

**EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR COMPANY PERFORMANCE
IN COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN THAILAND**

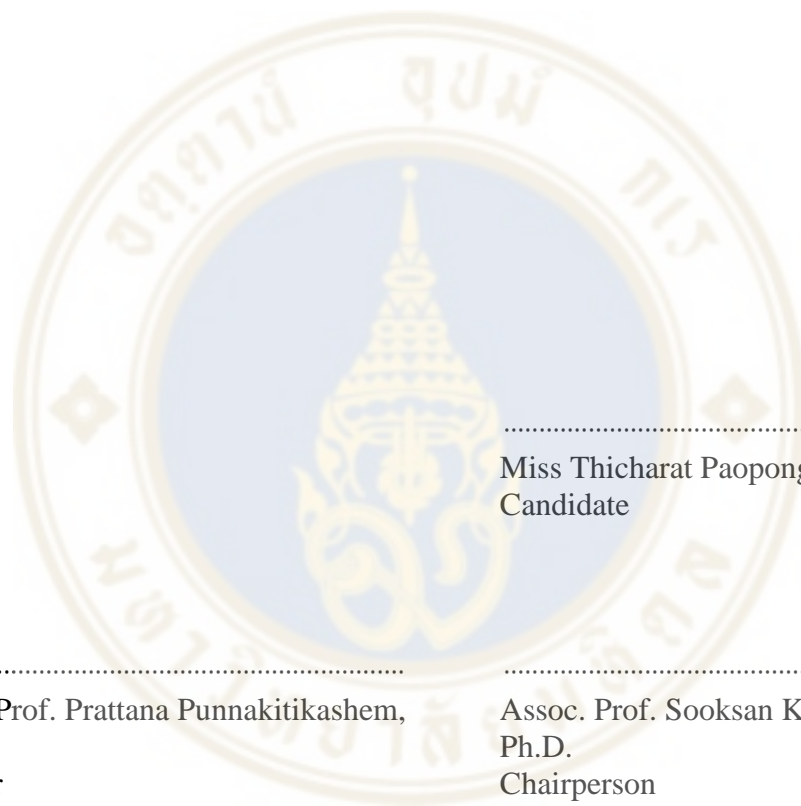


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entitled
**EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR COMPANY PERFORMANCE
IN COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN THAILAND**

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EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP FOR COMPANY PERFORMANCE IN COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

There have been an estimated 1.667 million COVID-19 cases in Thailand, with a total of 17,305 cumulative deaths (World Health Organization, 2021b). This crisis requires an effective leadership skill to solve. This situation is severely affecting organisational performance. The study aimed to identify an effective leadership style for managing company performance in Covid-19 pandemic. It also aimed to examine a difference in preference of leadership style between male and female employees. The data were collected from 100 employees who work in only large size companies that employ 250 employees or above. Only survey with five-point Likert scale was used as a data collection instrument. The data were analysed using multiple regression and independent sample t-test tools.

The results showed that only autocratic leadership style have a significant effect on company performance, which was measured through customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction. In contrast, it was found that democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles did not have any effect on company performance. The study also found that male employees prefer a leader who gives clear direction like an autocratic leadership style, while female employees prefer less strict rules like laissez-faire leadership style.

The results suggested that Thai managers should focus on an autocratic leadership style in crisis conditions. The findings also support the use of situational leadership, where leaders adapt their leadership styles and practices to cope with different situations.

KEY WORDS: Leadership / Performance / Customer Satisfaction / Employee Satisfaction

46 pages

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

This research takes place in the context of the global COVID-19 pandemic. The first signs of the COVID-19 pandemic occurred in late 2019, with a cluster of unusual respiratory illness cases in Wuhan, China (Ciotti et al., 2020). By February 2020 the disease, whose cause had been identified as a coronavirus similar to those which cause SARS and MERS (earlier, smaller-scale pandemics) had begun to spread globally (Ciotti et al., 2020). Although governments around the world responded relatively quickly with measures including local and national lockdowns and restrictions on travel and movement as well as enhanced public health measures, the disease continued to spread (Ciotti et al., 2020). According to the World Health Organization, at the time of writing there had been an estimated 235.67 million cases of COVID-19 globally, with 4.8 million reported deaths (World Health Organization, 2021b). The rapid development of several COVID-19 vaccines, which began mass distribution in December 2020 and which have now reached about 6.2 billion doses distributed, has contributed to slowing the spread and severity of the pandemic (World Health Organization, 2021a). Thus, while the COVID-19 pandemic is still ongoing, it is no longer at the severe level it once was.

Thailand was initially lightly affected by COVID-19 itself in terms of cases, due to the speed and stringency of public health measures taken (Namwat *et al.*, 2020). However, as Thailand is one of the world's top tourist destinations, the economic effect of near-cessation of international travel was severe (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2020). Furthermore, a second wave of COVID-19 had more severe effects for Thailand's public health (Rajatanavin *et al.*, 2021). To date, there have been an estimated 1.667 million cases in Thailand, with a total of 17,305 cumulative deaths (World Health Organization, 2021b). To date, approximately 49.6 million vaccine doses have been administered in Thailand, and there are currently around 9,300 new cases

being reported daily (World Health Organization, 2021b). Thus, while the COVID-19 pandemic is starting to ease, in Thailand it is still very much a crisis situation. This raises the question of how this has affected business and the role business leaders have played in mitigating the effects of the COVID pandemic. This is unfortunate because leadership styles oriented toward motivation, inspiration and direction as well as control – in effect, democratic and inspirational leadership (Northouse, 2018) – is likely to be an essential part of keeping businesses running through the crisis period. Crisis management, or the process of guiding an organization through an unexpected and negative event or series of events, requires strong and effective leadership (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). The literature review (presented in Chapter 2) reveals that various leadership styles, or approaches to communicating, motivating and directing followers (Northouse, 2018), could potentially be effective in the context of organizational crises. At the same time, some leadership styles such as laissez-faire leadership are known to be ineffective in organizational crisis situations (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). The problem of this research, therefore, addresses the gap in the literature about how leadership can be used to mitigate the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic.

1.2 Problem Statement

The problem this research addresses is how business leaders can keep their businesses operational through a systemic crisis such as COVID-19. The economic situation in Thailand has created obvious economic pressures such as reduction or even cessation in business for companies. Business leaders cannot do much about the systemic effects of economic crisis, regardless of their effectiveness as leaders. However, there are also less obvious problems that may have occurred throughout the crisis, which could be affected by the company's leadership. For example, many organizations have found that their employees are suffering from low morale and lack of engagement due to disrupted working practices and increased fear associated with the working environment (Chanana and Sangeeta, 2020). Employees may also be suffering from problems like social isolation (caused by social distancing measures) and work-life balance programs caused by school closures, work from home practice and other disruptions (Kaushik, 2020). Thus, there have been severe effects on employees

that could have a significant effect on employee satisfaction. These disruptions also potentially extend to customer satisfaction, as firms have had their trading practices disrupted by lockdowns, limited trading hours, and other changes as well as being required to enforce limits on shoppers in stores, mask usage and other limits (Pantano *et al.*, 2020; Kostromitina *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, customer expectations have also changed (Kostromitina *et al.*, 2021). These changes in the business environment may be severe enough to be considered a true paradigm shift in how organizations function (Howe *et al.*, 2020). However, to date little research has been done on how organisational leadership affects employee or customer satisfaction in the organisation. This research takes on this problem using the following research questions and objectives.

1.3 Research Questions

1. What is the most effective leadership style for managing company performance in Covid-19 pandemic?
2. Is there difference in preference of leadership style between male and female employees?

1.4 Research Objectives

- I. To identify an effective leadership style for managing company performance in Covid-19 pandemic.
- II. To examine a difference in preference of leadership style between male and female employees.

1.5 Significance of the Research

The study has both academic and practical significance. Its academic significance is that it investigates crisis leadership in real time, in the context of a systemic crisis (COVID-19) that has had severe effects on individual firms. By

investigating the role of leadership and the differences in leadership styles, the study will provide insight into how leadership influences company outcomes under conditions of high strain. The research has some potential practical significance for managers. The study will offer information about what the role of leadership is in the COVID-19 pandemic and how leaders can use leadership styles to effectively manage their companies. This is only a small part of navigating the unknown situation that is the COVID-19 pandemic, but the researcher hopes it is a useful source of support for organisational leaders.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study's time horizon is cross-sectional, with data collected during October to November 2021. The study addresses three variables, including leadership styles, employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction. Lewin, Lippitt and White's (1939) leadership styles model (including democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles) is used for the leadership style variable. The study specifically excludes financial performance of the organisation because it is recognised that the crisis conditions under which firms are operating may have severely disrupted their economic performance outside the capability of leadership to control.

The level of analysis is the individual, with data collected from employees of large organisations only, excluding small and medium sizes (SMEs). Data is collected using an online survey, with the sample selected using snowball sampling. The questionnaire is analysed in SPSS. Analysis techniques include descriptive statistics and regression techniques. The methodology of the study is described in more detail in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter addresses the literature on leadership styles suitable for crisis management. It begins with a review of leadership styles and their definition, as well as evidence on Thai leadership style preferences. It then discusses crisis management and leadership, showing that some leadership styles are better suited than others for crisis conditions. The final section of the chapter addresses how leadership styles can be used effectively for organizations during the COVID-19 pandemic.

2.1 Leadership Styles

A leadership style can be described briefly as the traits and practices associated with the way in which a leader motivates, directs and rewards his or her followers (Northouse, 2018). Leadership styles have been categorized and analysed in multiple ways since the 1930s, when the earliest theories of leadership styles emerged (Gandolfi and Stone, 2017). One of the earliest formalised leadership styles (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939) has formed the basis for many of the later formulations of leadership styles (Gandolfi and Stone, 2017). This research uses the modern framework based on the three-style model proposed by Lewin, et al. (1939) to understand leadership styles.

Lewin, et al. (1939) proposed three distinct styles of leadership, including autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles. An autocratic leader is one who retains all decision-making power and controls and directs the actions of his or her followers closely, without granting followers significant responsibility or autonomy (Northouse, 2018). Autocratic leadership is not necessarily bad for organizational or team performance, particularly when the leader is highly effective and cultural preferences allow for such strong direction and oversight by leaders (De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog, 2015). However, it can be perceived as overbearing and overly

controlling, especially if followers are culturally disinclined toward a high level of control (Northouse, 2018). A democratic leader is one who solicits information and feedback (consultation) and offers followers decision-making power, responsibility and autonomy in their own areas of expertise (Daft, 2012). The democratic leader therefore does not control all decisions made, but instead directs the overall progress of the organisation and rewards results that followers achieve (Northouse, 2018). This leadership style is also highly effective, especially in larger organisations where leaders do not have expertise to make all decisions or where the volume of decisions would be overwhelming (Daft, 2012; Northouse, 2018). Laissez-faire leadership is defined by the absence of leadership activities at all; the laissez-faire leader allows followers to make all decisions, and only intervenes (if ever) to punish poor outcomes (Daft, 2012; Northouse, 2018). Laissez-faire leadership is generally viewed as a negative leadership style.

There is strong evidence that Thai employees prefer democratic, rather than autocratic or laissez-faire, leadership styles (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016). One study, which compared a wide range of styles among Thai employees in manufacturing firms, found that consultative and participative leadership (both dimensions of democratic leadership) were strongly preferred, while autocratic leadership was least preferred (Yukongdi, 2010). A study of leadership of Chinese managers in Thai subsidiaries also found that Thai employees preferred democratic leadership styles (Piansoongnern, 2016). The Chinese managers, who used autocratic leadership styles, were perceived as overly strict and controlling or even dictatorial. Thus, it can be inferred that Thai employees will respond positively to democratic leadership and negatively to autocratic leadership styles (Piansoongnern, 2016).

2.2 Crisis Management

An organizational crisis is a situation which significantly affects the organisation's operations, strategy, outcomes or reputation (Marsen, 2020). Organisational crises can vary widely, ranging from a poorly-timed statement by a spokesperson (a minor crisis) to a global economic crisis (a major crisis). Marsen (2020) notes that there are several different ways to classify organisational crises, for example

whether they were preventable or unpreventable, whether they occurred through internal or external actions, and whether they were caused by intentional or unintentional actions. Another such classification argues that organisational crises can be understood by the amount of blame assigned by the public to the organisation; organisations can be victims of crises, crises can be viewed as accidents, or crises can be viewed as intentional actions (Marsen, 2020). Thus, the concept of the organisational crisis is wide-ranging and can apply to a wide variety of different situations.

Crisis management is the process by which the organisation's leaders guide the organisation through a given crisis (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). As Bundy, et al. (2017) noted, the definition and theoretical basis for crisis management is highly fragmented and interdisciplinary, which makes it difficult to establish a single theoretical basis for understanding it. In this research, the main concern is with the role of organizational leaders in the crisis management process, which can be summarized as including "actions and communication that attempt to reduce the likelihood of a crisis, work to minimize harm from a crisis, and endeavour to re-establish order following a crisis (Bundy *et al.*, 2017, p. 1663)." There are several different ways that leaders can respond to crises, and which affect how their organizations perform during and after the crisis (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). For example, leaders who respond emotionally to crisis (viewing it as a threat) will have a more limited and less effective response than those who respond rationally (viewing it as a potential opportunity). Leaders who respond more flexibly and proactively to a crisis, and who rely on better information and expertise, are also more likely to be successful in their organisational outcomes than those who do not (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). This implies that democratic leadership will have a more positive effect under crisis conditions than autocratic or laissez-faire leadership.

2.3 Effective Leadership Styles on Organisational Performance during COVID-19 Pandemic

The conceptual framework (Figure 2.1) has three hypotheses. A fourth hypothesis is also added, which relates to preferences toward leadership styles among male and female employees. The two outcome variables include employee satisfaction, or the employee's overall assessment of their job and working conditions (Mishra, Singh

and Tripathy, 2020) and customer satisfaction, or the customer's assessment of the product or service provided (Cronin and Taylor, 1992). The study does not investigate financial performance because the systemic economic impact of COVID-19 and its associated public health measures (Osterrieder *et al.*, 2021) means that this is outside the control of company leaders.

The first hypothesis argues that democratic leadership will have a positive effect on organisational outcomes. This hypothesis is supported both by the Thai employees' preference for democratic leadership (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016) and by the implication that democratic leadership may be more effective than other styles under crisis conditions (Bundy *et al.*, 2017) and more generally (Karakiliç, 2018). Yukongdi (2010) showed that consultative leadership was the most preferred style, while autocratic leadership was the least preferred, a difference the author attributed to a preference for participation in decision making and feeling like part of the organization. This finding was echoed by Piansoongnern (2016), who also showed a strong preference for democratic leadership. As Bundy, *et al.* (2017) showed, democratic leadership allows leaders to draw on their followers' skills and information, rather than requiring them to make all decisions. This is also an advantage in general leadership (Karakiliç, 2018). Therefore, it is stated that,

Hypothesis 1: Democratic leadership will have a positive effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

There is also evidence that autocratic leadership could have a positive effect on organisational performance. For example, under crisis conditions decisive decision-making is critical (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). As Bundy, *et al.* (2017) explain, crisis conditions require leaders to make immediate decisions and enforce them rapidly, in order to respond immediately to whatever provoked the crisis. This could involve, for example, an immediate response to the press or a rapid change in organizational procedure to cope with something unexpected. Under these conditions, autocratic leadership, where the leader takes charge and makes rapid decisions, is a significant advantage, as it provides the immediate response demanded by the crisis situation (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). Highly competent autocratic decision-making is also associated with positive organisational performance in some studies (De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog, 2015; Karakiliç, 2018).

For example, De Hoogh, et al. (2015) showed that when autocratic leaders create conditions of stability and predictability, where their followers understand what to expect, and where they make technically competent decisions, this can create positive morale and performance. However, this can only persist in conditions where team members accept, and do not challenge, the established hierarchy and the decision-making powers of the leader (De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog, 2015). This was essentially the same argument as made by Karakiliç (2018), who noted that stable and competent decision-making by autocratic leaders could reassure and support team performance. At the same time, there is a strong negative perception of autocratic leadership among Thai employees (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016), which could impede its performance. While neither author identified the reason for this in their theoretical model, it is likely to be a cultural predilection against hierarchy and autocratic decision making (Yukongdi, 2010). Therefore, the second hypothesis acknowledges that autocratic leadership could have an effect, but it is uncertain what direction this effect would be:

Hypothesis 2: Autocratic leadership will have an effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

The third hypothesis argues that laissez-faire leadership will have a negative effect on employee and customer satisfaction during COVID-19. This is due to the overall ineffectiveness of laissez-faire leadership (Daft, 2012; Northouse, 2018) and due to the need for decisive leadership under crisis conditions (Bundy *et al.*, 2017; Marsen, 2020), which is by definition not provided by laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is by its definition non-leadership; in other words, the leader does not take any action at all, except in extreme conditions, and relies on followers to make decisions and implement actions (Daft, 2012). Surprisingly, such leadership can be effective in expert teams, where team members have their own areas of expertise and tasks, but it is generally recognised as ineffective in most other contexts (Northouse, 2018). Laissez-faire leadership is likely to be particularly ineffective in contexts like crisis leadership, where there are many leadership decisions that need to be made and where swift and decisive leadership action is needed to coordinate organizational response (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). Active leaders are also needed in organizations in crisis to communicate

effectively, both internally and externally; therefore, laissez-faire leadership and its lack of communication practice is unlikely to suffice and may even negatively affect the organization's response and outcomes (Marsen, 2020). Therefore,

Hypothesis 3: Laissez-faire leadership will have a negative effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

The final hypothesis argues that there will be differences in preferred leadership styles under crisis conditions between male and female employees. This hypothesis is based on previous research that has identified some possible differences in response to leadership styles, though not under crisis conditions. One of these studies investigated differences in the use of leadership styles by male and female leaders, but did not find any significant difference in the use of authoritarian, democratic or laissez-faire leadership styles (Miranda, 2019). Therefore, it is not necessarily supported that leaders would use different leadership styles, especially since it is generally recognised that leadership styles use is consistent between genders (Northouse, 2018). At the same time, another study investigated follower *response* to leadership styles, and did show some possible differences (Collins, Burrus and Meyer, 2014). These authors showed that female followers responded more strongly to affect and loyalty aspects of the leader-member exchange relationship (a similar style as democratic), compared to male followers (Collins, Burrus and Meyer, 2014). While this study did not use the same leadership styles as the current study, it does suggest that a follower response to leadership styles may vary by gender. This is the position adopted in the fourth hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Preferred leadership styles under crisis conditions will vary between male and female employees.

The approach to testing these hypotheses is explained in the next chapter.

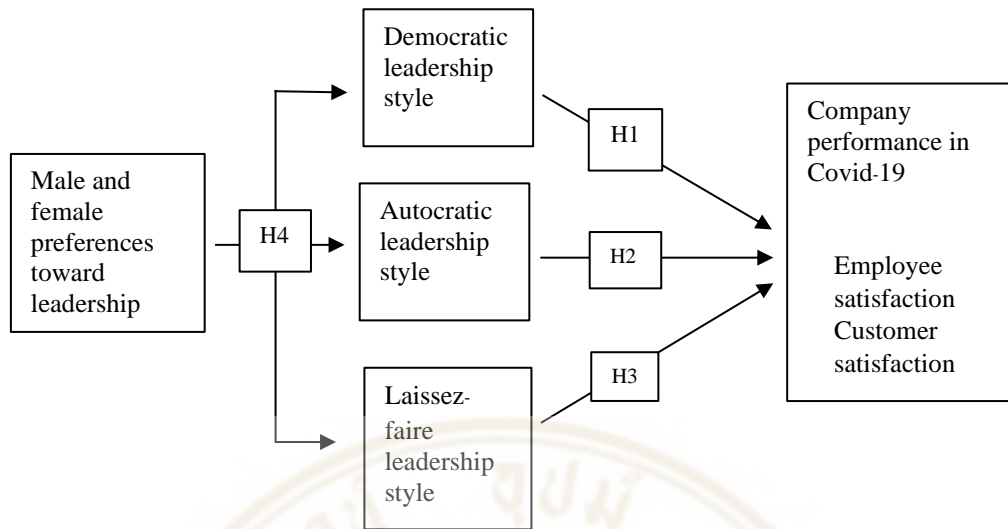


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of the research

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In Chapter 1, there were two objectives stated, which were: I) to identify an effective leadership style for managing company performance in COVID-19 pandemic and II) to examine a difference in preference of leadership style between male and female employees. This chapter introduces the research methodology used in the study to meet these objectives. It explains the research approach and the research strategy. The specifics for data collection and analysis are then explained. The chapter closes by considering the ethics of the study.

3.1 Research Approach

There are two main research approaches, or ways to link theory and observations (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015). These include deductive research (which is directed by theory) and inductive research (which is directed by observation). This study uses a deductive research approach, with a theoretical and conceptual framework established from existing literature and applied to a set of observations (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015). This approach was chosen because there is already a body of theory and empirical knowledge that can be drawn on for the study, and the research questions revolve around applying these theories rather than developing new ones. The deductive approach to research is most commonly used with quantitative research, which relies on standardised data collection and analysis techniques for observation (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015). Quantitative research was used in this study as indicated by the deductive approach, and because it is the effective way to make generalisations about a population (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015).

3.2 Research Strategy

There are two commonly used research strategies for deductive, quantitative research – surveys and experiments (Creswell, 2014). The experiment strategy is one in which conditions are tightly controlled to observe response, while surveys observe response without such tightly controlled conditions (Creswell, 2014). In this situation, it was not possible to control conditions for the study – organisations have been operating under COVID-19 conditions for almost two years at the time of research, and therefore there would be no way to control for organisational conditions or outcomes. Furthermore, the intention was to collect data from a variety of real-world situations, which means that the survey strategy is most appropriate (Creswell, 2014). Thus, a survey research strategy was employed, which allowed for the research questions to be answered without requiring artificial controls, which would not be possible in the research situation. The survey relied on a questionnaire to collect data (Fowler, 2014).

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection used an online questionnaire, which is a standardised instrument for collecting data from a sample (Fowler, 2014). The sampling process, instrument design, data collection and data analysis are described below.

3.3.1 Sample and sampling technique

The population of interest was employees of Thai companies, only large companies. Large enterprises employ 250 employees or above, where SMEs employ fewer than 250 employees (OECD, 2021). There was a sampling frame added (of employees aged 18 and up) for ethical reasons. The sample was selected using a network sampling technique (Heckathorn and Cameron, 2017). In this approach, the initial sample is selected using convenience sampling, and respondents are asked to refer their network connections (e.g. family, friends, and co-workers) to increase the randomness of the sample (Heckathorn and Cameron, 2017). A minimum sample size of $n = 100$ was selected. This minimum sample size acknowledges the limitations of a short data collection period and other practical constraints, but ensures that the minimum sample size of around 50 members for regression (Holmes, Illowsky and Dean, 2018) is met.

3.3.2 Instrument for data collection

The researcher designed the data collection instrument as a self-reported questionnaire, or one where participants fill out items on their own. This is most efficient for both participants and researcher and will maximise sample size (Fowler, 2014). The questionnaire included four parts, including: Demographics (Part 1), Leadership Styles (Part 2), Employee Satisfaction (Part 3), and Perceived Customer Satisfaction (Part 4). Measurement types were selected based on the type of information being collected (Fowler, 2014). Part 1 collected information about gender, age, job position as well as work experience using categorical items. Parts 2 aimed to identify leadership style adopted by leaders in the organization using the scale adopted from Northouse (2017). This is a scale that is well described and easy to apply in the management research. Parts 3 to 4 collected information about the base variables using a five-point scale.

The leadership styles questionnaire was adapted from Northouse's (2017) leadership styles instrument. The 18 five-point Likert items measured three leadership styles, including authoritarian leadership (items 1, 4, 7, 10, 13 and 16), democratic leadership (items 2,5, 8, 11, 14, and 17) and laissez-faire leadership (items 3, 6, 9, 12, 15 and 18). The items are scored by summing the individual items per scale. Scores can be interpreted as:

- 6-10 points: Very low
- 11-15 points: Low
- 16-20 points: Moderate
- 21-25 points: High
- 26-30 points: Very high (Northouse, 2018).

The five-point Likert scale includes:

- 1: Strongly disagree
- 2: Disagree
- 3: Neutral
- 4: Agree
- 5: Strongly agree

The questions for employee satisfaction and perceived customer satisfaction were adapted from Spector (1997) and Susskind, Kacmar and Borchgrevink (2003), respectively.

3.3.3 Data collection process

Data collection was collected using an online survey site (Google Form), which is a free software that is easy to create a survey form and easy to distribute online (it offers an online link). Online survey is reasonable to use for this research due to changes in the ongoing COVID-19 crisis. After the survey form was created, the researcher distributed the survey link to colleagues and friends who work in large-size organizations (employed 250 or over people). The researcher also asked them to help distribute to their friend and college networks to reduce time of a data collection. This distribution technique is called a snowball (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2015).

3.3.4 Tools for data analysis

There were three tools used for data analysis. Descriptive statistics (including frequency distributions for categorical items and mean and standard deviation for Likert items) were used to develop a respondent profile and understand data trends (Holmes, Illowsky and Dean, 2018). Multiple linear regression was used to test hypotheses 1 to 3. A regression approach was selected because it estimates the strength and direction of causal relationships, which was the basis of the hypotheses (Warne, 2021). To test hypothesis 4, the sample was split into two groups (male and female). An independent sample t-test was the analysis tool, as it is suitable for examining a difference in preferences among two sample groups (Warne, 2021).

3.4 Ethical Considerations

The ethical consideration was that the study drew on employees of organisations and asked about their leadership. In some cases, this could cause problems for employees if their managers or leaders found out about the research or what they said. To prevent this from happening, the survey was confidential, and no personally identifying information was asked about the respondents. Furthermore, respondents were not asked where they worked, to avoid accidental disclosure. While this limited the analysis that could be done, it also protected respondents which was a higher priority.

CHAPTER IV

DATA FINDINGS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings from the questionnaire conducted as explained in Chapter 3. The chapter begins with a respondent profile, explaining the demographics of all participants. A descriptive review of the leadership styles used by Thai leaders as perceived by their followers is then provided. The hypotheses are then discussed in the final two sections, which review the effectiveness of leadership styles (Hypotheses 1 to 3) and gender preference differences for leadership styles (Hypothesis 4) respectively. Within these sections, the literature review is used to discuss and interpret the findings, providing theoretical perspective and comparison to earlier studies.

4.1 Respondent Profile

A total of 100 questionnaires were collected during the data collection. Participant demographics (Table 4.1) included gender, age, and education level. A slightly larger group was male (55 participants, 55%) than female (45 participants, 45%). However, the groups of male and female participants were about equal in size, which was important for testing Hypothesis 4 (Section 4.4, below). The largest age groups were 18 to 30 years (36 participants, 36%) and 31 to 40 years (30 participants, 30%). Only 34 participants or 34% were aged over 40. Therefore, it can be said that the sample is relatively young. A range of educational levels were represented, including high school or below (11 participants, 11%), diplomas (36 participants, 36%), bachelor's degrees (44 participants, 44%) and postgraduate degrees (9 participants, 9%). Thus, the sample was broadly representative of different groups of workers, although it was relatively young.

Work experience (Table 4.2) included length of working experience at the current company and current working position. Participants were typically relatively

low tenure at their current companies, with most participants having one to three years (41 participants, 41%) or four to six years (28 participants, 28%) of experience at their current jobs. Half the sample (50 participants, 50%) were working in non-supervisory staff roles. Of the remaining participants most described themselves as supervisors (35 participants, 35%) rather than managers (15 participants, 15%). Therefore, this sample represents a relatively low experience level and staff or supervisory roles, rather than longer tenure and managerial roles, on average.

Table 4.1 Participant demographics

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	55	55.0
Female	45	45.0
Total	100	100.0
Age	Frequency	Percent
18-30 years	36	36.0
31-40 years	30	30.0
41-50 years	17	17.0
51-60 years	12	12.0
More than 60 years	5	5.0
Total	100	100.0
Education	Frequency	Percent
High school or below	11	11.0
Diploma	36	36.0
Bachelor degree	44	44.0
Master degree	8	8.0
Doctoral degree	1	1.0
Total	100	100.0

Table 4.2 Participant work experience

Working Experience	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	15	15.0
1-3 years	41	41.0
4-6 years	28	28.0
7-9 years	10	10.0
10 years or more	6	6.0
Total	100	100.0

Job Position	Frequency	Percent
Staff	50	50.0
Supervisor	35	35.0
Manager	15	15.0
Total	100	100.0

4.2 Leadership Styles of Thai Leaders

Descriptive statistics for the leadership styles are presented in Tables 4.3 (Autocratic leadership), 4 (Democratic leadership) and 5 (Laissez-faire leadership). The levels are following Northouse's (2018) ranges, which is:

- 6-10 points: Very low
- 11-15 points: Low
- 16-20 points: Moderate
- 21-25 points: High
- 26-30 points: Very high.

As far as autocratic leadership (Table 4.3), most of the reported leaders ($n = 68, 68\%$) were in the high range on the autocratic leadership scale. The second largest group was the very high autocratic leadership ($n = 18, 18\%$). Thus, a full 86% of the sample scored high or very high in autocratic leadership, indicating that it is a frequently used leadership style by the respondents' organizational leaders. This is somewhat higher than would be preferred by Thai employees, according to previous studies on preferred leadership styles (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016). However, it is

possible that leaders have adopted more autocratic leadership approaches in response to the COVID-19 crisis, as it is a style that may be used more actively in crisis situations (Bundy *et al.*, 2017).

Democratic leadership (Table 4.4) was also commonly reported by the respondents. The largest groups reported very high ($n = 56$, 56%) or high ($n = 34$, 34%) use of democratic leadership. This is consistent with studies on Thai leadership, which have indicated that democratic leadership is both the most preferred and frequently used leadership style among Thai leaders (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016). Thus, this was also expected.

Laissez-faire leadership (Table 4.5) was far less commonly reported than either autocratic or democratic leadership styles. Most participants reported that their leaders showed laissez-faire leadership at very low ($n = 22$, 22%), low ($n = 46$, 46%) or moderate ($n = 17$, 17%) levels, with only 15 participants or 15% reporting high or very high laissez-faire leadership. Given that laissez-faire leadership can be highly detrimental to organizational performance during crisis periods (Bundy *et al.*, 2017; Northouse, 2018), this indicates that leaders are choosing more effective methods of leadership.

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics: Autocratic leadership style

Autocratic leadership style	Frequency	Percent
Very low range	5	5.0
Low range	3	3.0
Moderate range	6	6.0
High range	68	68.0
Very high range	18	18.0
Total	100	100.0

Table 4.4 Descriptive statistics: Democratic leadership style

Democratic leadership style	Frequency	Percent
Very low range	3	3.0
Low range	0	0
Moderate range	7	7.0
High range	34	34.0
Very high range	56	56.0
Total	100	100.0

Table 4.5 Descriptive statistics: Laissez-faire leadership style

Laissez-faire leadership style	Frequency	Percent
Very low range	22	22.0
Low range	46	46.0
Moderate range	17	17.0
High range	9	9.0
Very high range	6	6.0
Total	100	100.0

4.3 Effectiveness of Leadership Styles in COVID-19 Crisis

The first objective of this research was to identify an effective leadership style for managing company performance during the COVID-19 pandemic. To achieve this objective, the three leadership styles are tested against two outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction), as expressed in the first three hypotheses. These hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 1: Democratic leadership will have a positive effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

Hypothesis 2: Autocratic leadership will have an effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

Hypothesis 3: Laissez-faire leadership will have a negative effect on organisational outcomes (employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction) during COVID-19 pandemic.

These hypotheses were tested using multiple regression, with leadership styles used as predictor variables. The first test is of employee satisfaction, followed by a test of customer satisfaction. For all hypotheses, the outcome is tested based on the significance of the t-test ($p < .05$) and the direction of the regression coefficient (positive for autocratic and democratic leadership, and negative for laissez-faire leadership).

4.3.1 Leadership styles and employee satisfaction

Table 4.6 summarizes the regression outcomes for the relationship of leadership styles and employee satisfaction. The model was significant ($F = 803.916$, $p < .001$). It was also highly predictive (adj. R-square = .961). This result indicates that 96.1% of variance in employee satisfaction scores can be predicted by the three predictors of autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, and laissez-faire leadership. The coefficients, on the other hand, indicate that only autocratic leadership was a significant factor ($\beta = .967$, $p < .001$). Democratic leadership ($\beta = 0.11$, $p = .721$) and laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = -.010$, $p = .697$) were not significant. The regression equation for this test is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_{\text{Employee Satisfaction}} &= .178 + .973_{\text{Autocratic leadership}} + .011_{\text{Democratic leadership}} \\
 &\quad - .009_{\text{Laissez-faire leadership}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Overall, this indicates that the only leadership style that has a significant impact on employee satisfaction is autocratic leadership, which has a strong positive effect on employee satisfaction ratings. While democratic leadership was not significant. Similarly, laissez-faire leadership is insignificant, negative effect.

These findings allow for Hypothesis 1 to be accepted as far as employee leadership. However, Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3 must be rejected, since neither democratic nor laissez-faire leadership styles had a significant effect on employee satisfaction.

Table 4.6 Regression of leadership styles on employee satisfaction

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1 (Constant)	.178	.164		.086	280
Autocratic leadership style	.973	.029	.967	3.748	000
Democratic leadership style	.011	.032	.011	358	721
Laissez-faire leadership style	-.009	.022	-.010	.391	697
Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.981 ^a	.962	.961	.17991		
ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	78.065	3	26.022	03.916	000 ^b
Residual	3.107	96	.032		
Total	81.172	99			

The findings on autocratic leadership show an interesting difference from the literature. Previous studies of leadership preferences in Thailand have shown that Thai employees generally do not prefer autocratic leadership. For example, Yukongdi (2010) showed that this was one of the least preferred leadership styles for Thai employees. Piansoongnern (2016) showed that excessive use of autocratic leadership was one of the reasons why Thai employees may respond negatively to Chinese managers in international firms, as these managers are viewed as being inflexible and authoritarian. Here, however, autocratic leadership was the only leadership style that influenced employee satisfaction outcomes. There could be a few different reasons for this, according to the literature review. First, autocratic leadership can be highly effective in situations where employees trust leaders and where leaders make highly competent decisions (De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog, 2015). In situations of high unpredictability and rapid change, as De Hoogh, et al. (2015) explain, autocratic leadership can provide a sense of stability, competence, and predictability, creating

conditions for positive response. It can also create conditions of higher team cohesion and better team performance (Karakiliç, 2018). These are exactly the conditions that leaders in organisations in crisis are working in, especially those that are undergoing a sustained crisis (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, it is possible that the reason for the dominance of autocratic leadership as a factor in employee satisfaction is that it is creating the sense of stability and predictability that employees need. It is also possible that autocratic leadership paired with decisive and effective communication promotes the feeling of positive support that employees need (Bundy *et al.*, 2017) to a greater extent than democratic leadership, which is by nature slower and more consultative (Northouse, 2018). While it is uncertain why laissez-faire leadership was not significant, it is important that it was much less commonly observed. Therefore, it may simply not be used (or rather, not used) frequently enough to make a difference in employee satisfaction.

4.3.2 Leadership styles and customer satisfaction

Table 4.7 summarizes the regression outcomes from the test of leadership styles as predictors of customer satisfaction. The model was significant ($F = 1304.815$, $p < .001$). It was also highly predictive (adj. R-square = .975). This indicates that 97.5% of the variance in customer satisfaction was attributable to variance in leadership styles. The coefficients show that autocratic leadership ($\beta = .954$, $p < .001$) was a significant factor in the regression. However, democratic leadership ($\beta = .017$, $p = .472$) was not a significant factor. Neither was laissez-faire leadership ($\beta = -.036$, $p = .087$). The regression equation for this test was:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y_{\text{Customer Satisfaction}} &= .244 + .953_{\text{Autocratic leadership}} + .018_{\text{Democratic leadership}} \\
 &\quad - .030_{\text{Laissez-faire leadership}}
 \end{aligned}$$

With respect to the second half of the hypotheses, Hypothesis 1 can be supported since autocratic leadership did have a positive effect on customer satisfaction. However, since neither democratic leadership nor laissez-faire leadership had a significant effect, Hypotheses 2 and 3 are rejected.

Table 4.7 Regression of leadership styles on customer satisfaction

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1 (Constant)	.244	.129		1.894	.061
Autocratic leadership style	.953	.023	.954	42.121	.000
Democratic leadership style	.018	.025	.017	.722	.472
Laissez-faire leadership style	-.030	.017	-.036	-1.727	.087
Model Summary					
R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate		
.988 ^a	.976	.975	.14127		
ANOVA					
Regression	78.116	3	26.039	304.815	000 ^b
Residual	1.916	96	.020		
Total	80.032	99			

The results for customer satisfaction are essentially similar to those of employee satisfaction: autocratic leadership styles are positively associated with the outcome, but democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles are not. To some extent, this can probably be explained through the same mechanisms as employee satisfaction. For example, autocratic leadership under rapidly changing and unpredictable conditions could keep the company's operations stable and ensure their processes are consistent (De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog, 2015), which could provide customers with stable and consistent customer service, promoting customer satisfaction. It is also possible that autocratic leadership paired with strong communication from the firm are as effective in outward-facing communications as they are in inward-facing communications (Bundy *et al.*, 2017). Thus, it is unsurprising that the company's processes and outcomes (as indicated by the customer satisfaction rating) are positively influenced by the use of autocratic leadership during the crisis.

Overall, the tests of Hypotheses 1 to 3 have shown that autocratic leadership has the strongest effect during the COVID-19 crisis. This does not necessarily mean autocratic leadership would always be the best choice; in fact, previous studies on Thai employee leadership preferences suggest that autocratic leadership is not preferred under normal operating conditions (Yukongdi, 2010; Piansoongnern, 2016). However, in keeping with literature on leadership during a crisis period (Bundy *et al.*, 2017; Marsen, 2020), it appears that it is autocratic leadership that is most effective during a sustained crisis. This finding illustrates how organizations undergoing a crisis period may not benefit from the same leadership practices. At the same time, the literature suggests that laissez-faire leadership may *never* be effective at the organisational level (Daft, 2012; Bundy *et al.*, 2017; Northouse, 2018; Marsen, 2020). Thus, there is no justification for use of laissez-faire leadership, even though its negative effect was not significant here.

4.4 Gender Preference Differences in Leadership Styles during COVID-19

The second objective of the research was to examine a difference in the preference of leadership style between male and female employees. This objective was achieved by testing the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Preferred leadership styles under crisis conditions will vary between male and female employees.

This hypothesis was tested using an independent t-test for difference in means, which establishes whether there is a statistical difference in two independent samples (Warne, 2021). A significance level of $p < .05$ indicates that the groups were significantly different.

The descriptive statistics (Table 4.8) show that there are some mean differences. For autocratic leadership, male respondents ($M = 4.27$) had a higher mean rate than female respondents ($M = 3.47$). This means that male respondents prefer a leader with autocratic leadership style more than female respondents. For democratic leadership, male respondents ($M = 4.67$) also had a higher mean rate than female respondents ($M = 4.07$). In other words, male respondents are more likely to prefer a

leader who listens to their ideas and relies on group decision than female respondents. However, female respondents ($M = 2.60$) were more likely to prefer laissez-faire leadership than male respondents ($M = 2.07$), meaning that the female group tends to prefer a leader who lets them work on their given tasks and make their own decision without a strict direction than the male group. However, this style is not suitable for a crisis like a Covid-19 pandemic, where the company needs a clear direction from the leader.

The t-tests (Table 4.9) determine whether the mean differences are significant. The Levene's test for equality of variance ($p < .05$) indicates that for all three leadership styles, equal variances can be assumed. For autocratic leadership, there was a significant observed difference ($t = 4.958$, $p < .001$). This was also true for democratic leadership ($t = 3.705$, $p < .001$) and laissez-faire leadership ($t = -2.448$, $p = .016$). Thus, for all three leadership styles, there were differences in perceptions of leadership style. For autocratic and democratic leadership styles, male respondents were more likely to prefer these styles than female respondents. For laissez-faire leadership, female respondents were more likely to prefer than male respondents. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported for all three leadership styles.

Table 4.8 Descriptive statistics by gender group in leadership styles

Group Statistics						
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	
Autocratic leadership style	Male	55	4.27	.489		.066
	Female	45	3.47	1.079		.161
Democratic leadership style	Male	55	4.67	.511		.069
	Female	45	4.07	1.074		.160
Laissez-faire leadership style	Male	55	2.07	.836		.113
	Female	45	2.60	1.304		.194

Table 4.9 T-test of gender differences in leadership styles observed

		Independent Samples Test								
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Autocratic leadership style	Equal variances assumed	19.893	.000	4.958	98	.000	.806	.163	.483	1.129
	Equal variances not assumed			4.638	58.684	.000	.806	.174	.458	1.154
Democratic leadership style	Equal variances assumed	7.359	.008	3.705	98	.000	.606	.164	.281	.931
	Equal variances not assumed			3.476	60.123	.001	.606	.174	.257	.955
Laissez-faire leadership style	Equal variances assumed	15.551	.000	-2.448	98	.016	-.527	.215	-.955	-.100
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.347	71.926	.022	-.527	.225	-.975	-.079

These findings contribute to a complicated literature on the role of gender in preferred leadership styles of followers. The results of H4 showed that male respondents prefer a leader who gives them clear direction, supervises them closely and gives reward in exchange of task achievement than female respondents. On the other hand, female respondents prefer a leader who lets them work out on a problem by themselves and evaluates their own performance. The result implies that male employees in this case, seem to have less confident in solving a complex situation than female employees. This is an issue that would require a further investigation. Similarly, the literature also supports a distinction between actual leadership styles use and

perceived leadership styles. Collins, Burrus and Meyer (2014) did show that there were differences in follower response to leadership practices. Their study did not use the same theoretical approach as this one, but this study confirms that female followers were less likely to perceive autocratic and democratic leadership styles and more likely to perceive laissez-faire leadership. However, the result of this study contraries with Miranda (2019) and Northhouse (2018), who reported that male and female leaders did not use leadership styles differently. This study implies that female prefers Laissez-faire leadership style more than male. What is uncertain in this study is whether this was because there were actual differences in the organisations, whether female employees are managed differently, or whether female and male employees have actual perception and preference differences in leadership styles. This is a question that cannot be easily answered, either from the primary research here or from the academic literature. It is a challenging task for management at the company to answer this question, based on an individual character of the company, if they want to achieve the goal. In the next chapter, this and other findings form part of the conclusion and implications.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter concludes the study by considering the meaning of the findings and their importance. The chapter begins with the research conclusions, which offer a response to the research objectives from the primary and secondary research conducted. This is followed by research implications, which include academic and practical recommendations for applying the findings. The final section reflects on the research limitations and the recommendations for future research.

5.1 Research Conclusions

This research began with two objectives, which were:

- I. To identify an effective leadership style for managing company performance in Covid-19 pandemic.
- II. To examine a difference in preference of leadership style between male and female employees.

The objectives were investigated using a combination of literature review (secondary research) and a survey of employees of large companies operating in Thailand (primary research).

With respect to objective I, the literature review was used to identify a framework of leadership styles and their effectiveness. This review suggested that both autocratic leadership and democratic leadership could have a positive effect, but laissez-faire leadership was likely to have a negative effect. These hypotheses were tested using multiple regression on the data collected from employees of large companies ($n = 100$). The findings showed that only autocratic leadership had a significant effect on both employee satisfaction and perceived customer satisfaction. Therefore, it can be concluded that the autocratic leadership style is the most effective leadership for Thai firms in the COVID-19 pandemic crisis.

With respect to objective II, the literature review showed a confused set of evidence on gender and leadership styles, suggesting leaders of different genders used the same leadership styles but followers had different style preferences. The employee survey indicated that there were gender differences in the perception of leadership styles, with men more likely to report autocratic and democratic leadership of their leaders and women more likely to report laissez-faire leadership of their leaders. However, the source of these differences was unclear, as it could stem from substantive differences in leadership, differences in leadership preference, or differences in perception of leadership styles. Thus, it can be concluded that men and women do perceive different rates of leadership styles use, but the reasons for this are unknown. Thus, while both the objectives of the study were answered, there are still some theoretical and practical questions that remain. These are discussed next.

5.2 Research Implications

This study has contributed to the academic literature by considering organizational leadership and performance under conditions of sustained and systemic crisis. Previous research into organizational crisis, for example the work reviewed by Bundy, et al. (2017) and Marsen (2020), has focused on short-term, organization-specific crises. However, the COVID-19 crisis is entirely different since it has affected every part of the economy and society worldwide. This means that firms are facing pressures far beyond what they would face in ordinary crisis situations, such as poor quarterly results or a public relations crisis. This calls for further academic theorization on the role of leadership in the context of sustained crisis. While the COVID-19 pandemic is one kind of such crisis, it is also possible that such theories could apply to other contexts as well. Therefore, while this research has investigated a small part of how leadership can affect performance in systemic crisis, there is a lot more work that can be done to develop a reliable theory of crisis performance.

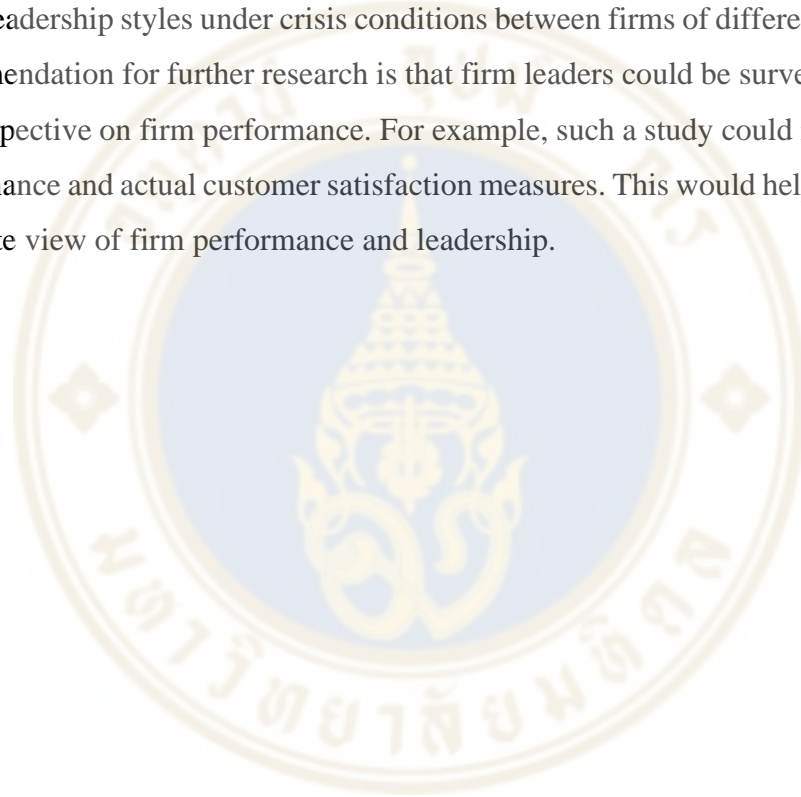
There are also practical implications of these findings. Simply, the study showed that even though autocratic leadership is not preferred by Thai employees under ordinary operating conditions, it may be highly effective in crisis conditions. By creating a stable environment with clear and decisive leadership decision-making, the autocratic

leader could be effective at overcoming environmental uncertainty and unpredictability. Therefore, the practical recommendation that comes from this research is that Thai managers should not avoid autocratic leadership in crisis conditions, even if they might use democratic and participative leadership styles under ordinary conditions. More generally, these findings support the use of situational leadership, where leaders adapt their leadership styles and practices to cope with different situations (Northouse, 2018). For example, Thai managers should adopt an autocratic leadership style, where they give a clear direction of a Covid-19 solution to boost a company performance, then supervise subordinates closely to monitor progress of a solution plan and finally reward those who can achieve tasks given. This would be a style that the managers should adopt over the Covid-19 pandemic. After that, the managers may reduce the degree of autocratic style and adopt a more democratic style. This is to encourage teamworking and increase a job automation among subordinates that a high-performance company needed. Automation at work would allow the managers to have more time for a company's future and bigger plan, while subordinates to get a chance to learn to make a right/wrong decision and eventually gain higher confidence at work. Such situational leadership practices could also be particularly helpful when dealing with exceptional situations, such as the COVID-19 pandemic and its sustained economic and operating environment effects.

5.3 Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

There were several limitations to this research, stemming from the structure of the study and how it was conducted. The scope of organizational performance was limited to employee satisfaction and perceived customer satisfaction, which were performance measures that could be reported on by employees. However, several measures were not included, including financial performance and actual customer satisfaction, since employees would not have any information about these measures (or may not be able to share this information). This means that the study only partly reflects the effect of leadership. Another limitation was that the study only included large firms that were still operating in Thailand after nearly two years of crisis. This means that the study only includes the firms with the most resources, and therefore would be the most

able to handle a sustained period of crisis. It also means that there may be some survivorship bias in the findings, since very poorly led organizations may have already failed under the sustained crisis conditions. These limitations mean that the finding is not fully generalisable; for example, small and medium firms may show different patterns of leadership. The small sample size also imposes some limitations, since the sample may not be representative of employees of large firms. These limitations do provide some guidance for future research. One recommendation is that a study could be conducted that includes both large firms and SMEs, focusing on the differences in use of leadership styles under crisis conditions between firms of different sizes. Another recommendation for further research is that firm leaders could be surveyed, broadening the perspective on firm performance. For example, such a study could include financial performance and actual customer satisfaction measures. This would help provide a more complete view of firm performance and leadership.



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Appendix A: Questionnaire Survey

Questionnaire Survey

แบบสอบถาม

This questionnaire is developed in a partial fulfilment of Master's degree at College of Management Mahidol University (CMMU). The aim is to investigate effectiveness of leadership styles for company performance during Covid-19 pandemic. The questionnaire consists of 4 parts, including demographic data, leadership styles, employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction. The information collected using this questionnaire will be used only for academic purpose and will be kept confidentially.

แบบสอบถามนี้ถูกพัฒนาขึ้นเพื่อเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของหลักสูตรปริญญาโท วิทยาลัยการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล โดยมีจุดประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจประสิทธิภาพของบทบาทของผู้นำรูปแบบต่างๆต่อการดำเนินงานในช่วงการระบาดของโรคโควิด-19 ซึ่งแบบสอบถามประกอบไปด้วย 4 ส่วน ดังนี้ ข้อมูลประชากรศาสตร์ บทบาทของผู้นำรูปแบบต่างๆ ความพึงพอใจของพนักงาน และ ความพึงพอใจของลูกค้า ข้อมูลที่ได้จากแบบสอบถามนี้จะถูกนำไปใช้เพื่อเป้าหมายทางวิชาการเท่านั้นและจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ

Part 1 Demographic information ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลประชากรศาสตร์

Please ✓ in the box where it mostly suits your answer. กรุณาเติม ✓ ลงไปในช่องที่เป็นคำตอบของคุณ

1.1 Gender เพศ

- () Male ชาย () Female หญิง () Others อื่นๆ

1.2 Age อายุ

- () 18-30 years 18-30 ปี () 31-40 years 31-40 ปี () 41-50 years 41-50 ปี
() 51-60 years 51-60 ปี () More than 60 years มากกว่า 60 ปี

1.3 Education level ระดับการศึกษา

- () High school or below มัธยมศึกษาตอนปลายหรือต่ำกว่า
() Diploma อนุปริญญา
() Bachelor degreeปริญญาตรี
() Master degreeปริญญาโท
() Doctoral degreeปริญญาเอก

1.4 Job position ตำแหน่งงาน

- () Staff พนักงาน () Supervisor หัวหน้างาน () Manager ผู้จัดการ

1.5 Work experience ประสบการณ์การทำงาน

- () Less than 1 year น้อยกว่า 1 ปี () 1-3 years 1-3 ปี () 4-6 years 4-6 ปี
() 7-9 years 7-9 ปี () 10 years or more 10 ปี หรือมากกว่า

Part 2 Leadership styles ส่วนที่ 2 บทบาทของผู้นำรูปแบบต่างๆ

Please ✓ in the box where it mostly suits your answer. กรุณาเติม ✓ ลงไปในช่องที่เป็นคำตอบของคุณ

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็นด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มีความคิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็นด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. My leaders supervise closely. They believe that employees are not likely to do their work. หัวหน้าของฉันให้คำแนะนำอย่างใกล้ชิด พวกเขาเชื่อว่าพนักงานไม่น่าจะทำงานของพวกเขาได้โดยไม่มีคำแนะนำ					
2. My leaders want employees to be a part of the decision-making process. หัวหน้าของฉันต้องการให้ฉันเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของกระบวนการในการตัดสินใจ					
3. In complex situations, my leaders let followers work problems out on their own. ในสถานการณ์ที่ยุ่งยาก หัวหน้าของฉันจะให้พนักงานแก้ไขปัญหาด้วยตัวเอง					
4. My leaders believe that most employees in the general population are lazy. หัวหน้าของฉันเชื่อว่าพนักงานส่วนใหญ่ทั่วไปนั้นเกียจคร้าน					

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มี ความ คิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็น ด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
5. Providing guidance without pressure is the key of my leaders. ให้แนวทางโดยไม่กดดันนั้นเป็นรูปแบบของหัวหน้าของฉัน					
6. My leaders stay out of the way of followers as they do their work. หัวหน้าของฉันปล่อยให้ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาทำงานของพวกเขาเอง					
7. My leaders say that employees must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives. หัวหน้าของฉันบอกว่าพนักงานต้องได้รับรางวัล หรือ การลงโทษเพื่อกระตุ้นให้พวกเขาบรรลุวัตถุประสงค์ขององค์กร					
8. My leaders offer supportive communication for most workers. ผู้นำของฉันสนับสนุนด้านการสื่อสารให้กับพนักงานส่วนใหญ่					
9. As a rule, my leaders allow followers to appraise their own work. ตามกฎแล้ว ผู้นำของฉันอนุญาตให้ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาประเมินผลของตนเองได้					

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มี ความ คิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็น ด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
10. My leaders believe that most employees feel insecure about their work and need direction. หัวหน้าของฉันเชื่อว่าพนักงานส่วนใหญ่รู้สึกไม่ปลอดภัยในเรื่องงานของพวกเขา และต้องการคำแนะนำ					
11. My leaders help followers to accept responsibility for completing their work. หัวหน้าของฉันช่วยผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาให้รับผิดชอบในการทำงานให้สำเร็จ					
12. My leaders give followers complete freedom to solve problems on their own. หัวหน้าของฉันให้อิสระแก่ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาในการแก้ปัญหาด้วยตนเองอย่างเต็มที่					
13. My leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the group. หัวหน้าของฉันเป็นผู้นำในการตัดสินเกี่ยวกับความสำเร็จของสมาชิกในกลุ่ม					
14. My leaders help followers find their "passion." หัวหน้าของฉันช่วยให้ผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาค้นหาสิ่งที่พวกเขาหลงใหล					

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มี ความ คิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็น ด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
15. In most situations, my leaders believe that workers prefer little input from the leader. ในสถานการณ์ส่วนใหญ่ หัวหน้าของฉันเชื่อว่าพนักงานต้องการข้อมูลเพียงเล็กน้อยจากหัวหน้า					
16. My leaders give orders and clarify procedures. หัวหน้าของฉันออกคำสั่งและชี้แจงขั้นตอน					
17. My leaders believe that people are basically competent and if given a task will do a good job. หัวหน้าของฉันเชื่อว่าโดยพื้นฐานแล้วคนมีความสามารถ และหากได้รับมอบหมายงานก็จะทำงานได้ดี					
18. In general, my leaders believe that it is best to leave followers alone. โดยทั่วไปแล้ว หัวหน้าของฉันเชื่อว่าจะเป็นการดีที่สุดที่จะปล่อยผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชาไว้ตามลำพัง					

Part 3 Employee satisfaction ส่วนที่ 3 ความพึงพอใจของพนักงาน

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มี ความ คิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็น ด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
3.1 I'm satisfied with working hours during Covid-19. ฉันพอใจกับชั่วโมงการทำงานในช่วงโควิด-19					
3.2 I'm satisfied with the way my leaders solve problem during Covid-19. ฉันพอใจกับวิธีที่หัวหน้าของฉันแก้ปัญหาในช่วงโควิด-19					
3.3 I'm satisfied with the way my leaders manage conflict among employees in the organization during Covid-19. ฉันพอใจกับวิธีที่หัวหน้าของฉันจัดการความขัดแย้งระหว่างพนักงานในองค์กรในช่วงโควิด-19					
3.4 Overall, I'm satisfied with leadership skills of my leader during Covid-19. ในภาพรวม ฉันพอใจกับทักษะผู้นำของหัวหน้าของฉันในช่วงโควิด-19					

Part 4 Customer satisfaction ส่วนที่ 4 ความพึงพอใจของลูกค้า

Statements ข้อความ	Scale ระดับ				
	1 Strongly disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วยอย่าง ยิ่ง	2 Disagree ไม่เห็น ด้วย	3 Neutral ไม่มี ความ คิดเห็น	4 Agree เห็น ด้วย	5 Strongly agree เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
4.1 My customers are satisfied with operation hours during Covid-19. ลูกค้าของฉันพอใจกับช่วงเวลาในการทำการในช่วงโควิด-19					
4.2 My customers are satisfied with staff availability during Covid-19. ลูกค้าของฉันพอใจกับการทำงานของพนักงานในช่วงโควิด-19					
4.3 My customers are satisfied with lead time during Covid-19. ลูกค้าของฉันพอใจกับระยะเวลาการออกสินค้า/บริการในช่วงโควิด-19					
4.4 Overall, my customers are happy with the service provided during Covid-19. ในภาพรวมลูกค้าของฉันมีความสุขกับการบริการที่ได้รับในช่วงโควิด-19					