053) 270 063

Managing Director
Pang Suan Kaew
99/4 Moo 2 Huay Kaew Road
Tambon Suthep Amphur Muang
Chiangmai 50000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 210 330-8
Fax. (053) 210 339

Mr. Marc Hamel
General Manager
Dusit Laguna Resort
390 Srisoonthorn Road
Cherngtalay District Amphur Muang
Phuket 83110, Thailand
Tel.(076) 340 106-4

General Manager
Dusit Island Resort
1129 Kraisorasit Road
Amphur Muan
Chiangrai 57000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 715 777
Fax. (053) 715 801

Mr. Beuno Huber
General Manager
Le Meridien Baan Boran
The Golden Triangle
Chiangsaen Chiangrai 57000, Thailand
Tel. (053) 716 678, 716 690
Fax. (662) 716 702

Mr. Banlang Botcharoen
General Manager
Club Andaman Beach Resort
77/1 Taveewong Road Patong Road
Phuket 83150, Thailand
Tel. (076) 428 015
Fax. (662) 270 16 19

Mr. Siles Marc
General Manager
Club Mediterrane
Kata Beach, P.O. BOX 145
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 330 130-4, 330 455-9
Fax. (662) 330 527, 330 462

Mr. Virat Atthabhirak
General Manager
Dimond Cliff Resort
61/9 Kalim Beach
Kathu district
Phuket 83150, Thailand
Tel. (076) 340 501-6
Fax. (076) 340 507

Mr. Raouf Finan
General Manager
Pansea Phuket Bay
118 Moo3, Tambo Choengtalay
Talang, Phuket 83110, Thailand
Tel. (076) 324 017-20
Fax. (076) 324 252

Mr. Wolfgang Meusburger
General Manager
Holiday Inn Phuket
86/11 Taveewong road
Patong Beach
Phuket 83150, Thailand
Tel (076) 340 608-9
Fax. (076) 340 435

Managing Director
Karon Villa Phuket Hotel
36/4 Karon Beach
Phuket 83100, Thailand
Tel. (076) 381 139-48
Fax. (076) 381 122

Mr. Thomas Reiter
General Manager
Kata Thani Amari Resort & Beach Resort
Kata Noi Beach
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 250 800-3
Fax. (662) 330 426

Mr. Andreas Mattmuller
General Manager
Le Meridien Phuket Hotel
P.O. BOX 277 Amphur Muang
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 226 501-6
Fax. (662) 330 426

Khun Punprayoon Isarasakdi na Ayuthya
General Manager
The Metropole Phuket
1 soi Surin Montree Road
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 214 020-9, 215 050
Fax. (076) 215 990

Mr. Cary Gray
General Manager
Sheraton Grande Laguna Beach Resort
10 Moo 4 Srisoonthorn Road
Cherngtalay Thalang Phuket 83110, Thailand
Tel. (076) 324 101-7
Fax. (076) 324 108

Mr. Chan Wongsatayanont
General Manager
Patong Merlin Hotel
99/2 Moo 4, Patong Beach
Kathu District
Phuket 83150, Thailand
Tel. (076) 340 037-41
Fax. (076) 340 394

Mr. Wichit na Ranong
Managing Director
Pearl Village Hotel
Nai Yang Beach & National Park
P.O. Box 93,
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 327 006
Fax. (076) 327 338-9

Mr. Maitree Narukatpichai
General Manager
Phuket Arcadia Hotel
Karon Beach
Phuket 83100, Thailand
Tel.(076) 381 038-44
Fax. (076) 381 136

Mr. Shatree Thananuwat
General Manager
Phuket Island Resort
100 Vised Road, Moo 2
Rawai Muang
Phuket 83130, Thailand
Tel. (076) 381 010-7
Fax. (076) 381 018

Mr.Ingo Peters
General Manager
The Phuket Yacht Club
Naiharn Beach
Phuket 83130, Thailand
Tel. (076) 381 156-63
Fax.(076) 381 164

Mr. P. Prompravat
General Manager
Dusit J B Hotel
99 Jootee-Anusorn Road
Hat Yai 90110, Thailand
Tel. (074) 234 300-15
Fax. (074) 234 328

Mr. Chaweng Potitayorn
General Manager
Thavorn Bay Resort
6/2 Moo 6, Nakalay
Patong Beach
Phuket 83130, Thailand
Tel. (076) 340 486
Fax. (076) 340 384

Mr. Surachai Plaumchit
General Manager
Thavorn Grand Plaza Hotel
40/5 Channa-Charoen Road
Phuket 83000, Thailand
Tel. (076) 222 240-71
Fax. (076) 222 284

Mr. Rutger E.L. Verschuren
General Manager
Thavorn Plam Beach Hotel
128/10 Moo 3, Karon Beach
Phuket 83100, Thailand
Tel. (076) 381 034-7, 381 553
Fax. (076) 381 555

Mr. Tawan Visitpanitchakam
General Manager
Vises Patong Hotel
Sai Namyen Road
Patong Beach
Phuket 83150, Thailand
Tel. (076) 341 013-7

Mr. Christopher Ryan
General Manager
Beachcomber Hotel
3/5 Moo2, Chaweng Beach
Koh Samui
Surat Thani 84320, Thailand
Tel. (077) 422 041-3
Fax. (077) 422 038

Khun Jin Sukumarabandhu
General Manager
Chaweng Regent Hotel
155/4 Chaweng Beach
Koh Samui
Surat Thani 84140, Thailand
Tel. (077) 422 389-90, 422 008-10
Fax. (077) 422 222

Khun Santana Sukabutr
General Manager
Imperial Samui Hotel
Ban Chaweng, Bophut
Koh Samui
Surat Thani 84140, Thailand
Tel. (077) 422 020-35
Fax. (077) 422 396-7

Khun Contar Sopapan
General Manager
The Imperial Tongsai Bay Hotel
Ban Plailaem, Bophut
Koh Samui
Surat Thani 84140, Thailand
Tel. (077) 425 015
Fax.(077) 425 462

Appendix B Managerial work activities questionnaire

Managerial Work Activities Questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of a research study which is designed to investigate general managers' personal and educational backgrounds, personal attitudes and time allocation for work activities with the emphasis placed upon the activities and general hotel information.

In general, questions can be completed by circling the most relevant answer. Some questions require short written answers.

The data that you are providing is very critical for this research. The researcher assures that all individual responses and all personal details will be treated in the strictest confidence. The hotel's name will not be mentioned in the thesis. The data collected is for use only in the research project. Please answer as accurately as possible. After the data analysis process, the findings will be sent to you for your information. Please return the completed questionnaire to me in the enclosed self-addressed envelope by

In advance, I would like to thank you for your kind participation and contribution to this study.

Suchada Chareanpunsirikul
Doctoral Candidate
The Scottish Hotel School
University of Strathclyde

Property _____

Title of your present position _____

1. How old are you ?
1 25-34 2 35-44 3 45-54 4 55-64 5 over 65

2. Are you :
1 Male 2 Female

3. What is your marital status ?
1 Single 2 Married 3 Divorced 4 Widowed

4. What is your nationality ? _____

5. What is your spouse's nationality ? _____

6. How long have you worked in Thailand ?
1 Under one year 2 One to five years 3 Six to ten years
4 Eleven to fifteen years 5 Over sixteen years

7. Total time with this company :
1 Under one year 2 One to five years 3 Six to ten years
4 Eleven to fifteen years 5 Over sixteen years

8. How long have you been a general manager ?
1 Under one year 2 One to five years 3 Six to ten years
4 Eleven to fifteen years 5 Over sixteen years

9. Total time as a general manager of this property :
1 Under one year 2 One to five years 3 Six to ten years
4 Eleven to fifteen years 5 Over sixteen years

10. What type of hotel do you manage ?
1 City Hotel 2 Resort Hotel 3 Other

11. How would you categorise your hotel company ?
1 Asian chain 2 Western chain 3 National franchise
4 International franchise 5 Independent 6 Other

12. How many rooms does the hotel operate ?
1 30-50 2 51-100 3 101-250
4 251-400 5 Over 400

13. Please give total number of employees in the hotel : full time _____ / part time _____

14. Please indicate the nationalities of the employees as percentage.
Thai _____ %
Asian _____ %
European _____ %
American _____ %
Other _____ %
Total 100 %

15. Please identify the nationalities of the guests who stay in the hotel in average percentages.

Thai	_____	%
Asian	_____	%
European	_____	%
North American	_____	%
Pacific Rim	_____	%
Other	_____	%
Total	100	%

16. Please give the number of foreigners employed as department heads or key employees (i.e. executive chef, sous chef, account, front of house, back of house, etc.) _____ person(s)

17. Please tick the benefits you receive from your company and rank them in order of their importance.

(1 = most important 10 = less important)

Benefits	(√)	Rank
Car		
Accommodation		
Health Insurance		
Life Insurance		
Child Benefit (e.g. education)		
Profit Sharing		
Share option		
Bonus		
Annual Home Leave		
Other		

18. Please indicate your ability in the following languages :

Please tick (√)

What is your mother tongue ? _____

Languages	Fluent	Basic	None
Thai			
Japanese			
Mandarin			
English			
French			
Italian			
German			
Spanish			
Other			

19. Please give details of your formal education :

Degree	(√)	Country	Subject/ Major
Apprenticeship			
Hotel School			
College			
University			
Postgraduate work			

25. Do you think that cultural orientation is useful in hospitality management ?

- 1 Unimportant 2 Less important 3 Fairly important
4 Very important 5 Essential

26. Do you think that it is an advantage to have or receive cultural orientation before starting your career in Thailand ?

- 1 Unimportant 2 Less important 3 Fairly important
4 Very important 5 Essential

How important do you feel the following factors are to the successful execution of your job as a General Manager ? (1 = Unimportant 5 = Essential)

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27. A thorough understanding of Thai culture | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. A thorough understanding Thai people | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. A thorough understanding of Asian culture | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. A thorough understanding of Western culture | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Western hotel management training | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Asian hotel management training | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Fluency in the Thai language | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

34. Please identify department in which you have worked and give the period of time you spent in each department. Also, please indicate the percentage of time you spend on each area at your present job .

Departments	(√)	Period of time	% of time at present
Human Resources			
Room Division			
Food & Beverage			
Accounting & Finance			
Marketing/ Sales			
Engineering			
Administrative			
Other			
Non-Hotel Management			

What is the particular area of your specialisation ? _____

35. Hours worked: number hours/day _____
number days/week _____

Please read the following description carefully and consider these ten managerial roles to answer the following question:

Interpersonal roles	
a. Figurehead	Symbolic head; oblige to perform a number of routine duties of legal or social nature (i.e. member of hotel association)
b. Leader	Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training
c. Liaison	Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favors and information (i.e. airlines/travel agent representative, convention bureaux)
Informal roles	
d. Monitor	Seek and receive wide variety of special information(much of it current) to develop through understanding of organization and environment; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information of organization
e. Disseminator	Transmits information received from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organization, sometimes involving interpretation and integration of diverse value position of organizational influencers
f. Spokesman	Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions results, etc.; serves as expert on organization's industry
Decisional roles	
g. Entrepreneur	Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change; supervises design of certain projects
h. Disturbance handler	Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important unexpected disturbances
i. Resource allocator	Responsible for all kinds-in effect the or the allocation of organizational resources of making or approval of all significant organizational decisions
j. Negotiator	Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations

36. Please rank the ten roles in order of their importance (1 = most important 10 = least important) to the successful execution of your job and give the approximate percentage of time you spend performing that role.

Roles	Rank	% of time
A. Figurehead		
B. Leader		
C. Liaison		
D. Monitor		
E. Disseminator		
F. Spokesman		
G. Entrepreneur		
H. Disturbance handler		
I. Resource allocator		
J. Negotiator		
		100%

37. Please rank the ten roles in order of their importance (1 = most important 10 = least important) that would be your ideal to the successful execution of your job and give the approximate percentage of time you should spend performing that role.

Roles	Rank	% of time
A. Figurehead		
B. Leader		
C. Liaison		
D. Monitor		
E. Disseminator		
F. Spokesman		
G. Entrepreneur		
H. Disturbance handler		
I. Resource allocator		
J. Negotiator		
		100%

Please indicate how often you have experienced the following states with regard to your present work in an average month:

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
38. Crises, emergencies	1	2	3	4	5
39. Fragmentation/ frequent chance of activity	1	2	3	4	5
40. Frequent interruptions	1	2	3	4	5
41. Maintaining your personal network of contacts through the telephone	1	2	3	4	5
42. Business travelling	1	2	3	4	5
43. Socializing (e.g. guests, local community)	1	2	3	4	5
44. Public/ client queries/ complaints	1	2	3	4	5
45. Staff queries/ complaints	1	2	3	4	5
46. Too many reports (to read/ write)	1	2	3	4	5
47. Information unavailable/ delayed/ insufficient	1	2	3	4	5
48. Correspondence delays	1	2	3	4	5
49. Waiting for decisions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Responsibility without authority	1	2	3	4	5
51. Unplanned meetings	1	2	3	4	5
52. Staff shortage/ absence	1	2	3	4	5
53. Training new staff	1	2	3	4	5
54. Scheduling my time in advance	1	2	3	4	5
55. Making changes for the sake of finding something new and different	1	2	3	4	5

56. What does "Being effective in your job" mean? Please give at least 3 indicators of being effective as you see it.
57. How do you measure "effectiveness"?
58. What has led to this level of effectiveness?
59. Describe your management style. Has any particular event or experience in your life influenced your management style?
60. Additional comments/ suggestions. Your comments/ suggestions will be the most valuable assets for which the researcher will forever be indebted.

Thank You

Appendix C

Interview questions

- Q1 Which role do you think is the most important, and why?
- Q2 Is the chosen role related to other roles? Please give examples?
- Q3 How does the leader role influence your management style?
- Q4 Do you have to play more than one role at a time? If yes, please give examples.
- Q5 Have you ever deal with a crisis? What is it?
- Q6 Do you play the same role in normal situation and crisis?
- Q7 In crisis, which role do you play?
- Q8 What do you find to be the most difficult part of your job?
- Q9 What have you learned from in order to perform your roles effectively?
- Q10 What are key influences on your managerial development?
- Q11 Do you believe the interpersonal networks are important and contribute to your effectiveness? Why ?
- Q12 How do you create your networks?
- Q13 Does the owner take part in the management or hire a management team?
- Q12 Did the company give you a brief or introductory knowledge of Thai culture and people before you were posted in Thailand?
- Q12 Is there any relationship between Thai values, culture, national characteristics and the management style?
- Q13 How do you maintain the Thai feeling and culture at your hotel?
- Q14 Do you feel it is better to contain the international flavor?
- Q15 Do you consider overseas education and work experience contribute to your effectiveness?
- Q16 What takes up most of your working time?
- Q17 As the general manager's work is fragmented and frequently interrupted, can you scheduled your time in advance? How?
- Q18 What are the criteria for selecting general manager to be posted in this hotel?
- Q19 What do you think is the trend for potential general managers?
- Q20 How do you try to distinguish your hotel from your competitive hotels?

Appendix D

**General Managers' résumés and hotel
information**

General Manager 1

Background:

- Born in 1960 in England
- Raised in England
- Received Higher National Diploma in Hotel and Catering Administration at Westminster College, London

Family Situation: Married

- Number of children none

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- Restaurant Supervisor
Hotel A, London 1 year
- Receptionist
Hotel B, London 6 months
- Shift Leader
Hotel B, London 6 months
- Duty Manager
Hotel C, London 1 year
- Chief Steward
Hotel C, London 1 year
- Assistant Cost Controller
Hotel C, London 6 months
- Purchasing Manager
Hotel C, London 6 months
- Operations Analyst
Hotel C, London 6 months
- Restaurant Manager
Hotel D, Beijing 3 months
- Assistant Food & Beverage Director
Hotel D, Beijing 1 year 9 months
- Food & Beverage Director
Hotel E, Bangkok 2 years
- Resident Manager
Present Hotel 9 months
- General Manager
Present Hotel (current)

Property 1

Hotel Information

Hotel 1 is one of Thailand's premier luxury beach resorts, located on Cha-Am beach. The accommodation provides four different style rooms: hotel lodging, cottage, the hotel wing where there are eighty-four luxurious junior suites and deluxe rooms and Chalet (the private wooden house by the beach).

Room Information

Total Rooms	650
Single/Twin	494
Suites	156

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• 24-hour service International and Thai food	Capacity	150
• Seafood Grill Room	Capacity	100
• Original Thai and Seafood Cuisine	Capacity	600
• Live Music Lounge	Capacity	30
• Videotheque	Capacity	300

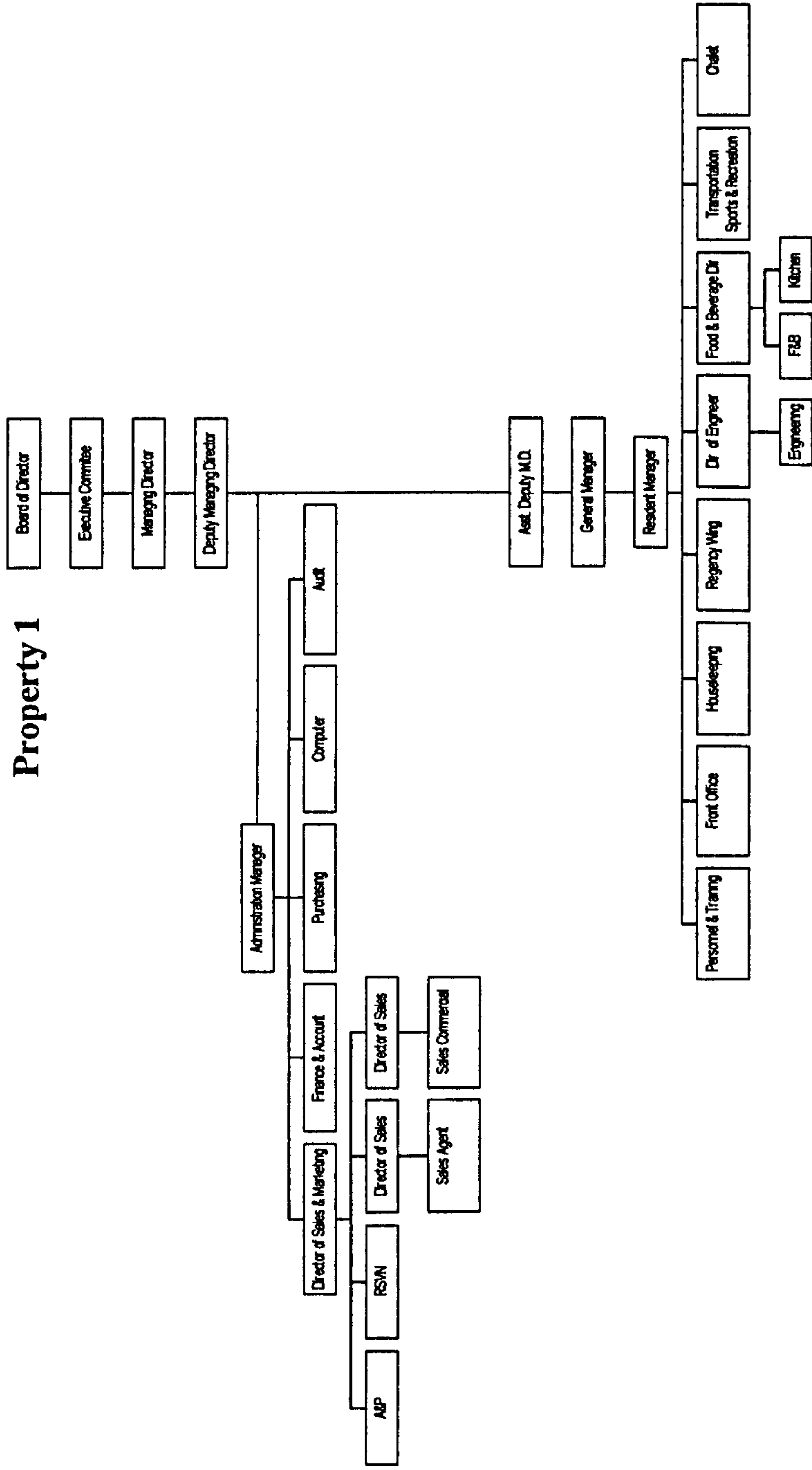
Conference Rooms 4

With complete convention facilities for 20 - 500 people

Facilities

3 magnificent pools, fitness centre with sauna, water sport equipments, 8 tennis courts, 2 squash courts, putting green, petanque, multi-rider bicycle, jogging, fishing, games room and mini golf course, seafood restaurant, Thai restaurant, snack bar, lobby bar, coffee house, videotheque and exclusive shopping arcade.

Property 1



General Manager 2

Background:

- Born in 1959 in Geneva, Switzerland
- Raised in Switzerland
- Received Diploma from Hotel School of Geneva "Vieux Bois"
Diploma from Sasin University, Bangkok

Family Situation: Single

- Number of children None

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- | | | |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| - 1975 - 1978 | Restaurant, Geneva | Commis Kitchen |
| - 1979 - 5 months | Hotel A, Geneva | Front Office |
| 1980 - 1981 | Hotel B, Geneva | Receiving Clerk/
Storekeeper/Purchasing
officer |
| - 1981 - 1982 | Hotel B, Geneva | Assistant Chief Steward |
| - 1982 - 3 months | Hotel C, Cape Town | Front Office |
| - 1983 - 1984 | Hotel D, Geneva | Night Auditor |
| - 1984 - 1986 | Hotel E, Geneva | Banquet Head Waiter |
| - 1986 - 1987 | Hotel F, Bahrain | Assistant F & B
Manager in charge of
Banquet |
| - 1987 - 1989 | Hotel F, Bahrain | F & B Manager |
| - 1989 - 1990 | Hotel G, Dubai | F & B Director |
| - September - October 1990 | Hotel F, London | Resident Manager |
| - October - December 1990 | Hotel F, London | Resident Manager
Designated |
| December 1990 - February 1991 | Hotel F, Head Office,
London & Iceland | Consultant |
| - February 1991 - present | Present Hotel | General Manager |

Property 2

Hotel Information

Hotel 2 is one of the convenient deluxe resort located on the famous Eastern shores of the Gulf of Thailand, Pattaya. Each room has its own terrace or balcony with serene garden and ocean views.

Room Information

Twin bed rooms	126
King-size bed room	168
Suites	6

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• International and Thai food	Capacity	80
• Seafood Barbecue	Capacity	150

Conference Rooms

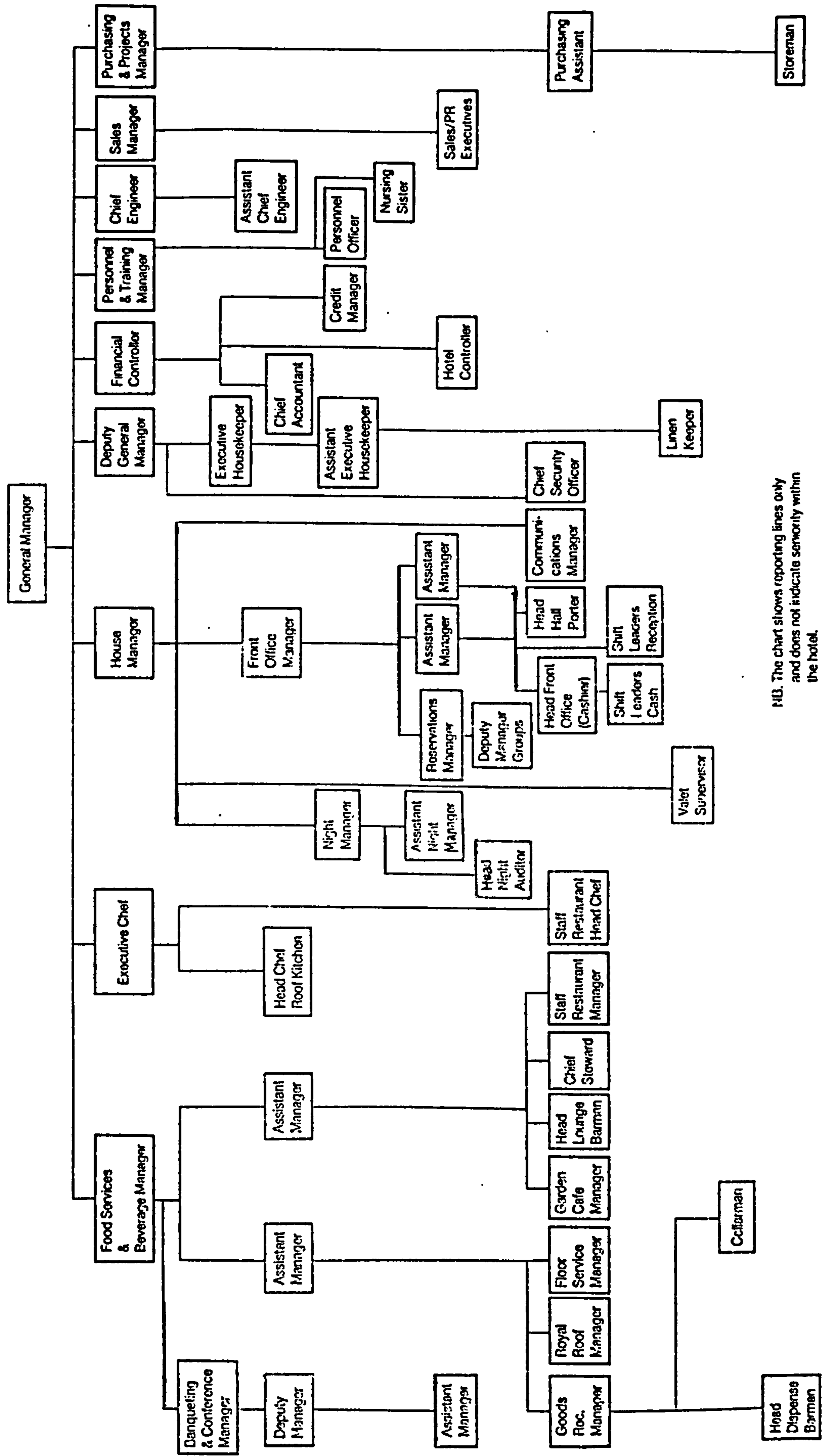
3

With complete convention facilities and accommodate up to 300 people

Facilities

Sports centre, two rooftop tennis courts, squash courts, fitness centre and 200 shops and restaurants are located in the Plaza, the Eastern boasts largest shopping and entertainment plaza connected to the hotel. Watersport, fishing and scuba diving.

Property 2



NB. The chart shows reporting lines only and does not indicate serenity within the hotel.

General Manager 3

Background:

- Born in 1959 in Sri Lanka
- Raised in Sri Lanka
- Received Hotel and Catering Administration, Sri Lanka

Family Situation: Married

- Number of children none

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- | | | |
|---|---|-------------|
| - | Food & Beverage Assistant Manager
Hotel A, Indonesia | 3 months |
| - | Food & Beverage Manager
Hotel B, Dubai | 7 years |
| - | Food & Beverage Manager
Hotel C, Hong Kong | 2 years |
| | Food & Beverage Manager
Hotel D, China | 1 1/2 years |
| - | Food & Beverage Director
Hotel D, Philippines | 2 years |
| - | Food & Beverage Director
Hotel E, Bangkok | 1 year |
| - | General Manager
Present Hotel | (current) |

Property 3

Hotel Information

Hotel 3 is one of the city hotels which strategically located in the business and entertainment centre of Bangkok. Each room is tastefully decorated in warm and inviting colours and a safety deposit box is also provided.

Room Information

Standard rooms	215
Suites	7
Duplex Apartment	2

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• Coffee Shop	Capacity	124
• Chinese Restaurant	Capacity	132
• Lobby Lounge	Capacity	60
• Pastry Shop	Capacity	12
• Pool Bar	Capacity	33

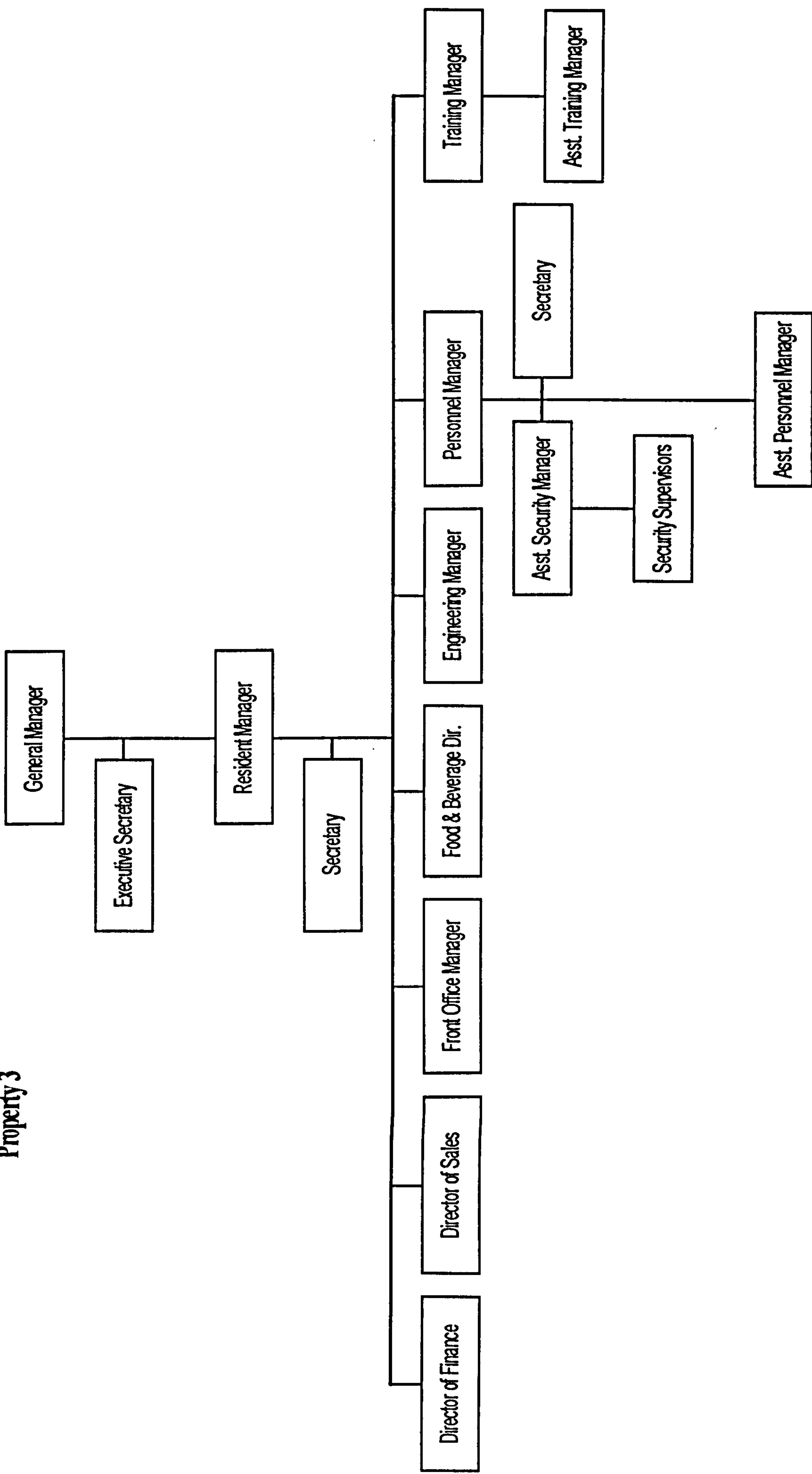
Conference Rooms 4

With complete convention facilities for 10 - 300 people.

Facilities

Swimming pool, souvenir shops, fitness centre, sauna and massage services, beauty salon, jogging track, limousine service, business centre, non-smoking floors.

Property 3



General Manager 4

Background:

- Born in 1961 in The Netherlands
- Raised in The Netherlands
- Received Hotel School and College Diplomas, The Netherlands

Family Situation: Married

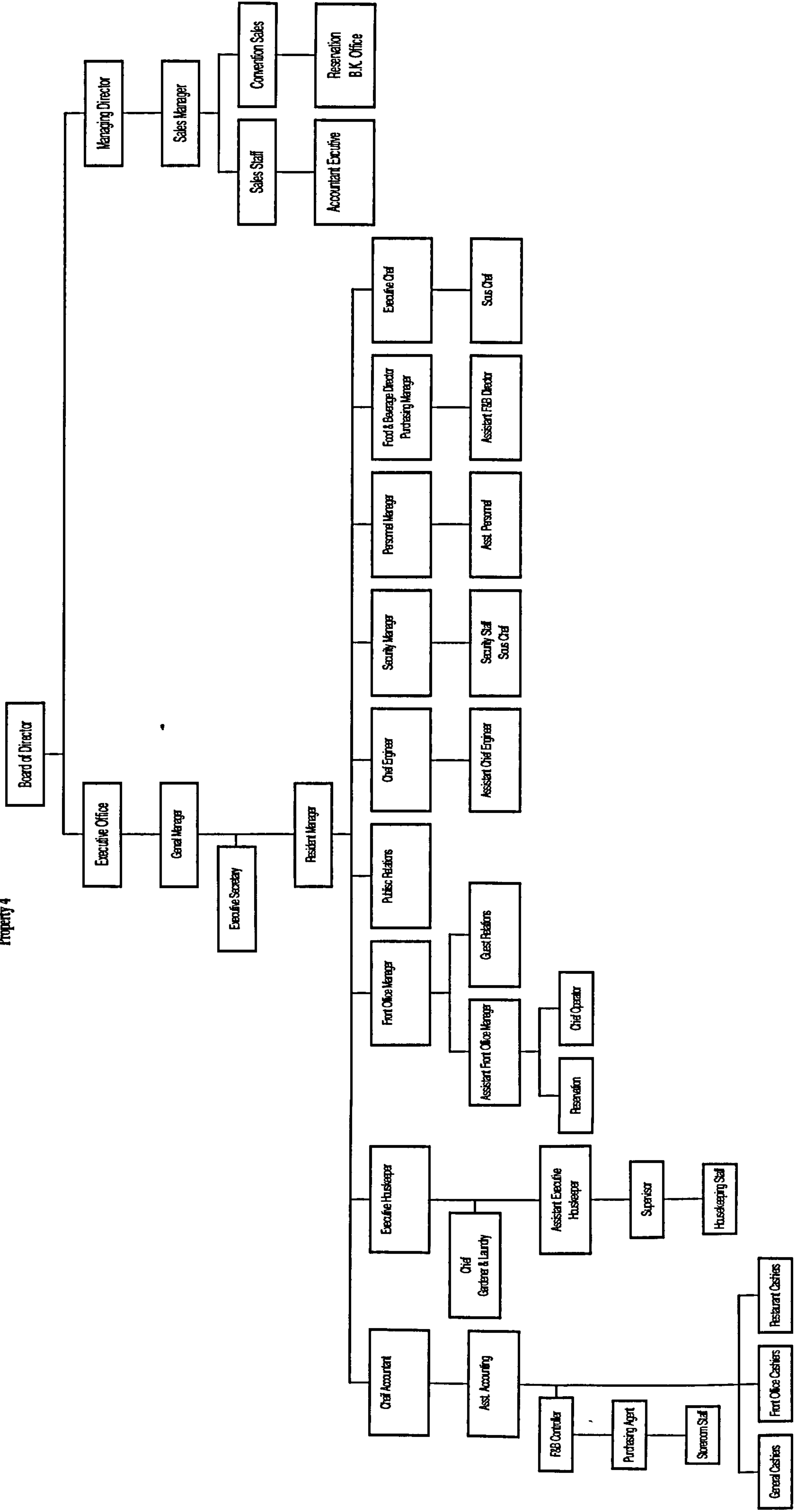
- Number of children none

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- | | | |
|---|---|-------------|
| - | Food & Beverage Assistant Manager
Hotel A, The Netherlands | 2 1/2 years |
| - | Food & Beverage Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok | 2 1/2 years |
| - | General Manager
Present Hotel | (current) |

Property 4



General Manager 5

Background:

- Born in 1942 in Bangkok
- Raised in Bangkok
- Received National Diploma of Hotel & Catering from Liverpool College, U.K.

Family Situation: Divorced

- Number of children 4

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- 1969 - 1970 Restaurant Manager
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1970 - 1971 Banquet Manager
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1971 - 1975 Catering Manager
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1975 - 1976 F&B Manager
Hotel B, Pattaya
- 1976 - 1978 Senior Assistant Manager in charge of F&B
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1978 - 1979 Room Division Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1979 - 1981 Executive Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1981 - 1984 Resident Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1984 - 1985 Resident Manager
Hotel C, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia
- 1985 - 1992 Executive Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1992 - 1993 Manager
Hotel D, Bangkok
- 1993 - 1994 Senior Vice President
Hotel E, Bangkok
- 1994 Managing Director
Hotel E, Bangkok
- 1995 - present General Manager
Present Hotel

Property 5

Hotel Information

Hotel 5 is one of luxury city hotel in Bangkok and located in one of the most prestigious areas of the capital, right in the centre of Bangkok. This hotel offers the special check-in lounge where guests have their first taste of personalised attention.

Room Information

Single/Twin	400
Suites	20

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• Thai Restaurant	Capacity	100
• Japanese Restaurant	Capacity	100
• Chinese Restaurant	Capacity	100
• European Restaurant	Capacity	80
• Coffee Shop	Capacity	150
• Garden Room	Capacity	80

Conference Rooms **10**

With fully-equipped conference facilities to accommodate 20 - 100 people.

Facilities

Swimming pool, tennis and squash courts, putting green, luxurious sauna room, fitness centre, aerobic dance room, beauty salon and souvenir shops.

MISSING

PAGE

NOT

AVAILABLE

General Manager 6

Background:

- Born in October 1954 in Krabi, the last one of 13 children
- Raised in Krabi until 13 of age, moved to Bangkok
- Received B.S. (Political Sciences) major in International Affairs 1975

Family Situation: married

- Married in 1993
- Number of children None

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- 1976 Public Relations Officer
Thai Political Party (election campaign)
- July 1976 - 1977 Guest Relation
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1977 (6 months) Operation Training
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1977 Sales Executive
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1977 - 1979 Sales Manager/Assistant Manager
Hotel A, Bangkok
- 1979 - 1981 Sales Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1981 -1983 Sales Manager/Senior Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1983 -1987 Assistant Manager
Hotel C, Samui Island, Thailand
- 1987 -1988 Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- 1988 -1989 Assistant Manager
Hotel C, Bangkok
- 1989 - present General Manager
Present Hotel

Property 6

Hotel Information

Hotel 6 is one of the comfortable and convenient city hotels established in 1988. the hotel located on one of Bangkok's business roads.

Room Information

Single/Twin rooms	192
Suites	4

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• Coffee Shop	Capacity	120
• Italian Restaurant	Capacity	80
• Music Lounge	Capacity	50
• Pool Bar	Capacity	50

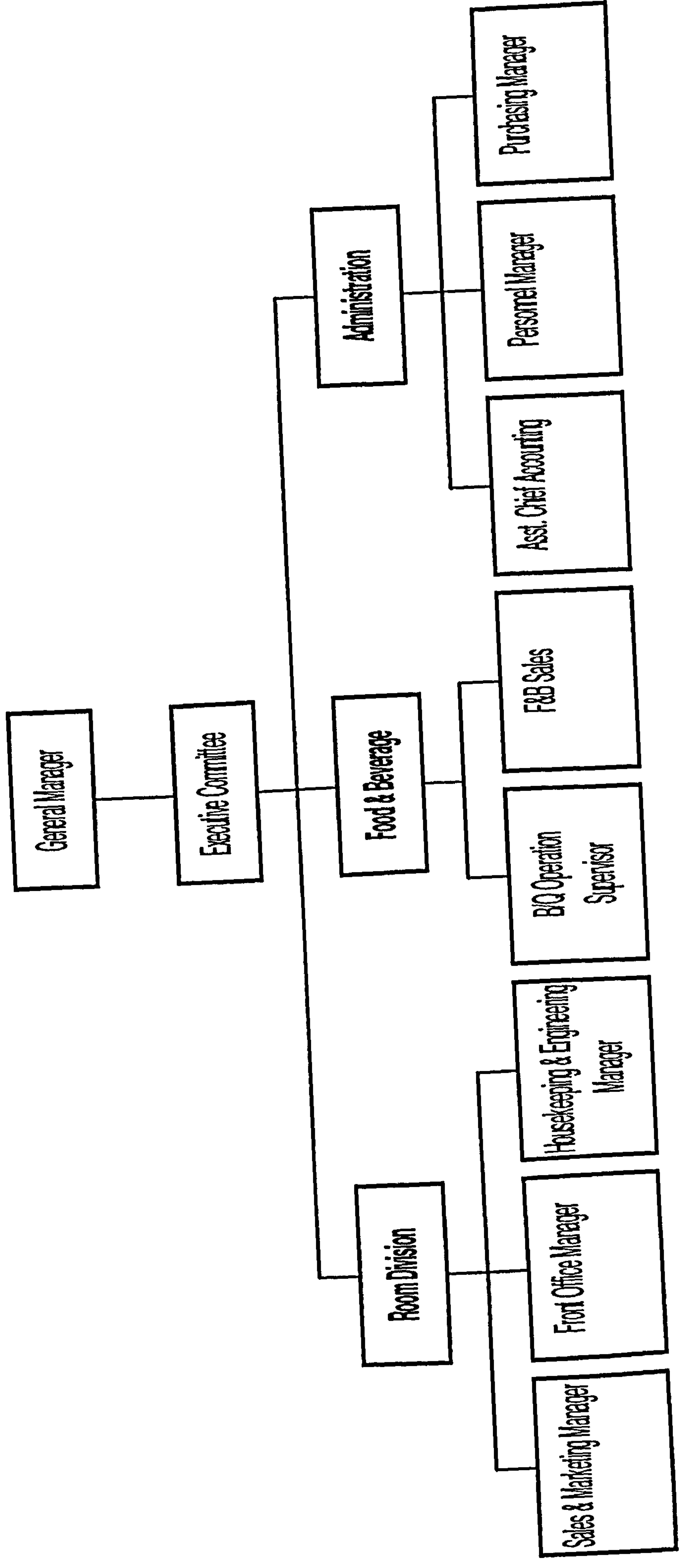
Conference Rooms **4**

With fully-equipped conference facilities for 50 - 800 people

Facilities

Swimming pool on the 8th floor terrace, health club, aerobic dance room, massage room and sauna, Tour counter, souvenir shop and limousine service.

Property 6



General Manager 7

Background:

- Born in 1945 in Bangkok
- Raised in Bangkok
- Received Diploma in Business Administration from Bangkok College, Bangkok
- Certificate in completed three years course of Business Administration from Fairleigh Dickinson University, New Jersey

Family Situation: Married

- Number of children 2

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- | | |
|------------------------------|---|
| - April - July 1967 | Training Banquet
Hotel A, Bangkok |
| - May - October 1968 | Restaurant Cashier
Hotel A, Bangkok |
| - October 1968 - May 1969 | Assistant F&B Controller
Hotel A, Bangkok |
| - September 1969 - June 1976 | Started working as Receptionist then promoted to Chief
Receptionist, President
Hotel B, Bangkok |
| - July 1976 - July 1977 | Assistant Front Office Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok |
| - May 1977 - May 1981 | Front Office Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok |
| - May 1981 - March 1985 | Senior Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok |
| - March 1985 - August 1986 | Executive Assistant Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok |
| - October 1987 - August 1992 | Resident Manager
Hotel C, Bangkok |
| - August 1992 - present | General Manager
Present Hotel |

Property 7

Hotel Information

Hotel 7 is one of the prestigious Thai-owned hotel group located right in the city centre of Bangkok. The hotel is famous for its international standard among all hotels in china town and it's upper floor command panoramic view of the city and the Chao Phaya River.

Room Information

Single/Twin	155
Suites	22

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• Tea room	Capacity	80
• Chinese Restaurant	Capacity	100
• Coffee Shop	Capacity	150
• Lobby Bar	Capacity	50
• Revolving Club Lounge	Capacity	100

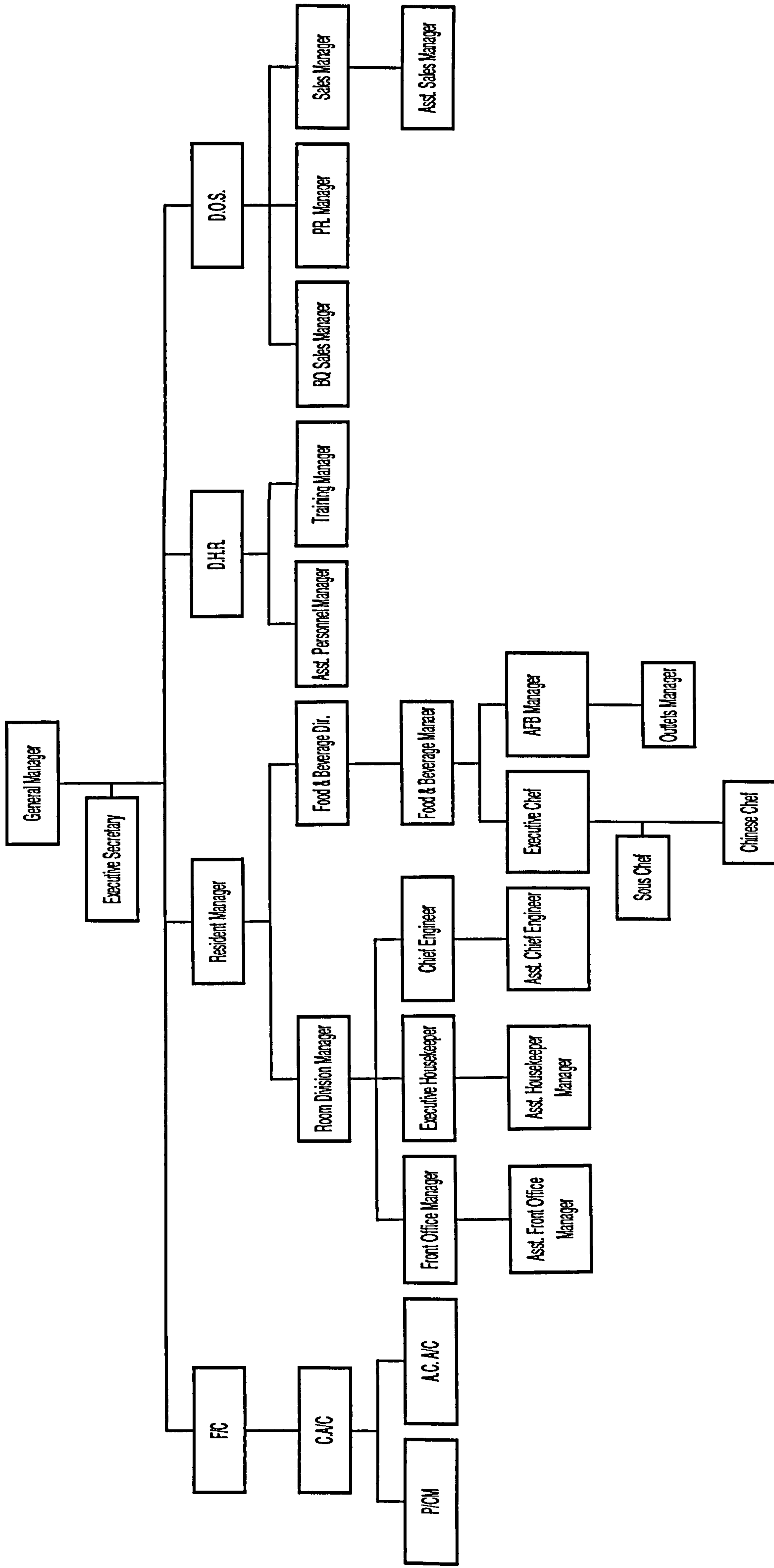
Conference Rooms **1**

With complete convention facilities and accommodate up to 300 people. Small group of seminar and catering can also be arranged.

Facilities

Fitness centre, separate Men's and Ladies' Sauna, Jacuzzi and Traditional Thai Massage, and Business Complex.

Property 7



General Manager 8

Background:

- Born in 1951 in southern region
- Raised in the southern region, moved to Bangkok
- Received MBA Diploma from Singapore Hotel College

Family Situation: married

- Number of children 2

Current Position: General Manager

Career History:

- January 1975 - August 1976 Restaurant Cashier
Hotel A, Bangkok
- August 1976 - September 1978 Restaurant Cashier Supervisor
Hotel A, Bangkok
- September 1978 - July 1980 Front Cashier Supervisor
Hotel A, Bangkok
- July 1980 - February 1982 Assistant Front Office Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- February 1982 - May 1984 Credit Manager
Hotel B, Bangkok
- May 1984 - December 1984 Credit Manager
Hotel C, Bangkok
- December 1985 - January 1987 Credit Manager/Front Office Operation
Hotel D, Bangkok
- January 1987 - October 1989 Sales Manager (European/Asian/Japanese Accounts)
Hotel D, Bangkok
- October 1989 - June 1991 Director of Sales
Hotel E, Bangkok
- July 1991 - May 1992 Director of Sales & Marketing
Hotel G, Beijing
- May 1992 - present General Manager
Present Hotel

Property 8

Hotel Information

Hotel 8 is noted for its distinction and refinement where guests can relax and enjoy its elegant rooms. Each room is fully equipped with modern amenities and designed to create an intimacy in which the guests can make themselves comfortable. The hotel located in the heart of Phuket's city.

Room Information

Single/Twin	228
Junior Suites	12
Executive Suites	6
Presidential Suites	2

Food & Entertainment Outlets

• Lobby Lounge	Capacity	50
• Poolside Bar	Capacity	80
• Cocktails Lounge	Capacity	100
• Chinese Restaurant	Capacity	100
• Coffee Shop	Capacity	150
• Karaoke	Capacity	50

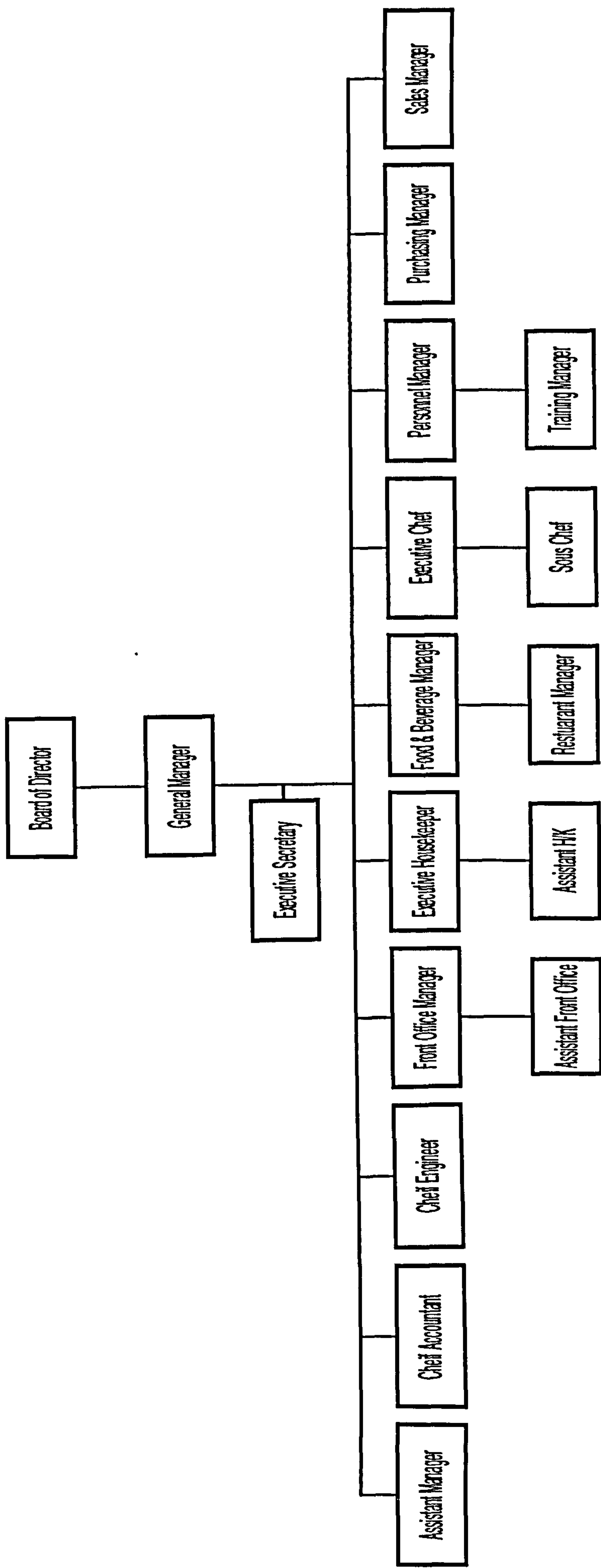
Conference Rooms 8

With complete convention facilities for 15 - 1,200 people

Facilities

Baby sitting service, Beauty Salon and Barber shop, Business Centre and Secretarial Service, Swimming Pool, Thai Traditional Massage and Shopping Arcade.

Property 8



Appendix E

Structured observation form

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL ___ DATE ___ DAY OF OBSERVATION ___ PAGE ___.

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT

Appendix F

**Structured observation analysis sheet
of General Manager 1 (Day 1)**

General Manager 1

Day 1

Time	Medium	Interact	Role(s)	Average (min)	Duration (in min)
7.30	Tour		Monitor		60
8.30	Scheduled Meeting (Morning Brief)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/ Resource	20	80
9.55	Scheduled Meeting (Dept. Meeting)	Dept. heads	Lead/Mon/Dissem/ Resource/Ent	21.25	85
11.25	Talking	F&B	Disseminator		3
11.28	Call out	Supplier	Figurehead	2	4
11.31	Desk work		Disseminator		1
11.32	Call in	Supplier	Figurehead/Nego	1.5	3
11.36	Desk work		Figurehead/Monitor	1.5	3
11.39	Talkinging	Secretary	Monitor		1
11.40	Call in	Contractor	Figurehead		2
11.42	Entertainment	Guests	Figurehead/Spoke	1.5	3
11.45	Call out	FO staff	Disseminator		2
11.48	Talkinging	F&B Staff	Disseminator		1
11.50	Talkinging	Beach staff	Disseminator		1
11.52	Call out	HK staff	Leader/Dissem	1.5	3
11.55	Talkinging	Gardener	Leader/Dissem	1.5	3
11.58	Talkinging	Kitchen staff	Disseminator		1
12.10	Entertainment	Exhibitor	Figurehead/Liaison	1	2
12.12	Entertainment	Guests	Figurehead/Spoke	0.5	1
12.14	Call out	F&B Dir.	Leader/Dissem	1	2
12.16	Call in	F&B Dir.	Disseminator		1
12.17	Talkinging	F&B manager	Disseminator		1
12.19	Desk work		Monitor		1
12.21	Call out	F&B	Disseminator		1
12.22	Talkinging	F&B	Leader/Dissem	3.5	7
12.30	Desk work		Figurehead/Res	1	2

Time	Medium	Interact	Role(s)	Average (min)	Duration (in min)
13.45	Talkinging	Sports	Lead/Dissem/Ent/ Resource Allocator	8	32
14.17	Private				1
14.20	Call in	Coke	Figurehead/Liaison	1.5	3
14.30	Entertainment	Guests	Figurehead/Spoke	2	4
14.45	Talkinging	Training Man Man	Lead/Disseminator	1.5	3
14.48	Desk work		Figurehead/Dissem	5	10
14.59	Call in	FO	Lead/Disseminator	3.5	7
15.07	Desk work		Disseminator		5
15.12	Call out	Boss	Monitor/Dissem	3	6
15.18	Desk work		Monitor/Dissem	3.5	7
15.25	Call out	Supplier	Figurehead/Liaison	2	4
15.30	Call out	AT&T	Figurehead		4
15.33	Talkinging	FO	Dissem/Resource	0.5	1
15.34	Call out	Purchasing	Lead/Disseminator	1.5	3
15.38	Call out	Job Agency	Figurehead/Monitor	5	10
15.48	Call out	Job Agency	Figurehead/Monitor	1	2
15.51	Desk work		Figurehead/Dissem	0.5	1
15.52	Talkinging	Training Man	Lead/Dissem/Res	1	3
15.55	Desk work		Figurehead/Dissem	3	6
16.01	Talkinging	Sports	Lead/Dissem/Ent/ Resource Allocator	1	4
16.05	Call in	Contractor	Figurehead/Nego	3	6
16.11	Talkinging	Sports	Disseminator		4
16.16	Meeting	Photographer/GR	Figurehead/Spoke	1.5	3
16.19	Desk work		Figurehead/Dissem/ Monitor/Resource	10.25	41
19.17	Entertainment	Tour Operator	Figurehead/Liaison/ Monitor/Spokesman	46.25	185

Appendix G

**Structured observation recorded
sheet of General Manager 1 (Day 1)**

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL 1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 1

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
1	7.30	8.30	Tour	Ensure the hotel is well operated and maintained.	Hotel	
2	8.30	9.50	Scheduled Meeting	Meet with department heads and listen to their reports. Follow up tasks and assign daily tasks.	President room	Dept. Heads
3	9.55	10.55	Scheduled Meeting	Conduct formal meeting with department heads: - to follow up work and to support department heads - to explain the memos - over time policy - to allocate budget	Meeting room	Dept. Heads, Secretary, Security Chief
4	11.25	11.35	Talking (1)	Confirm the visit with the kitchen supplier.	Office	F&B director
5	11.28	11.31	Call Out	Wait for the line. The other party is engaged.	Office	
6	11.31	11.32	Correspondence Out	Set print document (fire manual) on the computer.	Office	
7	11.32	11.35	Call Out	Make appointment to finalise the contract for the kitchen renovation.	Office	Supplier
8	11.36	11.39	Correspondence In	Read the daily mails.	Office	
9	11.39	11.40	Talking (1)	Brief about the appointment with the kitchen supplier.	Office	Secretary
10	11.40	11.42	Call In	Confirm the appointment with the kitchen supplier.	Office	Supplier
11	11.42	12.14	Tour	Ensure the hotel is well operated and maintained.	Hotel	
12	11.42	11.45	Meeting (2+)	Greet & talk with guests to socialise with the guests.	Swimming pool	2 guests
13	11.45	11.47	Call Out	Change the reservation for the guest (extended the stay) after received his request.	Splash Club	Front Office Manager

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL_1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 2

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
14	11.42	11.49	Talking (1)	Greet staff.	Splash Club	Pool staff
15	11.50	11.51	Talking (1)	Check the flood in the garden to find the cause of the flood and take an immediate action.	Pool garden	Staff
16	11.58	11.59	Talking (1)	Greet & inform about new chef who will start the job next month that the new chef has pleasant personality and wish they will work well together.	Kitchen	Chef
17	12.10	12.11	Talking (1)	Greet the exhibition organiser	Exhibition Hall	Exhibition Organiser
18	12.12	12.13	Talking (1)	Greet a guest	Lobby	Guest
19	12.14	12.16	Call Out	Inform F & B director about the appointment with the kitchen supplier and give information how to go to the supplier's office to F&B director and the meeting point.	Office	F&B Director
20	12.16	12.17	Call In	The F & B Director agreed with the meeting time with the kitchen supplier.	Office	F&B Director
21	12.17	12.18	Talking (1)	Personal meeting to warn about his meeting absence yesterday (the researcher was excluded).	Office	
22	12.19	12.20	Correspondence In	Read the daily mails.	Office	
23	12.21	12.22	Call Out	Request the menu for tonight's function .	Office	F&B Director
24	12.22	12.29	Talking (1)	Discuss about barter agreement with the bank that they requested rooms and function for the bank meeting next week and check today's booking.	Front Office	Front Office Manager
25	12.30	12.31	Correspondence Out	Sing requests for driver working hours/ Overtime forms.	Office	

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL 1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 3

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
26	12.31	13.45	Lunch		Restaurant	
27	13.45	14.14	Talking (1)	- Transportation for purchasing supplies. Discuss about the shifts to pick up food and other supplies - Discuss about driver chief/ driver's working hours. Make a decision to close one of the station. Analyse drivers' qualifications with the Recreation manager to find the qualified person for the promotion of chief driver.	Office	Recreation Manager
28	14.14	14.15	Correspondence Out	Sing working load forms and approved request forms.	Office	
29	14.17	14.18	Private			
30	14.20	14.23	Call In	Co-ordinated package tour with Coke company	Office	Coke Company Representative
31	14.30	14.34	Talking (1)	Greet in house guest	Restaurant	Guest
32	14.45	14.48	Talking (1)	The Training manager asked about the content that the GM would like to contain in the training programme for the staff.	Office	Training Manager
33	14.48	14.55	Correspondence In	Read the daily mails.	Office	
34	14.59	15.06	Tel In	The Front Office manager asked about room rate discount to be quoted in the VIP guests' account who will arrive next week.	Office	Front Office Manager
36	15.07	15.08	Correspondence Out	Write a note to RM about the environmental cards in the guests' bathrooms. Ask the RM to replace the new cards for the wet ones.	Office	

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL 1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 4.

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
36	15.10	15.12	Compiling	Sort out mails and memos	Office	
37	15.12	15.18	Call Out	Report about the new chef and new band for the pub. Ask for the kitchen details for the renovation.	Office	Boss
38	15.18	15.25	Compiling	Sort out mails.	Office	
39	15.25	15.29	Call Out	Cannot get connection	Office	
40	15.30	15.33	Tel Out	Find the area code for overseas call	Office	Operator
41	15.33	15.34	Talking (1)	Room rate quotation to assign the person in charge.	Office	Front Office Manager
42	15.35	15.38	Tel Out	Confirm the appointment to finalise the contract for kitchen renovation	Office	Purchasing Manager of the Bangkok Office
43	15.38	15.48	Call Out	Look for a new band - 3 or 4 pieces band	Office	Job Agency
44	15.48	15.50	Call Out	Look for a new band - 3 or 4 pieces band	Office	Job Agency
45	15.51	15.52	Correspondence Out	Send fax from his computer.	Office	
46	15.52	15.55	Talking (1)	Discuss on who should attend the meeting (Dept. Heads & supervisor), staff handbook and list of key employees	Office	Training Manager

STRUCTURED OBSERVATION RECORD SHEET

HOTEL 1 DATE 6/2/95 DAY OF OBSERVATION 1 PAGE 4.

NO.	ST.	FIN.	ACTIVITY	PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY AND EXPLANATION	LOCATION	INTERACT
47	15.55	15.56	Correspondence Out	Send fax from his computer.	Office	
48	16.00	16.01	Correspondence Out	Sing requests.	Office	
49	16.01	16.05	Talking	Discuss about 2 candidates for the Recreation director's assistant position and revise job description Bus maintenance	Office	Recreation Manager
50	16.05	16.11	Call In	Confirm the price of the base for the tennis courts.	Office	Contractor
51	16.11	16.15	Talking (1)	Continue the discussion with the Recreation director/	Office	Recreation Manager
52	16.16	16.17	Meeting (2+)	Meet the Japanese photographer to establish the relationship with the photographer and to promote the hotel	Lobby	Photographer, Guest Relation
53	16.19	16.21	Correspondence Out	Sing Purchasing Request forms and letters for repeating VIP guests	Office	
54	16.25	17.45	Private		Off property	
55	19.07	22.48	Entertainment	Dine with Tour Representative to maintain good relationship with the tour operator.	GM Accommodation	Tour Representative,

Appendix H

General Managers' time allocations to managerial work roles and activities

General Manager 1: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	98	114	41	84	59.33	396.33	15.95
Leader	61	13	23	29.75	47.67	174.42	7.02
Llaison	50.75	57.75	30.5	8.5	3	150.5	6.05
Monitor	169.5	227	186.33	288.92	100.17	971.92	39.1
Disseminator	107.75	59.75	32.17	87.42	103.17	390.26	15.69
Spokesman	51.75	48.75	15	0	5.5	121	4.9
Entrepreneur	26	0	10.33	4.16	14.33	54.82	2.21
Disturbance handler	0	8	22.17	16.75	11	57.92	2.33
Resource allocator	58.75	26.75	8.5	1.5	51.83	147.33	5.93
Negotiator	4.5	1	15	0	0	20.5	0.82
Total Time	628	556	384	521	396	2485	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	97	70	59	47	114	387

General Manager 1: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	DAY 1	DAY 2	DAY 3	DAY 4	DAY 5	Total	% of Total Worked Time
Call	63	44	1	19	82	209	8.4
Desk Work	76	155	25	107	104	467	18.7
Scheduled Meeting	165	10	112	67	24	378	15.2
Talking (1)	65	9	46	136	140	389	16.9
Meeting (+2)	3	-	19	-	14	36	1.4
Interview	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Entertainment	195	212	-	-	12	419	16.8
Tour	60	117	9	20	20	226	9.1
Inspection	-	-	48	18	-	66	2.6
Travel	-	-	124	163	-	287	10.5
Periodicals	-	9	-	-	-	7	0.4
Schedule	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Function	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Worked Time	627	556	384	530	396	2493	100.00

	DAY 1	DAY 2	DAY 3	DAY 4	DAY 5	Total
Private	1	19	14	-	2	36
Unaccounted Time	79	51	38	29	43	210
Number of Activities Performed	49	41	28	30	64	212

Average Length of Each Activity: 11.8

General Manager 2: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	117.75	61.8	132	87.5	53	452.05	19.5
Leader	15.67	29.2	33.6	39	14	131.47	5.7
Llaison	24.25	33.7	105	22	32	216.95	9.4
Monitor	105.83	174	199	226	76.5	781.33	33.8
Disseminator	68.67	107	86.4	105.5	68	435.57	18.8
Spokesman	11.25	15	43.3	9.5	44.7	123.75	5.3
Entrepreneur	11.25	0	8.8	9	0	29.05	1.3
Disturbance handler	5	18.1	1	0	13	37.1	1.6
Resource allocator	14.33	7.5	5.4	44	9.5	80.73	3.5
Negotiator	0	6.7	4.5	8.5	6.3	26	1.1
Total Time	374	453	619	551	317	2314	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	82	145	182	106	35	550

General Manager 2: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	29	107	120	47	7	310	13.3
Desk Work	118	26	38	157	25	364	15.6
Scheduled Meeting	50	61	167	191	145	614	26.4
Talk (1)	17	110	71	22	85	305	13.1
Meeting (+2)	68	12	-	1	-	81	3.5
Interview	-	45	-	-	-	45	1.9
Entertainment	32	3	85	-	-	120	5.2
Tour	30	40	35	93	28	226	9.7
Inspection	30	60	-	-	-	90	3.9
Travel	-	21	17	-	21	59	2.5
Periodicals	3	2	1	2	-	8	0.3
Schedule	1	5	2	3	1	12	0.5
Function	-	-	-	-	-	95	4.1
Total Worked Time	378	492	536	516	407	2329	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	1	3	2	-	8	14
Unaccounted Time	47	46	36	38	42	210
Number of Activities Performed	47	96	109	67	24	343

Average Length of Each Activity: 6.8

General Manager 3: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	40	72	143.5	19.5	49.5	324.5	16.4
Leader	33.8	65	35	26	10	169.8	8.6
Llaison	29	6.8	127.3	3	30	196.1	9.9
Monitor	169	175	179	56.5	71.5	651	32.9
Disseminator	51.5	124.2	101.5	43	24.5	344.7	17.4
Spokesman	21.7	0	18	0	0	39.7	2
Entrepreneur	0	13.5	0	0	0	13.5	0.7
Disturbance handler	0	37.5	34	2	107.5	181	9.2
Resource allocator	6	38	0	3	0	47	2.4
Negotiator	0	0	4.7	5	0	9.7	0.5
Total Time	351	532	643	158	293	1977	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	77	174	70	58	73	452

General Manager 3: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	31	47	14	14	23	129	6.5
Desk Work	24	186	88	35	55	388	19.4
Scheduled Meeting	81	24	21	23	22	171	8.6
Talk (1)	66	140	97	31	52	386	19.3
Meeting (+2)	4	-	-	42	96	142	7.1
Interview	65	-	37	15	62	179	9.0
Entertainment	1	21	125	-	-	147	7.4
Tour	96	61	34	19	26	236	11.8
Inspection	64	-	145	-	-	209	10.5
Travel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Periodicals	-	-	2	-	-	2	0.1
Schedule	1	2	3	-	1	7	0.3
Function	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Worked Time	433	481	566	179	337	1996	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	9	14	6	12	-	41
Unaccounted Time	51	43	62	66	58	280
Number of Activities Performed	51	107	41	37	49	285

Average Length of Each Activity: 7

General Manager 4: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	177	98	25	69	50	419	19.6
Leader	26.3	34	26.2	23	32.7	142.2	6.6
Llaison	70.3	43	9.5	42	30	194.8	9.1
Monitor	207.3	147	56	191	168	769.3	35.9
Disseminator	105.3	82	32	71	80	370.3	17.3
Spokesman	72.8	22	0	18.5	16	129.3	6
Entrepreneur	0	0	0	25	0	25	1.2
Disturbance handler	0	23	0	4.5	16	43.5	2
Resource allocator	0	0	0	0	7.3	7.3	0.3
Negotiator	19	20	2.3	1	0	42.3	2
Total Time	678	469	151	445	400	2143	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	129	156	44	126	122	577

General Manager 4: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	61	46	131	36	52	312	12.4
Desk Work	153	164	200	85	65	659	24.8
Scheduled Meeting	245	166	89	275	62	1193	41.0
Talk (1)	137	24	43	51	49	291	11.3
Meeting (+2)	69	2	0	0	44	76	4.3
Interview	0	0	0	0	7	7	0.3
Entertainment	0	0	0	0	12	12	0.4
Tour	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Inspection	0	75	1	0	0	78	2.9
Travel	28	0	0	40	0	68	2.5
Periodicals	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schedule	0	0	0	0	0	1	0.1
Function	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total Worked Time	694	477	464	487	291	2413	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	6	10	89	0	5	110
Unaccounted Time	65	61	48	68	65	307
Number of Activities Performed	71	69	73	37	93	323

Average Length of Each Activity: 7.5

General Manager 5: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	1	72	44	32	34.4	183.4	8.2
Leader	58.7	72.5	41	79	57.2	308.4	13.8
Llaison	0	37.5	21	2.5	25.6	86.6	3.9
Monitor	139	214	116	134.5	89	692.5	31.1
Disseminator	143.4	119	102	154	63	581.4	26.1
Spokesman	0	34	20.5	0	0	54.5	2.5
Entrepreneur	55	0	0	26	0	81	3.6
Disturbance handler	18.6	13	1.7	0	1.8	35.1	1.6
Resource allocator	36.7	18	5.3	19	0	79	3.5
Negotiator	81.6	0	20.5	0	26	128.1	5.7
Total Time	534	580	372	447	297	2230	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	25	140	80	117	24	386

General Manager 5: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	1	28	21	24	0	74	3.7
Desk Work	2	136	46	39	7	230	11.4
Scheduled Meeting	276	198	75	176	137	862	42.8
Talk (1)	8	168	93	100	44	413	20.5
Meeting (+2)	2	19	28	48	7	104	5.2
Interview	0	0	82	0	77	159	7.9
Entertainment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Tour	0	36	13	0	25	74	3.7
Inspection	0	0	4	8	0	12	0.6
Travel	40	0	0	0	30	70	3.4
Periodicals	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schedule	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Function	0	0	0	17	0	17	0.8
Total Worked Time	329	585	362	412	327	2015	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	-	7	3	7	20	37
Unaccounted Time	26	110	120	122	98	476
Number of Activities Performed	12	83	45	70	15	220

Average Length of Each Activity: 9.1

General Manager 6: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	89	36	32	108.2	27	292.2	13.2
Leader	34	72	37.4	22.2	53	218.6	9.9
Llason	0.5	3	3.5	92	4	103	4.7
Monitor	219	204	174.4	152	88	837.4	38
Disseminator	143.5	109	80.4	30.1	96	459	20.8
Spokesman	0	0	0	1	7	8	0.4
Entrepreneur	0	33	0	0	1.7	34.7	1.6
Disturbance handler	93	0	14	0	0	107	4.8
Resource allocator	87	11	0	0	14.3	112.3	5.1
Negotiator	0	9	23.3	1.5	0	33.8	1.5
Total Time	666	477	365	407	291	2206	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	107	105	102	54	108	476

General Manager 6: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	69	106	36	58	57	326	15.0
Desk Work	78	57	29	78	112	354	16.2
Scheduled Meeting	102	66	49	49	65	331	15.2
Talk (1)	51	89	11	41	40	232	10.6
Meeting (+2)	4	4	3	3	2	16	0.7
Interview	102	9	-	15	33	159	7.3
Entertainment	231	101	1	83	14	430	19.7
Tour	31	27	15	66	58	197	9.0
Inspection	24	-	7	23	20	74	3.4
Travel	-	-	-	24	-	24	1.1
Periodicals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Schedule	-	2	-	-	1	3	0.2
Function	34	-	-	-	-	34	1.6
Total Worked Time	726	461	151	440	402	2180	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	10	29	-	10	18	67
Unaccounted Time	58	41	12	102	83	296
Number of Activities Performed	92	95	23	85	84	379

Average Length of Each Activity: 5.7

General Manager 7: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	40.5	18	38.5	12.8	5.2	115	5.7
Leader	45.6	17	19.4	13.8	18.8	114.6	5.7
Llaison	0	4	12.5	8.2	2.7	27.4	1.4
Monitor	234.2	84	387.3	408.2	271.9	1385.6	69.4
Disseminator	98.7	27	63.3	46.5	40.7	276.2	13.9
Spokesman	0	0	0	11.5	0	11.5	0.6
Entrepreneur	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Disturbance handler	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Resource allocator	24	10	1	0	13.7	48.7	2.4
Negotiator	0	0	18	0	0	18	0.9
Total Time	443	160	540	501	353	1997	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	105	29	78	70	38	320

General Manager 7: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	12	11	76	36	15	150	7.7
Desk Work	188	78	262	332	196	1056	54.5
Scheduled Meeting	60	61	52	31	55	259	13.4
Talk (1)	71	10	42	40	15	178	9.2
Meeting (+2)	12	-	-	12	-	24	0.6
Interview	-	-	-	7	-	7	0.4
Entertainment	3	-	-	-	-	3	0.1
Tour	66	38	59	42	53	258	11.4
Inspection	-	-	-	23	12	35	1.8
Travel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Periodicals	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Schedule	-	-	1	-	-	1	-
Function	12	-	-	-	-	12	0.9
Total Worked Time	436	198	522	561	375	2092	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	39	-	-	-	6	45
Unaccounted Time	54	38	117	86	79	374
Number of Activities Performed	80	25	61	77	34	277

Average Length of Each Activity: 7.1

General Manager 8: Total Time Allocations to Managerial Work Roles

Roles	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total Time	% of Total Time
Figurehead	161.7	86	140	128.8	81.2	597.7	20.8
Leader	68	40	31	35.4	57.3	231.7	8.1
Llaison	117	28	61	79.3	35	320.3	11.1
Monitor	122	172	248	167	178.1	887.1	30.8
Disseminator	123	122	73	130.3	100.1	548.4	19.1
Spokesman	0	0	76	0	0	76	2.6
Entrepreneur	0	0	0	0	2.4	2.4	0.1
Disturbance handler	11	19	13	16.2	10	69.2	2.4
Resource allocator	0	20	24	21	0	65	2.3
Negotiator	1.3	0	11	62	3.9	78.2	2.7
Total Time	604	487	677	640	468	2876	100

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
No. of Roles Performed	156	143	132	165	120	716

General Manager 8: Total Time Allocations to Work Activities

Activities	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total	% of total Worked time
Call	96	136	34	85	86	437	15.3
Desk Work	49	110	162	155	166	642	22.5
Scheduled Meeting	85	72	64	75	79	375	13.2
Talk (1)	94	107	70	47	56	374	13.1
Meeting (+2)	56	25	29	15	27	152	5.3
Interview	218	-	17	-	34	269	9.4
Entertainment	-	2	217	178	4	401	14.1
Tour	-	25	65	28	23	141	4.9
Inspection	-	-	24	23	-	47	1.7
Travel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Periodicals	-	2	3	3	4	12	0.4
Schedule	1	-	-	-	-	1	0.1
Function	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Worked Time	599	479	685	609	479	2851	100.00

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Total
Private	-	9	8	6	15	38
Unaccounted Time	51	43	57	67	70	288
Number of Activitiles Performed	88	91	86	100	85	450

Average Length of Each Activity: 6.3

Appendix I

Introductory letters of the research



UNIVERSITY OF
STRATHCLYDE

US/HM

Dear

The University of Strathclyde is one of the world's leading business research institutions. Many governments send us their most promising students for postgraduate study and research.

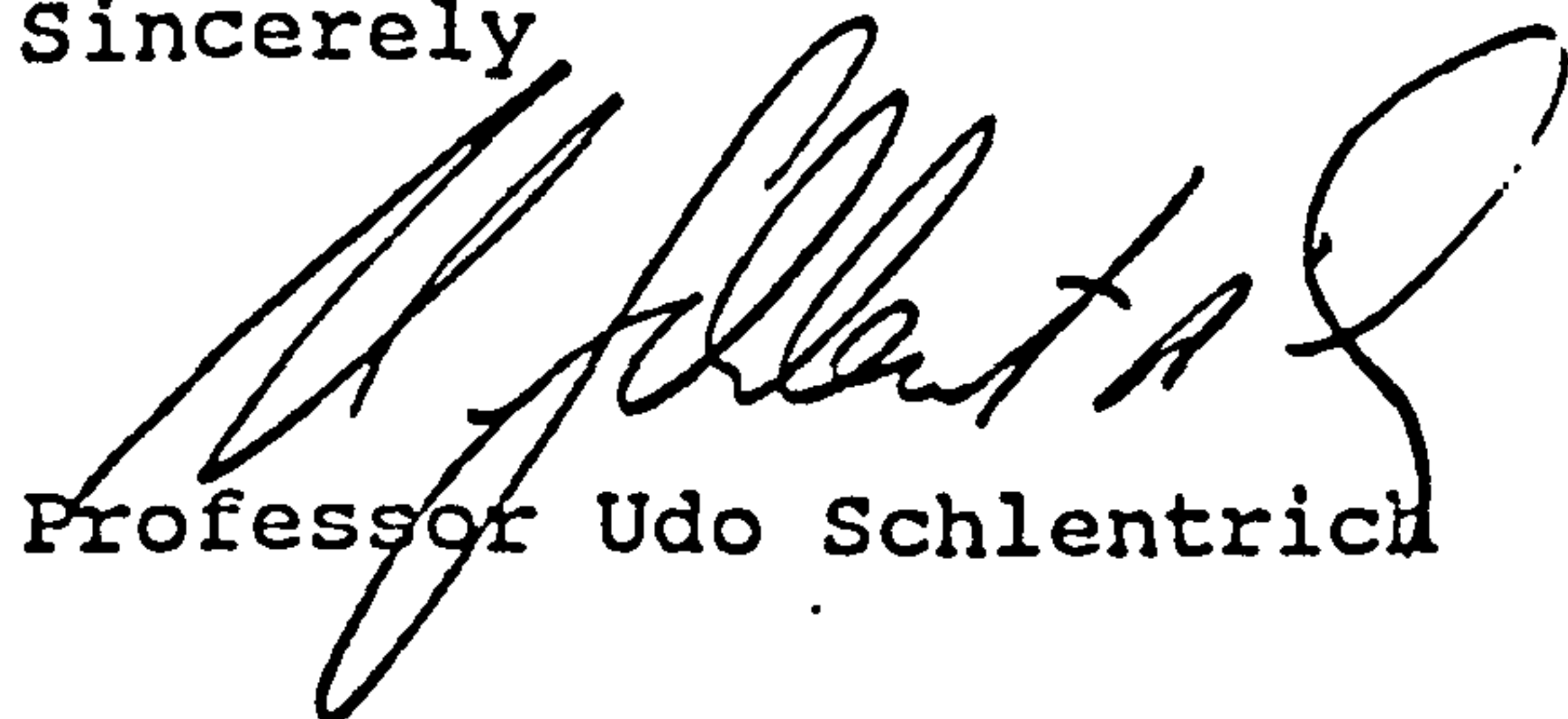
I am presently working with a young Thai Doctoral candidate, Suchada Chareanpunsirikul and we are interested to learn from a select number of Thai luxury hotel managers about their management style and practices. It is hoped that you would make your time and expertise available for this important research project which will hopefully benefit future generations of Thai hoteliers.

In the next few days you should receive a questionnaire and a request for you to allow Ms Chareanpunsirikul to conduct field observations at your hotel.

All individual responses and personal data will be treated as highly confidential.

We greatly appreciate your assistance.

Sincerely



Professor Udo Schlenrich

Curran Building, 94 Cathedral Street, Glasgow G4 0LG Tel: 041-552 4400 Fax: 041-552 2870 Telex: 77472 UNSLIB G

Professor of International Tourism and Head of Department: Carson L Jenkins BSc(Econ) PhD
Professor of Hotel Management: Udo A Schlenrich BSc DipSHS DipHA

Visiting Professors: The Hon Rocco Forte MA FCA, Leonard Lickorish CBE BA, Graham K L Jeffrey, Eddie J Friel

Suchada Chareanpunsirikul
The Scottish Hotel School
Strathclyde University
Curran Building
94 Cathedral Street
Glasgow G4 OLG

Dear

This letter is intended to introduce myself as a doctoral candidate in Hotel Administration at Strathclyde University in Scotland. My study is sponsored by Bangkok University in Thailand. To complete my doctoral degree, I am currently conducting a research project entitled "Hotel General Managers' Work Activities and the Relationship to Their Management Styles: A Comparative Study of Thai and Foreign General Managers in Luxury International Thai Hotels". In order to collect the data for this project, I need to observe the selected general managers at work and record the time that they spend on various activities as they conduct their daily operations in the hotels which they manage.

The purpose of the observation is for data collecting only. There is no attempt to spy nor to evaluate your work. If during the day you find that you would like to work privately, or any situation arises which might inconvenience you, or is of a confidential nature, I am willing to leave for that period of time.

I will return to Thailand on December 15th, 1994 and I will have three months to visit the selected hotels. If you are able to participate in this project, please suggest a week when you will be in the hotel most of the time. I would prefer a time when your work week would be representative of your work throughout the year.

If you have any questions or need further information about my research project, please contact me or Professor Schlenrich, my supervisor, at the above address. I am pleased to answer any questions you may have and to encourage your support in my research project. I believe this study will have a strong impact on the education and training of future hotel managers in Thailand.

Thank you very much in advance for your kind co-operation.

Yours sincerely

Suchada Chareanpunsirikul (Miss)