Leadership Styles of Restaurant Managers

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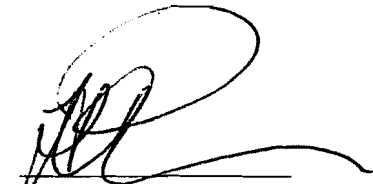
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ABSTRACT

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Abstract

This study focuses on the transformational leadership style and what style men and women restaurant managers use.

The factors in the study are sub-groups of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. Each of the seven factors is designated to a particular leadership style mentioned above.

Studying the different leadership approaches used by men and women in restaurant management is critical for many reasons. First, unfortunately in today's workplace, gender discrimination is still common. Most of the time, these discriminatory practices and beliefs are unconsciously used. When these practices and beliefs are

uncovered and recognized, great improvements in our organizations and society can occur (Northouse, 2004). Second, discriminatory behavior and attitudes can restrict the contributions of individuals. This can greatly reduce an organization's ability to fully use their human resources. Third, findings on men/women's leadership can help an organization better understand how to attract and retain a diverse workforce. And last, these findings can inform men/women of how to develop as leaders.

The sample used for this research was restaurant managers in Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN, was selected using a cluster sample of convenience. Data was collected through a 21 item questionnaire administered managers in each restaurant. The questionnaire measured leadership style based on seven factors previously identified. Data was then analyzed using SPSS software. In order to address the research question, cross tabulations, frequency percents, chi-squared analyses, and a t-test for equality of means were done.

The statistically significant findings showed that women ranked high on 3 factors: idealized influence (transformational leadership), contingent reward (transactional leadership), and management-by-exception (transactional leadership). There were no statistically significant findings for men in the sample.

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I would like to thank my research committee for all of their support, patience, encouragement, and knowledge. They have provided me with valuable insight and knowledge that is imperative to my research process. A special thank you is owed to Dr. Amy Gillett, who spent extra time helping to design my questionnaire and also with the data analysis process. As well as Chris Ness for her additional help with the data analysis.

Thank you to all of my former colleagues from the restaurant industry in Minneapolis/St. Paul, who provided me with the data needed for this research. Their help with participating in this project was critical. Thank you for your help and encouragement to follow my new career goals.

A special thank you to my parents, sister, husband, and family members whose encouragement and inspiration was valuable in completing this research and other personal accomplishments. Along with your love and encouragement, you have installed a strong work ethic and confidence that was needed to get me to where I am today. Thank you. Hosanna.

Corina Joy Mack

December 2004

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this research paper in honor of my soul mate, Ryan Mack.
Thank you for supporting me in quitting my job and returning to graduate school. I could
have not done it without such a supporting and loving partner as you. I am truly blessed
to have such a wonderful life partner.

Corina Mack

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Chapter One

Introduction

One of the greatest changes in the history of the workforce is the increase of

women in leadership positions (Jackson, 2004). Women are entering industries that were

once male dominated in ever greater numbers. With this shift, women are bringing a new

form of leadership that can be characterized by such words as charismatic, caring, and

employee empowerment. Along with these great strides of achievement for women have

also come some costs, such as stereotyping, lack of resources, and exclusion from

executive positions or decision making. It will be challenging and rewarding for

organizations to learn how to best utilize the talents of their increasing female workforce.

The hospitality industry, which has been challenged with high amounts of

turnover among managers, could greatly benefit from learning how to attract and retain

women managers. The food service industry in 1999 employed 2,663,418 males. Out of

this number, 775,849 (29%) were in manager or supervisory positions. The number of

females employed was even greater with 3,588,200 employed, however the number of

females who were in management or supervisory positions was fewer, with 696,011

(19%) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Why do females, who make up a greater portion of the workforce population,

hold fewer management positions and earn less? Brownell (1994) reported that in the

hospitality industry, women earned on average $6,400 less than males who were similarly

employed.

This study will discuss the different obstacles that women leaders face compared

to their male co-workers. These obstacles may have impacts on what type of leadership

style a woman uses. Finally through a survey, this study will document the different types of leadership used by male and female managers in the restaurant industry. These findings will be useful for organizations to better understand the differences of their workforce.

<div align="center">Statement of the problem</div>

The purpose of this study is to compare the different approaches to leadership used by male and female restaurant managers. Data was collected through a questionnaire during October and November 2004, in restaurants in Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN.

<div align="center">Significance of the problem</div>

Studying the different leadership approaches used by men and women in restaurant management is critical for many reasons. First, unfortunately in today's workplace, gender is used when making many critical decisions. Most of the time, these discriminatory practices and beliefs are unconscious. When these practices and beliefs are uncovered and recognized, great improvement in our organizations and society can occur (Northouse, 2004). Second, discriminatory behavior and attitudes can be restrictive to the contributions of individuals. Instead of contributing their unique talents, they may be bound to talents of their gender roles. This can greatly reduce an organizations' capacity to fully use its human resources. Third, findings on men and women's leadership can help an organization better understand how to attract and retain a diverse workforce. And last, these findings can inform men and women of how they need to develop as leaders.

<div align="center">Research question</div>

This research addresses this research question:

- Do male and female restaurant managers differ in their behavior and effectiveness in restaurants?

Definition of Terms

Autocratic leadership - This style of leadership places heavy emphasis on task and job requirements and less emphasis on people, is results driven, and people or followers are regarded as tools to get the job done (Northouse, 2004).

Charismatic leadership - This type of leader is dominant in nature, influences others, is self-confident, and has a strong sense of his/her own morals (Northouse, 2004).

Chef - A chef of the restaurant is typically in charge of all kitchen related operations. These operations include: food design and preparation, menu design, food costing and ordering, equipment maintenance, hiring and firing of kitchen employees, and quality control. Sometimes the chef may also act as the general manager or even the owner as well.

Chi-squared (χ^2) – Chi-squared is used to compare the observed frequencies (what one observed) with expected frequencies (what one expected to see). Chi-squared is the most commonly used non-parametric test. There are several chi-squared tests of significance (personal communication, February 2004, Dr. Amy Gillett).

General Manager - A general manager of a restaurant oversees the entire operation of the restaurant. Their duties are to manage both employees and management. Additional duties may include: marketing, financial planning, forecasting market needs, hiring, firing and menu planning (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

Homophily - Refers to the act of preferring to work with people who are similar demographically.

Meta-Analysis - Consists of a set of statistical procedures for analyzing all studies that include similar variables (such as gender) to determine the overall result.

Restaurant- "A place where meals are served to the public" (The American Heritage College Dictionary, 1993, p. 1163).

Restaurant Manager(s) - Managers of a restaurant oversee or supervise employees in the restaurant. They perform more basic functions that are crucial to the restaurant, such as scheduling of employees, on floor duties, basic system checks, guest interaction, and everyday motivation of employees (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000).

T-test- Is a very robust (meaning it can produce usable results in situations where there is limited data) test that compares the means.

Transactional Leadership - "Focuses on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers. This type of leader does not individualize the needs of followers or focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with followers to advance their own as well as their follower's agenda" (Northouse, 2004, p. 170).

Transformational Leadership – "Is a process that changes and transforms individuals. This type of leadership is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards and long term goals, and includes assessing follower's motive, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. This process usually incorporates visionary and charismatic leadership" (Northouse, 2004, p. 169).

Sous-chef -The sous chef is an assistant to the chef. Their duties are defined by the chef. Often times the sous-chef position is training to become a chef.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Introduction

In order to better understand the leadership styles used by women and men, it is

critical to first understand the different challenges women and men face in the work

force. These challenges, direct or indirect, impact what type of leader one may become.

This chapter will include a discussion of what leadership is and the different forms it is

found in, followed by how gender affects leadership and the stereotypes associated with

gender. In addition, it will address the different challenges women and men leaders face

in organizations. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of where we go from here,

managing diversity and managing gender inclusive organizations.

Leadership and Management

Leadership and management are processes that are alike in several ways. Both

require working with people, but in different ways. Leadership is concerned with meeting

goals, which management requires as well. Leadership and management are two very

different ways of running a successful organization and they both need each other to

succeed. The challenge here is how to combine these two characteristics so that they

work together in an effort of bringing a sense of balance to the organization.

Management's practices and procedures were first developed due to the birth of

large corporations in the 20th century (Northouse, 2004). Management was used to

control chaos and allow organizations to run more efficiently. "The classic business

school definition of management was planning, organizing, directing and controlling. The

distinctions between management and leadership were blurred, and they were used

interchangeably" (McFarland, Senn, & Childress, 1993, p. 461). This definition of management is still accurate of management practices used currently in many organizations. Good management is about controlling, where leadership "is about coping with change" (Kotter, 1990, p. 115).

Leadership can be characterized by words such as: courage, love, hope, compassion, listening, cooperation, and service. These words reflect the shift of today's work place culture towards empowerment and bringing the best potential out in people.

Leadership is important today because of the way the world is changing. For far too long we have lived in a global culture that was authoritarian and hierarchical. A culture obsessed with exercising control over nature, other people, and our emotions. Today's culture of leadership is a more comfortable, spontaneous process, more accepting of what looks like chaos; a culture where control is something that emerges, not something that is imposed. (Slater, 2001, p. 112)

Many managers are asked not only to manage their organizations, but to lead their organizations.

So what is leadership? Leadership is a process of influencing others and creating visions for change (Northouse, 2004). Leadership involves skills and abilities that are useful whether one is an executive or a front line worker (Kouznes & Posher, 2001). Leadership brings both the leader and the follower to a higher ground through change. The employee interaction between leader and follower is very different than manager and employee. "Managers push and direct. Leaders pull and expect. Leaders are exhilarated by identifying and enhancing their people's strengths" (Batten, p. 2, 1989).

In order to illustrate the differences between manager and leader characteristics,

Cooper (2003, p. 31) listed the different characteristics of leaders and managers

Manager Characteristics   Leader Characteristics

Manager Characteristics	Leader Characteristics
Administers	Innovates
A copy	An original
Maintains	Develops
Focuses on systems	Focuses on people
Relies on control	Inspires trust
Short-range view	Long-range perspectives
Asks how and when	Asks what and why
Eye on the bottom line	Eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Accepts the status quo	Challenges the status quo
Classic good soldier	Own person
Does Things Right	Does the right thing

When comparing the two columns above, it shows how management and

leadership are very different, but can be complementary to each other when used

properly. There are many different forms of leadership; each type creates different

results.

Leadership styles

Leadership appears in many different forms in organizations, sports, and even in

our personal lives. The type of style used may depend on the leader and the follower and

the climate they are in. Other factors such as age, gender, environment, and personality

can also affect the type of leadership used. There are many different dimensions to

leadership. However, for this study transformational leadership will be the main style

studied. The transformational approach to leadership has been the focus of much

research, and has grown in popularity over the past few years (Northouse, 2004).

"As the name implies, transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals" (Northouse, 2004, p. 169). The main concerns of this type of leadership include: "emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long term goals, and includes assessing the followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings" (Northouse, 2004, p. 169). This type of leadership can take on many different forms of leadership, such as visionary or charismatic.

The opposite of this type of leadership would be transactional leadership. This type of leadership is similar in nature, but here the exchange between leader and follower is different. "Transactional leaders exchange things of value with followers to advance their own as well as their follower's agenda" (Northouse, 2004, p. 170).

Transformational leaders use many different ways to motivate their followers to do more than what is expected of them. Northouse (2004, p. 173) included these uses of motivation:

a.) raising followers' levels of consciousness above the importance and value of specified and idealized goals. b.) getting followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team or organization. c.) moving followers to address the higher-level needs.

In order to understand these different dimensions of leadership better, Northouse (2004) broke leadership down in to seven different factors. These factors are sub-groups of different styles used by transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leaders. Factors 1-4 are characteristics of a transformational leader. Factors 5-6 are characteristics of a transactional leader, and finally factor 7 is characteristic of a laissez-faire non-leader. They are as follows:

Factor 1-idealized influence - Factor one is also known as charisma. This type of leader is one who acts as a strong role model for his/her followers. The followers in this relationship identify with the leader and deeply respect him/her. These leaders also have very high morals and ethics, and want to do the right thing. They provide a vision or mission for their followers. Nelson Mandela is an example of this type of leader.

Factor 2-inspirational motivation - This type of leader is one who communicates high expectations to followers through inspiration and motivation. These leaders build a sense of team. They encourage their followers through symbols and emotional appeals to achieve more than they would in their own self-interest. A sales manager who gives inspirational pep talks would be a good example of this type of leader.

Factor 3-intellectual stimulation - This type of leadership encourages the followers to be creative and original in their problem solving process. The leader also challenges the followers to think outside the box by challenging their own belief systems. An example of this type of leader is, a manager who encourages workers to create new ways to do business. Herb Keller of Southwest Airlines is a good example of this type of leader.

Factor 4-individualized consideration - This type of leader treats each of their followers in a unique and special way. This leader creates a supportive climate for followers through coaching and listening. These leaders help each follower achieve their highest potential possible.

Factor 5-contingent reward - This is the first of the two types of transactional leadership. In this relationship, the leader and the follower exchange items of value for

effort by the followers. An example of this is a student professor relationship. When the student works hard during the semester in order to receive a good grade.

Factor 6 - management-by-exception - In this relationship the leader uses more negative reinforcement than positive. This leader uses corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement as tools. This type of leadership can take on two different forms: active and passive. An active management by exception leader watches the followers closely for mistakes or violations and then takes corrective action. An example of this type of leader is one who observes and takes notes on their employees' work habits and quickly intervenes when they see a problem occur. A passive leader intervenes after the problem has occurred. A passive leader will not act on a problem until a complaint from a customer occurs.

Factor 7 - laissez-faire - There is no leadership present in this factor. The French term "laissez-faire" means hands off-let things ride. This type of leader doesn't want to make decisions, gives no feedback to employees/followers and makes little to no effort to help followers develop.

Transformational leadership is a wide ranging approach to leadership. Overall, it describes how leaders can create and develop change in organizations. The main goal of a transformational leader is to nurture and empower their employees. They tend to use themselves as strong role models during the change process. And finally, they create a common vision to be shared between leaders and followers. Women tend to be highly capable of many of these mentioned traits. However, rarely is gender mentioned in transformational leadership (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Gender and Leadership

Does gender affect what type of leader one becomes? Are males or females better leaders than the other? These questions have been pondered by researchers for years. A handful of these studies have compared gender and transactional, transformational leadership. From these studies are many different answers and perspectives. Furthermore, with these studies there are many different theories that may help to explain the differences in gender and leadership roles. In addition to this, these theories will help to explain how we, as a society, affect gender and leadership roles.

The first theory of discussion is the Social Role Theory. Consistent with this theory, "women typically possess very different roles than men, roles that tend to demand different behavior. Women and men seek to adjust sex-typical roles by acquiring the skills and resources linked to the role and the requirements of this role" (Carli & Eagly, 1998, p. 207). Examples of adjustments are women being taught domestic roles such as cooking and cleaning and men are taught skills that are marketable such as finance and critical thinking. This helps to explain why women are typically the caregivers to their children while men are the bread winners. Because of this, men are typically more likely to be involved in an organization and have more opportunity to lead. In agreement with this theory, "greater power and status tends to be associated with many especially male dominated roles" (Carli & Eagly, 1998, p. 207). This theory really helps to understand the challenges women may face when wanting to lead in many organizations.

Another theory is the Status Characteristics Theory. According to this theory "members of task-orientated groups form expectations of how others members will perform. These expectations can be based on specific information about individuals' past

performance or from status characteristics, such as sex, race, education..." (Carli & Eagly, 1998, p. 204). According to this theory, male leaders are favored more highly because in our culture, more respect, honor, and importance are attached to men than women. This type of thinking may have huge impacts on how a leader leads, but also what opportunities a leader is given to lead. In relation to this theory, individuals who have high status receive more opportunities to make contributions to the group, receive higher evaluations, and exert greater influence over the group's thoughts and behaviors. Because of these opportunities, it increases their chance of emerging as a group leader. In comparison, those who do not hold the same status usually find that their contributions or ideas are rejected or ignored; this causes their status to drop further. This theory helps us to understand why sometimes men are favored naturally over women in organizations and why women aren't always given the same opportunity to lead. Unfortunately, in this type of environment, women may tend to not share their ideas after some time due to feeling ignored or rejected. Here the organization really misses out on leadership that could be provided by females. This theory and others like it really help us to understand our own perceptions and expectations that influence gender and leadership.

These theories help to explain the connection between transformational leadership and gender. As mentioned earlier, transformational leaders nurture and empower their employees/followers. Because of this, there is some evidence that women make better transformational leaders (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Nevertheless, research that examines gender and transformational leadership specifically is scarce. Some studies have compared transactional and transformational leadership with male and female leaders. Certain studies have found that, "male leaders are more likely to be

perceived by their followers as transformational" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 309). Other studies have shown that transformational leadership is consistent with female leaders' style. Averaging over all the studies, "men and women tended to be rated as equally effective on both subjective and objective matters. However, men were rated slightly better than women on measuring their ability to lead. Interestingly, women leaders obtain higher satisfactions scores than men leaders" (Cleveland , Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 310).

Society has many different perceptions of how a male or a female leader should act and lead. These perceptions again control how the leader acts and what opportunities the leader is given to lead. For example, according to both social role theory and status characteristic theory, "competent and confident behavior is less acceptable in women than in men" (Carli & Eagly, 1998, p. 209). Does this mean that society feels women are less competent than men? It does mean that people consider men and women to have different qualities. Men typically are thought of as being more assertive, independent, daring, and competitive. Women are thought of as being more kind, soft, supportive, tactful, and affectionate. Because of these different factors women and men leaders tend to develop different leadership styles. These styles are sometimes congruent with how society expects them to act. However, sometimes these styles differ. When they do differ, the leader often meets with obstacles and resistance from his/her followers. For example, when a woman leader tends to lead in an autocratic style, which is typically a male style, she tends to have resistance from the followers, especially when the followers are women.

So who is a better leader, male or female? That question is not so easy to answer. It depends on the scenario and the followers. However, it does appear that women leaders have much more of a challenge in becoming a leader than men do.

Women in Leadership

What are the benefits of having a female leader in an organization? Northouse (2004) noted that in one meta-analysis of middle to executive leaders, women outperformed men in 28 of the 31 areas. These areas included: conflict resolution, work quality, adaptation to change, productivity, idea generation, and motivation. Women also tended to have higher social skills than most men did, which is a much needed quality for a leader. Other meta-analysis studies have shown that "women's effectiveness increased as they moved up the hierarchy and as cooperation rather than control was required" (Northouse, 2004, p. 272). This type of cooperative leadership seems to be a great fit for the requirements needed for the 21st century global leader. So why are there so few women in executive ranks in organizations?

There are many reasons for these "glass-ceiling" barriers, along with many reasons of how and why they have come to exist. These barriers have hindered organizations' capacity to make full use out of their human resources. Examining the additional hurdles a women leader faces is crucial to better understanding the female leader.

Karsten (1994) argued three different theories for the "glass-ceiling" barrier present in many organizations. The first theory is the "pipeline theory". This theory argues that it takes 20 to 25 years for anyone to become a CEO. This theory has no data to support it and is easily proven wrong. In "1970, 99% of corporate leaders were male

and 95% were male in 1995, at this pace it would take 300 years for U.S. women to achieve equality in business, and 500 years for women to reach U.S. Congress" (Northouse, 2004, p. 274). Obviously this theory is incorrect because today we have many talented women in high ranking management positions as well as holding seats in Congress. On the other hand, there have been many women in the pipeline for 30 plus years. Why aren't there more in executive positions?

The second theory is a form of discrimination. Here male bosses withhold guidance, feedback, and encouragement from women that is critical for career success. This type of treatment may not be intentional, but more because of male executives' lack of comfort working with women as their peers. Oftentimes male executives relate to women as wives, mothers, or daughters and not as business partners. Because of this the male executives may find that they have difficulty communicating, challenging, and evaluating their female subordinates. Because of this awkwardness or homophily, men may choose to promote those who they feel more comfortable with or those who will best fit in demographically with the original group. Homophily may seem comfortable for those included, however it can also confine creative thinking and balanced decision making amongst the group (Northouse, 2004).

The last theory identified by Karsten is structural or systemic barriers. These are obstacles inborn in organizations that make it difficult for women to adopt all the "right" behaviors needed to advance above a certain level. These barriers could be a need for mentoring or developmental opportunities, challenging assignments, personal support, unequal pay, equal access to tools needed, or females feeling they have to walk a thin line

between masculinity and femininity. These barriers are oftentimes subtle and hard to identify.

Finally, other barriers that may contribute to the "glass-ceiling effect" include cultural stressors and tokenism. Cultural stressors for women may include the act of balancing family needs and obligations with career needs and obligations. Many times women executives cut their careers short so that they can spend more time with their children and spouses. Corporate cultures in the past have not been welcoming of the dual-roles that women play. Women are often left feeling like they must choose between the two. Oftentimes women pick the need or desire for family over their career. Modern organizations could gain from being more supportive and understanding of their female leaders' dual lifestyles.

Tokenism refers to excess visibility and other problems minorities experience when there is a numeric imbalance between them and the majority. Here the minority person is expected to perform better than anyone else, and is expected to fulfill the stereotypical roles that are associated with that status. The unrealistic expectations and visibility of this token create conditions for failure (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). This affects not only the token, but also those with in the organization that admire the token. For example, if a woman in a lower ranking position sees her female leader fail she may feel that there is little hope for her success.

There are resources that help women break through the "glass-ceiling." Mentoring is a resource used by women to help them advance in the corporate hierarchy. This process has become a vital resource for many leaders in organizations and is not always equally available for men and women.

Mentoring

A mentor is a senior or well experienced member of an organization who helps or assists lower or less experienced members with their career growth (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). A mentor really plays two roles: to provide career support and psychosocial support. The mentor may provide career support by coaching, challenging assignments and networks that help the protégée gain positions with high visibility in the organization. Psychosocial support is also provided by a mentor. This includes: friendship and support, enhancing the self-esteem of the protégée, and providing positive feedback. These functions may vary from relationship to relationship, and also may change as time progresses in the relationship (Ragins, 1995).

The types of mentoring relationships that are available for men and women and what the mentor is willing to contribute in these relationships are often very different. These differences impact the career advancement of women and men.

The number one barrier that women in food service feel keeps them from advancing is the lack of mentoring received (Catalyst, 2000). Women in all types of organizations benefit from mentoring because it provides them with support and cooperation from their co-workers. Mentors can also help females overcome barriers within their organization by sharing information on politics and job openings or changes. This type of relationship is critical for the advancement of women in the work place (Ragins, 1995). Also, research has shown that women who have a mentor benefit from having higher self esteem, less stress, and greater job satisfaction compared to those who do not have a mentor (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

There are several reasons for why women have a harder time finding mentors. These reasons are practices such as tokenism, stereotyping, gossip or sexual innuendos, and overall lack of women mentors.

As mentioned earlier, tokens have a lot of pressure on them to succeed in their position. If they do fail, it can be detrimental to others in the organization. Because of this, mentors may be hesitant to invest their energy and time on a protégée whom has token status in an organization.

Due to the lack of women in executive jobs, there are fewer female mentors available to mentor their female protégées. Therefore, if a woman finds a mentor, it will probably be a man, resulting in cross-gender mentoring. This can be problematic because it may be easier for the protégée to identify with a mentor who is of the same sex. Also, oftentimes a mentor will have a very close relationship with their protégée. When this takes place, a false perception of sexual attraction between the two occurs amongst other co-workers. This can create many difficulties in the mentor relationship such as less contact, fewer interactions, and awkwardness between the two (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000; Karsten, 1994).

Finally, a common stereotype is that women do not want to advance in their career paths. Those mentors who believe these stereotypes may not want to invest their time and resources on a female protégée (Cleveland , Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Stereotypes

Women and men are different in many ways. Some of these ways are biologically determined, others are determined by society. These societal differences are called roles and can be classified as feminine and masculine. Many times these roles are greatly

exaggerated, leading to the formation of stereotypes. These stereotypes affect our attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. Those attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, in turn, shape our lives and affect the roles in which we adopt (Harriman, 1996). When studying the differences between female and male leaders, it is critical to learn more about gender stereotypes and how these stereotypes influence careers of both women and men.

A stereotype is "the set of traits or characteristics that are attributed to all individuals who occupy a particular role" (Harriman, 1996, p. 70). Stereotypes carry messages about how people are supposed to act and also what is "considered appropriate for ourselves as well as others" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 42). Through stereotyping we tend to categorize people into groups such as race, age, and gender. When shared beliefs or characteristics of men and women influence our perceptions of women and men, we call this gender stereotyping.

Gender stereotyping has resulted in traits associated with women and men. For men these traits include rational, realistic, tough, aggressive, and dominant. For women these traits include affectionate, attractive, flirtatious, warm, and emotional (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). These gender stereotypes have great influences on how men and women behave in the work place. Because women's gender role is to be passive, while men's is to be dominant, it can inhibit women's contributions to the work place in two ways. One, these roles discourage women from participating, allowing men to be dominant. Two, women often feel ignored because men and women are taught to do so through stereotypes. Contradictive to these gender stereotypes, it is even more common for men and women to possess a mixture of these traits, which is called androgynous. These traits can be hindering for one who does not fit neatly into these gender

stereotypes. Gender stereotypes can also have a great effect on how individuals are promoted, reviewed, hired, and interviewed.

Research has been done on gender discrimination during the interview process over the past 25 years. However, this research has produced mixed results of findings. Because of this, it is difficult to say how often gender bias occurs during the interview and promotion process. Still research does show that gender does prove to be an important factor in the interview process. It appears that an applicant whose traits match that of their gender tends to be favored by recruiters or interviewers (Graves, 1993). While other research has shown that men are more likely to be hired than women because "In general, women are perceived as less competent and subsequently are less likely to be promoted or are promoted at a slower rate than men with the same qualifications" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 57). Affirmative action and other legal issues have aided in ending the use of gender stereotypes during the interviewing and promotion process. Gender stereotypes can also lead to jobs being gender-typed. This means that the job's characteristics are considered to be "man's/woman's work." Gender-typing jobs can also create bias behavior in performance evaluations.

The number of women managers has greatly increased over the years since the 1970's. However, women are still greatly underrepresented in top management positions. There is evidence that a reason for this misrepresentation could be the result of biased performance evaluation processes (Bartol, 1990). Due to the practice of gender typing, women and men's work characteristics are regularly evaluated differently. This could be because the rater has different expectations of how women or men should perform and credits their successes for different reasons (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Research has shown that when a man succeeds in his career it is thought to be because of his ability, when he fails it is accounted due to bad luck or difficultness of the assignment. When a woman succeeds it is attributed to good luck or hard work, when she fails it is attributed to lack of abilities (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Because of these gender stereotypes or beliefs, the evaluator may have different rewards for the performance of men and women. This may result in men being promoted quicker than women and also the pay inequities that women experience compared to their male co-workers.

Stereotypes impact how men and women behave and even talk. Our own perceptions of how a woman or a man should talk affect how we communicate and how we are perceived.

Communication Style

Communication is an important role to leadership. Gender roles play a significant role in how women and men communicate, and how they are perceived based on the communication used.

Gender roles have influences on how women or men should sound, when they speak, and also what words they choose to use. Because of this one could say that there really are two different forms of language, one for men and one for women. Language research has shown different characteristics associated with men's and women's speech (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Men's speech pattern characteristics include; "more joking, hostile verbs, more interpretation in cross-sex conversations, greater amount of talking, and lower pitch than females" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 96). Traits that are more often

associated with females include "correct forms of speech, wider range in rates and pitch, polite and cheerful, the use of expressive intensifiers, and the use of questions to express opinions" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 96).

Tag-lines or tag-questions are an example of how women use questions to express their opinions. An example of this is, if a woman is asked what time they would like to meet, she may reply "around six o'clock?" instead of "we will meet at six o'clock." Women and men both use tag-lines or tag-questions in their speech patterns. However, men tend to use them more forcefully, where as women use them as a form of politeness, to avoid forcing an opinion (Harriman, 1996). The impression gained here is that women seem to be indecisive or unsure. The intention of politeness can make the woman seem powerless. The words used by females and males also can have an impact on how they are perceived.

Words seem to have different meanings when used by each sex. These meanings are created by gender roles and stereotypes in our society. Because of these gender types it is argued that "women and men use language differently. Men speak in forceful ways that are considered to be unfeminine for women. Women use words, phrases, or intonations that would be considered effeminate for males to use" (Harriman, 1996, p. 117). Women use adjectives that show feeling or color such as: lovely, charming, or divine. Women also use intensive adverbs such as: so, such, terribly, or awfully. Because of this, men's speech tends to have greater impact, be heard more and gain more reinforcement. Perhaps this is why women tend to fall silent in more conversations than do men (Harriman, 1996). When women fall silent, men tend to cut in and continue the conversation. This supports the stereotype that women's conversations tend to be more

"trivial, unimportant, and ineffective, friendly, gibberish, or gentle" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 96). Because of these elements, women's conversations tend to be more expressive or rational (Harriman, 1996). Conversely, men's conversations tend to be more "loud, forceful, dominating, and with short replies" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 96). Again, these conversations tend to be more goal-orientated or perceived as instrumental (Harriman, 1996). These differences tend to impact what roles women and men play in the work force.

In the work force, men's conversations tend to be "dominant, quick to challenge, ignore comments form others, controlling and directing the conversations" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 98). In contrast, women tend "to be better for affective communication due to their concern for the listener, attentiveness, and good grammar" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 98). It is helpful in understanding these differences and the roles that are associated with them, when discussing leadership used by females and males in the work place. Women and men may be classified as a certain type of leader due to how they communicate with their followers.

Managing Diversity

The workforce in the United States has dramatically changed over recent years. It has shifted from a workforce that was dominated by white males to a workforce made up of women, minorities, disabled, and immigrants. As a result of this, "organizations must develop methods of dealing with both the problems and the opportunities posed by a diverse workforce" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 359). Organizations will need to change their practices and cultures in order to fit the needs, interests, and values of their diverse workforce.

Managing diversity can be driven by a number of motives such as: legal issues, affirmative action, concern over limited opportunities, or a need for a diverse workforce. Managing diversity can be challenging, but also has many opportunities for an organization. Organizations that do nothing to comply with managing diversity "may have difficulty in staffing and may experience increasing amounts of inter-group conflicts" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 359). On the other hand, "research suggests that companies can create or maintain their competitive advantage by harnessing a multi-cultural workforce" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 360). Other benefits of a multi-cultural workforce include: reduced turnover, greater creativity and problem solving, and improved marketing to new employees. These benefits are valuable not only to the employer, but also the employee.

There are a few theories and philosophies that will help us to understand managing diversity better. The first philosophy is by Cox (1991), who developed a model that categorized six criteria for evaluating the extent of how organizations value and accommodate diversity. They are as follows (Cox, cited in Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 361):

1. Structural integration - representation of minorities (women, and men of other racially diverse backgrounds) at all levels in the organization.

2. Informal integration - inclusion in social networks in the organization.

3. Removal of cultural bias - lack of prejudice and discrimination.

4. Organizational identification - extent of which there are gender and racial or ethnic differences in commitment and attachment to the organization.

5. Reduction of interpersonal conflict - Lack of group-based tension and interpersonal friction.

6. Degree of acculturation - extent to which cultural differences are resolved and dealt with.

Some organizations may have higher levels in some areas and lower levels present in others. However, very few organizations meet all of the six criteria; these are simply suggestions for achieving a truly multi-cultural organization. Even though the above literature suggested positive aspects of multi-cultural organizations, there are disadvantages as well.

In particular, when there are diverse groups working together they "are more prone to conflict, stereotyping, and bias than homogenous groups" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 365). Researchers have studied relationships and conflicts in groups for many years. Due to this, two theories have been created, realistic conflict theory and social identity theory; these theories have significance to managing diversity.

First Realistic conflict theory (RCT) suggests that when there are multiple, distinct groups in an organization, conflict is likely to occur. This conclusion is based on the assumptions that people will try to maximize their own outcomes and the outcomes of people similar to them, and that the interests of different groups are not always compatible (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 366).

Therefore, RCT suggests that the creation of stereotypes and prejudices within the work place is completely normal. To decrease the chances of these behaviors, it is important to create a team environment. In this team environment, members will come

together to work towards a common goal, giving them a sense of unity and discarding their differences. Belonging to a group or a team is very important for most individuals.

The next theory, social identity theory describes the importance of belonging to a group. This theory states that "individuals seek to belong to groups that develop or enhance a positive self identity and that self-identity is naturally enhanced when one's in-group is positively distinguished form others" (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000, p. 366). Therefore it may be useful for organizations to create team identities around job relevant responsibilities versus individual identities (such as race or gender).

Both theories involve creating a team environment. Conflict that may be caused due to stereotypes and differences can be reduced by re-shifting the focus. It may make the emergence of diversity easier when groups are united in a common cause. Understanding diversity will help create a work environment where gender of a person is irrelevant to key decision making such as hiring, promotions, and job assignments.

Gender Inclusive Organizations

Structural integration is the removal of barriers so women are represented in many different levels throughout an organization. Just hiring equal numbers of men and women is not the solution. Instead, organizations must change their culture, climate, and procedures in order to attract and retain women employees. A truly gender inclusive organization will have representation of both men and women throughout their organization. Those organizations that do not have women advancing may have created barriers, intentionally or not, towards creating a gender inclusive organization (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Some tools that may be used to increase structural integration are discussed next.

Affirmative action is a set of anti-discriminatory laws which help to reduce the chances of discrimination on the bias of gender, race, or religion. These laws are helpful in the hiring, firing, and promotion process to make sure that every person is given an equal chance regardless of their cultural make up. Many modern organizations have an affirmative action manager who makes sure all practices follow these set of laws. However, the decision making process may take longer than not following these laws. Nevertheless, it may be critical to practice affirmative action in order to attract and retain employees from underrepresented groups.

Through affirmative action practices, it is possible for more diversity in executive positions. Diversity at the top is critical for a gender inclusive organization. Women's presence in key decision making bodies helps to give diverse perspectives. Also, it is encouraging for other women who aspire to reach the top to see another woman at the top. These women can also help others below them achieve career success through mentoring.

As mentioned earlier, mentoring is very important for the building of social networks or informal integration. People who have this type of support are more likely to be aligned with their organization's needs, mission, and values. This will also result in greater job satisfaction and faster promotion rates of women in organizations (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000).

Creating pluralism in an organization helps to change the culture so that gender inclusiveness is the norm rather than the exception. When this happens, differences amongst group members are acknowledged and accepted, therefore the organization's

goals and practices are aimed for everyone. In order to achieve this type of an organization, stereotypes of others must be addressed and changed.

Most of the problems with the repression of women in organizations involve stereotypes. These stereotypes can be so deeply ingrained that one may not even realize they possess them. Fortunately, these stereotypes can be changed through honest conversation, self exploration, and debate. When stereotypes are talked about, it helps people become more aware of stereotypes they unconsciously possess. Awareness helps one pay more attention to this and hopefully aid in changing or deleting these stereotypes. Awareness also helps to change our own discourse.

Changing discourse means to change the way we talk about women and men in our organizations. This may mean we reduce the use of sexist language used in our organizations. As mentioned earlier, there are differences in how women and men communicate. Understanding these differences in language helps avoid miscommunication or misinterpretation. Changing discourse creates a more welcoming environment for women, resulting in a more gender inclusive organization. There are more practices an organization can utilize to attract more females, such as the removal of unnecessary stressors.

Stressors such as long hours, travel, or meetings held at awkward times of day can add to the pressure many women have in their dual-role lifestyles. As mentioned earlier, many women feel they must choose between the needs of their families and the needs of their organization. This results in women choosing their family over their career. Eliminating stressors that cause women to feel they must pick one or the other helps keep women active and happy in organizations. This will also be vital to building a more

gender inclusive organization. All of these tools will help to change the climate and culture of an organization.

Changing the climate and culture of an organization is the final tool needed to build a gender inclusive organization. Most cultures in organizations were defined by the males who dominated the executive positions, resulting in a culture built on the male's needs and wants. Therefore, it is much easier for a male to fit into these cultures. These cultures and climates must also to reflect the needs and wants of the women and minorities working in them in order to have an inclusive organization.

Conclusion

Many factors related to gender can define the leadership style used. Research on gender and leadership are important for several reasons. First, understanding the type of leadership we use and why we use it, helps us better understand who we are as leaders. Second, understanding the leadership styles helps us to identify what strengths and weaknesses we possess as leaders. And last, through discussion about gender stereotypes and leadership is we as a society create real change to break through these false perceptions.

Chapter Three

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter will discuss subject selection, and describe of the instrument, how

the data was collected, data analysis, and finally the limitations of this study.

Subject Selection and Description

The subjects used for this study were selected by a cluster sample of convenience.

The 26 restaurants selected for this study were familiar to the researcher through previous

work experience or convenient location. The styles of these restaurants varied from fine

dining to casual dining restaurants.

Instrumentation

The instrument used was found in Northouse's (2004) *Leadership; Theory and*

practice (third edition). The questionnaire is called the *Multifactor Leadership*

Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avoilo, 1992) adapted with permission by Northouse

(2004). The instrument is made up of 21 questions. These questions measured the

respondent's leadership levels on seven factors related to transformational leadership.

The score for each factor was determined by summing three specific items on the

questionnaire.

The researcher added a section on demographics. There were 8 categories in the

demographics section. They were: gender, age, marital status, number of children, highest

level of education, years in position, type of restaurant, and title of position.

The physical questionnaire was printed on an 11 x 17 piece of paper and folded in

half. This created a 4 page instrument. The first page was the cover letter and consent

form, the second page was demographics, the third page had the questionnaire and the fourth page had the researcher's address and postage. (A copy of the finalized instrument is located in Appendix A). Once the participant was finished taking the survey, they simply folded the instrument in half, stapled, and dropped in the mailbox at their convenience.

Data Collection

Data was collected by the researcher personally distributing the questionnaires along with personal cover letter/directions to the general manager of each restaurant (see Appendix B and C). The general manger then distributed the questionnaire to the management team (including themselves) either at a manager meeting or in their mailboxes. The restaurant managers then filled out the questionnaire at their own convenience folded it in half, stapled it, and dropped it in the mailbox. This allowed the questionnaire to be completely anonymously.

The first batch of questionnaires (110) was distributed to seventeen restaurants on October 24, 2004. Responses were received as early as the following day. Reminder/Thank you post cards (see appendix D) were sent to the General Manager of those restaurants on October 30, 2004. Responses continued to arrive 2-7 questionnaires daily until November 10, 2004.Then there were no responses coming in, so the decision was made from the researcher and the thesis committee to distribute more questionnaires in hope of a better response. On November 13, 2004, 45 additional questionnaires were distributed to twelve additional restaurants. These restaurants were selected using a cluster sample and also a random sample. Cluster because all of the restaurants in Southdale shopping center were used, and four other random near by restaurants were

also selected based on the close location to the others. Reminder/Thank you post cards were mailed to those restaurants on November 15, 2004. At that time, the researcher set a cut-off date for November 30, 2004. Two questionnaires were returned before that date. The final count was then 41 returned out of 155 distributed, a response rate of 26 %.

Data Analysis

In order to address the research question, cross tabulations, frequency percents, chi-squared analyses, and a t-test for equality of means were done.

Limitations

The limitations to this study include:

- The researcher distributed all questionnaires directly to the general manager of each restaurant. Therefore, it is unknown if the general manager then passed out the questionnaires to the other managers, or to all of the managers.

- The population of restaurant managers is a very hard group to study. Managers often have complicated work schedules that include so many hours it is hard to get in contact with them or they are too tired by the end of their shift to fill out a questionnaire. They typically do not have their own work space such as their own desk. Therefore, it is very possible that the manager may not have an extra 15 minutes to fill out a questionnaire or they have lost the questionnaire.

- The size of the questionnaire folded in half creates an unusual size for the mail Postage for the questionnaire was $.50 due to its unusual size. It is possible that some questionnaire were lost, torn, destroyed, or damaged in the mail system due to its unusual size.

- The response rate for this study was much lower than anticipated. Ideally, the minimum response rate would have been 30 males and 30 females. The final response rate was26 %, 46.3 % (n=19) males and 53.7 % (n= 22) females.

- Due to the high employee turnover and sometimes low employee commitment that can be apparent in the hospitality industry, transactional leadership may be often times the common practice. Because in this type of relationship, managers are rewarding positive employee performance with a reward.

Chapter Four

Results

Introduction

This chapter will address the data analysis of the returned questionnaires. The chapter will include a discussion on demographics, item analysis, followed by the research question for this study.

Demographics

There were 155 questionnaires sent to 26 different restaurants in Minneapolis/St. Paul, MN. Forty-one were returned, for a return rate of twenty-six percent. All returned questionnaires were usable. Of the sample identified 46.3% (n=19) males and 53.7% (n=22) females who participated in this study.

- The most common age of the respondents was 25 to 34 (34.1 %; n=14). Followed by 35 to 44 (29.3 %; n=12). The other age categories were 45-54 (22 %; n=9), 55 or older (2.4 %; n=1), and 25 and younger (12.2 %; n=5).

- There were 56.1 % (n=23) who were married out of the sample 43.9 % (n=18) who were single.

- The number of children that the respondents had was (41.5%; n=17) had none, (14.6 %; n=6) had one, (29.3 %; n=12) had two, (7.3 %; n=3) had three, and (7.3 %; n=3) had more than three children.

- Highest education attained by the respondents was as follows: 24.4 % (n=10) had their high school or GED, 24.4 % (n=10) had a technical school degree, and 51.2 % (n=21) had a bachelor's degree.

- Years in position for the respondents were: less than a year 12.2 % (n=5), one to three years 24.4 % (n=10), Four to six years 24.4 % (n=10), seven to nine years 12.2 % (n=5), ten to twelve years 12.2 % (n=5), and thirteen or more years 14.6 % (n=6).

- The type of restaurant included casual dining 63.4 % (n=26), fine dining 34.1 % (n=14), and family dining 2.4 % (n=1).

- The title of the respondent's position included: general manager 24.4 % (n=10), assistant general manager 7.3 % (n=3), manager 46.3 % (n=19), chef 7.3 % (n=3), sous chef had 4.9 % (n=2), and other 9.8 % (n=4). The other category included; supervisor, party coordinator, and sales and marketing.

Item analysis

Frequencies and percentages were calculated for all twenty-one items. As well as a t-test to compare the different responses that both males and females gave. The item numbers are labeled MLQ 1-21. See graphs 1-4 for this information.
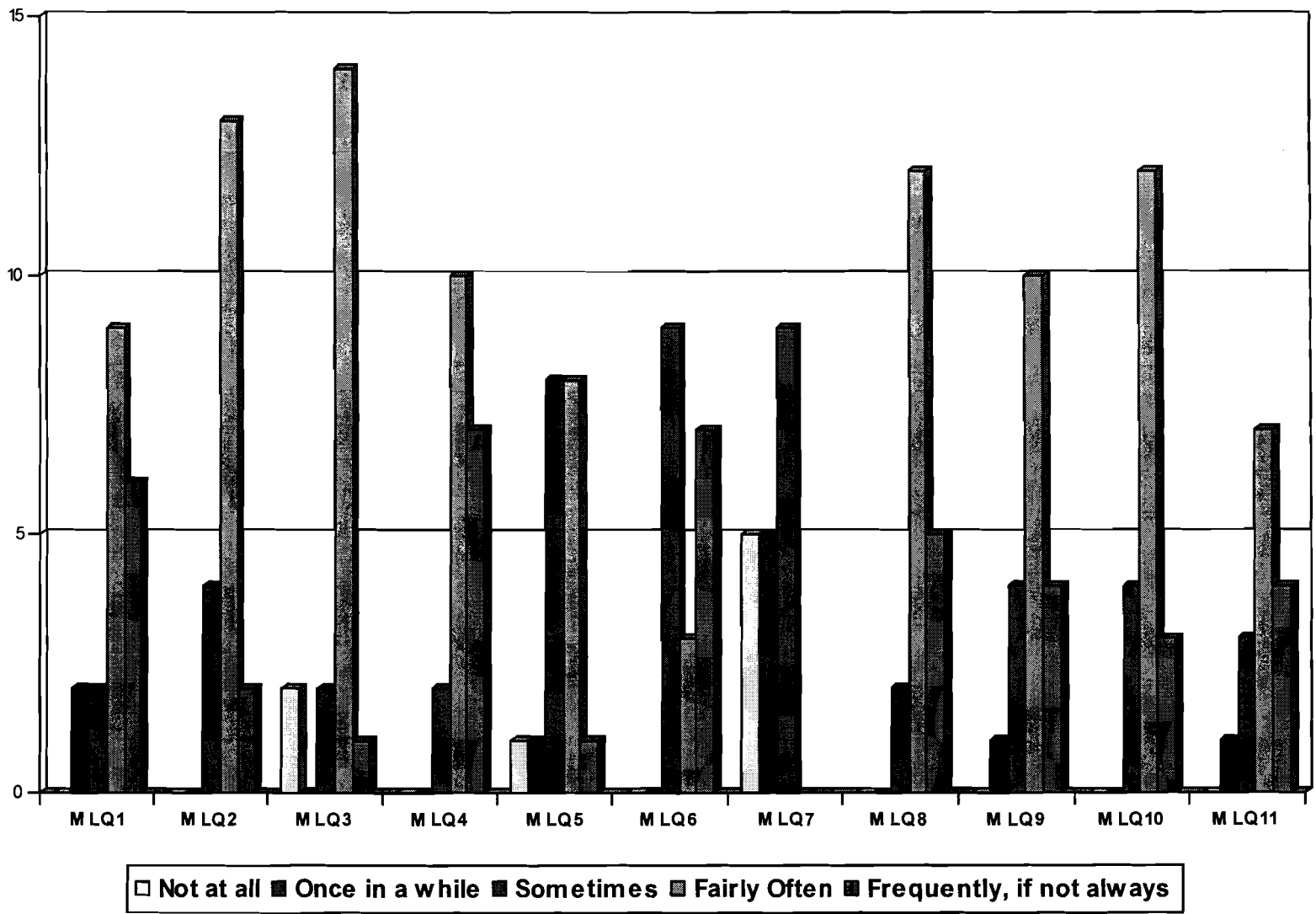
Graph 1-Males, answers to MLQ1-11

Graph showing bar chart with y-axis from 0 to 15, x-axis categories M LQ1 through M LQ11.

Legend: ☐ Not at all ■ Once in a while ■ Sometimes ▒ Fairly Often ■ Frequently, if not always

Graph 2-Males, answers to MLQ12-21 37

Graph 2-Males, answers to MLQ12-21

□ Not at all ■ Once in a while ■ Sometimes ■ Fairly Often ■ Frequently, if not always

Graph 3-Females, answers to MLQ1-11   38

Graph 3-Females, answers to MLQ1-11

Legend: Not at all ☐ Once in a while ■ Sometimes ▨ Fairly Often ■ Frequently, if not always ■

Categories: MLQ1, MLQ2, MLQ3, MLQ4, MLQ5, MLQ6, MLQ7, MLQ8, MLQ9, MLQ10, MLQ11

Y-axis: 0, 5, 10, 15, 20

Graph 4-Females, answers to MLQ12-21 39

Graph 4-Females, answers to MLQ12-21

□ Not at all ■ Once in a while ■ Sometimes ▦ Fairly Often ▦ Frequently, if not always

Item # 1 - I make others feel good to be around me. The responses varied from

once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always. The most common

response was *fairly often,* which constituted 43.9 % (n=18). *Frequently if not always* was

second with 41.5 % (n=17).

Item # 2 - I express with a few simple words what we could and should do. The

responses included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always.* The most

common response was *fairly often,* which constituted 61 % (n=25). *Sometimes* was

second with 22 % (n=9).

Item # 3 - I enable others to think about old problems in new ways. The responses

included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not al*ways.

The most common response was *fairly often,* which constituted 56.1 % (n=23).

Sometimes was second with 24.4 % (n=10).

Item # 4 - I help others develop themselves. The responses included: *sometimes,*

fairly often, and frequently if not always. The most common answer was *fairly often,*

which constituted (56.1 %; n=23*). Frequently if not always* was second with 24.4 %

(n=10).

Item #5 - I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work. The

responses included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if*

not always. Fairly often was the most common response, which constituted 53.7 %

(n=22). *Sometimes* was second 22 % (n=9).

Item #6 - I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards. The responses

included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always.* The most common answer

was *frequently if not always*, which constituted 63.4 % (n=26). *Sometimes* was second with 24.4 % (n=10).

Item #7 - I am content to let others continue to working in the same ways always. The responses included: *not at all, once in a while, and sometimes*. The most common answer was *sometimes*, which constituted 46.3 % (n=19). *Once in a while* was second with 31.7 % (n=13).

Item #8 - Others have complete faith in me. The responses included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common answer was *fairly often*, which constituted (61 %; n=25). *Frequently if not always* was second with 24.4 % (n=10).

Item #9 - I provide appealing images of what we can do. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common answer was *fairly often*, which constituted 53.7 % (n=22). *Sometimes* was second with 24.4 % (n=10).

Item # 10 - I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common answer was *fairly often*, which constituted 53.7 % (n=22). Second was *sometimes* with 26.8 % (n=11).

Item #11 - I let others know how I think they are doing. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 46.3 % (n=19). *Frequently if not always* was second with 41.5 % (n=17).

Item #12 - I provide recognition or rewards when others reach their goals. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common answer was *frequently if not a*lways, which constituted 43.9 % (n=18). *Fairly often* was second 36.6 % (n=15).

Item #13 - As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything. The responses included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *sometimes*, which constituted 46.3 % (n=19). *Fairly often* was second with 22 % (n=9).

Item #14 - Whatever others want to do is ok with me. The responses included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, and fairly often*. The most common response was *once in a while*, which constituted 48.8 % (n=20). *Sometimes* was second with 31.7 % (n=13).

Item #15 - Others are proud to be associated with me. The responses included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 73.2 % (n=30). *Frequently if not always* was second 14.6 % (n=6).

Item #16 - I help others find meaning in their work. The responses included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 46.3 % (n=19). *Sometimes* was second with 31.7 % (n=13).

Item #17 - I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before. The responses included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common answer was *sometimes*, which constituted 43.9 % (n=18). *Fairly often* was second 41.5 % (n=17).

Item #18 - I give personal attention to others who seem rejected. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 41.5 % (n=17). *Frequently if not always* was second 36.6 % (n=15).

Item #19 - I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish. The responses included: *once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 43.9 % (n=18). *Sometimes* was second 36.6 % (n=15).

Item #20 - I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work. The responses included: *sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *fairly often*, which constituted 61 % (n=25). *Frequently if not always* was second 31.7 % (n=13)

Item #21 - I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential. The responses included: *not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently if not always*. The most common response was *once in a while*, which constituted 36.6 % (n=15). *Sometimes* was second 26.8 % (n=11).

Research Question

Research question #1 - Do male and female restaurant managers differ in their behavior and effectiveness in restaurants?

Cross tabulations, Chi-squared analysis, and a t-test for equality of means were run to address this question. On factor #1, idealized influence, as stated earlier, idealized influence deals with "whether you hold subordinates' trust, maintain their faith and respect, show dedication to them, appeal to their hopes and dreams, and act as their role

model" (Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 1, 8, and 15 from the questionnaire were added together. These findings showed that 12 (29 %) of the respondents scored at the moderate level. At the moderate level, there were more males (n=4) represented at this level than females (n=2). The rest of the respondents, 29 (70.7 %) scored at a high level. At the high level, there were more females (n=20) represented than males (n=15). This shows that overall females scored higher than males on this factor. When Chi-squared analysis was further analyzed using Lambda, there were statistically significant differences by gender found for this factor (χ^2= 44.88; p = .000), on idealized influence, females scored higher than males.

On factor # 2, inspirational motivation, as stated earlier, inspirational motivation "measures the degree to which you provide a vision, use appropriate symbols and images to help others focus on their work, and try to make others feel their work is significant" (Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 2, 9, and 16 from the questionnaire were added together. These finding showed that 16 (39 %) of the respondents scored at the moderate level. At the moderate level, males (n=9) were more represented than females (n=7). The rest of the respondents, 25 (61 %) scored at a high level. At the high level, females (n=15) were more represented than males (n=10). This shows that overall females scored higher than males on this factor. The Chi-squared analysis indicated a statistically significant difference by gender for this factor (χ^2= 18.56; p = .002), therefore there were no statistically significant differences found between male and female restaurant managers on the inspirational motivation factor.

On factor # 3, intellectual stimulation, as stated earlier, this factor "shows the degree to which you encourage others to be creative in looking at old problems in new

ways, create an environment that is tolerant of seemingly extreme positions, and nurture

people to question their own values and beliefs and those of the organization."

(Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 3, 10,

and 17 from the questionnaire were added together. These findings showed that 4 (9 %)

of the respondents scored at a low level. At the low level, females and males (n=2)

equally comprised this category. At the moderate level, 18 (44 %) of the respondents

scored moderate. Females (n=11) were more represented at this level than males (n=7).

The rest of the respondents, 19 (46 %) scored at a high level. Males (n=10) were more

represented at this level than females (n=9). This shows that overall males scored higher

than females on this factor. The Chi-squared analysis indicated a statistically significant

difference by gender for this factor (χ^2= 18.51; p = .010), therefore no statistically

significant differences were found between male and female restaurant managers on the

intellectual stimulation factor,

On factor #4, individual consideration, as stated earlier, individual consideration

"indicates the degree to which you show interest in others' well-being, assign projects

individually, and pay attention to those who seem less involved in the group" (Northouse,

2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 4, 11, and 18 from

the questionnaire were added together. These findings show that 9 (22 %) of the

respondents scored at a moderate level. Females (n=5) were more represented at this level

than males (n=4). The rest of the respondents, 32 (78 %) scored at a high level. Females

(n=17) were more represented at this level than males (n=15). This shows that females

overall scored higher than males on this factor. The Chi-squared analysis indicated a

statistically significant difference by gender for this factor (χ^2= 21.66; p = .001), therefore

there were no statistically significant differences found between male and female restaurant managers on the individual consideration factor.

On factor #5, contingent reward, as stated earlier, contingent reward "shows the degree to which you tell others what to do in order to be rewarded, emphasize what you expect from them, and recognize their accomplishments" (Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 5, 12, and 19 from the questionnaire were added together. These findings showed that 1 (2 %) of the respondents scored at a low level. This level was comprised of a male. At the moderate level, 15 (37 %) scored moderate. Males (n=12) were more represented at this level than females (n=3). The rest of the respondents, 25 (61 %) scored at a high level. Females (n=19) scored much higher than males (n=6) in this category. This shows that females scored higher than males on this factor. When Chi-squared analysis was further analyzed using Lambda, there were statistically significant differences by gender found (χ^2= 18.54; p = .045) on contingent reward factor; females were higher on this factor than males.

On factor # 6, management by exception, as stated earlier, management by exception "assesses whether you tell others the job requirements, are content with performance standards, and are a believer in "if it ain't broke don't fix it" (Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 6, 13, and 20 from the questionnaire were added together. These findings show that 16 (39 %) of the respondents scored at a moderate level. Males (n=10) were more represented at this level than females (n=6). The rest of the respondents, 25 (61 %) scored at a high level. Females (n=16) were much more represented at this level than males (n=9). This shows that females scored higher than males on this factor. When Chi-squared analysis was further

analyzed using Lambda, there were statistically significant differences found (χ^2= 17.68; p = .003) on management by exception factor; females were higher on this factor than males.

On factor #7, laissez-faire, as stated earlier, laissez-faire "measures whether you require little of others, are content to let things ride, and let others do their own thing" (Northouse, 2004, p. 197). In order to find the level of this factor, item numbers 7, 14, and 21 from the questionnaire were added together. These findings show that 28 (68 %) of the respondents scored at a low level. Females (n=16) were more represented at this level than males (n=12). The rest of the respondents, 13 (32 %) scored at a moderate level. Males (n=7) were more represented at this level than females (n=6). This Means that males scored higher than females on this factor. The Chi-squared analysis did not indicate a statistically significant difference by gender for this factor (χ^2= 11.49; p = .119), therefore no differences were found between male and female restaurant managers on the laissez-faire factor.

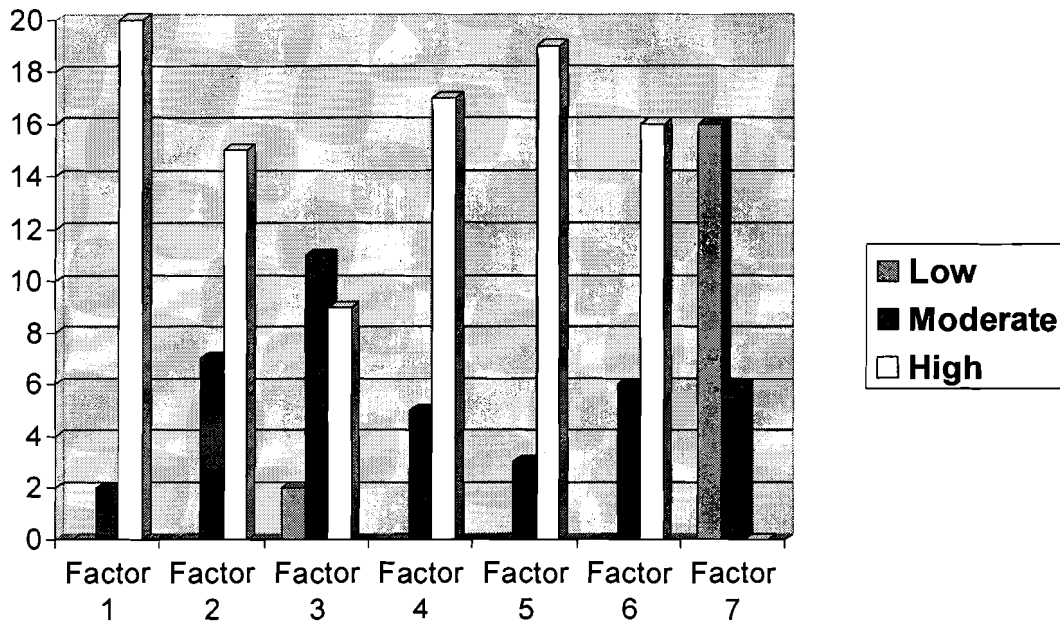The following charts illustrate how the two genders scored on the seven factors.

Graph 5

Male: Factor Scores

Legend:
- Low
- Moderate
- High
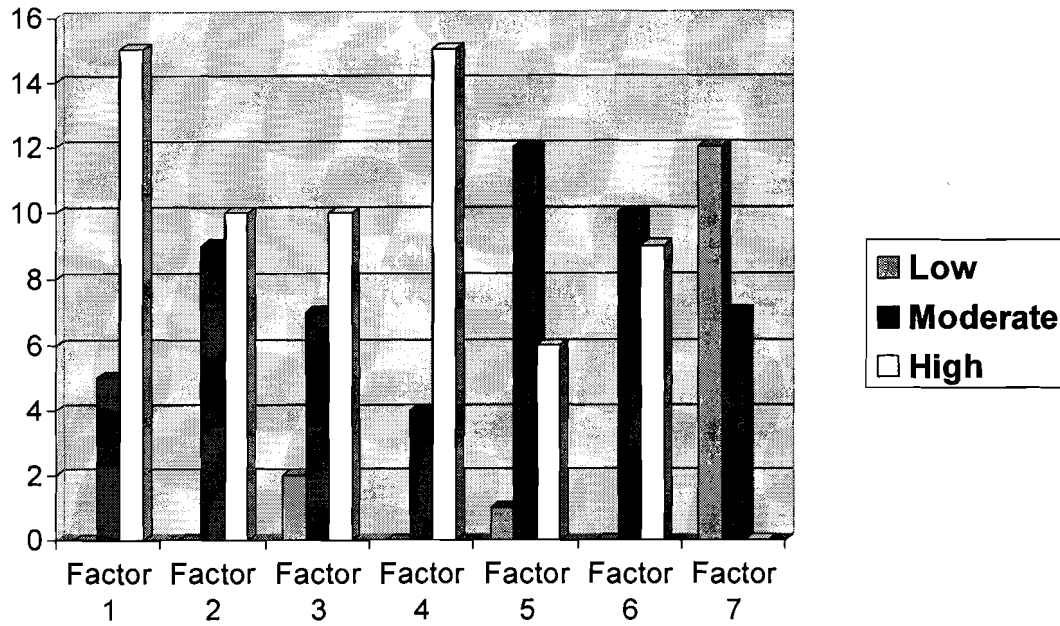
Graph 6

Female: Factor Scores

Legend:
- Low
- Moderate
- High

Conclusion

In summary, the most common demographics for the respondents are ages 25-34, married with no children, bachelor's degree as the highest education attained, they have been working at the current position for 1-6 years as manager, and currently working at a casual dining restaurant.

The leadership factors were measured by the responses to particular item numbers added together. Factors 1-4 measure transformational leadership. Factors 5-6 measure transactional leadership and finally, factor 7 measures the lack of any leadership.

Even though there was no statistically significant data found for factors 2-4, transformational leadership, women did score higher than men on 3 of the 4 factors. Factor 1, idealized influence, did prove to have statistically significant data.

There was statistically significant data found for transactional leadership, factors 5-6. The data showed that women restaurant managers scored high on theses factors. And finally there was no statistically significant data found for the last factor, laissez-faire. However, males did score higher on this category than females.

Chapter Five

Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion on the findings of the research as well as a comparison and contrast of the findings and the literature discussed in chapter two. Next, there will be conclusions from the results of the research. Finally, recommendations by the researcher for future studies on gender and leadership with restaurant managers are discussed.

Discussion

The findings of this research concur with much of the previous research and literature discussed in chapter two. The results of this research show that female restaurant managers scored high in three of the four factors that comprise the transformational leadership section (factors one through four) one of these four showing a statistically significant difference. Cleveland, Stockdale, and Murphy (2000) stated that transformational leaders nurture and empower their followers. Transformational leaders tend to use themselves as strong role models during the change process. And finally, they create a common vision to be shared between leaders and followers. Women tend to be highly capable of many of these mentioned traits. Women tend to be transformational leaders. This also agrees with Northouse (2004), who stated that women tend to be good leaders because of their skills of motivation and higher social skills. Female restaurant managers scored high on factors one, two, and four. These factors require the leader to create high motivation for their followers and also require them to build trust and caring through talking and listening.

In addition, Northouse (2004) also stated that females tend to be better at problem solving and idea generation. Factor three, intellectual stimulation, requires the leader to create new ways of thinking and nurture followers to challenge/question their own beliefs and values. The results of this research show that females scored moderately on this factor, while males scored highly.

Further examination of factor 1, idealized influence, supports the research on transformational leadership and women. For factor number one, idealized influence was found by summing the scores on items 1, 8, and 15 on the MLQ questionnaire. The questions that were asked on these items were: *I make others feel good to be around me* (1), *others have complete faith in me* (8), and *others are proud to be associated with me* (15). Referring back to the data on graphs 1-4, show that women scored consistently higher than men on items 1, 8, and 15; especially item 1, where women scored much higher in the *frequently, if not always* category. All of these items refer to personality characteristics of a good transformational leader. Transformational leaders attract their followers by having a positive caring attitude which makes their followers feel good about themselves as well. Therefore, these research findings are consistent with the literature discussed earlier.

Another interesting finding of this research shows that women scored high on factors five and six, while males scored low to moderate. These factors involve transactional leadership. This is interesting because this research concurred with other findings that women tend to be transformational leaders. As stated earlier in the literature, transactional leadership is quite different from that of transformational leadership.

Factor 5, contingent reward, was proven to have statistical significance. This factor was determined by summing the scores of items 5, 12, and 19. The questions asked for these items included: *I tell others what to do if want reward for work* (5), *I provide recognition or rewards when others reach their goals*(12), and *I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish* (19). Referring back to charts 1-4, the differences between how men and women answered these questions is clearly illustrated in women responding in high numbers for both *fairly often* and *frequently, if not always.* Men had a lot more *sometimes* and *once in a while* responses to these questions. Even though these items scored transactional leadership, they all had in common goal or mission . A transformational leader, as discussed earlier, sets clear goals or missions or their followers. The difference here is that the leader is exchanging items of value, such as the reward, for accomplishments or meeting the goals or missions.

Factor 6, management by exception, was also proven to have statistical significance. This factor was determined by summing items 6, 13, and 20 from the MLQ questionnaire. The questions asked for these items included: *I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards* (6), *As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything* (13), and *I tell others the standards they need to carry out their work* (20). Referring back to charts 1-4, on item number 6 women scored much higher in the *frequently, if not always* category then men did (women n=19, men n=7). Item number 6's high women score is a large reason of why women scored high on this factor. This item is very similar to the items for the previous factor, number 5. Again, women are providing a common vision or goals for their followers and rewarding the followers with recognition upon completion of the goal or mission.

The responses to item number 13, *As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything,* are interesting responses because this has a lot to do with how women and men communicate and contribute in their organizations. Women scored higher than males in the *sometimes* and *fairly often* category than men did. This finding supports the previously discussed literature on how gender stereotypes affect how men and women communicate at work. These gender stereotypes have great influences on how men and women behave in the work place, because women's gender role is to be passive, while men's is to be dominant. It can inhibit women's contributions to the work place in two ways. One, these roles discourage women from participating, allowing men to be dominant. Two, women often feel ignored because men and women are taught to do so through stereotypes (Cleveland, Stockdale, & Murphy, 2000). Perhaps, the women who answered *sometimes* and *fairly often* to item 13 have been hindered in their contributions because of stereotypes similar to this. Therefore, the female has become passive due to the gender roles defined by these stereotypes.

Status characteristic theory, discussed earlier, could be another reason for the high female response to item 13. This theory forms expectations that are linked to sex, education, and race. According to this theory men are more expected to lead because they are more prominent in their behavior. This causes females to feel that their contributions are not as important or won't be heard due to the differences in their communication style.

These findings have great impacts for organizations. Often times, a female may have critical ideas to share but doesn't. It is the duty of the organization to make sure that

stereotypes do not exist so that both genders feel comfortable sharing their ideas. This will help organizations utilize their human resources to its fullest potential.

Conclusions/Summary

In conclusion, the research findings show that overall there are few statistically significant differences between leadership of restaurant managers based on gender. However, the data does show that men and women restaurant managers rank differently on the seven factors of leadership.

Women scored high on three of the four different factors of transformational leadership, one of those factors having statistically significant data. Males scored high on one of the four factors of transformational leadership. Females also scored high, while males scored moderately, on the 2 factors of transactional leadership. And finally, females scored low on the laissez-faire approach to non-leadership and males scored moderately on this factor. There were no high scores for the final leadership factor of laissez-faire.

Recommendations for hospitality professionals

It is critical that hospitality professionals learn more about their personal leadership style:

- This knowledge can help a professional better understand what strengths or weaknesses they possess as a leader or follower.

- It would contribute an understanding to how they interact with their followers/employees.

- It may inform the professional of what skills they may need or want to improve upon as a leader.

Therefore, this researcher believes leadership and the various styles should be incorporated into more hospitality training material. Restaurant managers should have an opportunity to take a personality test; the information gained from this will help restaurant managers better understand how they lead.

Recommendations for Future Research

The researcher recommends the following for future research:

- A limitation of this study is the return rate of the questionnaire. Therefore, a larger population would be beneficial for this type of research. A researcher could obtain a restaurant directory from either (or both) from a chamber of commerce or a restaurant association. This would provide the researcher with a larger sample.

- In order to increase the return rate, the future researcher should personally give each restaurant manager the questionnaire. This would insure that each manager received the questionnaire and also understands what this questionnaire will be used for.

- The questionnaire used for this study combined a consent letter, purpose of study, and directions for the questionnaire all on the first page. This may have been intimidating for the participant to read, resulting in a lower response rate. For future research, the researcher suggests simplifying the first page in order to increase the response rate.

- The size of the questionnaire used was an unusual size. Perhaps it would be beneficial for future research to change the size of the questionnaire to a smaller size so that it is of standard mail size.

- It would be useful for the research to measure how elements such as mentoring and stereotypes mold a leader. Also, it would be interesting to see how these leaders were evaluated by their followers.

- For more advanced studies on leadership and restaurant managers, it may be interesting to study how different types of leadership affect operational elements of a restaurant such as turnover, productivity, or revenue.

Conclusion

There is much to be learned about gender differences and its effect on leadership. One common theme apparent in the three factors that had statistically significant data is that women leaders tend to set high goals/vision or mission for their followers. Attention is also drawn to items of value are exchanged for meeting the goals/vision or mission.

Also, this research suggests that factors such as gender roles contributed to how leaders communicate and contribute their ideas or feelings to an organization. These findings are very important to organizations because it helps the organization better understand how to utilize their human resources, and what obstacles their members face in leadership.

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Appendix A: Leadership Styles of Restaurant Managers

Leadership Styles of Restaurant Managers

Section 1: Demographics

1. **Gender**

    ___ male   ___ female

2. **Age**

    ___ under 25   ___ 35 to 44   ___ 55 or older
    ___ 25 to 34   ___ 45 to 54

3. **Marital status**

    ___ single   ___ married

4. **Number of children**

    ___ none   ___ 2   ___ more than 3
    ___ 1   ___ 3

5. **Highest level of education attained**

    ___ high school or GED   ___ BA/BS degree
    ___ technical school   ___ master's degree

6. **Years in position**

    ___ less than a year   ___ 7 to 9
    ___ 1 to 3   ___ 10 to 12
    ___ 4 to 6   ___ 13 or more

7. **Type of restaurant**

    ___ fast food   ___ fine dining
    ___ casual dining   ___ family dining

8. **Title of your position**

    ___general manager   ___manager   ___sous chef
    ___assistant general manager ___chef   ___other: please specify_____

Section 2: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J., 1992, adapted with permission by Northouse, P.G., 2004)

0 = not at all   **2 = sometimes**   **4 = frequently, if not always**
1 = once in a while   **3 = fairly often**

1. I make others feel good to be around me.	0	1	2	3	4
2. I express with a few simple words what we could and should do.	0	1	2	3	4
3. I enable others to think about old problems in new ways.	0	1	2	3	4
4. I help others develop themselves.	0	1	2	3	4
5. I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	0	1	2	3	4
6. I am satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards.	0	1	2	3	4
7. I am content to let others continue working in the same ways always.	0	1	2	3	4
8. Others have complete faith in me.	0	1	2	3	4
9. I provide appealing images of what we can do.	0	1	2	3	4
10. I provide others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	0	1	2	3	4
11. I let others know how I think they are doing.	0	1	2	3	4
12. I provide recognition or rewards when others reach their goals.	0	1	2	3	4
13. As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	0	1	2	3	4
14. Whatever others want to do is OK with me.	0	1	2	3	4
15. Others are proud to be associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
16. I help others find meaning in their work.	0	1	2	3	4
17. I get others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.	0	1	2	3	4
18. I give personal attention to others who seem rejected.	0	1	2	3	4
19. I call attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.	0	1	2	3	4
20. I tell others the standards they have to know to carry out their work.	0	1	2	3	4
21. I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix B: Letter of Instruction

Date

Dear General Manager (inserted General Managers name),

Hello, my name is Corina Mack. I am currently working on my Master degree at UW-Stout in Hospitality and Tourism; I am currently working on completing my thesis. The focus of my research is to document the different leadership styles used by male and female restaurant managers. I am gathering information through the attached questionnaire.

I was hoping that you would be able to assist me with my research by distributing this questionnaire to your management team (including yourself) either at a manager meeting or in their mailboxes. Once the manager has voluntary completed the survey they can fold it in half, staple it, and drop in a mailbox at their convenience (I have attached the correct postage already).

Your immediate help in this procedure is greatly appreciated and critical to the success of my research. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Thank you,

Corina Mack
Graduate Student-UW-Stout
mackc@uwstout.edu
612-825-6736

Appendix C: Cover Letter

Consent Form for Participation in the Study

Title: Leadership Styles of Restaurant Managers

Investigator: Corina Mack   **Research Chair:** Dr. Lynnette Brouwer   , chair
                      612-825-6736   715-232-2541

The purpose of this study is to compare the different approaches to leadership used be male and female restaurant managers. Studying the different leadership approaches used by men and women in restaurant management is critical for many reasons. First, unfortunately in today's workplace, gender is used to make many critical decisions. Most of the time, these discriminatory practices and beliefs are unconsciously used. When these practices and beliefs are uncovered and recognized, great improvements in our organizations and society can occur (Northouse, 2004). Second, discriminatory behavior and attitudes can be restrictive to the contributions of individuals. Instead of contributing their unique talents, they may be restricted to their gender roles. This can greatly reduce an organization's ability to fully use their human resources. Third, findings on men/women's leadership can help an organization better understand how to attract and retain a diverse workforce. And last, these findings can inform men/women of what they need to develop as leaders.

Participation in this study will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Because the questionnaire is being given to your supervisor, I will have no knowledge of who you are or whether you have completed the questionnaire. Your supervisor is being asked to simply provide it to you and then you are to voluntarily complete it, fold it in half, staple it, and drop it in a mailbox at your convenience. It will be mailed directly to me, with no expectation of a return address from you. Postage has been affixed to the back of the questionnaire for your convenience.

There are minimal risks in your participation. Your participation is strictly voluntary. Your supervisor is only to distribute the questionnaire. In no way is your future employment dependent on your participation. Your participation will provide valuable information that could help restaurant managers better meet the needs of their employees, clientele, and ultimately the success of the restaurant.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate without any adverse consequences to you. However, should you choose to participate and later wish to withdraw from the study, there is no way to identify your anonymous document after it has been turned into the investigator.

This study has been reviewed and approved by The University of Wisconsin-Stout's Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has determined that this study meets the ethical obligations required by federal law and University policies. If you have questions or concerns regarding this study, please contact the Investigator or Chair. If you have any questions, concerns, or reports regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the IRB Administrator.

Investigator: Corina Mack   **IRB Administrator:**   Sue Foxwell
                   612-825-6736   152 Voc. Rehab. Bldg
                                                                             UW-Stout
Research Chair: Dr. Lynnette Brouwer, chair   Menomonie, WI 54751
                     715-232-2541   715-232-2477
                                                                            foxwells@uwstout.edu
Statement of Consent:

By completing and returning the following survey, you are agreeing to participate in this study of leadership of restaurant managers.

Appendix D: Thank you/ Reminder Card

Back of Post card:

From the desk of Corina Mack

Your participation makes a difference.

Thank You

mackc@uwstout.edu

On the other side of the post card, the researcher hand wrote a thank you/reminder note for participating in the study. Also the card was addressed to the General Manager (by name) and had the restaurants address on this side as well.